

THE USE OF DEVELOPMENTAL ADVISING MODELS  
BY PROFESSIONAL ACADEMIC ADVISORS

by

MELISSA L. DALLER

Thesis submitted to the Faculty of the  
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
MASTER OF ARTS IN EDUCATION

in

Student Personnel Services and Counseling

Approved:

---

Elizabeth G. Creamer, Chairperson

---

Don G. Creamer

---

Delores W. Scott

May, 1997  
Blacksburg, Virginia

Key words: Academic Advising, Developmental, Prescriptive, Styles, Behaviors

# THE USE OF DEVELOPMENTAL ADVISING MODELS BY PROFESSIONAL ACADEMIC ADVISORS

by  
Melissa L. Daller

Committee Chair: Elizabeth G. Creamer  
Student Personnel Services and Counseling

## (ABSTRACT)

Academic advising has undergone tremendous changes since its origin in higher education. The notion of faculty performing clerical tasks in order to aid students strictly in academics has been challenged. Today, academic advising is considered one of the best vehicles for promoting intellectual, personal, and social development of students. It is a service that links students' academic and personal worlds and, hence promotes holistic development. However, little is known about professional advisors, specifically to what extent professional advisors use an approach to advising that can be characterized as developmental. The purpose of this study was to observe and identify the behaviors that occur during academic advising sessions between professional academic advisors and students, and compare these behaviors to the models and definitions of developmental advising proposed in the literature.

Qualitative research methods, including observations and interviews, were employed. Ten advisors were observed in 35 actual advising sessions in an effort to identify advising behaviors, which were later used to develop and define advising styles. In addition, each advisor was interviewed about his or her philosophy of advising.

Results of the study found that the developmental-prescriptive continuum does not accurately reflect actual advising practice. Most advisor's style reflected a mix of developmental and prescriptive behaviors. However, the characteristics of advising proposed in the literature (e.g., content, personalization, and decision-making) were useful in identifying and defining new advising styles. Another important finding dealt with personalization. While most advisors stated students are different and have different needs, and some advisors were observed to personalize the advising session, none of the advisors were observed to alter their style in accordance with students' differences. This suggests there may be a difference between personalization and individualization of advising.

Recommendations for practice include assessment of advisors behaviors and philosophies in addition to student perceptions. Also, there is a need to develop new models of advising. The data from this study recommend the development of an advising model that considers the importance of the advisor-advisee relationship that is dynamic and that reflects stages or phases of advising instead of distinct advising styles. The information gathered from this study lends itself to further

research about the advising styles used with specialized student populations, suggesting the need for individualization as well as personalization of advising.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

While the binding of this thesis may read, by Melissa L. Daller, there are several other people that have made the completion of this research a reality. First, I would like to thank my committee members for their time and commitment to seeing this project through to the end. I would especially like to thank my advisors, Joan Hirt, Don Creamer, and Elizabeth Creamer. Your patience, support, and advice have been unyielding. And it is your commitment to learning, education, and your students that inspires me and reminds me why I entered the student affairs profession.

To the one time strangers I entered this program with two years ago, it is a satisfying feeling to know that I will have all of you as colleagues as well as friends. All of you have enhanced this program with your special ideals and experiences.

To my family, who had the strength and wisdom to let me find my own way. Your unwavering love and faith for each other, and in me and my abilities, is my foundation.

To Michael, who had more confidence and faith in my abilities than I often did. Your love and patience has guided me through the happiest and more enduring times. I truly couldn't have done it without you.

“..if one advances confidently in the direction of her dreams, and endeavors to live the life which she has imagined, she will meet with a success unexpected in her common hour”

-Henry David Thoreau

## Table of Contents

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
Chapter	
1.    INTRODUCTION	1
Definitions	4
Purpose	4
Research Questions	5
Significance of the Study	5
Limitations	5
Organization of the Study	6
2.    REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	7
Historical Evolution of Academic Advising	7
Definitions and Criticisms	9
Models and Documents of Academic Advising	10
Advising Special Populations	22
Perceptions and Evaluations of Academic Advising	25
Summary	27
3.    METHODOLOGY	29
Sample Selection	29
Procedures	31
Instruments	33
Data Analysis Techniques	36
Authenticity and Trustworthiness	37

	Summary	38
4.	FINDINGS	39
	Description of the Sample	39
	Data Collection Process	39
	Findings	39
	Advising Styles	40
	Counselor	41
	Scheduler	51
	Teacher	53
	Observed Behaviors v. Stated Philosophies	55
	Condition and Circumstances Effecting Advising Sessions	55
	The Developmental-Prescriptive Model	58
	Summary of Findings	64
5.	SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS, CONCLUSIONS	66
	Summary	66
	Summary and Discussion of Results	66
	Caveats	68
	Discussion	69
	Personalization v. Individualization	69
	The Advising Relationship	70
	Implications and Recommendations	70
	Implications for Practice	70
	Recommendations for Research	71
	Conclusions	73
	REFERENCES	74
	APPENDICES	81
	A. Sample of Informed Consent Form	81

B.	Observation Protocol	85
C.	Interview Protocol	88

## List of Tables

	Page
Table 1: Operationalizing Developmental Advising Behaviors	17
Table 2: Operationalizing Prescriptive Advising Behaviors	19
Table 3: Observable Behaviors of Advisor's Style in Relation to the Characteristics of Advising Proposed in the Literature	42
Table 4: Stated Philosophies and Purposes of Advising Styles	47
Table 5: Characteristics of Developmental and Prescriptive Advising Styles as Stated in the Literature	60

## List of Figures

	Page
Figure 1: Competing Interpretations of Advising as Described in the Literature	62
Figure 2: Observable Dimensions of Prescriptive and Developmental Advising Styles	63

CHAPTER ONE  
THE USE OF DEVELOPMENTAL ADVISING MODELS  
BY PROFESSIONAL ACADEMIC ADVISORS

Higher education in America has been closely scrutinized and overtly criticized in recent years by a number of constituencies. State legislatures have called on colleges and universities to eliminate redundancy, streamline administration, and curb spending. Parents question tuition increases that surpass inflation and ask why it now takes five years, on average, to earn a bachelor's degree. Students call for smaller class sizes, better instruction, and greater assistance in obtaining jobs (Kerr, 1994; Pew Higher Education Roundtable, 1994). In short, higher education is under fire.

These concerns have led to the publication of several documents questioning the legitimacy of higher education. For instance, The Pew Higher Education Roundtable (1994) focused on the external pressures and market forces affecting higher education across the United States. Two other examples of public concern about the role of professors were detailed in Scaling the Ivory Tower and Profscam. Scaling the Ivory Tower is about faculty, specifically, and the lack of merit driving the evaluation and advancements of professors (Lewis, 1975). Profscam is an indictment of the professoriate, and contends that “the story of the collapse of American higher education is the story of the rise of the professoriate” (Sykes, 1988, p. 4).

One critical report, The Wingspread Report, advocated a return to the fundamental mission of higher education, instruction. The report proposed returning to three central purposes common to all colleges and universities: taking values seriously, putting student learning first, and creating a nation of learners. These three foci formed the cornerstone that guided many debates and essays about what our society needs from higher education (Wingspread Group on Higher Education, 1993).

The Wingspread Report (The Wingspread Group on Higher Education, 1993) sparked a number of responses. Among them, The Student Learning Imperative: Implications for Student Affairs (SLI) (American College Personnel Association [ACPA], 1994). The SLI was initiated by the 1993 ACPA President, Charles Schroeder, who convened a small group of higher education leaders to examine how student affairs educators could enhance student learning and personal development called for in the Wingspread Report (ACPA, 1994). The group met for three days in Colorado and produced a draft of the SLI that was presented at the 1994 ACPA national convention to spark discussion on “how student affairs professionals can intentionally create the conditions that enhance student learning and personal development” (ACPA, 1994, p. 1). The final version of the SLI incorporates comments, suggestions, and dialogue from the 1994 ACPA convention and other forums.

The SLI argues that the key to enhanced learning and personal development is for faculty and student affairs staff to “create conditions that motivate and inspire students to devote time and energy to educationally purposeful activities, both in and outside the classroom” (ACPA, 1994, p.1). It is a call to reexamine the philosophy that guides student affairs practice, and suggests that an integrated perspective on student learning entails the formation of partnerships between faculty, students and academic administrators, so that the cognitive and affective dimensions of student development become a single, related process (ACPA, 1994; King & Baxter Magolda, 1996).

The notion of educating the whole student is a philosophy that guides many theories of student development. Theories related to the development of students can be organized in various ways. Some theories address students’ psychosocial and cognitive development. Others examine personality typologies, or the interaction between students and their environments. A second group of works are considered focused theories. Focused theories are relatively new, and examine ways to address specific populations of students, such as women, adult learners, and historically underrepresented ethnic groups (Raushi, 1993).

In both approaches, the development of the whole student is typically described in two domains: cognitive development and psychosocial development. Psychosocial theories describe student growth as stages or vectors of development. Students combine their thinking, feeling, and experiences to satisfactorily resolve developmental tasks. Successful resolution of these tasks promotes growth and enables students to move on to more complex tasks (Chickering, 1969; Erikson, 1963; Sanford, 1967).

Cognitive theories focus on how students think, reason, or make meaning of their lives (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberg, & Tarule, 1986; Kohlberg, 1984; Loevinger, 1976; Perry, 1981). Cognitive theories describe how students think and reason within positions or levels. These levels are presumed to be universal and hierarchical (Kohlberg, 1984; Loevinger, 1976; Perry, 1981). Thus, all students progress through the same levels, in the same order, to achieve some optimal level way of reasoning.

Promoting development in the psychosocial and cognitive realms involves providing intentional services and programs for college students. For example, to promote leadership development, colleges offer students many and varied opportunities for involvement in clubs, organizations, and campus governance.

Other services and programs are geared toward holistic development and attempt to promote both cognitive and psychosocial development among students. One such service is academic advising.

Academic advising is one of the best vehicles for promoting the intellectual, personal, and social development of students (Crockett, 1985). It is a systematic process, based on student-advisor relationships, conceived to aid students in achieving academic goals, career goals, and

personal goals (Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1984). As such, academic advising is a service that links students' academic and personal worlds and, hence, promotes holistic development.

The literature reports that academic advising, at one time, was housed in the academic sector in most institutions. Academic advising by faculty was characterized by clerical and mechanical tasks such as filling out class schedules and calculating credits for graduation (Winston, 1989). This notion of academic advising was challenged because of its narrow focus on academics (Crockett & Levitz, 1984).

In 1972, O'Banion suggested that academic advising by faculty may be inappropriate, and argued for a developmental academic advising model. First, he suggested five steps for academic advising that addressed the needs of the whole student. Second, he recommended a counseling-based advising service in which advising was provided by counselors, rather than faculty. When enacted on the community college campus, this counseling model became the vehicle through which many services of the student personnel program became available to the student (e.g., financial aid, placement, and student activities). Since counselors had no instructional or research responsibilities, they were available to students for advising conferences during morning and evening hours, and in the summer--times when faculty frequently were not available (O'Banion, 1972).

While O'Banion was the first to introduce the concept of developmental academic advising, others have expanded on that model. Developmental academic advising is defined as:

...a systematic process based on a close student-advisor relationship intended to aid students in achieving educational, career, and personal goals through the utilization of the full range of institutional and community resources. It both stimulates and supports the students in their quest for an enriched quality of life...Developmental advising relationships focus on identifying and accomplishing life goals, acquiring skills and attitudes that promote intellectual and personal growth, and sharing concerns for each other and for the academic community. (Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1984, p. 18-19)

Since 1972, a number of scholars and professional associations have described characteristics of developmental advising and developmental advisors. These ideals have been defined in at least one instrument, the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI), that measures developmental academic advising behaviors (Winston & Sandor, 1984a).

Since the evolution of the developmental academic advising model, other scholars have studied it from a variety of perspectives. Some research has examined the relationship between developmental academic advising and student retention (Beal & Noel, 1980; Crockett, 1985). Other scholars have explored student and faculty perceptions of the advising process (Eddy & Essarum, 1989), and still others have studied advising for special student populations (Brown & Rivas, 1992; Fielstein, Scoles, & Webb, 1992; Padilla & Pavel, 1994; Price, 1994).

In order to fully evaluate and understand effective developmental advising, it is necessary to examine all classifications of advisors. The behaviors and perceptions of professional academic advisors (PAs) is one perspective on developmental academic advising that has not been extensively examined. While academic advising still belongs in part to the academic sector of the campus, there continues to be a movement towards advising centers staffed by professional advisors (Habley, 1993; Winston, 1989).

In the complex and ever changing academic environment of contemporary higher education, the developmental academic advisor can play a critical role in helping college students meet the challenges and demands of quality education (Raushi, 1993). According to the ACT Fourth National Survey of Academic Advising, the concept of developmental advising was no more widely embraced in 1993 than it was in the 1983 or 1987 surveys (Habley, 1993). Therefore, a better understanding of the uses of developmental advising theory in practice, what academic advisors actually do, and what advisors perceive they do, is essential for determining the effectiveness and practicality of developmental academic advising.

#### Definitions

##### Professional Advisors (PAs)

For the purposes of this study, a PA was an advisor who had earned at least a Masters degree, had some level of college teaching experience, was working within an advising center guided by the philosophy of developmental advising, and who did not have formal responsibilities for instructions or research, other than advising students.

##### University Academic Advising Center (UAAC)

The Virginia Tech University Academic Advising Center is a college designed to advise and work with students who have not yet declared a major and/or students making a change in their major. The UAAC is staffed by 10 PAs; 1 Director, 1 Assistant Director, 5 full-time PAs, and 3 half-time PAs. The UAAC is guided by a mission statement grounded in developmental advising.

##### The Office of Academic Enrichment Programs (OAEP)

The Office of Academic Enrichment Programs an office within the Center of Academic Enrichment Excellence (CAEE) provides numerous programs to students on the Virginia Tech campus: tutoring, Project Success, Society for African American Scholars, Student Transition Program, Academic Excellence & Enrichment Mentoring, and the Virginia Tech Academic Success Program (VTASP). VTASP is a program designed to help at-risk students succeed at Virginia Tech. At-risk is identified as having a high school GPA of under 3.0; SAT scores below 1000; and high school class rank under the 25 percentile. In addition, all African-American students are labeled at-risk due to the low number of African-American students at the institution under study. All at-risk students are identified and invited to participate in the Virginia Tech Academic Success

Program (VTASP). VTASP advisors are located within each college, and currently work with approximately 500 students.

### Half-time PA

Half-time Professional Advisors are PAs within the UAAC office who advise students twenty hours a week.

### Purpose

This exploratory study was designed to observe the behaviors that occur during academic advising sessions between professional academic advisors and students at one, large, public research university and to compare these behaviors to the models and definitions of developmental advising proposed in the literature.

### Research Questions

The present study was designed to examine the following research questions:

1. What distinguishable styles of advising were observable in actual advising sessions?
2. Are advisors' stated philosophies of advising observable in advising practice?
3. What conditions/circumstances are mostly likely to effect advising behaviors/styles?
4. Are conceptual differences between prescriptive and developmental advising distinguishable in actual advising practice?
5. What are the similarities and differences between the literature-based model of developmental academic advising and the behaviors-in-use among professional academic advisors?

### Significance of the Study

This study has implications for both practice and research. Observing advising behaviors according to the developmental-prescriptive continuum enables the researcher to identify other styles of advising not present in the literature on academic advising.

This study is significant for research because it fills a gap in the existing body of literature about professional academic advisors. Most of the literature to date examines students' and faculty perceptions of, and satisfaction with, advising. Few reports focus on the outcomes of advising by PAs (Frost, 1991). Little is known about perceptions and behaviors of PAs or the practicality of developmental advising. The present study may advance research about the assessment of developmental academic advisors, the conditions or circumstances that inhibit or promote developmental advising, successful techniques and practices that characterize developmental advising, and other advising styles.

### Limitations

The present study is not without limitations. First, it is grounded in literature on developmental advising. Developmental advising is rooted in student development theory. Therefore, this study assumes a relationship between developmental theory and advising practice. The study will test if this assumption is accurate.

Second, the present study employed qualitative research methods. As with many qualitative studies, the results may not be generalizable to other academic advisors and institutions.

Despite these limitations, this study is valuable because it addresses a gap in the literature about academic advising, and provides a better understanding of how academic advisors carry out their roles as agents of student development. This knowledge may enable student affairs practitioners to better understand the components of developmental academic advising, thus help evaluate and reform advising practices.

#### Organization of the Study

This study is organized around five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the phenomena being studied, the purpose of the study, its research questions and significance to research and practice. Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature about the phenomenon under study. Chapter 3 describes the methodology employed in the study, including the sampling techniques, observation and interview protocol used to collect data, and procedures employed. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study, while Chapter 5 discusses the results and describes their implications for future educational practice and research.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To examine the phenomenon under study, it was necessary to explore several bodies of literature related to academic advising. First, the historical evolution of academic advising was investigated to describe the context in which the activity takes place. Second, definitions and criticisms of developmental academic advising were reviewed. Third, models and documents of academic advising were described and analyzed as a basis for operationalizing observable developmental advising. The final sections focused on literature about the two most frequently studied components of academic advising: advising of special populations and perceptions and evaluations of academic advising.

#### Historic Evolution of Academic Advising

A history of academic advising is essential to understanding contemporary practice. Academic advising was introduced to the American university system about 1870, at the same time the elective system of curriculum was introduced. At that time, the role of advising belonged to faculty members who helped students select courses (Frost, 1991). In other words, the advising system was based on supplying students answers to questions about scheduling and registering for classes.

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, the focus of faculty members shifted from concern about student academic and moral development to individual research (Fenske, 1989). Changes in the elective system, coupled with the formation of academic departments, the development of research-oriented graduate schools, and the emergence of reward systems tied to research efforts, altered the values of faculty, who had “decade by decade narrowed their definition of the students until all that was left was their minds” (Rudolph, 1976, p. 31).

The influx of students to higher education after World War II led to further evolution in academic advising. Faculty no longer had the time or incentive to advise and to teach. This weakened formal faculty advising systems, and advising became a function of student affairs administrators on many campuses, or was placed second to teaching on campuses that employed a faculty advising system (Grites, 1979).

Academic advising received renewed attention in the 1970s and 1980s as it emerged as a strategy to combat declining enrollments and alarming attrition rates (Beal & Noel, 1980; Biggs, Brodie & Barnhart, 1975; Crockett, 1978). Some scholars suggested improved advising as a means to increase retention. Anderson (1985), and Tinto (1975) argued that one of the most powerful, positive influences on student persistence in college is individual attention and integration into the formal and informal academic and social systems of a campus. Crookston (1972) and O’Banion (1972) went even further, and suggested ways to infuse student development theory into advising practices.

Traditionally, academic advising was very prescriptive and authoritative: the advisor was the doctor and the student was the patient. The student learned by following the directions, or prescriptions, of the advisor. As the role of academic advising evolved, some viewed it as a form of teaching. This perspective was based on two assumptions. First, that higher education was a place where students could develop into self-fulfilling persons and choose careers that complemented their life plans. Second, that teaching included any active experience where students and teachers shared responsibility for encouraging student growth and the growth of the community. In other words, advising was to be based on negotiations between the student and the advisor and the student-advisor relationship. This notion of advising became known as developmental advising (Crookston, 1972).

O'Banion (1972) also supported developmental advising, and argued that an advising system should "help the student choose a program of study which will serve him [sic] in the development of his [sic] total potential" (p. 10). He suggested that students should have a larger role in decision making and share responsibility with advisors in the advising process. Developmental advising was described as a five-step process that students and advisors worked on collaboratively: exploration of life goals; exploration of vocational goals; program choice; course choice; and, scheduling choices. The steps were logical and sequential.

