An Examination of Academic Advising Style Preference in Undergraduate Students

by

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Abstract

As universities put increasing pressure on student retention and success, academic advising has become an increasingly visible and important part of the university. One of the first examinations of advising contrasted two major styles: prescriptive and developmental (Crookston, 1972). Prescriptive styles are based on the expertise of the advisor. Advisors tell students what to do, and the student follows through. Developmental styles are shared processes in which the advisor and student have equal authority. Advisors talk about options, explore alternatives, and concentrate on the development of the student as a whole. The predominant measurement tool for prescriptive and developmental advising styles, the Academic Advising Inventory, examines the two as opposing ends of a dichotomy (Winston & Sandor, 1984a). However, additional research suggests that advising style may be better measured as two separate dimensions, rather than as a continuum. Other theories conceive of task and relational behaviors that may correspond to prescriptive and developmental advising styles if they are two separate dimensions, rather than two ends of a continuum.

In particular, Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) Situational Leadership Theory argues that leadership has two major components: task direction and relationship behaviors. Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) model provides a model of the potential change in student advising preferences over time. Task direction, or prescriptive approaches, may be more useful for students of low readiness, for example new freshmen. As they progress in college, and become

more ready for academic tasks, they need progressively less task direction, or prescriptive approaches, and more relationship behaviors, or developmental approaches.

This study was designed to investigate the nature and pattern of students' preferences for academic advising styles and the way these preferences change over time, as well as to explore the possibility of two separate constructs within advising style, rather than a single continuum.

This study posed three hypotheses in order to examine the academic advising style preferences of undergraduate students. The first hypothesis tested whether the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale assesses different constructs than the Academic Advising Inventory. The second hypothesis stated that college students' advising preferences differ as a function of their academic development. Finally, hypothesis three claimed that readiness for college will be a significant predictor of preference for academic advising style.

Investigator-developed questionnaires, as well as the Academic Advising Inventory, were used to survey undergraduate students. Support was found for hypothesis one, but not for hypotheses two and three. No differences in advising style can be attributed to classification. Reported college readiness is predictive only of high prescriptive/high developmental advising preference cluster membership. Differences were observed in advising style preference between men and women.

The findings of this study suggest that students' concentrate more on the advising situation, than the advising style. Advising style may play a secondary role, but the emphasis for students is the advising function, rather than advisor behaviors. Implications for future advising research and practice are included.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Academic advising is an essential part of the teaching mission of the university. "Academic advising is the only structured activity on the campus in which all students have the opportunity for on-going, one-to-one interaction with a concerned representative of the institution" (Habley, 2003). In addition, the ultimate goal of academic advising is the education and development of students (Creamer, 2000). As a result, academic advising has become an increasingly visible and important part of the university.

Crookston (1972) published one of the first conceptions of advising style. He contrasted two major styles: prescriptive and developmental. Prescriptive styles are based on the expertise of the advisor. Advisors tell students what to do, and the student follows through. Developmental styles are shared processes in which the advisor and student have equal authority. Advisors talk about options, explore alternatives, and concentrate on the development of the student as a whole.

Although Crookston (1972) conceived of developmental and prescriptive styles as mutually exclusive, some theorists argue that the two approaches should be considered a continuum, not a dichotomy (Grites & Gordon, 2000; Shane, 1981; Winston & Sandor, 2002; 1984a). In fact, the predominant measurement tool for prescriptive or developmental advising styles, the Academic Advising Inventory, examines the two as opposing ends of a continuum (Winston & Sandor, 1984a). Developmental advising has garnered overwhelming support from practitioners as the most appropriate advising style (Crockett, 1985; Grites & Gordon, 2000; Gordon, 1994, 1988; Raushi, 1993).