Along with this academic advising model, O'Banion (1972) proposed a system of advising that employed professional counselors rather than faculty. Counselors, specialized in advising, could serve students during day, evening and summer hours, times when faculty were typically not available. He also argued that professional advisors would serve students better than faculty advisors, for whom advising was simply another time-consuming task to be completed.

At about the same time that developmental theory was infused into advising, academic advising began to resemble an organized profession (Frost, 1991). In 1979, the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) was formed. NACADA is an organization of professional advisors, faculty, administrators, and students who are responsible for academic advising or otherwise work to promote quality academic advising on college and university campuses (NACADA, 1996). The NACADA Statement of Core Values on Academic Advising consists of 20 values that provide guidance to academic advisors across the nation. As of 1990, NACADA had over 2,450 members, and reached many others through the publication of the NACADA Journal.

NACADA is only one national organization that influenced advising practices. Other developments also have had an impact. For example, organized freshmen year experience programs focused attention on all services for college freshmen (Frost, 1991). Additionally, the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs (CAS, 1986), brought attention to the quality of academic advising programs. CAS did not intend to accredit advising programs, but rather sought to assure the public about quality through self-regulation and

evaluation. CAS developed 13 characteristics, or components of quality academic advising, including: mission statement; program content; leadership and management; organization and administration; human resources; funding; facilities; legal responsibilities; equal opportunity, access, and affirmative action; campus and community relations; multicultural programs and services; ethics; and, evaluation.

These efforts on the part of NACADA, CAS, and others led many to believe that academic advising was becoming more developmental and, thus, improving. However, national reports and results of student surveys published during the 1980s suggested that academic advising had not improved as much as the literature suggested (Frost, 1991). In fact, a 1984 report by the National Institute of Education identified advising as “one of the weakest links in the education of college students” (p. 31). Student opinion surveys, as well as the 1970, 1983, and 1987 American College Testing (ACT) surveys, supported the notion that academic advising programs were not particularly effective and seemed to remain unfocused (Frost, 1991).

In 1984, NACADA and ACT joined forces to recognize exemplary advising programs in an effort to construct models of excellence for practice. Despite continued research and efforts to implement developmental advising, conflicts about who should advise, and how they should advise still ensued.

Today, a majority of academic advising is conducted by faculty. For instance, a 1988 survey asked institutions to best describe the model of delivery for academic advising they employed, eighty-eight percent of the respondents to the survey reported that faculty have the greatest responsibility for advising (Habley & Crockett, 1988).

One way to develop evaluation instruments or other models of advising is to analyze the definitions and criticisms of developmental academic advising discussed in the literature.

#### Definitions and Criticisms

A review of the literature revealed terms used to describe developmental academic advising and criticisms of developmental advising. These terms and criticisms describe some of the barriers to implementing developmental advising, and the ideal conditions under which to infuse developmental theory into academic advising.

There is no shortage of literature on developmental advising. Since Crookston (1972) described advising as a teaching function, and O’Banion (1972) defined advising as a collaborative process, a significant amount of research has been conducted on the subject of developmental academic advising. Creamer and Creamer (1994) synthesized that literature and identified several themes that represent today’s definition of developmental advising. For example, they found the literature focused on: advising connectedness to institutional effectiveness (Habley, 1988); the effect of advisors’ attitudes on the advising process (Ford & Ford, 1989); student preferences for advising (Fielstein, 1989; Winston & Sandor, 1984c); and, advising as a shared or collaborative

process between student and advisor (Kramer, 1988; O'Banion, 1972; Winston & Sandor, 1984c). They concluded that there is no single, integrated definition of developmental advising.

Critics of developmental advising have argued that the notion of developmental advising based on developmental theory is elusive and ideal (Gordon, 1994; Laff, 1994). One criticism suggests that the fit between developmental theory and advising is problematic and does not consider all theories of development (e.g., psychosocial development and cognitive development to name but a few) (Laff, 1994). Issues of ethnicity, gender, and age raised other important questions about the appropriateness of developmental theory in addressing the advising needs of special populations (Baxter, 1993; Gilligan, 1982). Critics suggested that these theories were not meant to compete with each other. Rather, they were designed to clarify the overall developmental process by exploring all facets of students. Developmental advising must draw on each of these theories, including the most recent studies on special populations, to provide ideal academic advising (Laff, 1994).

Other scholars suggest that developmental theories are static descriptions of student positions, while advising is a transitional process (Laff, 1994). This criticism suggests that the relationship between advising, developmental theory, and teaching needs to be examined more closely. If advising is to be both instructional and developmental, it should be geared to promoting dissonance that challenges students to question their own thinking, and master skills that help them examine their thoughts, their assumptions, and their thinking in relation to the thinking of others (Perry, 1970).

Another group of studies have offered reasons why developmental advising is not implemented in practice. These include: advisors' lack of time to become involved with students; advisors' lack of background in developmental theories; students' perceptions of advisors; lack of funds; lack of training; advising sessions that are not mandatory; and, lack of integration between student services and academic services on many campuses (Gordon, 1994).

Yet another way to evaluate advising or create new advising models is to analyze the models and documents proposed in the literature about developmental academic advising.

#### Models and Documents of Academic Advising

Several models and documents have been used in the literature to describe academic advising, including: the Creamer and Creamer model; developmental advising; retention theory; intrusive advising; prescriptive advising; The Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS); Academic Advising Inventory (AAI); and, The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) Core Values. Each either supports, or contradicts the notion of developmental advising, hence merits attention in this literature review.

### Creamer and Creamer Model

If developmental theory is to serve as a foundation for academic advising, developmental advising needs a conceptual framework. Creamer and Creamer (1994) developed such a framework, and demonstrated the role of theory in guiding practice. The model consists of three steps: defining the task (e.g., defining developmental academic advising); identifying outcomes and specific goals for student growth; and, promoting development through the application of the laws of development. Conceptual models and examples are needed to spell out procedures that successfully integrate student development and advising, otherwise known as developmental advising.

It is also important to note that the Creamer and Creamer (1994) notion of developmental advising is only one perspective on the subject. Other models have been employed to define, guide, and assess academic advising.

### Retention Model

Retention in higher education refers to the ability of institutions to keep students enrolled. Retention theory has been employed to examine reasons why students leave institutions. Tinto's (1975, 1987) model of institutional departure examined when and why students depart from institutions of higher education. At the heart of the theory was the idea that successful college students must be well integrated into the formal and informal academic and social systems of a college campus. Tinto's model postulates students enter institutions with varying backgrounds and experiences, which contribute to their intentions, goals, and commitments to the institution (Tinto, 1975, 1987). Once students matriculate, experiences with faculty, students, and staff occur within the academic and social systems of the institution. If the experiences are positive, then student goals and institutional commitment are strengthened. If the experiences are negative, and the student is not properly integrated into the institutional setting, the student is more likely to withdraw (King, 1992; Tinto, 1975, 1987).

Researchers operationalized Tinto's model and applied it in two and four-year institutions (Pascarella & Chapman, 1983; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1980). Results revealed that academic integration was a significant predictor of student persistence. While institutions do not have the ability to influence the backgrounds of matriculants, they can create mechanisms that maximize student/faculty contact. Student/faculty contact leads to greater levels of integration, thus persistence (Haplin, 1990). Interestingly, student/faculty academic contact was more influential than student/faculty social contact. Therefore, academic advising was thought to play a larger role in student integration, and retention models play a role in the assessment of academic advising due to the influence of advising on academic integration.

### Intrusive Model

The intrusive advising model is an extension of the developmental advising model, and emerged from concern for freshman and sophomores who were unsuccessful in college. Intrusive

advising entails interventions by advisors at specified times throughout the student's semesters in college. The strategy of intrusive advising revolves around checkpoints or early-alert techniques (Frost, 1991).

One model of intrusive advising suggested interventions should occur at four critical times: during the first semester and three times thereafter (at six weeks, pre-registration, and between semesters). Such contact builds a student/advisor relationship, promotes academic integration, and encourages students to seek assistance as soon as they think they need it. Intrusive advising, is developmental in that it teaches students to solve problems (Garing, 1992).

#### Prescriptive Model

Prescriptive advising is yet another model of advising practiced in higher education. Crookston (1972) suggested that there were two basic approaches to academic advising: developmental and prescriptive. Prescriptive advising is the delivery of information about policies, procedures, and curricular requirements (Laff, 1994). Unlike, intrusive advising, which expands upon the developmental advising model, prescriptive advising is viewed as being at the opposite end of the advising continuum from developmental advising.

Research on academic advising suggests that meaningful advising must be more than just signing forms (Winston, Miller, Ender, Grites, & Associates, 1984; Winston & Sandor, 1984c). For this reason, many PAs try to avoid the prescriptive advising model.

In addition to the models focusing on specific advising techniques, there are several documents in the literature fundamental to the practice of developmental academic advising. Three documents concerned with academic advising, specifically developmental academic advising are: the NACADA Statement of Core Values of Academic Advising, the CAS Standards for Academic Advising, and the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI).

#### NACADA Statement of Core Values of Academic Advising

Founded in 1979, NACADA is an association of professional advisors, faculty, administrators, and students. Today, NACADA is the primary professional organization for academic advisors. In an effort to suggest values that should be considered when developing academic advising philosophies or models, NACADA developed a document outlining its core values. The core values are reference points for professional use in academic advising. The statement of core values is divided into three parts: the power of academic advising, beliefs about students, and the core values.

#### Power of Academic Advising

This section of the NACADA statement emphasizes the potential of academic advising to influence the development of students. Academic advisors have the power to: gain insights into students' academic, social, and personal experiences and needs; use these insights to help students

feel integrated and make sound choices; and, develop and teach others across the institution how to identify and understand student academic and personal needs.

### Beliefs about Students

The second portion of the NACADA document argues that the work of advisors is guided by the beliefs that: students can be responsible for their own behavior; students can be successful as a result of their individual goals and efforts; students have a desire to learn; learning needs vary according to individual skills, goals, and experiences; and, students hold their own beliefs and opinions.

### The Core Values

The core values section of the text identifies six primary values which are expanded through 21 secondary values. The core values are grounded in the notion that students deserve dependable, accurate, respectful, honest, friendly, and professional service.

The first primary value suggests that advisors are responsible to the students and individuals they serve. These efforts include: maintaining regular office hours; giving accurate and timely information; teaching students perceptions of themselves and their relationship to the future; encouraging life management skills; modifying barriers to student progress; maintaining awareness of government, institutional, and departmental policies that could affect students; respecting confidentiality; and, documenting contact with students to aid subsequent visits.

The second primary value states that advisors are responsible for involving others, when appropriate, in the advising process. This core value suggests that effective advising requires a holistic approach to working with students. Therefore, advisors should develop and maintain ties with other student centered services and programs. The role of the advisor as facilitator and mediator is defined, and suggests that advisors recognize their limitations, be responsible for referring students to other resources, and monitor the use of peer advisors.

The third core value recommends advisors be responsible to the college or university at which they work. Behaviors for maintaining this value include respecting other colleagues, keeping administrators and others aware and informed of the occurrences and importance of academic advising, and abiding by policies.

The fourth core value advocates that advisors are responsible to higher education generally. This value articulates that beliefs of advisors should be consistent with the concept of academic freedom, the educational mission of their institution, and the overall goal of education to introduce students to the world of ideas.

The fifth core value interprets the role of the advisor to include work with the community. Advisors' work with the community should include knowledge of the community's values, teaching students sensitivity to the values and mores of the surrounding community, and awareness of community programs and services that may be models for students.

The last core value states that advisors are responsible for their professional role as an advisor and to themselves. Advising practices and the students they serve are continually changing, therefore advisors can maintain their professional role by participating in continuing education through classes, professional organizations, conferences, reading, and research. To maintain themselves, advisors should develop skills for taking care of their physical, mental, and spiritual needs.

The core values are an effort to provide guidance to academic advisor throughout American higher education. The values are reviewed periodically to account for new practices, ways of thinking, or existing language.

### The CAS Standards for Academic Advising

CAS was the first national effort to develop uniform national criteria and guidelines for assessing educational effectiveness, and to encourage improvement of programs and services through continuous self-study.

The development of CAS standards and guidelines involved a wide array of professional associations, individual professionals, consultants, and public-sector representatives. These people, along with member associations of CAS, identified areas in which standards were needed. The final standards and guidelines for each functional area (e.g., housing, admissions) are the result of numerous drafts by various CAS committees, and input by other professionals who reviewed the drafts.

CAS established and disseminated standards and guidelines for all programs and services in higher education including, student development programs and services and preparation of professional practitioners. Since academic advising is a student service, it was captured under the standards and guidelines for student services.

The CAS standards for academic advising reflect the minimal requirements expected in all advising programs. Standards throughout the document use auxiliary verbs like “shall” and “must” to convey which elements are essential, and which are encouraged in all advising programs. The CAS guidelines are examples or recommendations for effective, professional academic advising practices.

The CAS standards for academic advising are divided into thirteen conceptual categories: mission; program; leadership and management; organization and administration; human resources; funding; facilities; legal responsibilities; equal opportunity, access, and affirmative action; campus and community relations; multi-cultural programs and service; ethics; and, evaluation. The categories reviewed below are those most germane to operationalizing and defining ideal academic advising behaviors and perceptions, one of the purposes of the present research.

## Mission

The CAS standards define two expectations for the missions of advising program. First, advising programs must develop, review, and disseminate their goals for student development. These goals must be consistent with those of the advisor's institution and with CAS standards. Second, institutions must have a clearly written statement of philosophy pertaining to program goals, and expectations of advisors and advisees.

## Programs

The program standards and guidelines for academic advising define the components of an acceptable advising program. CAS standards describe several essential components of academic advising programs. A summary of the standards suggests academic advising must be: purposeful; coherent; based on human development theories; reflective of the current student body; and reflective of students' in-class efforts and out-of class opportunities.

## Human Resources

The human resources standards outline the qualifications and training of support staff, professional staff, peer advisors, paraprofessionals, and directors/coordinators of advising programs. The standards and guidelines make recommendations for qualifications and training that are consistent with roles and responsibilities of different groups involved in the advising process.

## Multi-cultural Programs and Services

The current student population is more diverse than in recent years. Academic advising is one aspect of the educational experience that reaches all students. Therefore, with respect to multi-cultural programs, academic advising serves two populations, majority and minority students.

Advising must make efforts to educate majority students about cultural differences, and assess prejudices and the need for behavioral change. For minority students, advising must help them identify their unique needs, prioritize those needs, and aid these students with integration into the culture of the institution.

## Ethics

Ethics are obligations, rules of conduct, and moral principles. The CAS standards and guidelines provide ethical standards that apply to all individuals employed in academic advising. The ethics developed by CAS identify issues such as sexual harassment, confidentiality, equal access, objectivity, training, accurate presentation of information, and the obligation to address violations of institutional policy. The standards and guidelines defining ethical conduct are long and detailed.

The CAS standards and guidelines, unlike the NACADA statement, pertain to all aspects of advising. The NACADA statement concentrates on defining the roles and responsibilities of advisors. The CAS standards and guidelines address the functions or institutional goals for academic advising.

The last perspective used to identify ideal academic advising came from an instrument that measured advisors' approaches to academic advising, the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) (Winston & Sandor, 1984a).

### Academic Advising Inventory

The AAI is grounded in the notion that there are two basic types of academic advising: developmental and prescriptive (Crookston, 1972). The AAI was developed to measure three aspects of academic advising: the nature of advising relationships, seen along a developmental-prescriptive continuum (Part I); the frequency of activities taking place during advising sessions, (Part II); and, the satisfaction with advising (Part III) (Winston & Sandor, 1984b). Demographic information about students and their advising situations was collected in Part IV.

#### Part I

Developmental-Prescriptive advising (DPA) is measured in Part I, which consists of items 1-14. DPA describes the nature of the advising relationship and the breadth of topics covered during advising sessions. Each of the fourteen items describes two scenarios. For example, in one pair of scenarios, the advisor is described as either being interested in helping the student learn how to find out about courses and programs, or as one who tells the student what they need to know about academic courses and programs. Students are instructed to read paired scenarios, decide which one accurately reflects the advising they receive, and rate how true that scenario is for them (from "very true" to "slightly true"). The scenarios represent a continuum between developmental and prescriptive advising. Within Part I, there are three subscales: Personalizing Education (PE), Academic Decision-Making (ADM), and Selecting Courses (SC).

PE is measured in eight of the 14 items in Part I (items 1,3,4,5,8,9,10, 13). This subscale measures whether the advising process addresses both academic and personal interests and concerns.

ADM is measured in Part I through four items (6,7,11,14) . This subscale focuses on the processes and responsibilities for academic decision-making. For example, "my advisor registers me for my classes" or "my advisor teaches me how to register myself for classes."

The SC subscale deals specifically with determining courses needed and planning appropriate class schedules. Items 2 and 12 in Part I ask whether advisors tell students what is best for them or whether advisors suggest important considerations and then give students the responsibility to make final decisions.

All of the descriptions of developmental and prescriptive advising in Part 1 of the AAI, were translated into advising behaviors in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1

Operationalizing Developmental Advising Behaviors

AAI Description	Developmental Advising Behaviors
<b>Personalizing Education (PE)</b>	
Warm, trusting, purposive relationship	Eye contact  Attentive and does not interrupt students  Greets and gets to know students (e.g., Talks to student about personal issues such as family)
Students total experience is important	Discusses of out of class activities  Talks about vocational opportunities  Helps students learn how to find out about courses and programs for themselves  Makes referrals to other university services
Shared responsibility for advising success	Discusses advisor and student responsibilities, expectations of advising and of each other at the on set of the advisor-advisee relationship  Assists students in identifying and setting academic goals
<b>Academic Decision-Making (ADM)</b>	
Helps students evaluate academic progress	Asks students to self-evaluate their progress

Table 1 cont'd

Operationalizing Developmental Advising Behaviors

AAI Description	Developmental Advising Behaviors
	<p>Keeps students informed of academic progress by examining files, grades, and classes</p> <p>Discusses progress toward a degree</p> <p>Discusses factors that influence student's decisions</p> <p>Suggests other option to consider</p> <p>Discusses consequences of choices</p> <p>Suggests steps to help identify a major</p>
<p>Trusts students to carry out decisions and take responsibility for their own success</p>	<p>Suggests actions for students and allows students to carry out</p> <p>Asks about progress on referrals made in previous meetings</p>
<p><b>Selecting Courses (SC)</b></p>	
<p>Collaborates with students to evaluate course needs</p>	<p>Discusses students' wants, needs, abilities, and interests when selecting courses</p>
<p>Suggests important considerations in planning a scheduler</p>	<p>Discusses with students: course loads, out of class commitments, and student habits</p>
<p>Trusts students to make final selections</p>	<p>Does not register for students, rather explains the registration process (e.g., catalog, timetable)</p>

Table 2

Operationalizing Prescriptive Advising Behaviors

AAI Description	Prescriptive Advising Behaviors
<b>Personalizing Education (PE)</b>	
Formal and distant relationship	<p>Not attentive</p> <p>Answers phones, talks to others, does paperwork while advising students</p> <p>Doesn't ask students how they are doing or what is happening in their lives</p>
Academic matters are the only subjects/topics of conversation	<p>No discussion of out of class activities or career choices</p> <p>Identifies realistic goals based on students' test scores and grades</p> <p>Does not know who to contact about other-than academic problems</p>
Advisor is the expert, responsible for advising success and students are the receivers of information	<p>Tells students what they need to know about academic courses and programs</p> <p>Tells students what they must do in order to be advised; gives answers</p>
<b>Academic Decision-Making (ADM)</b>	
Tells students what to do and when to do it	<p>Plans student's four-year plan of study</p> <p>Students abilities and interests are not discussed</p>

Table 2 cont'd

Operationalizing Prescriptive Advising Behaviors

AAI Description	Prescriptive Advising Behaviors
Makes sure student follow through	Makes students carry out activity in their presence
Decisions are made by the advisor for the student	Registers students for classes  Tells students alternatives and best options  Suggests majors for students  Keeps students informed on academic progress by examining only files and grades
<b>Selecting Courses (SC)</b>	
Advisor has the responsibility for choosing courses	Designs students' course schedule
Grades and test scores are seen as the primary factor for determining courses	Uses test scores and grades to discuss courses appropriate for students

## Part II

Part II of the AAI, Advisor-Advisee Activities, is composed of 30 items that describe activities that take place in academic advising. Students are asked to report the frequency of each of these activities in each advising session (from zero to five times). Each of the 30 items represents “good academic advising.” There are five subscales, or activity categories, within Part II: Exploring Institutional Policies (EIP); Providing Information (PI); Personal Development and Interpersonal Relationships (PDIR); Registration and Class Scheduling (RCS); and, Teaching Personal Skills (TPS).

The EIP subscale, items 15, 24, 25, 27, 41, identifies activities such as declaring a major, evaluating transfer credits, and explaining academic probation policies.

Items 21, 28, 29, 33, 34, 39, are activities of the PI subscale. Activities in the PI subscale relate to degree requirements, job placement opportunities, financial aid, and campus resources.

The PDIR subscale, which consists of items 18,19, 20, 26, 31, 32, 36, 37, 38, 40, 43, 44, discusses students’ futures, personal issues, establishing an advisor-advisee relationship, the purpose of college, and in- and out -of- class experiences.

Items 16, 17, 22, 23 are activities of the RCS subscale. RCS activities include signing registration forms and planning schedules.

The last subscale in Part II is TPS. Items 30, 35, 42 describe activities such as teaching students about study skills, time management and personal goal-setting.

## Part III

Part III of the AAI, Satisfaction with Advising, is composed of five items (45-49) relating to student satisfaction with the advising they received during the current academic year. Students respond to the items using a four-point Likert scale which ranges from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The five items measure overall satisfaction, accuracy of information provided, adequacy of notice about important deadlines, availability of advising, and amount of time available during advising sessions.

## Part IV

The questions in Part IV elicit demographic information about the student and the type and frequency of advising received.

### Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of the AAI suggest that it is a dependable measure of students’ perceptions of, and satisfaction with, the academic advising they received (Winston & Sandor, 1984b).

The documents reviewed in this section identify key elements of ideal academic advising. For the purposes of the present research, these elements will be categorized and coded to operationalize ideal academic advising. The results of that effort are reported in Chapter 3.

Since developmental advising is a relatively new phenomenon, these definitions and models were examined to provide the reader with background information and to help the reader's examination of recent literature and research that employs these definitions and models.

There is a wealth of research on academic advising. An examination of the literature revealed two frequently studied topics, one of which is advising special populations.

### Advising Special Populations

Today's student population is more diverse than previous generations. This suggests that advising needs to be reexamined to explore the diverse cultures that are addressed in contemporary advising practice. One way to engage students in advising is to design programs that acknowledge their individual needs (Frost, 1991). Focusing on individual student needs and differences, not stereotypical differences, is the key to developmental advising of diverse students. While there is a wealth of literature on all types of special populations, the present review examines literature on students of color, student athletes, international students, women students, and students in transition.

### Students of Color

Research on advising students of color has adopted several perspectives, the first of which argues that cultural differences can undermine communication (LeVine & Padilla, 1980; Sue & Sue, 1977). Advisors must be aware of potential differences in the communication processes, among students of color. Lack of attention to communication processes could lead to miscommunication, misunderstandings, and a lack of engagement by students (Brown & Rivas, 1992).

Second, research has explored the issue of retention. No single student service is mentioned more frequently as an effective means of promoting minority student retention and success than advising (Thomas, 1990).

The literature revealed several areas of concern with respect to academic advising and students of color. One concern dealt with types of advisors. Research consistently showed that students who seek counseling from minority or surrogate minority advisors report more positive advising experiences (Padilla & Pavel, 1994). There is also considerable research supporting the notion that students of color prefer working with professionals who share their ethnicity. Sanchez and Atkinson (1983) found this to be true for Mexican American students, as did Johanson and Lashley (1989) for Native American students.

Students of color identify three desirable characteristics in their advisors: sensitivity, openmindedness, and responsiveness (Padilla & Pavel, 1994). Several researchers found similar positive characteristics of advisors. Pomales, Claiborn, and LaFramboise (1986) found that black students see a culturally sensitive counselor as more competent than a culturally blind counselor.

### Student-Athletes

Another segment of research on special populations examined student-athletes. College athletes are often seen as privileged. However, research examining athlete development (Blann, 1985; Sowa & Gressard, 1983) revealed numerous gaps in the preparation of student-athletes for the challenges of college life. In an attempt to remedy the situation, colleges and universities throughout the country provide academic support systems, as well as personal and performance enhancement counseling for athletes (Gabbard & Halischak, 1993).

These students are not a special population due only to their status as athletes. A significant percentage of students who receive football and basketball scholarships are African-American. Therefore, advising of athletes must accommodate, and be sensitive to, differences due to color or ethnicity (Price, 1994).

Literature on the athletic academic advisor (AAA) found they are both developmental and prescriptive in their approach to advising (Price, 1994). AAAs monitor academic programs, arrange tutoring, and monitor grades and nonacademic behavior. Their responsibilities range from maintaining the eligibility of star athletes to implementing developmental advising. AAAs avoid any one model in establishing relationships with advisees, and respond, instead to the individual needs of each student (Price, 1994).

### International Students

Still other scholars have explored academic advising as it relates to international students. International student enrollments in American higher education exceed 349,609 (Zikopoulos, 1987). Research suggests that international students face a variety of adjustment problems including loneliness, homesickness, language difficulty, discrimination, financial problems, and depression (Surdam & Collins, 1984). Academic advising may be a meaningful and effective way to integrate international students. Unfortunately, American institutions have made limited efforts to address the needs of international students in advising (Charles & Stewart, 1991).

Research suggested two fundamental objectives in advising international students: helping them adjust to the demands of their respective academic programs, and helping them achieve academic success (Charles & Stewart, 1991; Frost, 1991). Both of these objectives are based on the notion that most international students are very serious about academic achievement (Heikinheimo & Shute, 1986); therefore, academic advisors may be the central figures in their lives. Academic advisors to international students also need to be aware of cultural sensitivity (Bargar & Mayo-Chamberlain, 1983), language limitations (Heikinheimo & Shute, 1986), academic overload (Pruitt, 1978), differences in educational systems (International Student Committee, 1982), and adjustment issues (Stafford, Marion & Salter, 1980).

### Women Students

One segment of students often left out of the literature on special student populations are women students. Except for non-traditional women students, the literature does not recognize undergraduate women as a special population with unique advising needs (Creamer & Coburn-Smith, 1993). The small segment of literature that does recognize women as a special population shows contradictory findings. Winston and Sandor (1984) and Herndon, Kaiser, and Creamer (1996) did not find gender differences in preference for advising styles, whereas Crockett and Crawford (1989) did find significant gender differences. Herndon, Kaiser, and Creamer (1996) did find that males and females significantly differed in their support for developmental advising. In addition, research concerning the differences in the outcomes of higher education for men and women ( e.g., the concentration of women in lower income majors, the number of women entering college uncertain about their majors) and the differences in educational experiences for men and women [e.g., women tend to function as receivers of knowledge, while men are more actively involved in the learning process (Baxter-Magolda & Porterfield, 1985) ] supports the need to identify women as a special population with unique advising needs (Creamer & Coburn-Smith, 1993).

### Students in Transition

A final segment of research has examined students in transition and academic advising. “All college students are in transition, but for some the transition process is more difficult than for others” (Frost, 1991, p. 39). Students in transition traditionally include students with undecided majors, transfer students, first-year students, and adult learners/non-traditional students (Frost, 1991). Research indicated the number of students in transition is increasing due to the number of adults returning to school (Haponski, 1983; Steltenpohl & Shipton, 1986), the number of students matriculating without a major (Frost, 1991), and the number of students transferring to four-year institutions from community colleges (Watkins, 1990).

During transition, students make decisions that can profoundly affect their lives (Frost, 1991). Therefore, the main objective of advisors to students in transition is to provide support and aid in decision making. Students should be encouraged to focus on life, career, and educational goals before trying to chose a major, or class schedule (Frost, 1989; O’Banion, 1972; Polson, 1986; Tinto, 1987).

Academic advisors are one of the key links between special student populations and higher education. Academic advising can be viewed as a powerful intervention for positively influencing the educational and personal development of students ( Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1982, 1984; Walsh, 1979). Developmental advising identifies, encourages, recognizes, and tailors advising practices for special student populations.

While advising special populations of students has dominated much of the recent research on academic advising, a second body of research has examined perceptions of advising and evaluations of this function.

#### Perceptions and Evaluations of Academic Advising

Academic advising has become an important service to students in American higher education (Parris, 1982; Wicas, 1956-57). However, over three-fourths of all advising programs have no systematic evaluation plan, and half do not even evaluate individual advisors' performance (Crockett & Levitz, 1984). If academic advising is to be an educationally purposeful activity, then it is important to evaluate it as a function of higher education (Winston & Sandor, 1984b).

It is important to note the differences between research and evaluation. Evaluation has two purposes: to determine what should be happening in academic advising and to examine what is actually happening in academic advising programs (Winston & Sandor, 1984b). In other words, evaluation seeks to improve program effectiveness in a specific setting. Research differs from evaluation in that it is often used to test theory and is concerned with why a program succeeds (Kuh, 1979, as cited in Gordon, 1994).

Research has suggested that evaluating what is happening in academic advising is important. Simmon (1982) and Dautch (1972) recommended that academic advising evaluations focus on the students' perceived expectations of the advisors. Eddy and Essarum (1989) noted the importance of students' advising expectations and suggested that student affairs staff work with faculty to develop more effective student advisement. These studies emphasized student perceptions in the evaluation process.

Efforts to evaluate what is happening in academic advising have led to the development of several instruments. The Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) (Winston & Sandor, 1984a) is a four-part instrument that measures the level of developmental or prescriptive advising that occurs between students and advisors and student satisfaction with advising.

Another instrument, the Academic Advisor Inventory (Frost, 1993), was developed to investigate the attitudes and practices of faculty members identified by students as developmental advisors. The researcher had students at two liberal arts women's colleges complete the AAI (Winston & Sandor, 1984a). Advisors at both colleges who were rated as developmental, according to the AAI, completed the Academic Advisor Inventory.

The Academic Advisor Inventory consisted of twelve items parallel to those of the AAI. For example, the AAI (Winston & Sandor, 1984a) gave students two side by side situations dealing with issues of personalizing education, academic decision-making, and course selection. The side by side situations represented a developmental and prescriptive response. Students were asked to read the situations and to report which was more likely of their advisor.

The Academic Advisor Inventory used the situations of the AAI to develop their twelve items (Winston & Sandor, 1984a). For example, the advisors survey included questions like: to help your advisee learn about college courses and programs you, (a) direct them to the college bulletin, (b) suggest they talk with the department chair, (c) suggest that they talk with the course instructor, (d) suggest they talk with other students who have taken the course, or (e) describe course and program content to them yourself. Possible advisor responses included never, rarely, occasionally, often, and always.

The practices of more than half of the respondents suggest that developmental advisors use the academic advising relationship to involve students in their individual college experiences, advising included, explore with students those factors contributing to student success, and display interest in students' academic and extracurricular progress (Frost, 1993).

Evaluation on what should be happening in academic advising also has been conducted. (Burke, 1981; Eddy & Essarum, 1989; Getkham, 1987). Unlike the evaluation on what is happening, evaluation on what should be happening focuses on student and faculty perceptions of advising.

The Academic Advising Needs Questionnaire (AANQ) instrument evaluated what should be happening in academic advising programs (Eddy & Essarum, 1989; Kauffman & English; 1979). The AANQ (Eddy & Essarum, 1989) examines three variables: demographics, advising functions, and general comments. Eddy and Essarum (1989) employed this instrument to evaluate student and faculty perceptions of academic advising. Fifteen statements were ranked on two Likert scales: one evaluating if advisors should meet a certain function and the second evaluating whether advisors are actually fulfilling the function. This instrument was employed to examine and evaluate what is happening in academic advising program. Eddy and Essarum (1989) found that improvements were needed in academic advising. Students indicated a need for academic advisors to improve serving as personal references for employers or graduate schools, assisting students in obtaining part-time work experiences that compliment their career and educational goals, and assisting students with career planning. Likewise, faculty indicated a need to improve academic advisement in assisting students with career planning, helping students explore graduate and professional schools, and assisting students in selecting a major (Eddy & Essarum, 1989).

A review of research on evaluations of advising programs revealed several interesting themes about what academic advising should be. First, when students were asked to rank prescriptive and developmental items in order of importance, the prescriptive items were rated as more important (Fielstein, Scoles, & Webb, 1992). Non-traditional students rated developmental items significantly lower in importance than traditional students. Students in general prefer accurate, timely information prescribed by an advisor in a professional manner over developing personal

relationships or exploring educational and career goals (Fielstein, 1989; Fielstein, Scoles, & Webb, 1992; Trombley, 1984;).

Second, students and faculty advisors indicated similar needs from academic advising. Students indicated their three highest needs are an advisor who serves as a personal reference for prospective employers, assistance in obtaining part-time work experiences that compliment their career and/or educational goals, and assistance with career/ vocational planning (Eddy & Essarum, 1989). Getkham (1987) found no difference between what faculty perceived as student advisement needs and what the students perceived as their own needs. However, there were some discrepancies between how faculty and students ranked these needs. Faculty members indicated the priority as assisting student with career/vocational planning and helping student explore graduate or professional schools (Eddy & Essarum, 1989). This suggests that faculty and students have similar perceptions of what academic advising should be.

Third, students feel that advising should be based on individual advising relationships, and organized around academic matters, not personal concerns (Frost, 1991). Students differentiated between the roles of academic advisors and personal counselors (Fielstein, 1989). Students perceived the developmental advisor helping students with (a) activities that concern personal attitudes and experiences related to college, (b) activities that concern group programs, policies, and opportunities, and (c) maintenance activities (i.e., signing forms, planning schedules) (Frost, 1991). However, developmental advisors are not, according to students and faculty, to act as personal counselors. They should merely identify counseling needs and refer students to the appropriate campus resource (Frost, 1991).

The definition of quality academic advising merits continuing evaluation and research. Measuring the perception of all who have a role in advising (e.g., students, faculty advisors, and professional advisors) is another way to evaluate advising programs.

### Summary

This literature review was designed to review information about advising that related to the present study. The literature review examined the history, definitions and criticisms, models and documents of advising, and current literature surrounding academic advising and revealed several conclusions. First, academic advising is still, after 125 years, largely a function of faculty, though there is increasing use of PAs on campuses. Second, academic advising is often defined along a continuum from prescriptive to developmental advising. Third, research in academic advising suggests that for advising to make a meaningful difference in students' college experiences, the process must be more than just signing forms. Interpersonal relationships and continued contact are vital factors in successful advising and students satisfaction with advising. Fourth, the notion of developmental advising is widely known among advisors, and is defined several different ways in the literature. Fifth, the influx of special populations with diverse needs has increased the need for

developmental advising. Sixth, advising has been evaluated through several lenses. Most studies examine student and faculty perceptions of and satisfaction with advising.

Overall, the literature explains what developmental advising is, how to implement developmental advising, and how to evaluate whether students perceive advising to be developmental or prescriptive. What is missing in the body of literature on developmental advising is research that measures actual behaviors of PAs and the pragmatic uses of developmental advising in practice.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge on academic advising by examining the behaviors of advisors, and how these behaviors compared with developmental and prescriptive advising as defined in relevant advising documents. The results of this study may explain what developmental advising means in practice, when developmental advising is used, whether developmental advising can be successfully implemented in practice, and other styles of advising not yet touched on in the literature.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

This exploratory study was designed to observe and identify the behaviors that occur during academic advising sessions between professional academic advisors and students at one-large, public, research university and to compare these behaviors to the models of advising proposed in the literature. For the purposes of the present research, professional advisors (PAs) are academic advisors who have earned at least a Masters degree, and who do not have formal responsibilities for instruction or research other than advising students.

The research questions upon which this study was based were:

1. What distinguishable styles of advising were observable in actual advising sessions?
2. Are advisors' stated philosophies of advising observable in advising practice?
3. What conditions/circumstances are mostly likely to effect advising style?
4. Are conceptual differences between prescriptive and developmental advising distinguishable in actual advising practice?
5. What are the similarities and differences between the literature-based model of developmental academic advising and the behaviors-in-use among professional academic advisors?

#### Sample Selection

The focus of this research made it necessary to conduct three selections: the documents used to operationalize and define developmental advising, an office or college that employs PAs, and the PAs within the office or college selected.

#### Selection of Documents

The documents and models used to operationalize and define the behaviors of a developmental academic advisor were selected for two reasons: reputation in the field and prevalence in the literature.

The documents and models are reputable within student affairs and, more specifically, within academic advising. For instance, discussion with PAs, and student affairs professionals about academic advising practices, often led to discussions about the Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS), National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) Core Values, and O'Banions' concept of developmental academic advising.. This revealed the presence and use of several documents and models throughout the academic advising.

Also, the documents and models described in the literature review are frequently cited in research about academic advising. For instance, the terms used in the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) (Winston & Sandor, 1984a) are used throughout the literature to define developmental and prescriptive advising.

### Selection of Office/College

Professional advisors (PAs) at the institution under study comprise the population for this study. PAs are academic advisors who have earned at least a Master's degree, and whose primary responsibilities, unlike faculty advisors (FAs), are not instruction and research.

The number of PAs at four-year institutions is increasing, though faculty continue to be the primary service providers for academic advising (Habley & Crockett, 1988; King, 1988). For instance, the large, public, research institution under study enrolls over 18,000 undergraduate students, but employs only a small number of PAs. At this institution, PAs are employed in advising centers and work with undergraduates during their first two years of study or until they declare a major. Once students declare a major, they are assigned a FA within their discipline. This model of advising is employed at many large, four-year institutions (Habley, 1993).

PAs across the campus were identified by contacting the academic deans of each college. The Deans identified the number of PAs in the college and mentioned other advising services offered at the institution that employ PAs. These other advising services were not associated with a particular college, but rather provided specialized advising services: The Center for Academic Enrichment Excellence (CAEE) and The University Academic Advising Center (UAAC) .

The researcher decided to purposefully select the UAAC and the CAEE for the focus of this case study. The Center for Academic Enrichment Excellence (CAEE) houses both the Office of Academic Enrichment Programs (OAEP) and the Office of Athletic Advising (OAA). The OAEP sponsors several programs to help students succeed at Virginia Tech. VTASP is a program developed to help at-risk students succeed at Virginia Tech. At-risk is defined as having a high school GPA of under 3.0, SAT scores below 1000, and high school class rank under the 25 percentile. Additionally, all African-American students are concerned at-risk due to the small number of African Americans on this campus. All at-risk students are identified and invited to participate in the Virginia Tech Academic Success Program (VTASP). VTASP advisors are located within each college and currently work with 500 students.

The University Academic Advising Center advises undeclared students and students in transition. Undeclared students are those who have not yet declared a major. Students in transition are transfer students without a major and students in the middle of a change of major. Because a majority of the UAAC students are undeclared, most of the advisees are first-year or second-year students.

The two specialized offices were selected for four reasons. First, developmental advising is part of the mission statement of the UAAC office and the CAEE. Therefore, the PAs within both offices are guided by a similar philosophy. Second, each of the offices advise students from several different colleges. This enabled the investigator to observe advising across disciplines. Third, both

offices focus specifically on advising. Fourth, the advisors in these offices meet with the majority of their students during structured advising sessions.

#### Selection of PAs

Ten advisors from the UAAC Office, 5 VTASP advisors from the OAEP within the CAEE, and 2 Athletic advisors from the OAA within the CAEE qualified as PAs for this study.

Each advisor chosen to participate shared several other factors. First, they all hold similar advising responsibilities and advising is their first priority. Second, all PAs in the UAAC and the CAEE (OAEP/VTASP and OAA) office hold a Masters degree and possess specialized training. Thus, all PAs within the offices under study have similar past experience and training.

#### Procedures

Data were collected in stages. First, the UAAC Director and Director of the CAEE were contacted. The Directors provided background information about UAAC and CAEE and procedures that were relevant to the present study. The researchers obtained approval from both directors to conduct the study in the UAAC and VTASP settings.

Second, the researcher obtained authorization from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for research involving human subjects (see Appendix A ).

Next the researcher obtained informed consent from participants in, or affected by, this study. Subsequently, the researcher contacted all advisors by phone or in person, and invited them to participate in the study. During the phone conversation the researcher briefly explained the purpose of this research, the sample for this study, the risks and benefits involved with participating in this study, how confidentiality will be preserved, and a brief explanation of the researcher's qualifications. The researcher called UAAC, VTASP, and Athletic advisors at random, until all agreed or declined to participate in the study. When advisors agreed to participate, the researcher scheduled dates and times with them to conduct observations and interviews. Participants were asked to schedule one three-hour session--two hours for observation and one hour for an interview-- during October or November 1996. The researcher made sure that at least three observation/interview sessions were scheduled for each time period. Because advisors book appointments with their advisee well in advance, the researcher asked the advisors to obtain consent from advisees with whom the advisor would be meeting when the observations took place.

#### Document Analysis

Several documents and models were analyzed in an effort to define and operationalize practices and behaviors related to the developmental academic advising.

The analysis of documents was conducted to elicit data about the first research question in this study. The analysis identified several ideal characteristics of developmental academic advising. The characteristics are classified by three categories : content of the advising session, (e.g., words used, topics of discussion); the nature of the advisor-advisee relationship (e.g., the way advisors

address students, and the advisors behaviors or approach to advising as seen along a prescriptive-developmental continuum.); and, the intent of the advisor (e.g., the philosophy of the advisor towards academic advising).

### Content of advising

Developmental advising may be defined by the activities that occur between the advisor and advisee. The researcher examined the literature on academic advising to learn how the literature described and/or defined developmental academic advising activities.

For example the National Academic Advising Association's (NACADA) Core Values suggest behaviors and responsibilities necessary for developmental academic advising to occur. The document suggests that advisors should encourage self-reliance by helping students make informed and responsible decisions, set realistic goals, and develop thinking, learning, and life management skills to meet present and future needs. In other words, developmental advising addresses topics and activities like time management and setting personal goals.

Another example is the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) (Winston & Sandor, 1984a). The AAI measures the nature of advising relationships, the frequency of certain activities that occur during advising sessions, and actually lists "good academic advising" activities. (Winston & Sandor, 1984b). The list consists of 30 activities in five categories. The five categories describe and group related activities. For example, the Personal Development and Interpersonal Relationships (PDIR) category consists of activities like discussing career alternatives, discussing personal values, and discussing the purposes of a college education.

### Advisor-Advisee Relationship

Developmental advising is also described by the nature of the advisor-advisee relationship. The advisor-advisee relationship is characterized as a continuum between two contrasting behavioral styles: prescriptive advising and developmental advising. The continuum has a tendency to label advising as either developmental or prescriptive. Several documents and models in the literature described or defined developmental advisor-advisee interaction.

The NACADA Core Values and CAS standards identify and describe one element of the developmental advisor-advisee relationship. Both documents are grounded in the assumption that students can hold their own beliefs and opinions, and can be responsible for their own behaviors. This assumption is characterized as developmental because it suggests that the advisors and advisees share responsibilities for various advising tasks. In a developmental advisor-advisee relationship, advisors do not function as the authority, or expert, as they would in a prescriptive advising relationship.

The AAI describes both the prescriptive and developmental advisor-advisee relationships. Developmental advising is characterized by friendly, warm advisor-advisee relationships; shared responsibility between the advisor and advisee for advising tasks; and, a concern for the students'

total education. Conversely, prescriptive advising focuses on formal academic matters and is based on authority, with the advisor serving as the expert (Winston & Sandor, 1984b).

### Intent of Advising

The advisor's philosophy or purpose for advising may largely effect the advisors behavior toward students or the behaviors of the advisor may reveal their philosophy or purpose of advising. For example, a second-year student may ask his or her advisor what steps to register for classes. The way the advisor responds to this question could reveal the advisors purpose or intention of advising. The advisor could give the student a list of steps to take. This could show the advisor intentions are prescriptive. Or the advisor could respond by saying, "we have completed the op-scan together three times, I want you to think back and recall the steps we took." This may reveal a teaching intention. Each response or action taken by the advisor gives insight into the advisors underlying philosophy of advising.

These characteristics, the content of advising, the advisor-advisee relationships, and the intent of the advisor were used to develop an observation sheet. The Observation Sheet operationalized developmental academic advising in an effort to determine the correspondence between the literature-based developmental advising model and what we observe in advising interactions, to identify whether the intent of the advisor is observable, and to identify the conditions or circumstances used in developmental and prescriptive advising and other advising styles that do not fit the developmental-prescriptive continuum.

## Instruments

### Observation Sheet

The Observation Sheet is shown in Appendix B. The Observation Sheet is organized in five sections. The first section introduces the observation activity to the participants. This section consists of a brief description of the study and a brief description of the researcher. The purpose of the introduction was to ensure that each participant was provided with standardized background information.

The second section, demographics, assisted the researcher in recalling specific details of the advising appointments (e.g., academic level of the student, reason for the advising session, gender of the student and advisor, and date and length of the appointment). This enabled the researcher to examine results for differences in advising behaviors based on demographic characteristics of advisors and advisees.

The third section of the observation sheet is composed of five activity categories: Exploring Institutional Policies (EIP), Providing Information (PI), Personal Development and Interpersonal Relationships (PDIR), Registration and Class Scheduling (RCS), and Teaching and Personal Skill (TPS). The five categories were generated by Winston and Sandor (1984b) to group activities that often take place in academic advising. This section of the Observation Sheet enabled the researcher

to record all of the categories or topics that were discussed and who initiated conversation about the topic/activity.

The fourth section of the Observation Sheet, The Nature of the Advising Relationship, consists of three characteristics associated with academic advising. The three characteristics are approaches advisors can take when advising students. The characteristics were developed in accordance with the scales and subscales of Part I of the AAI, Developmental Prescriptive Advising (DPA), and definitions of prescriptive and developmental advising as proposed in the literature.

The first characteristic, Personalizing Advising, focuses on two issues. The advisors ability to individualize the advising sessions in accordance with each students needs and concerns was noted first. In other words, does the advisor vary his or her approach among students? Second, the advisors ability to express personal interest or the closeness of the advisor-student relationship was noted.

The second characteristic, Decision Making, takes note of who has responsibility for making and carrying out decisions.

The third characteristic, Topics/Activities, focuses on two issues. The breadth of topics discussed and reference or referral to other institutional resources were noted.

The fifth section of the Observation Sheet is entitled Intent. Intent refers to the philosophy or purpose for advising as shown by the advisor during the observations. This section contains space for recording explicit statements or behaviors by the advisor that reveals their intent of advising.

Under each characteristic there is a space labeled “note.” This was space for the researcher to note specific quotes or to describe actions that influenced the researcher’s thoughts on the nature of each of the observed advising relationships (see Appendix B) .

#### Interview Protocol

The interview protocol was developed to assist advisors in explaining their approach to advising and to recall what influenced their advising strategy or approach in the sessions observed. The interview protocol consisted of an introduction and three questions. The introduction gave a brief description of the study and the researcher. The purpose of the introduction was to ensure that each participant was provided with standardized background information.

The first question asked the advisors to describe their approach to advising. The purpose of this question was to reveal each advisors philosophy or intent of advising.

After establishing the intent of the advisor, the research then asked the advisor if the sessions just observed were in any way different from what they do normally. This question allowed the advisor to expand or clarify their behaviors or actions in the advising sessions observed.

Third, the researcher reviewed the previously observed advising sessions with the advisors. During the review the researcher asked the advisors two questions, what differences existed between the students just seen and did they approach the students in different ways? The purpose of these questions was to identify the conditions or circumstances that effect advisors' advising styles (see Appendix C) .

### Pilot Tests

The observation sheet and interview protocol were tested by piloting the proposed procedures on two PAs who were not included in the sample of the study. The procedures were tested in the presence of an expert on academic advising who offered suggestions on the content of the protocols and procedures employed to gather data.

The results of the pilot studies identified unclear, missing, and inappropriate questions and procedures. As a result of the pilot studies, the protocol were modified.

The final form of the observation sheet and interview protocol appear in Appendices B and C.

### Observations

The Observation Sheet was used to record behaviors occurring according to their relation with advising characteristics outlined in the literature on developmental academic advising and compare what was observed in advising interactions to the definitions and model in the literature. There were several purposes of the observations. First, to explore the possibility that prescriptive and developmental advising is really a unidimensional continuum. Second, to reveal whether differences between prescriptive and developmental advising are distinguishable in actual practice. Third, to reveal whether advisors intent or philosophy of advising is observable. This information may then help explain how academic advisors interact with their students, identify other advising styles present that do not reflect the continuum, and determine if advisors vary their advising style between students.

Observations were conducted at three time periods in the Fall, 1996, semester. The first round of observations was conducted during the week of October 7-11, 1996. This week was chosen for two reasons. First, it is close enough to the start of the semester, a time when certain advising behaviors on the part of PAs (e.g., adjustment issues) might be expected. Second, it is before opscan/pre-registration week (opscan week is the week students at this institution register for their next semester classes) to avoid a period when advising focuses typically on registering for classes, and signing forms.

The second and third rounds of observations were conducted during the week of November 4-8 and November 11-15, 1996. These weeks mark the period following op-scan week but before students leave for fall break, a one-week period at the institution under study. The weeks following fall break were not selected due to their close proximity to final exams.

Each observation period lasted approximately two hours. Since participants usually schedule student appointments in 20-30 minute segments, two hours allowed the researcher to observe each PA with four to six students per observation period.

### Interviews

The interview had three purposes. First, to identify or reveal the intentions or philosophies of PAs academic advisors. Second, to identify and explore the conditions or circumstances that advisors are most likely to use in developmental and prescriptive advising. And third, to identify other advising styles present, if any, that do not fit the developmental-prescriptive continuum as proposed in the literature.

The researcher interviewed each PA after each observation session. The interviews were scheduled to last approximately one hour. However, the average time to complete an interview was 25 minutes.

### Data Analysis Techniques

The two data collection techniques employed in this study required two analytical techniques. The first technique analyzed data obtained from the observations of the advisors with students and the second analyzed data from the individual interviews with advisors.

### Analysis of Observations Data

Observations were tracked on the Observation Sheet which recorded advising behaviors, content, and impressions of the researcher during the observation period. Data collection and data interpretation took place simultaneously. The investigator took notes during and immediately after each advising session to assure that all data are recorded thoroughly and correctly. Section three of the Observation Sheet allowed the researcher to record the activities that occurred in the advising session. Section four enabled the researcher to record the advising behaviors or nature of the advising session. Section five enabled the research to record behaviors or actions that revealed advisor intentions or purposes of advising.

### Content of Advising Session

Part three of the Observation Sheet was developed to assist the researcher to record the topics/activities of the advising session and who initiated conversation about the topics or activities discussed. This data were analyzed three ways. First, activities and topics were compared to advising behaviors and student and advisor characteristics to determine if advising style varied with topics addressed or individual characteristics.

Second, the researcher reviewed who raised the issues or topics discussed within each advising session. This revealed information about the intent of the advisor. For instance, a session where the advisor only responded to the student's presenting concern, revealed the advisor's intent was to answer students questions, not to teach new information.

## The Nature of the Advising Relationship

The advisor-advisee relationship was analyzed by the way the advisor addressed the student. This part of the Observation Sheet was developed to identify the nature of advisors' behavioral styles. The Observation Sheet identified three factors inherent in all advising and the researcher recorded the ways advisors addressed each factor. The intent was to determine the correspondence between developmental advising as proposed in the literature and what was observed.

In an effort to determine if advisors vary their styles according to individual characteristics of the student or topics addressed, the researcher looked for advising behaviors commonly used in specific circumstances. For example, the researcher sorted all data by race of the student to report frequency by type of advising (advising behaviors). The purpose of this analysis was to measure whether there was a preferred advising style when discussing certain topics/activities with certain students.

### Intent

The behaviors and actions of advisors were recorded during the advising sessions in an effort to reveal the intent or philosophy of the advisor. One way the researcher explored intent was to compare the intent recorded from the observations to the philosophy stated in the interviews.

### Analysis of Interview Data

All advisor interviews were tape recorded and extensive field notes were taken during and immediately following each interview. Data collection and data interpretation took place simultaneously. That is, the researcher developed an understanding of what was heard and sought to confirm or disconfirm what was recorded during the observations and interviews.

The data from the interviews were analyzed in steps. First, all interviews were transcribed. The transcriptions were read and reread in an effort to help the researcher identify commonalities. Once common styles of advising were identified, the researcher explored the transcripts for sub-styles. The researcher reported the styles and sub-styles in relation to the characteristics of advising outlined in the literature (e.g., content, personalization, and decision-making) and illustrated all with verbatim quotes from the respondents.

### Authenticity and Trustworthiness

#### Authenticity

Steps were taken to enhance the authenticity and trustworthiness of the data. First, the Observation Sheet and Interview Protocol were tested by piloting the proposed procedures on two PAs who were not in the sample. The test of the protocols enabled the researcher to assess the appropriateness and practicality of the data collection approach. For example, the researcher was concerned that the interview protocol elicit data related to the second and third research questions.

Second, the test of the protocol was conducted in the presence of an expert on academic advising who offered suggestions on the content and procedures of the protocols. Pilot studies are essential in developing procedures for applying the research instrument, testing the wording of the questions for understanding, and ensuring questions or observations are measuring the objective under study (Katz, 1953).

Third, the topics/activities were based on Part Two of the AAI, Advisor-Advisee Activities and the rating of advisors behaviors/approach was based on Part One of the AAI, Developmental-Prescriptive Advising (DPA). The AAI has been reported as reliable and valid (Winston & Sandor, 1984b). The internal consistency of the DPA was estimated by the Cronbach Alpha to be .78. In Part II of the AAI, Activity Categories, the activities were grouped into the five categories by experts in the field. There are statistically significant correlations between all five categories of activities and the DPA. This means that the activities categories are interrelated.

#### Trustworthiness

The use of two data collection techniques, observations and interviews, increased the trustworthiness of this study. Method triangulation enhances the assets and diminishes the liabilities of a single method. The effectiveness of triangulation rests on the premise that the weakness in each single method will be offset by the strengths of another (Mathison, 1988).

#### Summary

Data for this study were collected through two techniques, observations and interviews. Specifically, the data from the observations provided information about the correspondence between the developmental model proposed in the literature and the behaviors observed, whether developmental prescriptive and developmental advising were distinguishable in practice and which advising styles present did not reflect the developmental-prescriptive continuum.

The data collected in the interviews also were analyzed to identify whether advisor intent is observable, to identify and explore conditions or circumstances that effected advising styles, and to identify other advising styles that did not fit the developmental-prescriptive continuum. The interviews elicited data by asking advisors to describe their typical advising style and whether they varied their advising style according to each student.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### FINDINGS

#### Description of the Sample

The sample of advisors chosen for this study were selected according to three criteria. First, the advisors met the definition of a professional academic advisor. Second, the advisors were employed by a specialized advising service not associated with any one college. Third, the advisors met with at least half of their students during structured advising sessions. Structured advising sessions assured that at least four students were scheduled during the two-hour observation period. All advisors who met these criteria were invited to participate. Of the seventeen invited, ten agreed to participate. Five were advisors within the University Academic Advising Center (UAAC). The other five were VTASP advisors the Office of Academic Enrichment Programs (OAEP) within the Center for Academic Enrichment Excellence (CAEE).

The sample consisted of eight female advisors, two African Americans and six Caucasians, and two male advisors, both African Americans. Of the ten advisors who participated in the two-hour observation period, one met with five students, four met with four students, four met with three students, and one met with two students. A total of thirty-five students were observed in the advising sessions. The gender and race make-up of the advisees were: fourteen females, nineteen males; twenty-five Caucasians, eight African Americans, and two Asians.

#### Data Collection Process

Data for this research were collected during three one-week periods: from October 14, 1996 to October 18, 1996; from November 4, 1996 to November 8, 1996; and, from November 11, 1996 to November 15, 1996. The means by which data were collected included two-hour observations during structured advising sessions, and post-observation interviews with advisors.

#### Findings

The findings from this study are reported in three sections. The first section pertains to advising styles. Advising styles were present that did not reflect the developmental- prescriptive definitions of advising. The three styles reported represent a combination of developmental- prescriptive advising characteristics. The three identified advising styles are reported on two tables. The first table reports observable behaviors of advising styles in relation to the characteristics of advising proposed in the literature. The second table reports stated philosophies of advising styles. After the styles are reported and defined, a comparison is made between the observed styles and stated philosophies. This comparison addresses whether advisors philosophies and/or intents are observable in advising practice.

In section two, the researcher reports observed and stated factors that effected advising sessions. The conditions or factors are reported in terms of effect on the characteristics of developmental-prescriptive advising (i.e., content, personalization, and decision-making).

The third section focuses on the developmental-prescriptive advising model and the characteristics of developmental and prescriptive advising as described in the literature. First, the three distinguishing characteristics of developmental and prescriptive advising (i.e., content, personalization, and decision-making) are reviewed in table format. Second, the criteria used to develop the developmental-prescriptive model of advising are compared to the observed advising styles to discern whether conceptual differences between prescriptive and developmental styles accurately describe what was observed. Third, are the criteria used to define distinguishable in advising practice. In other words, does the developmental-prescriptive continuum developmental and prescriptive advising transferable to other advising styles?

### Advising Styles

The advising styles section focuses on the first research question of this study: What distinguishable styles of advising were observable in actual advising sessions?

The researcher identified three advising styles: (a) Counselor, (b) Teacher, and (c) Scheduler. Advising styles were identified and defined according to six characteristics: (a) content, (b) personalized, (c) decision-making, (d) advisor comments, (e) advisor behaviors, and (f) stated philosophy. Three of the six characteristics were derived from the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) (Winston & Sandor, 1984). Content, personalization, and decision-making are three aspects present in the AAI, relevant to all advising. The other three characteristics, philosophy, advisor behaviors, and advisor comments, were developed by the researcher to better define each advising style.

The characteristics of the three observed advising styles are based on the following definitions. Content considers the topics or activities that took place during the advising session and who initiated the topic of discussion, student or advisor. The next two characteristics, personalized and decision-making, pertain to the nature of the advisor-advisee relationship. Personalized refers to three issues. First, does the advisor express personal concern? Second, is there a closeness between the advisor and student? Third, does the advisor reflect a concern for the students' total education? The characteristic of decision-making concerns who has the responsibility for making and carrying out decisions during the advising session. Advisor comments represents the remarks made by the advisors during the observations. Remarks were recorded that revealed or exhibited specific language of each advising style. Advisor behaviors depicts advisors' non-verbal behaviors and overall conduct during the observed advising sessions. All five of the above characteristics were recorded during the observed advising sessions.

The last characteristic, stated advisor philosophy, related only to the post-observation interviews. The first interview question asked advisors to explain their philosophy and/or approach toward advising. The philosophy of each style was reported along several themes: the primary objective or purpose of the advising style, personalization, decision-making, and variations of stated

roles or purpose within each style. Statements made by advisors concerning the advising characteristics of content, personalization, or decision-making were recorded and described under the appropriate sub-heading.

Of the ten advisors observed, three fit the Counselor style, three fit the Teacher style, and four fit the Scheduler style. Of the three major styles, there were three sub-styles. The sub-styles were not meant to show a large variation within each style. Rather, the sub-styles were a modest deviation from the style. The Nurturer and Coach were sub-styles of the counseling style, and the Colleague was a sub-style of the Scheduler style. See Table 3.

Of the ten advisors interviewed, five expressed a Teacher philosophy, three expressed a Counselor philosophy, and two expressed a Scheduler philosophy. Advisors were classified within a philosophy according to the majority of their remarks. The philosophies are shown in Table 4, organized by advising style.

The following section details the three defined advising styles according to six characteristics (content, personalization, decision-making, advisor comments, advisor behaviors, and stated philosophy).

### Counselor

The Counselor was defined as one who advises students on personal and academic issues with an emphasis on the personal. However, there were variations between those identified as Counselors. To account for these variations, counseling sub-styles were created. Two sub-styles were identified: Nurturer and Coach. Six characteristics of advising were utilized to describe the counseling style and sub-styles.

Content. Advisors classified as Counselors consistently initiated topics in the area of PDIR (personal development and interpersonal relationship). In addition to topics concerning PDIR, the Coach style focused a considerable amount of time on TPS (teaching personal skills), PI (providing information) and academics in general. One other important finding was that the Counselor style, not the sub-styles, rarely initiated topics or activities in RCS and EIP. If students raised these topics, the Counselor often had to call other offices on campus, the student's departmental major, or referred the students to their faculty advisor (in the case of VTASP advisors) to answer these questions.

Personalization. The Counselor's style did not seem to change from student to student. This was very prominent with the Coach sub-style, where the advisors' discussions with students were scripted. The advisor discussed the same exact topics and activities with every student. The only time a new subject was initiated was when a student initiated the subject/topic. Two other observable behaviors were that Counselors were familiar with students backgrounds and used humor and small talk throughout the sessions.

Table 3

Observable Behaviors of Advisor's Style in Relation to the Characteristics of Advising Proposed in the Literature

Advisor Style	Advisor-Advisee Relationship				
	Content	Personalization	Decision-Making	Advisor Comments	Advisor Behaviors
<b>Counselor</b>	Main focus was PDIR. Rarely initiated RCS and EIP.	Familiar with the students background, personal and academic. Talked about past sessions and what has happened since.	Made suggestions and referred students to other departments, offices, etc.  Talked to students about how their interests related to their major, career, and classes.	Used "let's" and "we" throughout the advising sessions.	Continual positive reinforcement of students.
Counselor Sub-style: Nurturer	A sub-style of Counselor. However, touched on all topics areas. Did not seem to avoid RCS and TPS.	Familiar with students background, personal and academic.  Talked about past sessions.  Expressed concerned with students well-being (i.e., "are you OK?")	Asked students to call and let advisor know what happened with referrals.  Wrote down referrals names and numbers for the student.  Asked students their interests and opinions.	"Do you feel on top of things."  "Are you OK, are you enjoying yourself."	Takes notes throughout the session, and has student look over the notes at the end.  Concerned with student in and out of class experiences.

Table 3 cont'd

Observable Behaviors of Advisor's Style in Relation to the Characteristics of Advising Proposed in the Literature

Advisor Style	Advisor-Advisee Relationship				
	Content	Personalization	Decision-Making	Advisor Comments	Advisor Behaviors
Counselor Sub-style: Coach	Content was very scripted.  Much more focused on academics than any other of the Counselors.	Began each session with small talk.  Sat close to students and had very constant eye contact.  Again, very concerned about student, but more focused on academic matters.	Had all students make goals for the end of the semester.  Asked student to describe how they are going to reach those goals and help them modify the goals to make them achievable. (Most of the goals centered on GPA's, test grades).  Made suggestions and asked for students feedback.	Used the word "realistically" when helping students set goals.  "Do you see how this all fits together."  Continually telling student "they will be OK" and "they are on track."	Made several references to team work and sports.  Gave every student study tips (how to study, help centers, contacts)

Table 3 cont'd

Observable Behaviors of Advisor's Style in Relation to the Characteristics of Advising Proposed in the Literature

Advisor Style	Advisor-Advisee Relationship				
	Content	Personalization	Decision-Making	Advisor Comments	Advisor Behaviors
<b>Scheduler</b>	<p>Sessions were focused on scheduling, grades, and academics.</p> <p>Only with first time advisees did the advisor discuss PDIR.</p>	<p>More familiar with students academic background than personal background.</p>	<p>Decisions were made according to checklists, core-requirements, and the computer screen.</p> <p>Gave students options based on checklists.</p> <p>Made suggestions on how to improve grades.</p> <p>Made comments on the difficulty of classes.</p> <p>Gave students copies of core-requirements, checklists.</p>	<p>“The key is making good grades, internships, and planning classes well.”</p>	<p>The computer played the third party in the advising session.</p>

Table 3 cont'd

Observable Behaviors of Advisor's Style in Relation to the Characteristics of Advising Proposed in the Literature

Advisor Style	Advisor-Advisee Relationship				
	Content	Personalization	Decision-Making	Advisor Comments	Advisor Behaviors
Scheduler Sub-style: Colleague	Major focus was still academics, however the Colleague advisor spent a majority of time on PDIR and PI (this could be due to the reason of the appointments, and the number of times the students had met with this advisor in the past).	Was very familiar with the students workload and professors.  Used personal experiences as well as other students' experiences to explain issues.  With new advisee' asked more personal questions.	Talked about students' options and policies that affected those options.  Asked students to stay in touch concerning their progress and decisions.  Pointed out classes that may be potential problems.	"You need to be happy with what you decide."	Talked about resources (help centers, scholarships, contacts).

Table 3 cont'd

Observable Behaviors of Advisor's Style in Relation to the Characteristics of Advising Proposed in the Literature

Advisor Style	Advisor-Advisee Relationship				
	Content	Personalization	Decision-Making	Advisor Comments	Advisor Behaviors
<b>Teacher</b>	Advisors consistently worked in topics concerning PDIR.  Focused more on TPS and PI with first time advisees.	Advisors were familiar with student background and history at Tech.  Made efforts to find out backgrounds of first time students.  Initiated small talk about topics outside the realm of the appointment.	Made suggestions and recommendations  Asked for student feedback about suggestions and past referrals.  Helped students consider alternative solutions.	“Realistic expectations.”  “You know better than anybody else what you need.”	Made jokes and smiled often.  Let students know they can email them or call whenever they have a question  Taught students processes and procedures (i.e., fill out opscan) but left responsibility to carry out tasks up to students.

Note. The abbreviations EIP, PI, PDIR, RCS, and TPS indicate topic areas covered in typical advising session. EIP= Exploring Institutional Policies; PI= Providing Information; PDIR= Personal Development and Interpersonal Relationship; RCS= Registration and Class Scheduling; and, TPS= Teaching Personal Skills. From Winston, R. B., Jr. & Sandor, J. A. (1984) . Evaluating academic advising: A preliminary manual for the academic advising inventory. Athens, GA: Student Development Associates.

Table 4

Stated Philosophies and Purposes of Advising Styles

Advising Styles	Stated Philosophy
<b>Teacher</b>	<p>Teach students that they are responsible for their decisions.</p> <p>Make a conscious effort to let the student lead the way.</p> <p>Help students take the initiative and work through their problems on their own.</p> <p>Give them (students) enough information to solve their own problems.</p>
<b>Scheduler</b>	<p>Be a resource for students.</p> <p>Emphasis is on academics and finding out how they are doing in classes.</p> <p>Give support, make suggestions, to give referrals, and to give tips.</p>
Colleague (Scheduler sub-style)	<p>Be a role model.</p> <p>Force them to see reality.</p> <p>Get the ones with bad grades to recognize they need help.</p>

Table 4 cont'd

Stated Philosophies and Purposes of Advising Styles

Advising Styles	Stated Philosophy
<b>Counselor</b>	<p>Make students as comfortable as possible.</p> <p>Let them (students) know someone cares.</p> <p>Help encourage, support, and coordinate.</p> <p>Help students become self-sufficient.</p> <p>“It is a teaching role in a sense. But is more a facilitators role. More the initiators role. It is a support role.”</p>
Nurturer ( Counselor sub-style)	<p>Help calm students, and let them know everything will be OK.</p> <p>Help them prioritize.</p> <p>Academics comes second after their happiness, and welfare.</p> <p>“ I try to calm them down just staying, it’s going to work out. They’ve got enough on them.”</p>
Coach ( Counselor sub-style)	<p>Help them feel like an individual not a number and let them know someone cares.</p> <p>Work together as a team</p> <p>Motivate students.</p>

Table 4 cont'd

Stated Philosophies and Purposes of Advising Styles

Advising Styles	Stated Philosophy
Coach (Counselor-sub-style) cont'd.	“I try to be as real as possible. And I always say we, rather than you.”

Statements made by Counselors during post-observation interviews highlighted two important issues. All Counselors stressed the importance of making students feel significant and distinct. This was reflected in such statements as, “ My approach, my attitude is the same. But some students are different. Therefore, I have to change to meet the needs of the students.” In addition, both the general counseling style and nurture sub-style made statements reflecting concern for the whole student; however, the Coach style did not make explicit statements regarding the whole student. The following statements reflect the Counselor’s and Nurturer’s concern for the whole student.

“ To me the advisor is some one there for that student as a total person. And should be able to talk to that student about the total person...I ask students what is it that you need to do to keep a total balance of yourself ?”

“..that education is not just coming from those classes, it’s coming from all around..”

Decision-making. In no session did advisors classified as Counselors make decisions for the students. However, the Nurturer frequently asked students “Are you sure this is really what you want to do,” “would you enjoy a class like that?” The Nurturer either scheduled referral appointments for students or asked students to call with an update when referrals were made.

In addition to the reported behaviors and comments from observations, the Counselors made statements during the interview that expressed their philosophy of decision-making and responsibility. The Counselors, including the Nurturer, were very clear that responsibility for success lies with the student. The following statement represents the Counselors’ view on decision-making: “The approach is to get people involved in their own selves and to help people be self-sufficient.”

Advisor comments and behaviors. The comments and behaviors by the three advisors classified as Counselors highlight the similarities and differences between the counseling styles. While all advisors expressed some concern with the students’ well-being, the Nurturer, frequently asked questions such as “ are you OK,” “are you enjoying yourself,” and “do you feel on top of things?” Another difference was reported in the use of positive reinforcement. While all advisors in this style used some sort of positive reinforcement, the Coach sub-style continually told students “we are not out of the ball game yet,” “you are special,” and “I know you are going to accomplish your goals.” Overall, the Counselors expressed a genuine concern for the students. With the exception of the Coach, the Counselors tended to be more focused on the students personal lives than academics. While the Coach did tend to focus on academics, the use of motivational techniques and positive reinforcement classified this advisor as a Counselor.

Philosophy/purpose. The overall theme of the counseling philosophy was making the student feel comfortable and supported. All counseling styles and sub-styles stated that one of their main objectives was to help students feel comfortable. The following statement reveals the advisors

defined as Counselor's concern for student comfort : "I believe students must become comfortable with the advisor and I attempt to approach them where they may feel comfortable. It is important that they be able to trust their advisor."

The quotes in Table 4 describe the different philosophies within the counseling style. The major discrepancy is in the stated role and purpose of each Counselor style. The main purpose of the Counselor was perceived to be a helper, to encourage and support students. The Nurturer's main purpose was perceived to be a parent, to help students feel comfortable and calm.

In conclusion, a comparison of advisors observed and stated styles revealed that advisors who were observed to have a counseling style also stated a counseling philosophy.

### Scheduler

The Scheduler was defined as one who advises students on personal and academic issues with an emphasis on academics. A Scheduler sub-style, the Colleague sub-style, was created to account for the variation among advisors identified as Schedulers. The sub-style was labeled Colleague due to the advisors knowledge of the advisees classes, coursework, and major. Both the Scheduler style and Colleague sub-style saw themselves as a resource for students. Again, six characteristics of advising were used to describe the Scheduler style and sub-style.

Content. The content of these advising sessions centered on academic issues. When issues concerning PDIR arose, the topics were typically about career alternatives, degree or major requirements, or evaluating academic progress. The Colleague sub-style was the only advisor with a scheduling style that focused a majority of the time on issues of PDIR and PI.

Personalization. Of the three advising styles, the Scheduler is the least personalized. With the exception of new students (first-time advisees or first-year students), Schedulers did not inquire about students personal lives or backgrounds. The Colleague advisor, unlike the general Schedulers, was very familiar with students' course work and professors. The Colleague engaged in more small talk (i.e., talk concerning grades, tough classes, and helpful professors) than the other Schedulers. The Schedulers did not vary their approach between students. The only observable variations were in the content of the sessions.

In addition to the recorded behaviors and statements from the observations, the statements made by Schedulers in the interviews revealed contradictory philosophy regarding personalization. Two general comments were made. First, that students are all different and have different needs. Second, that the approach used with each student does not and should not change.

" Well, you know, they all have different problems."

" I hope I am not treating anyone differently."

" When I get to know the person my initial interaction with them is pretty standard."

Decision-making. Decision-making in Scheduler advising sessions centered around checklists, core-requirements, and the computer screen. It was typical for Schedulers to have the

student's grade history on the computer screen before the student entered. The student's grades and past classes were used to decide their future schedule and major. Of all the Schedulers, the Colleague was the most conscious of students' opinions. The Colleague style engaged in more small talk with the student and therefore, had more opportunities to hear student opinions.

In addition to the recorded behaviors and statements from the observations, statements made by Schedulers during the interviews revealed their philosophy regarding decision-making. The Scheduler was clear that responsibility lay with the student. The following statements represent the Scheduler's view on decision-making: "I am not here to solve their problems. Definitely not. But I can refer them to other places on campus."

Advisor comments and behaviors. The comments and behaviors of the Schedulers emphasized their intent or approach to advising. The use of the computer is an important part of this style. All four Schedulers, including the Colleague, relied on the computer screen for information concerning the student. The major difference between the Colleague sub-style and the general Schedulers was the amount of personalization. The Colleague seemed to understand the dilemmas of the students. The Colleague consistently showed this empathy through statements like: "It's OK to ask for help" and "Are you still going to class (to a frustrated student)?"

Philosophy/purpose. Overall, the Scheduler philosophy revolved around helping students achieve academically. The main function of the advisor was to be knowledgeable about university policies, processes, and other available resources on campus. The following statements represent the emphasis on academics within the Scheduler philosophy: "So, certainly with an emphasis on academics. Getting settled in classes, and figuring out the system. How to be a good time manager, and good studier" and "I always ask them how their classes are going, and I always check their QCA."

The variation in philosophy between the Scheduler style and Colleague sub-style was regarding their relationship with students. While both focused on being a resource for students, the Colleague relationship was based on friendship and shared academic experiences. The Scheduler role was more of a watchdog. In other words, their primary objective was to help students graduate. The following statements represent the variation between the Scheduler style and Colleague sub-style. In regard to the most important aspects of advising, the Scheduler stated:

"How are their classes going, are they in any kind of academic trouble, and where are they in terms of making a decision about a major. Those are probably the three biggies."

The comments made by the Colleague showed a greater concern for the advisor-advisee relationship:

"I really do think it makes a difference (the way the advisor dresses) because it is intimidating to talk to someone you see as an authority figure."

"A lot of people talk at students...as opposed to talking to students."

In conclusion, a comparison of advisors observed and stated styles revealed that advisors who were observed to have a Scheduler style also stated a Scheduler philosophy.

### Teacher

The Teacher was defined as one who advises students on both personal and academic issues. The main objective of the Teacher advising style was to enable students to become self-sufficient through education and instruction. There were no sub-styles among those identified as Teachers. Six characteristics of advising were utilized to describe the Teacher style.

Content. The most prominent observation concerning content was the utilization of all topic areas consistently, regardless of the student's presenting concern. For example, when students came in to schedule classes for the spring semester or change their exam schedule, the advisors defined as Teachers initiated topics such as Personal Development and Interpersonal Relationship (PDIR), Teaching Personal Skills (TPS), and Exploring Institutional Policies (EIP).

One factor that did seem to effect the content of Teachers' advising sessions was the number of times the student and advisor had met in the past. The content of sessions with first-time advisees focused on PDIR, PI, and TPS. For example, first-time advisees were often given information about the advising program or department and the advisors collected information, on both the students' personal and academic backgrounds. Because advisors were already familiar with continuing students' backgrounds, not as much time was spent giving information about the institution and collecting information about each student's background.

Personalization. Advisors identified as Teachers were personalized in that they were familiar with the student's background, brought up past advising sessions and conversations, and talked about issues outside of the classroom. Teachers expressed personal concern and there seemed to be a personal relationship between advisors and students. However, like the other two advising styles, the Teachers approach did not vary between students .

As revealed in statements made during post-observation interviews, the Teacher philosophy touched on several aspects of personalization including: a close advisor-advisee relationship and differences between students. During the interviews, Teachers stated that both student comfort level and trust are necessary to build a good working relationship between advisor and advisee. The following statements represent the Teacher philosophy regarding the advisor-advisee relationship:

“ I try to make them feel as comfortable as I can.”

“ You need to develop a bit of a relationship that is cooperational, that we can work together, that it is not me imposing on the student..”

Teachers unanimously stated that students have different needs. The following statement reveals the Teacher philosophy concerning the treatment of students: “ If there are generalizations made, you better leave them at the door when you start advising a person, because everyone is different.”

Decision-making. Advisors identified as Teachers differed from the other two styles in their approach to decision-making. Like the other styles, Teachers made suggestions and expressed their concerns; however, the Teachers did not carry out tasks for students. For example, when suggesting a student contact a tutor one advisor said “I’ll leave it up to you to decide what you need in tutoring. Here is the phone number.” Another advisor, when discussing a student’s spring schedule, said, “You decide what you want to take. I don’t decide. I’ll write down your options and you decide.” However, the advisor never made the final decision.

Teachers often asked for the student’s input in the decision making process. For example, one advisor concerned about a student’s grades asked “Do you think you need tutoring? If yes, then I can refer you.” In addition, the Teacher philosophy touched on the issue of student input. The following statement represents the Teacher philosophy concerning student input: “I have made a conscious decision to really let the student lead the way.”

The last common decision-making theme accentuated teaching. Advisors pointed out issues students needed to think about and “realistic expectations.” Teachers also explained how to do things like read an exam schedule, fill out an opscan, use a syllabus, buy books, and learn about class content.

Teacher philosophy touched on the issue of teaching students to be self-sufficient. The following statement made during post-observation interview reveals Teacher philosophy concerning student self-sufficiency: “And I want them to learn to do things on their own.”

Advisor comments and behaviors. The comments and behaviors of the advisors defined as Teachers revealed the importance of educating students and making the student an active member of the advising session. The following comments express the importance of involving the student.

“You know better than anybody else what you need.”

“Do you understand the process so far?”

In addition, the behaviors of Teachers supported the notion of involving the student. For example, the Teachers stayed in contact with students via email, phone calls, and appointments. Being accessible through several means gives students the opportunity to ask questions or just chat with their advisor anytime. Students with greater access to their advisor have a greater opportunity to develop a relationship with their advisor and to become involved in the advising process.

Philosophy/purpose. The overall Teacher philosophy stressed the importance of educating students about university policies, processes, and resources in an effort to make the student a responsible and independent individual. The most common theme among Teacher philosophy dealt with leaving decision-making to the students. Advisors observed to have a Teacher style also stated a Teacher philosophy.

### Observed Behaviors v. Stated Philosophies

The second research question addresses whether advisors' stated philosophy of advising was observable in practice. A comparison of the advisors' observed behaviors and stated philosophies revealed advising philosophy was observable in a majority of the advising sessions.

Of the ten advisors in the study, nine had observable behaviors that fit their stated philosophy. One advisor had contradictory behaviors and philosophy. This advisor's observed behaviors and stated philosophies were defined as contradictory because the majority of the advisor's observable behaviors were defined as fitting the Scheduler style and the majority of the advisors statements were defined as fitting the Teacher style. In other words, the majority of the advisors in this study did what they professed they do.

### Conditions and Circumstances Effecting Advising Sessions

This section deals with the third research question: What condition or circumstances are mostly likely to effect the advising style or session? The following section reports conditions and circumstances that effected the advising session as well as conditions that did not seem to effect the advising session. Ten conditions were accounted for as part of the observation protocol (e.g., department of advisor, date/time of the semester of the session, purpose or presenting concern, who initiated the presenting concern, total number of advising sessions advisor and advisee have met, year of the student, race of the advisor and advisee, and gender of the advisor and advisee). The conditions were analyzed for their impact or lack of impact on the advising session.

The conditions listed on the demographics sheet of the observation protocol as well as stated conditions from the interviews were analyzed in an effort to reveal their effect on advising sessions. The conditions were reported in terms of their effect on content, personalization, and decision-making.

### Content

Several conditions influenced the content or topics discussed in the advising session. Certain factors including: year of the student, presenting concern, time of the semester/year, number of times met in the past, who initiated the appointment, and the advising style of the advisor, were found in both observations and interviews to effect the content of the advising session. It was observed that advising sessions of first-year students were more focused than sessions with continuing students on providing information, explaining policies, and getting to know one another. The following statements revealed the impact of the year of the student (i.e., freshmen, sophomore, senior, etc.) and the number of times met on the content of the advising session.

“The first meeting of the first semester would be different for a continuing student than for an entering freshman. Different issues.”

“Well, she's different. I've been dealing with her for a long time.”

Four other interrelated factors effecting content were presenting concern, time of the semester/year, the department of the advisor, and who initiated the appointment. These factors were labeled interrelated because they effected each other as well as content. For example, during opscan week (registration for classes) the majority of appointments were made by advisors, with a presenting concern of completing a schedule for the spring semester. Another example deals with who initiated the appointment. It was observed that the majority of student-made appointments were typically by continuing students, and generally to remedy a specific problem. The following statements reveal the impact of these conditions on the content of the advising session:

“Typical for this time of year. This is our registration advising. The first appointment that I would normally have with a freshman would be much more open.”

“But all of these people brought their own agenda with them. And that happens lots of times with continuing students...it is more typical for the unstructured meetings to be with continuing students.”

One last factor that effected the overall content of the sessions was the style of the advisor. Teachers were more likely to initiate topics of personal development and interpersonal issues no matter what the presenting concern. Conversely, Schedulers were more likely to just focus on the issue or concern at hand without initiating other topics. This finding was consistent to the findings presented in Table 3.

Overall, the content of the sessions varied greatly. The data from this research suggest that the style of the advisor and the year of the student have the greatest impact on content. However, not enough data were collected to suggest who had the most impact on determining the content of the session.

Race and gender. Four conditions did not seem to impact the content of the advising sessions. The race of the advisor and advisee and gender of the advisor and advisee were not observed to effect the topics raised or who initiated the topics. This observation was further confirmed in the interviews when none of the advisors mentioned race or gender when discussing the content of advising sessions.

In this instance, what was observed and what was reported reinforced each other. This suggests that the content of the session was more likely to change according to students' needs than was advising style. This discussion will continue in Chapter Five.

#### Personalization

Both observations and statements from advisor interviews suggested two conditions had an impact on personalization: the number of times the student and advisor had met in the past, and the style of the advisor. For example, continuing students were more likely than first-time advisees or freshman to ask questions, to speak up when they disagreed with the advisor, and initiate small talk

with the advisor. The comfort level of the student in turn led to more trust between the advisor and advisee and, thus, a more honest and open advising relationship, one aspect of personalization.

These data come from observations and statements made by advisors fitting the Teacher and Counselor style. The Scheduler style did not mention comfort as part of their philosophy. Therefore, it may be said that the style of the advisor affected the personalization of the advising session.

Race and gender. Two factors did not seem to impact the personalization of the sessions. The race of the advisor and advisee and gender of the advisor and advisee were not observed to effect the closeness between advisor and advisee or the advisors personal concern for the student. This observation was further confirmed in the interviews, none of the advisors mentioned race or gender when discussing the content of advising sessions. In fact, a few advisors were adamant that race and gender did not affect the way they approached students and they did not purposely treat anyone different. This is ironic since most of the ten advisors interviewed stated that all students are different and have different needs.

“ I think we play on this thing about race and ethnic background to much.”

“ I hope I’m not treating anyone differently (in reference to race and gender).”

In the interviews advisors indicated they approached students according to their needs or differences. However, they seemed reluctant to approach students differently based on their race or gender. This brings up the issue of advising for differences that will be discussed in Chapter Five.

Again, what was observed and what was reported reinforced each other. This suggested that the personalization of the advising session was affected the most by how well the student and advisor knew each other and by advising style. While advising style did impact the level of personalization in some aspects, advising styles did not change across students.

### Decision-Making

The only condition reported to impact decision-making was advising style. Table 1 details the observed differences by advising style.

Race and gender. Race nor gender appeared to have an impact on the decision-making process. Again, none of the advisors mentioned race or gender during their interviews as a factor influencing their approach to advising.

In addition, several conditions not accounted for in the observation protocol were reported to effect the advising session. It was suggested several times in the post-observations interviews that the major or college of a student affects the content and the personalization (the way students are different, the closeness of the relationship) of the advising session.

“ The content would have been different for each major.”

“ The students in .... are bright... it (the major) is so different from social sciences..it is a different culture.”

Another factor impacting the advising session was the department of the advisor. The advisors department was observed to effect the processes and procedures of the advising session. The content of most advising sessions of advisors in one unit (UAAC) were prescribed by a set agenda established by the unit.

### The Developmental-Prescriptive Model

Crookston (1972) suggested that there are two basic approaches to academic advising: developmental and prescriptive. One instrument, the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI), was developed using Crookston's conceptualizations. The AAI defined developmental and prescriptive advising according to the characteristics shown in Table 5.

Figure 1 offers the authors interpretation of two ways to interpret the prescriptive-developmental continuum presented in the literature. Both alternatives reflect the approaches to academic advising as a dichotomy. Alternative A suggests that the two approaches, prescriptive and developmental, are discrete and at opposite ends of the continuum. Alternative B recognizes the overlap among prescriptive and developmental styles of advising while still proposing that the styles are at opposite ends of a continuum.

### Conceptual Differences

The fourth research question of this study asked the question, are the differences between prescriptive and developmental advising distinguishable in actual advising practice?

The analyses of data from this study led to the conclusion that the differences between developmental and prescriptive advising are not distinctly observable in practice. Two problems arose with the prescriptive-developmental model. The first problem arose when the researcher attempted to translate the model into observable behaviors. The model for developmental and prescriptive advising defines characteristics of advising style, but does not define actual behaviors. For instance, the model states that a developmental relationship consists of a mutually derived relationship that is warm, trusting, and purposive, and that a prescriptive advisor-advisee relationship is formal and distant. In order to label a relationship as either prescriptive or developmental, it is necessary to define the terms purposive, formal, and trust in actual behaviors. However, the literature on developmental and prescriptive advising does not present these styles as observable behaviors.

The second problem arose when the researcher attempted to sort observation notes and behaviors into the developmental or prescriptive characteristics. Findings from this study led to the conclusion that differences between prescriptive and developmental advising were not observable in actual advising practice. Advisors were quite consistent in using an advising style, but this style was generally a combination of prescriptive and developmental behaviors. For example, one advisor made suggestions and helped students find alternative solutions. According to the literature, this is a developmental approach to decision-making. However, this same advisor set up referrals for

students. According to the literature this is a prescriptive approach to decision-making. Therefore, the advisor approached decision-making both prescriptively and developmentally.

Another example occurred when a combination of developmental and prescriptive behaviors occurred across characteristics (i.e., content, personalization, and decision-making). One advisor who had a formal, scripted content, was very concerned about students and was familiar with the students' backgrounds. Therefore, the advisor was prescriptive in the sense of content and developmental in the sense of personalization.

The three advising styles identified in this study are illustrated in Figure 2. The two axis in Figure 2 represent the two aspects of the advisor-advisee relationship: personalization and decision-making. Personalization is defined by the advisor's ability to develop a personal relationship with the advisee. Decision-making is defined by the advisor's and advisee's role in the decision-making process. The diagonal line running through the middle of Figure 2 represents the prescriptive-developmental continuum. The two axis, like the continuum, illustrate a range of advising behaviors/styles.

The location of the styles on the figure represent observable behaviors of each style and variation between styles. For example, the placement of the Teacher style illustrates Teachers were observed to have a personal relationship with students and placed responsibility for decision-making with students. The placement of the Teacher style also illustrates that the Teacher style is less personal than the Counselor style, more personal than the Scheduler style, and of all three styles placed the most responsibility for decision-making with the student .

Two important finding are represented in Figure 2. First, advising styles are clustered in the middle of the prescriptive-developmental continuum. This illustrates the finding that advising styles are not distinct, that conceptual differences between prescriptive and developmental advising are not distinguishable in actual advising practice, and that advising styles are more accurately represented by Alternative B of Figure 1. Second, while each style is distinct, there is some overlap among observed styles. For example, although the Counselor and Scheduler styles were observed to have different levels of personalization with students, they did approach decision-making in similar ways. This is shown in Figure 2 by the placement of the Counselor and Scheduler style along the decision-making axis.

Table 5  
Characteristics of Developmental and Prescriptive Advising Styles as Stated in the Literature

Style	Advisor-Advisee Relationship		
	Content	Personalizing	Decision-Making
Developmental	Higher correlations were observed between PE, PDIR, and TPS.	A mutually derived relationship that is warm, trusting, and purposive.	The advisor helps students evaluate academic progress and identify steps or consider alternatives.
	DPA is correlated significantly with all five activity categories.	The student's total experience (in and out of class) is considered important and worthy of attention in advising relationship.	Student is given responsibility for making own decisions and carrying out those decisions.
		Both the advisor and student share their expectations of the advising process and share responsibilities for its success.	
Prescriptive	SC is not significantly correlated with any of the activity categories.	The student-advisor relationship is formal and distant.	The advisor tells students what to do, when to do it, and makes sure that they follow through.
		Academic matters are major focus of the advising session.	Many decisions are made by the advisor for the student.
		The advisor is seen as the "expert" and are responsible for the success of the session. Students are seen as receivers of information.	

Note. The abbreviations EIP, PI, PDIR, RCS, and TPS indicate topic areas covered in typical advising session. EIP= Exploring Institutional Policies; PI= Providing Information; PDIR= Personal Development and Interpersonal Relationship; RCS= Registration

and Class Scheduling; and, TPS= Teaching Personal Skills. The activities categories (PDIR, etc.) are not scales, they are informally grouped items that give a picture of the types of activities in which advisors and student engage. The activity categories are tended to be viewed as forming psychometrically unitary scales. From Winston, R. B., Jr. & Sandor, J. A. (1984) . Evaluating academic advising: A preliminary manual for the academic advising inventory. Athens, GA: Student Development Associates.

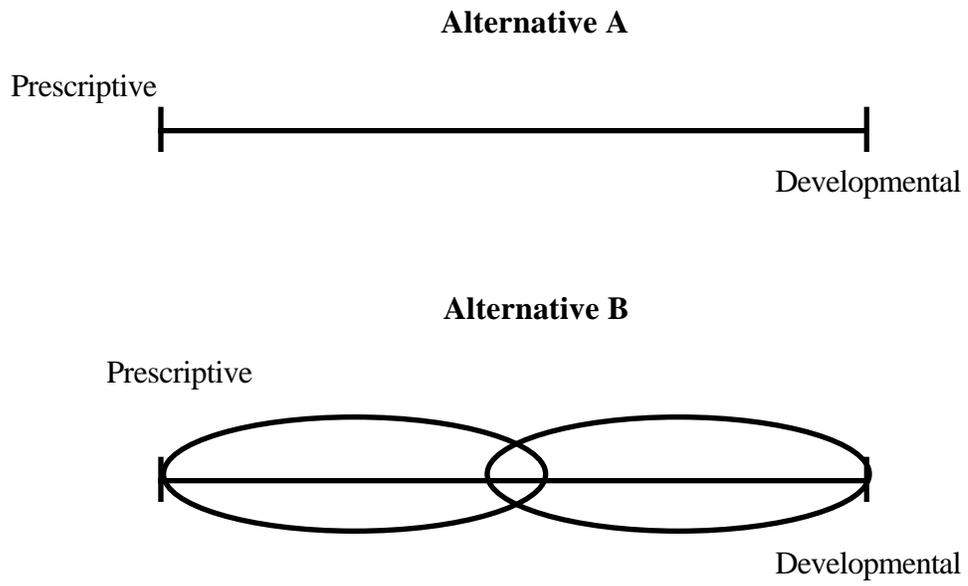


Figure 1. Competing Interpretations of Advising as Described in the Literature

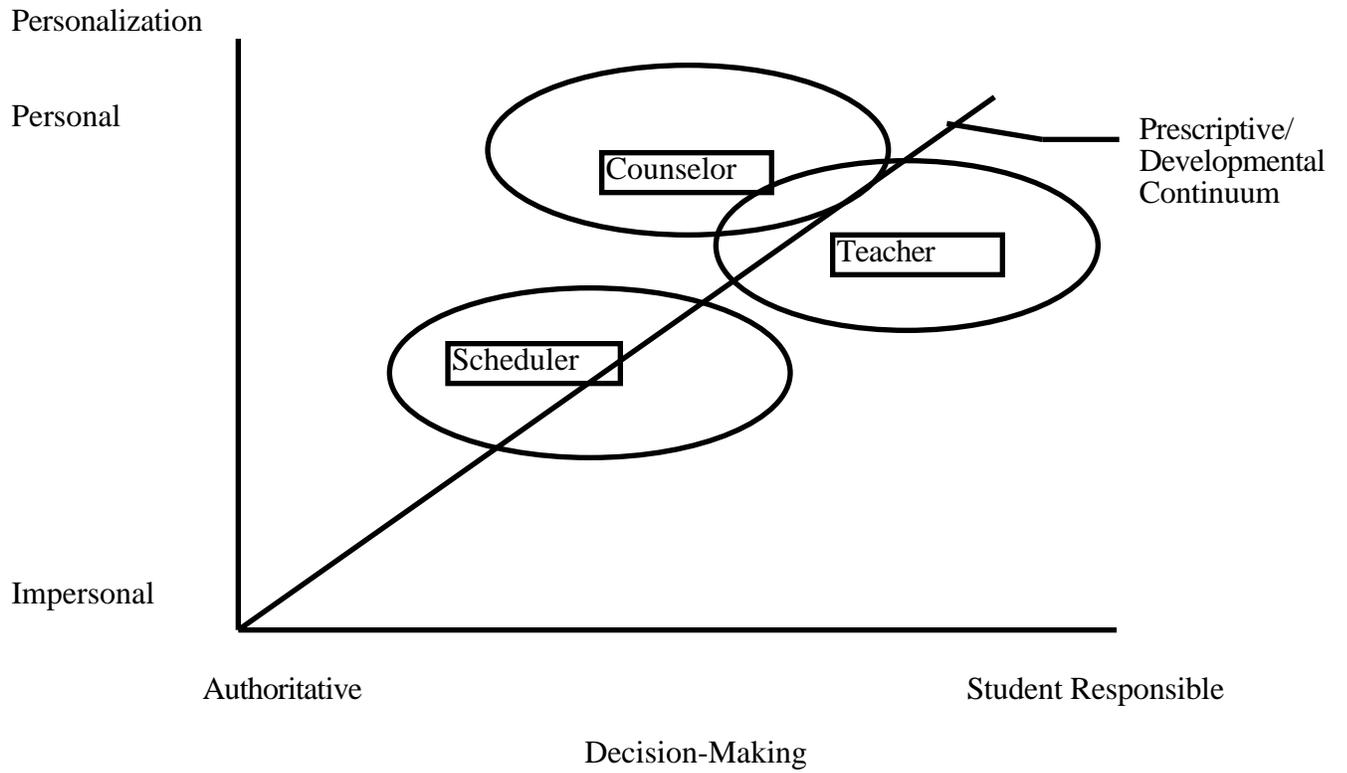


Figure 2. Observable Dimensions of Prescriptive and Developmental Advising Styles

### Similarity Between the Continuum and the Observable Advising Styles

The purpose of this study's fifth research question was to explore the similarities and differences between the literature-based model of developmental and prescriptive advising and the behaviors-in-use among professional academic advisors. This section will focus specifically, on the characteristics of advising used in the literature and in the definition of the observed advising styles. Further discussion of similarities and differences between the literature and the findings is explained in chapter five.

Three major characteristics or criteria were used in the AAI to define developmental and prescriptive advising (i.e., content, personalization, and decision-making). These characteristics were used to develop the observation protocol for this research. The characteristics proved useful in collecting data and accurately described parts of the observed advising styles. However, other data to were needed to complete the definitions and descriptions of the observed advising styles.

The characteristics presented in the AAI were transferable to the observed styles. The characteristics accurately described parts of all advising sessions. Content and the nature of the advisor and advisee relationship (personalization and decision-making) were relevant to all advising sessions. For example, personalization referred to the relationship between the advisor and student. It did not define the relationship, but it pinpointed an important aspect of all advising sessions.

While the characteristics did highlight important issues, the three characteristics were not enough to define advising styles. Three additional characteristics were identified as necessary for determining advising style. These characteristics, as seen in Tables 3 and 4, are advisor philosophy, typical advisor comments, and advisor behaviors.

#### Summary of Findings

The observations and interviews revealed four important findings. First, advisors used a consistent style. Advisor's style did not change with each student. Advisors used the same style with all students, regardless of conditions. The only characteristic observed to change with each student was content. Conditions such as presenting concern, year of student, etc. did have some effect on the characteristics of advising (i.e., content, personalization, and decision-making), but they did not effect the advising style used.

Second, advising styles can be assessed through observation by using the three characteristics of advising from the AAI, content, personalization, and decision-making, and three additional characteristics, advisor behaviors, advisor comments, and stated philosophy.

Third, the prescriptive-developmental model does not accurately reflect actual advising practice. Advisor's style was not entirely developmental or prescriptive. Observations and interviews revealed other advising styles present with a combination of developmental and prescriptive attributes.

Fourth, advisor's behaviors and philosophies were consistent for the most part. In other words, the majority of advisors did what they said.

CHAPTER FIVE  
SUMMARY, DISCUSSION,  
IMPLICATIONS & RECOMMENDATION, CONCLUSIONS

Summary

Academic advising has been considered one of the best vehicles for promoting intellectual, personal, and social development of students. It is a service that links students' academic and personal worlds, hence promotes holistic development. While the literature on academic advising focuses considerable attention on students' perceptions and satisfaction with advisors and faculty advisors' preferred styles of advising, much less is known about professional advisors' use of an approach to advising that can be characterized as developmental.

The study was designed to identify the behaviors that occur during academic advising sessions between professional academic advisors and students at one large, public, research university and to compare these behaviors to the models of advising proposed in the literature.

This purpose was accomplished through observations and interviews. Ten professional advisors (eight females, two males) were observed advising a total of thirty-five students. Interviews were conducted with each advisor following the observations to identify their stated philosophy or approach to advising.

Summary and Discussion of Results

The research questions upon which this study was based were:

1. What distinguishable styles of advising were observable in actual advising sessions?
2. Are advisors' stated philosophies of advising observable in advising practice?
3. What conditions/circumstances are mostly likely to effect advising behaviors/styles?
4. Are conceptual differences between prescriptive and developmental advising distinguishable in actual advising practice?
5. What are the similarities and differences between the literature-based model of developmental academic advising and the behaviors-in-use among professional academic advisors?

Advising Styles

Three advising styles were identified from the observed behaviors and stated philosophies of the advisors: Teacher, Counselor, and Scheduler. Of the ten advisors observed, three fit the Counselor style, three fit the Teacher style, and four fit the Scheduler style. The three styles did not reflect the developmental-prescriptive continuum. Rather, each of the styles identified represented a combination of developmental and prescriptive attributes (see Figure 2).

The Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) was designed to measure students' perceptions of three aspects; (a) the nature of advising relationship along a developmental prescriptive continuum, (b) advisor-advisee activities, and (c) satisfaction with advising. It is possible to assess advising styles through observations of individual advising sessions using the

characteristics of advising outlined in the Academic Advising Inventory. Specifically, three characteristics were identified (a) personalizing education, (b) academic decision-making, and (c) content. All three characteristics were used by the researcher to develop the observed advising styles.

#### Observable Intent/Philosophy

The majority of the advisors' observable behaviors and stated philosophies were consistent. The observations recorded the content of the advising session, the personalization, the decision-making process, advisor comments, and advisor behaviors. The stated philosophies of the advisors were compared to these observations. For example, statements made when discussing philosophy that referenced the advisor-advisee relationship were compared to the observed behaviors focusing on personalization. The comparison revealed that advising philosophy was consistent with the observed behaviors.

#### Factors Effecting Advising Session/Style

It was observed that advisors used the same style with all students, regardless of conditions. While advisors expressed personal concern to some extent, there was no individualization of advising sessions. In other words, the advisor's approach or style did not vary between students. The issue of personalization versus individualization will be elaborated on the discussion section of this chapter.

The only characteristic observed to change with each student was content. The other factors (e.g., purpose for session, year of student, etc.) did vary as expected. For example, the purpose of the advising session effected the content of all observed advising sessions. Race and gender, two factors anticipated to effect style, did not effect advising style. In fact, the advisors interviewed seemed offended by the idea that they would treat people differently due to race or gender. Yet, all advisors during the interview stated or suggested that students are different and unique.

The results from this study report conflicting data regarding advising based on student and advisor differences, especially race and gender. The data from the observations revealed that advising style did not vary by the advisor's or student's ethnicity or gender. Yet, data collected from advisor interviews suggested that advisors perceived that all students are different and that they have different needs. These results support the notion that issues of ethnicity, gender, and age are not perceived to be primary issues of concern in advising practice (Baxter, 1993; Gilligan, 1982). This is unfortunate since research consistently shows that students who seek counseling from minority or surrogate advisors report more positive advising experiences (Padilla & Pavel, 1994). In addition, the literature on special student populations (e.g., students of color, student athletes, international students, women students, and students in transition) is beginning to explore the advising needs of diverse cultures to design advising programs that acknowledge students individual needs (Frost, 1991).

### Developmental-Prescriptive Continuum

The results of this study reinforce the idea that developmental advising is intangible. The developmental-prescriptive continuum was not helpful in describing observable advising behaviors. Critics have argued that the notion of developmental advising based on developmental theory is elusive and ideal (Gordon, 1994; Laff, 1994). The literature suggests a theoretical basis for developmental advising, but does not explain or focus on ways to translate the theory into practice. The lack of practicality was very apparent when trying to develop an observation protocol. In the initial stages of this research, related documents and models were analyzed in an effort to operationalize the behaviors of developmental advising. Once identified, the operationalized behaviors were to be used to design an observation protocol that would enable the researcher to check off developmental and prescriptive behaviors that occurred during the observed advising session. After numerous attempts it was concluded that developmental and prescriptive advising behaviors could not be operationalized from the given developmental advising theory. In other words, the observed advising behaviors could not be easily translated into two categories, prescriptive or developmental.

### Similarities and Differences Between Identified Advising Styles and the Literature

In an effort to respond to the fifth research question, the three advising styles identified in this study are compared to the models and definitions of advising described in the literature. Crookston (1972) suggested two basic approaches to academic advising-- developmental and prescriptive. He further defined the differences between these two styles in terms of abilities, motivation, rewards, maturity, initiative, control, responsibility, and relationships. Several models, definitions, and instruments have used Crookston's model as a foundation. One such instrument is the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI). The advising styles identified in this study (e.g., Teacher, Counselor, Scheduler), each represent a different combination of developmental and prescriptive attributes.

The literature states developmental-prescriptive advising represents a continuum between two contrasting behavioral styles and attitudes (Winston & Sandor, 1984). Alternative A of Figure 1 reflects this assumption that the styles are distinct. Alternative B of Figure 1 reflects the findings of this study such that advising styles are not distinct, the observed styles have overlapping characteristics and tend to be clustered in the middle section of the prescriptive-developmental continuum.

### Caveats

Several limitations to the study should be noted. One issue is sample size. The number of advisors in the sample limited the ability to make gender or race distinctions among advisors. The sample size may also have effected the number of styles reported. For example, a larger sample size may have produced a broader range of behaviors and, thus, more styles may have been identified.

A second limitation includes the decision to restrict the sample to professional, academic advisors. Professional advisors were defined as advisors who had earned at least a Master's degree, had some level of college teaching experience, are working within an advising center, and who did not currently have formal responsibilities for teaching or research. This definition eliminated faculty advisors from this study. The inclusion of faculty advisors may have effected the range of styles reported, particularly since faculty advisors are more likely than professional advisors to be male.

Another issue for consideration is the collection of data through observations. The observational data collected may only represent a glimpse of advisors behaviors. Because advisors were observed on one occasion over a two-hour period (which allowed for the observation of four students), not every behavior, nor every occurrence of a behavior, exhibited by the advisors may have been presented or noted. Statements made during the advisor interviews suggested that time of year can effect the content of the advising session as well as the closeness of the advisor-advisee relationship. Future researchers should consider observations of the same advisors throughout a semester to determine whether behaviors or styles vary due to the time of year.

A fourth limitation involves the demographics of the institution where this study took place. The institution under study is a primarily white institution, where the majority of students are traditional aged. The small number of minority students and the lack of non-traditional aged students may have limited the number of advising styles observed. Advisors working with a diverse student population may have displayed a greater variation in advising styles.

A final limitation is the subjective nature of the categorizing of behaviors. The advising styles identified by the researcher were based on commonalties among advising characteristics (e.g., content, personalization, decision-making). Because these characteristics were developed using the Academic Advising Inventory as a foundation, the AAI was assumed to accurately represent advising characteristics. The researcher added two additional characteristics (i.e., advisor comments and advisor behaviors) in an effort to make the descriptions of the advising styles more complete.

## Discussion

### Personalization v. Individualization

The current literature on academic advising does not distinguish between personalized and individualized advising. The author of this study has made a distinction between personalized and individualized advising session. A personalized session refers to the advisor's ability to express personal concern and develop a relationship with the advisee (personalization is one of the characteristics of advising outlined in the AAI). Individualization refers to the advisor's ability to vary style between individuals.

This idea of personalization versus individualization raises several important issues concerning advising for differences. Is the consistent use of an advising style associated with

effectiveness? A consistent style means that an advisor uses the same style of advising with each student regardless of the students needs, differences, etc.

Is it a good thing that advisors are treating all people the same? We often hear statements suggesting that everyone is equal, and for this reason everyone should be treated the same. In theory, the idea that everyone is equal is commendable. In reality everyone is different. People come from different environments and have different life experiences. It seems reasonable that advisors should be aware of student's backgrounds and life experiences to best advise the student. Ignoring students differences assumes they all have the same needs. For example, African-American students at the institution where this research took place are a minority student population. In fact, there are only about 900 African-American students enrolled at the institution. There are issues African-American students deal with that many white students at a primarily white institution will never encounter.

What does it suggest if advisors treat everyone the same even though they are different? Treating everyone the same, assumes that everyone has the experiences and background as the majority population.

### The Advising Relationship

The relationship between an advisor and an advisee is the underlying principle in both developmental advising and advising for differences. A collaborative and open relationship seems to be the foundation for a successful advising experience. Since relationships are built over time, this assumes advisors and advisees meet on a regular basis. Therefore, developmental advising and advising for difference is impractical where a student is not assigned an advisor.

### Implications and Recommendations

Results of the current study, as well as research from past literature, provided the platform upon which these recommendations were developed. The recommendations are divided between issues relevant to professional practice and opportunities for future research.

### Implications for Practice

Several implications for practice arose from the results of this study. They are as follows:

1. Because the advisor-advisee relationship plays such an important role in the advising process and developing a relationship takes time, all students should have access to the same professional advisor throughout their educational experience. Students should be assigned to a professional advisor for several reasons. First, the primary responsibility of PAs is to advise students. Therefore, advising is not awarded lower priority than research or teaching. Second, an assigned PA is a stable source of support throughout a student's educational career. This person would serve as an advocate regardless of changes in major. The professional advisor would focus on issues relevant to all students (e.g., administrative procedures, referrals) and develop an individual relationship with each student. In addition to having a professional academic advisor, the

student should have a faculty mentor within their specialized field. The mentor could serve to answer questions and guide students within their field. While it may seem difficult initially, this method would relieve faculty of some administrative duties. Issues of counseling, teaching, and advising would remain with trained professional advisors, therefore increasing individualization in practice.

2. Related to the understanding of the advising relationship is the need to better understand the difference between one-time advising encounters and long-term advisor-advisee relationships. The type of advisor-advisee encounter may affect student satisfaction and reveal the importance of the advising relationship in advising practice.

3. This study deviated from past research because it analyzed advising behaviors, rather than student satisfaction with advising. Future practitioners may want to assess advisor behaviors as well as student satisfaction. Using both behaviors and satisfaction may improve overall advising practice and advisor training and evaluation. Evaluation based on both advisor behaviors and student satisfaction may determine consistency with stated mission of the advising unit. With regard to training, advisors can be trained on student views and needs, as well as the characteristics of successful advising. New ways to approach advising that incorporate student satisfaction and the necessary characteristics of advising, may simplify advising and help make evaluation and training of advising and the advisors more efficient.

#### Recommendations for Research

Because academic advising is a key factor in student retention and success, it is necessary to continue researching ways to improve academic advising. Several recommendations for future research ought to be considered.

1. The demographics of higher education are changing and it is necessary for advisors to be aware and knowledgeable about differences among students. Therefore, there is a need for the current and future professionals to develop behaviors that reflect sensitivity. Further research is necessary to understand the needs of students. For instance, is an open and collaborative advising relationship important to all students? If so, what students (e.g., ethnicity, gender, major, etc.) consider the advising relationship to be significant in their educational success?

2. Related to the understanding of the needs of students, is assessing how advising styles may vary by gender and race. Literature on academic advising states the importance of academic advising in promoting minority student retention and success and further suggests that one way to engage students in advising is to design programs that acknowledge their individual needs (Frost, 1991; Thomas, 1990). The data from this study did not reflect variations in advising style by race or gender of the student. However, if advising is to incorporate advising for differences or individualization, research needs to focus on the relationship between advising styles, race and gender, and student satisfaction.

3. In addition to the above recommendation, there is a need to determine the effectiveness of using and defining advising styles. The observed behaviors and stated philosophies of this study were categorized according to advising styles. The styles developed from the data in this study need to be compared to other advisors behaviors to determine their breadth and transferability and usefulness. In other words, is research on advisor styles meaningful?

4. The results of this study imply that developmental advising theory cannot smoothly be translated into practice. The literature is filled with definitions and models of developmental advising (Creamer & Creamer, 1994), yet no consensus exists concerning the overall purpose or methods of developmental academic advising. This suggests that maybe it is time to develop models of advising that consider observable behaviors and how these vary by content, the advisor-advisee relationship, individualization, and advisor philosophy.

5. Research focusing on the characteristics of advising (e.g., content, personalization, and decision-making) could be expanded to assess whether this is a feasible way to identify advising styles or whether these characteristics are relevant or useful for defining other definitions or models of advising. In addition, future research could focus on advising behaviors in an effort to identify other characteristics important to advising. For example, the data from this study revealed a distinction between personalization and individualization. This suggests that individualization may be another characteristic of advising. Further research on advising behaviors and student satisfaction, involving a larger and more diverse advisor and student sample, may reveal the importance of individualization. Additionally, research should address whether there is a differences exist between personalization and individualization?

6. The fact that developmental and prescriptive models of advising could not be translated into observable advising behaviors has implications for research. Defining advising by an advisor's style reflects the assumption that each student should be treated the same. The issue of individualization challenges the current unit of analysis used in the literature and research on academic advising and raises the question about whether the unit of analysis should be the advisor or the advising session. Defining advising by advisor style may work best with a homogenous student population. Diverse student populations, due to their special needs and difference, may be better served by advising that focuses on the advising session/student, rather than the advisor.

A dynamic model of advising may consider the length of the relationship, regardless of how long the advisor and student have know each other, students' needs, and advising phases and advising processes. Each phase would be built on the previous phase or stage. And the processes of each phase would outline how the characteristics of advising (e.g. content, personalization, individualization, decision-making, and advisor non-verbal behaviors) fits each phase. For example, phase one may be labeled initial meeting. The advisor could: give information and discuss policies in general (content); get the know the student's goals and background, academic and personal

(personalization); discuss advisor and advisee expectations of advising and acknowledge and discuss any special needs or concerns (individualization); discuss the issue of responsibility, ask for student input, initially give advisee benefits and consequences (decision-making); take notes on what happened during the session and focus on the student (non-verbal advisor behaviors). Future research may identify new models or approaches to advising that may be simpler to interpret and easier to evaluate in practice.

7. The results of this study suggest that advisor's observable behaviors are consistent with their stated philosophies. If observable behaviors and stated philosophy are consistent, maybe it is just as productive to use advisors' stated philosophy as an evaluation tool? Advisors could be asked to complete a check-list of beliefs and behaviors to evaluate their advising style or advising effectiveness. Further research into the accuracy of advisor's behaviors duplicating their philosophies, may effect future ways of evaluating academic advising.

### Conclusions

As higher education continues to grow in size and diversity, academic advising will continue to play a significant role in educating well rounded individuals. Yet, the theory guiding academic advising is still incomplete. Without a practical and comprehensible theory, academic advising will continue to be fragmented and difficult to evaluate.

Students' perceptions and satisfaction are commonly used to evaluate academic advising, even in paper and pencil tests like the AAI (Winston & Sandor, 1984) which is grounded in the prescriptive-developmental model. During the course of this research, the author observed advising sessions and found that advisor's consistently utilized one of three advising styles, all of which were a combination of prescriptive and developmental approaches. The post-observation interviews found that for the most part, advisor's style was consistent with his or her stated philosophy. This finding suggests that in the future approaches to advising can be evaluated through observation of advising, much as teaching effectiveness is often judged through peer evaluation.

## References

- Academic Enrichment Office, (1996) . Student contact summary questionnaire. Blacksburg, VA: Virginia Tech.
- American College Personnel Association (1994) . The student learning imperative : Implications for student affairs. Journal of College Student Development, 37 (2) , 118-122.
- Anderson, E. C. (1985) . Forces influencing student persistence and achievement. In L. Noel, R. Levitz, D. Saluri, & Associates (Eds.) , Increasing student retention: Effective programs and practices for reducing the dropout rate (pp. 44-61) . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bargar, R., & Mayo-Chamberlain, J. (1983) . Advisor and advisee issues in doctoral education. Journal of Higher Education, 54 (4) , 407-432.
- Baxter, M. M. (1993) . Knowing and reasoning in college: Gender-related patterns in students' intellectual development. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Baxter, Magolda, M., & Porterfield, W. D. (1985) . A new approach to assess intellectual development on the Perry scheme. Journal of College Student Personnel, 26, 343-351.
- Beal, P. E., & Noel, L. (1980) . What works in student retention: The report of a joint project of the American College Testing Program and the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems. Iowa City: American College Testing Program and National Center for Higher Education Management Systems. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 312 789)
- Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberg, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986) . Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind. New York: Basic Books.
- Biggs, D. A. , Brodie, J. S., & Branhart, W. J. (1975). The dynamics of undergraduate academic advising. Research in Higher Education, 3, 345-357.
- Blann, W. F. (1985) . Intercollegiate athletic competition and student's educational and career plans. Journal of College Student Personnel, 26, 115-118.
- Brown, T., & Rivas, M. (1992) . Advising multicultural populations for achievement and success. New Directions for Community Colleges, 21 (2), 83-96.
- Burke, T. H. (1981) . Student and faculty perceptions of students' needs at the Florida State University (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1980) . Dissertation Abstracts International, 42, 1021A.
- Charles, H., & Stewart, M. A. (1991). Academic advising of international students. Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 19, 173-181.
- Chickering, A. W. (1969) . Education and identity. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS) . (1986) . Standards and guidelines for student services/development programs. Iowa City: American College Testing Program.

Creamer, D. G., & Creamer, E. G. (1994) . Practicing developmental advising: Theoretical contexts and functional applications. NACADA Journal, 14 (2), 17-23.

Creamer, E. G., & Coburn-Smith, H. (1993, September). Critical issues in advising: The advising needs of traditional-ages college women. The Newsletter of the National Academic Advising Association, 15 (4) , p. 1,7.

Crockett, D. S. (1978) . Academic advising: Cornerstone of student retention. In L. Noel (Ed.) , Reducing the dropout rate (pp. 29-36) . New Directions for Student Services, no. 3. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Crockett, D. S. (1985) . Academic advising. In L. Noel, R. Levitz, & D. Saluri (Eds.) , Increasing student retention (pp. 224-263). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Crockett, D. S., & Levitz, R. S. (1984) . Current advising practices in colleges and universities. In R. B. Winston, Jr., T. K. Miller, S. C. Ender, T. J. Grites, & Associates (Eds.) , Developmental academic advising: Addressing student' educational, career, and personal needs (pp. 35-63) . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Crockett, J. B., & Crawford, R. L. (1989) . The relationship between myers brigg type indicator (MBTI) scale score and advising style preferences of college freshmen. Journal of College Student Development, 30, 154-161.

Crookston, B. B. (1972) . A developmental view of academic advising as teaching. Journal of College Student Personnel, 13, 12-17.

Dautch, S. C. (1972) . Advisee's self-reported satisfaction with academic advisors and effectiveness of advisors (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1972) , Dissertation Abstracts International, 33, 2706-2707A.

Eddy, J. P., & Essarum, C. C. (1989) . Student and faculty perception of a university academic advising process. The College Student Affairs Journal, 9 (2), 6-13.

Ender, S. C., Winston, R. B., & Miller, T. K. (1982). Academic advising as student development. In R. B. Winston, Jr., S. C. Ender, & T. K. Miller (Eds.) , Developmental approaches to academic advising. New Directions for Student Services No. 17. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ender, S. C., Winston, R. B. Jr., & Miller, T. K. (1984) . Academic advising reconsidered. In R. B. Winston, Jr., T. K. Miller, S. C. Ender, T. J. Grites, & Associates (Eds.) , Developmental academic advising: Addressing student' educational, career, and personal needs (pp. 3-34) . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Erikson, E. H. (1963) . Childhood and society (2nd ed.). New York: Norton.

Fenske, R. H. (1989) . Historical foundations of student services. In U. Delworth & G. R. Hanson (Eds.) , Student services: A handbook for the profession (5-24) . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Fielstein, L. L., Scoles, M. T., & Webb, K. J. (1992) . Differences in traditional and nontraditional students' preferences for advising services and perceptions of services received. NACADA Journal, 12 (2) , 5-12.

Fielstein, L. (1989) . Student priorities for academic advising: Do they want a personal relationship? NACADA Journal, 9 (1) , 33-38.

Ford, J., & Ford, S. S. (1989) . A caring attitude and academic advising. NACADA Journal, 9 (2), 43-48.

Frost, S. H. (1989) . Academic responsibility: Can it be taught? NACADA Journal, 9 (2) , 17-24.

Frost, S. H. (1991) . Academic advising for student success: A system of shared responsibility . ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 3. Washington, D.C.: The George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.

Frost, A. (1993) . Developmental advising: Practices and attitudes on faculty advisors. NACADA Journal, 13 (2) , 15-20.

Gabbard, C., & Halischak, K. (1993) . Consulting opportunities: Working with student athletes at a university. The Counseling Psychologist, 21 (3) , 386-398.

Garing, M T. (1992) . Intrusive academic advising. New Directions for Community Colleges, 21 (2), 97-104.

Getkham, V. (1987) . A study of students and faculty perceptions of the academic advising needs of students in six teachers colleges in Bangkok, Thailand. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, North Texas State University, Denton.

Gilligan, C. (1982) . In a different voice. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gordon, V. N. (1994) . Developmental advising: the elusive ideal. NACADA Journal, 14 (2), 71-75.

Gordon, V. N. (Ed.) . (1994) . Issues in advising the undecided college student (The Freshman Year Experience Monograph Series No. 15) . Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina.

Grites, T. J. (1979) . American advising: Getting us through the eighties. (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Research Report No. 7.) Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 178 023 74)

Habley, W. R. (Ed.) . (1988) . Introduction and overview. In W. R. Habley (Ed.) . The status and future of academic advising: Problems and promises. (pp. 1-10) . Iowa City, IA: ACT National Center for the Advancement of Educational Practices.

Habley, W. R. (Ed. ) . (1993) . Fulfilling the promise: The ACT fourth national survey of academic advising. Iowa City : American College Testing Program.

Habley, W. R., & Crockett, D. S. (1988) . The third ACT national survey of academic advising. In W. R. Habley (Ed.) , The status and future of academic advising: Problems and promise. (pp. 11-76) . Iowa City: American College Testing Program.

Haplin, R. L. (1990) . An application of the Tinto model to the analysis of freshman persistence in a community college. Community College Review, 17 (4), 22-32.

Haponski, W. C. (1983) . Recruit and retain adult students. The challenge of the 80s- and beyond: To create new faces in your classrooms and keep them there! (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 226 637) .

Heikinheimo, P., & Shute, J. (1986) . The adaptation of foreign students: Student views and institutional implications. Journal of College Student Personnel, 27 (5) , 399-406.

Herndon, J. B., Kaiser, J., & Creamer, D. G. (1996) . Student preferences for advising style in community college environments. Journal of College Student Development, 37 (6) , 637-648.

International Student Committee. (1982) . Handbook for academic advisors of foreign students. Kentucky: University of Kentucky.

Johanson, M. E., & Lashley, K. H. (1989) . Influence of Native Americans' cultural commitment on preferences for counselor ethnicity and expectations about counseling. Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 17 (3) , 115-122.

Katz, D. (1953) . Field studies. In L. Festinger & Y. D. Katz (Eds.) , Research methods in the behavioral sciences (pp. 56-98) . New York, NY: Dryden.

Kauffman, J. F., & English, F. W. (1979) . Needs assessment: Concept and application. New Jersey: Educational Technology Publication.

Kerr, C. (1994) . Troubled times for American higher education: The 1990s and beyond. Albany, N.Y.: State University of New York.

King, M. C. (1992) . Academic advising, retention, and transfer. New Directions for Community Colleges, 21 (2), 21-31.

King, P. M., & Baxter-Magolda, M. B. (1996) . A developmental perspective on learning. Journal of College Student Development, 37 (2), 163-173.

Kohlberg, L. (1984) . The psychology of moral development: The nature and validity of moral stages. San Francisco: Harper & Row.

Kramer, G. L. (1988) . Enhancing the role of academic advising on the college campus. NACADA Journal, 8 (1) , 3-6.

Laff, N. S. (1994) . Reconsidering the developmental view of advising: Have we come a long way? NACADA Journal, 14 (2) , 46-49.

Levine, E. S., & Padilla, A. M. (1980) . Crossing cultures in therapy: Pluralistic counseling for the Hispanic. Monterey, CA. : Brooks/Cole.

- Lewis, L. S. (1975) . Scaling the ivory tower: Merit and its limits in academic careers. Baltimore, MD.: The John Hopkins University Press.
- Loevinger, J. ( 1976) . Ego development: Conceptions and theories. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mathison, S. (1988) . Why triangulate? Educational Researcher, 17 (2), 13-17.
- Miller, M. A., & Alberts, B. (1994) . Developmental advising: Where teaching and learning intersect. NACADA Journal, 14 (2) 43-45.
- National Academic Advising Association, (1996) . NACADA Statement of Core Values of Academic Advising. [On-Line] . Available: [nacada@ksu.ksu.edu](mailto:nacada@ksu.ksu.edu)
- National Institute of Education. (1984) . Involvement in learning: Realizing the potential of American higher education. Washington, DC: Author. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 246 833)
- O'Banion, T. (1972) . An academic advising model. Junior College Journal, 42 (6), 62-64.
- Padilla, R. V., & Pavel, D. M. (1994) . Using qualitative research to assess advising. The Review of higher education, 17 (2), 143-159.
- Parris, R. L. (1982) . Academic advisement for rural and urban freshman. Washington, D.C. : University Press of America, Inc.
- Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (1980) . Predicting freshmen persistence and voluntary dropout decisions from a theoretical model. Journal of Higher Education, 51 (1), 60-75.
- Pascarella, E. T., & Chapman, D. W. (1983) . A multi-institutional, path analytic validation of Tinto's model of college withdrawal. American Educational Research Journal, 20 (1), 87-102.
- Perry, W. G. Jr. (1970) . Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Perry, W. G. Jr. (1981). Cognitive and ethical growth: The making of meaning. In A. W. Chickering & Associates (Eds.) , The modern American college (pp. 76-116) . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- The Pew Charitable Trusts. (1994) . To dance with change. Policy Perspectives, 5 (3), 10A-12A.
- Polson, C. (1986, October ) . Advising adult learners. Paper presented a the National Conference on Academic Advising, Seattle, WA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 277 902)
- Pomales, J., Claiborn, C.D., & LaFramboise, T. D. (1986) . Effects of Black students' racial identity on perceptions of white counselors varying in cultural settings. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 33 (1) , 57-61.
- Price, A. (1994) . Academic advisors in athletics lead the way. NACADA Journal, 14 (2), 66-67.

Pruitt, F. (1978) . The adaptation of foreign students on American campuses. Journal of NAWDAC, 41 (4) , 144-147.

Raushi, T. M. (1993) . Developmental academic advising. New Directions for Community Colleges, 21, 5-19.

Rudolph, F. (1976) . The American college student: From theologian to technocrat in 300 years. National Association of Student Personnel Administrators Journal, 14, 31-39.

Sanchez, A. R., & Atkinson, D. R. (1983) . Mexican-American cultural commitment, preference for counselor ethnicity, and willingness to use counseling. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 30 (2) , 215-220.

Sanford, N. (1967) . Where colleges fail: A study of the student as a person. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Simmon, P. M. (1982) . A study of the perceived need satisfaction among selected faculty advisors at the Florida State University (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1979) , Dissertation Abstracts International, 49, 2495A.

Sowa, C. J., & Gressard, C. F. (1983) . Athletic participation: Relationship to student development. Journal of College Student Personnel, 24, 126-139.

Stafford, T., Jr., Marion, P., & Salter, M. (1980) . Adjustment of international students. NASPA Journal, 18 (1) , 40-45.

Steltenpohl, E., & Shipton, J. (1986) . Facilitating a successful transition to college for adults. Journal of Higher Education, 57 (6), 637-657.

Sue, D. W., & Sue, D. (1977) . Barriers to effective cross-cultural counseling. Journal of counseling psychology, 24 (5) 420-429.

Surdam, J., & Collins, J. (1984) . Adaptation of international students: A cause for concern. Journal of College Student Personnel, 25 24-245.

Sykes, C. J. (1988). Profscam: Professors and the demise of higher education. Washington, D.C.: Regnery Gateway.  
personal needs. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Thomas, R. O. (1990) . Programs and activities for improved retention. In D. Hossler, J. P. Bean, & Associates (Eds.) , The strategic management of college enrollments (pp. 186-201) . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Tinto, V. (1975) . Dropouts of American higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. Journal of Higher Education Research, 45, 89-125.

Tinto, V. (1987) . Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Trombley, T. B. (1984) . An analysis of the complexity of academic advising. Journal of College Student Personnel, 25, 234-240.

University Academic Advising Center, (1995) . UAAC Fall 1995 advising survey. Blacksburg, VA: Virginia Tech.

University Academic Advising Center, (1996) . UAAC Spring 1996 advising survey. Blacksburg, VA: Virginia Tech.

Walsh, E. M. (1979) . Revitalizing academic advisement. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 57, 446-449.

Watkins, B. T. (1990, March 28) . Consistent information on transfer rates sought for community colleges. Chronicle of Higher Education, pp. A38.

Wicas, E. A. (1956-1957) . The teacher as counselor. Journal of Education Psychology, 39, 13.

The Wingspread Group on Higher Education (1993) . An American imperative: Higher expectations for higher education (ISBN 0-9639160-0-9) . Racine, WI: Johnson Foundation, Inc.

Winston, R. B., Jr. (1989) . Counseling and advising. In U. Delworth, G. R. Hanson, & Associates (Eds.) , Student services: A handbook for the profession (pp. 371-400). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Winston, R. B., Jr., & Sandor, J. (1984a) . Academic advising inventory. Athens, GA: Student Development Associates, Inc.

Winston, R. B., Jr., & Sandor, J. (1984b) . Evaluating academic advising: A preliminary manual for the Academic Advising Inventory. Athens, GA: Student Development Associates, Inc.

Winston, R. B., & Sandor, J. A. (1984c) . Developmental academic advising: What do students want? NACADA Journal, 4 (1) , 5-13.

Winston, R. B. , T. K. Miller, S. C. Ender, T. J. Grites, & Associates (Eds.) . (1984) . Developmental academic advising: Addressing student' educational, career and

Zikopoulos, M. (Ed.) . Open doors: 1986/97. New York: Institute of International Education.

## Appendix A

### Sample of Informed Consent Form

#### **VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY**

##### **Informed Consent for Participants of Investigative Projects**

Title of Project: The Use of Developmental Advising Models by Professional Academic Advisors

Investigator: Melissa L. Daller

#### **I. Purpose of the Study**

This study was designed to observe the behaviors that occur during academic advising sessions between professional academic advisors and students at one, large, public research university and to compare these behaviors to the behaviors of developmental academic advising as operationalized through an analysis of related models and documents. For the purposes of the present research, professional advisors (PAs) are academic advisors who have earned at least a Masters degree, and who do not have formal responsibilities for instruction or research other than advising students.

#### **II. Procedures**

Data were collected in stages. First, the UAAC Director and Director of the Office of Academic Enrichment (OAE) were contacted. The Directors provided background information about UAAC and OAE policies and procedures that were relevant to the present study. The researchers obtained approval from both directors to conduct the study in the UAAC and OAE settings.

Second, the researcher obtained authorization from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for research involving human subjects.

Next the researcher obtained informed consent from participants in, or affected by, this study (e.g. students and advisors participating in advising sessions ). Subsequently, the researcher contacted all advisors by phone or in person, and invited them to participate in the study. During the phone conversation the researcher briefly explained the purpose of this research, the sample for this study, the risks and benefits involved with participating in this study, how confidentiality will be preserved, and a brief explanation of the researchers qualifications. The researcher called UAAC, VTASP, and Athletic advisors at random, until all agreed or declined to participate in the study. When advisors agreed to participate, the researcher scheduled dates and times with them to conduct observations and

interviews. Participants were asked to schedule one, three-hour session; two hours for observation and one hour for an interview, during October or November 1996. The researcher made sure that at least three observation/interview sessions were scheduled for each time period. Because advisors book appointments with their advisee well in advance, the researcher asked the advisors to obtain consent from advisees with whom the advisor would be meeting when the observations took place.

Several documents and models were analyzed in an effort to define and operationalize practices and behaviors related to the developmental academic advising.

The analysis identified several characteristics of developmental academic advising. The characteristics are classified by three categories : content of the advising session, (e.g. words used, topics of discussion); the nature of the advisor-advisee relationship (e.g. the way advisors address student; the advisors behaviors or approach to advising as seen along a prescriptive-developmental continuum) ; and, the intent or philosophy of the advisor. These categories were used to create an observation sheet. The observation sheet will be used in the observations to note the observable demographics of the student and advisor, the content of the advising session, and the nature of the advising relationship and, intent of the advisor.

At the end of the observations, the researcher will interview the advisor. The interview protocol was developed to assist advisors to recall what influenced their choice of advising strategy or approach.

All information will remain confidential and anonymous. No names or personalized identification of any type will be recorded during the observations or interviews.

### **III. Risks**

There are no major risks associated with this study. Participants being observed may experience some unease with being observed, if and when revealing information of a personal nature. Advisors and students were advised that they could request that the researcher leave at any time.

#### **IV. Benefits of this Study**

This study has implications for both practice and research. Observing advising behaviors according to the developmental-prescriptive continuum enables the researcher to determine whether prescriptive and developmental advising is really unidimensional, identify other styles of advising not present in the literature on academic advising.

This study is significant for research because it fills a gap in the existing body of literature about professional academic advisors. Most of the literature to date examines students' perceptions of and satisfaction with advising. Few reports focus on the outcomes of advising by PAs. Little is known about perceptions and behaviors of PAs or the practicality of developmental advising. The present study may advance research about the assessment of developmental academic advisors, the conditions or circumstances that inhibit or promote developmental advising, successful techniques and practices that characterize developmental advising, and other advising styles.

Subjects may contact the researcher in May of 1997 to request a summary of the research results.

#### **V. Extent of Anonymity and Confidentiality**

Students and advisors observed will be assigned a subject number, to be referred to on all documents and interviews. Each subject number identifies the subject by race, gender, advisor, or student.

The interviews with advisors will be tape recorded. The tapes will be destroyed two years after completion of the study.

#### **VI. Compensation**

No compensation will be given.

#### **VII. Freedom to Withdraw**

Participants are free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Subjects are also free to ask the researcher to leave the observational advising session if they become uncomfortable or feel the observer is hindering the advising session in anyway.

#### **VIII. Approval of Research**

This research project approved, as required, by the Institutional Review Board for Research Involving Human Subjects at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

**IX. Subject’s Responsibilities**

I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I have the following responsibilities:

I will try to disregard the observer to the best of my knowledge, and carry on my with my duties as an advisor or advisee as normal.

**X. Subject’s Permission**

I have read and understand the Informed Consent and conditions of this project. I have had all my questions answered. I hereby acknowledge the above and give my voluntary consent for participation in this project.

If I participate, I may withdraw at any time without penalty. I agree to abide by the rules of this project.

Signature	Date
-----------	------

Hello, my name is Melissa Daller and I am a graduate student in the College of Education. I am currently collecting data for my thesis. By agreeing to have your advising session observed, you are agreeing to participate in my data collection process.

This study was designed to identify and explore the behaviors occurring in advising sessions between students and professional academic advisors.

Should I have questions about this research or its conduct, I may contact:

- Melissa Daller, Investigator..... 552-7133
- Elizabeth Creamer, Faculty Advisor..... 231-8441
- Tom Hurd, Chair, IRB, Research Division..... 231-5281

Appendix B  
Observation Protocol

**I. Protocol**

Hello, my name is Melissa Daller and I am a graduate student in the College of Education. I am currently collecting data for my thesis. The study you are about to participate in is part of the data collection process.

The study was designed to identify and examine the behaviors of professional academic advisors.

If you are interested in learning more about this study, I will gladly share the results and answer any questions you may have once my research is completed.

---

**II. Demographics**

Advisor number: \_\_\_\_\_ Department: UAAC VTASP

Student number: \_\_\_\_\_

Date/Time of observation: \_\_\_\_\_

Length of advising session (minutes): 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 or more

Purpose for the advising session (students presenting concern)/ who initiated appointment (advisor or advisee)

: \_\_\_\_\_

---

Total number of advising sessions with this student: 1 2 3 4 or more

Year of student: 1st 2nd 3rd

Race of student: \_\_\_\_\_

Race of advisor: \_\_\_\_\_

Student: M or F

Advisor: M or F

**Observations:**

**III. Content of the Advising Session:** Topic/activity

A= Advisor initiated/raised the issue.      S= Student initiated/raised the issue.

**Exploring Institutional Policies (EIP)**

- college policies
- transfer credits
- advance placement or exempting courses
- probation or dismissal
- declaring a major

**Notes:**

**Providing Information (PI)**

- content of courses
- financial aid
- other campus offices
- special academic programs  
(e.g. study abroad)
- internships or cooperative education
- job placement opportunities

**Personal Development and  
Interpersonal Relationships (PDIR)**

- personal values
- possible majors
- important social or political issues
- career alternatives
- degree or major requirements
- personal concerns or problems
- evaluating academic progress
- getting to know each other
- extracurricular activities
- the purpose of a college education
- experiences in different classes
- current involvement outside the classroom

**Registration and Class**

**Scheduling (RCS)**

- dropping or adding courses
- signing registration forms
- selecting courses for next term
- planning a class schedule for next term

**Teaching Personal Skills (TPS)**

- study skills and tips
- setting personal goals
- time management

**Other:**

**IV. Nature of the Advising Relationship:**

1. Personalize the advising session

- (e.g. Does the advisor express personal concern?
- Is there a closeness between the advisor and student?
- Does the advisors approach vary among students?)

2. Decision Making

- (e.g., who has the responsibility for making and carrying out decisions?)

**V. Intent or Purpose for advising**

What behaviors or actions does the advisor take that reveals their advising philosophy?

Appendix C  
Interview Protocol

Hello my name is Melissa Daller and I am a graduate student in the College of Education. I am currently collecting data for my thesis. The interview you are about to participate in is part of my data collection process.

The study was designed to identify and explore the behaviors that occur in academic advising sessions between advisors and students.

-----  
Advisor number: \_\_\_\_\_ Department: UAAC VTASP

Interview time/date: \_\_\_\_\_

Race: \_\_\_\_\_

Gender: \_\_\_\_\_  
-----

1. Describe your approach to advising? (your philosophy/purpose/intent)  
How did you develop your approach?

2. Were the advising sessions I just observed in any way different from what you normally do?

3. I would like for a moment to look back at the advising sessions just observed.  
Were there differences between the students you just advised?  
Did you approach them in different ways? How? Why?