However, this support is not unanimous (Hemwall & Trachte, 1999; Laff, 1994; Smith, 2002). In particular, students do not express consistent preference for developmental advising styles. Although students do indicate a desire for a personal relationship with an advisor (Broadbridge, 1996; Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Frost, 1993), Smith (2002) found that first-year students prefer prescriptive approaches while older students seem to want developmental approaches. This research lends support to catering advising styles to the developmental needs of students. Thus, Weir, Dickman, and Fuqua's (2005) advising preferences study "would not support the exclusive use of one advising style for all students all of the time" (p. 79). They recommend that advisors remain flexible in their style and assess the individual student's preferences as well as the advising task in order to facilitate the most satisfying interaction possible.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory may provide some insight into the changing advising needs of students. Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) Situational Leadership Theory argues that leadership should be based on the needs of followers, which change over time. Leadership has two major components: task direction and relationship behaviors. The need for task direction decreases as a follower increases in readiness. The need for relationship behaviors starts low, increases in the middle-readiness stages, and then decreases again as followers become highly ready for a task.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) model provides a potential explanation for the change in student advising preferences over time. According to their model, task direction, or prescriptive approaches, may be more useful for students of low readiness, for example new freshmen. As they progress in college, and become more ready for academic tasks, they need progressively less task direction, or prescriptive approaches, and more relationship behaviors, or

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developmental approaches. Thus, the readiness of a student may have significant impact on the ideal advising approach for that student.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) define readiness as "the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task" (p. 174). Ability is comprised of knowledge, experience, and skills applicable to the task and willingness is the confidence, commitment, and motivation for completing the task. Thus, student preferences for advising may be influenced by the knowledge, skills, confidence, and motivation they bring to the advising situation.

Therefore, the present study examined the relationship between student readiness and advising preference.   If, as Hersey and Blanchard argue, a less experienced follower requires more task direction and fewer relationship behaviors, students with low readiness should prefer the high task, low relationship approach of prescriptive advising. Developmental approaches may become more appropriate as students progress in readiness. Students' ongoing development during college should increase their ability and willingness to complete a task. As readiness increases, so should preference for developmental approaches to advising.

Although debate continues about whether prescriptive and developmental advising are two separate dimensions or two ends of a continuum, Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) Situational Leadership Theory may support the measurement of advising preferences as two separate constructs. Hersey and Blanchard argue for separate dimensions of task and relationship behaviors in leadership. Measurement of prescriptive-developmental advising needs on a continuum does not allow for students to need both high task and high relationship behaviors simultaneously. A separation of the two constructs may provide a richer understanding of a student's advising preferences at a given time.

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Problem Statement

The present study was conducted in an effort to address the current lack of research into the specific factors that may influence student advising preferences and how those preferences change as students' progress in college. The present study also purports to address the potentially insufficient measurement of prescriptive-developmental advising as a single dimension continuum.

Significance of Problem

Advising is a new field with little empirical research to support its assumptions about student needs and preferences. McGillin (2001) laments the lack of research on advising models and the lack of validation of current advising style instruments. This study was designed to investigate the nature and pattern of students' preferences for academic advising styles, as well as to explore the possibility of two separate constructs within advising style, rather than a single continuum. It is hoped that the knowledge obtained from this study will advance the field by:

1. providing additional evidence about the preferences of students for advising styles.

2. supporting further research into the factors which influence student advising style preference.

3. helping advisors to structure more meaningful and satisfying advising at both the individual and programmatic levels.

4. confirming or challenging the currently accepted measurement of advising style.

Purpose of Study

The current study investigated whether prescriptive and developmental approaches should be measured as separate constructs, rather than as a continuum. In addition, the study explored how students' advising preferences change during college, as well as how student readiness impacted advising style preference.

Research Questions

1. Is the currently accepted measurement of prescriptive/developmental advising as a continuum appropriate?

2. Do students' academic advising style preferences change as a function of college student development?

3. Does student readiness influence preference for academic advising style?

Hypotheses

1. The Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale will assess different constructs than the Academic Advising Inventory.

2. College students' advising preferences will differ as a function of their academic development.

3. Readiness for college will be significant predictor of preference for academic advising style.

Assumptions

1. All participants have sufficient understanding of academic advising to be able to articulate their preferences when prompted.

2. All participants will be accurate and truthful in survey responses.

Limitations

1. This study uses an exploratory, non-experimental design. No claims to causality can be made.

2. The sample was comprised of students enrolled in an entry-level public speaking course at a large southeastern public university. These students participated voluntarily in the

study. These students may be significantly different than students enrolled in other courses and at other institutions.

3. The study is based on self-report measures, which can be unreliable due to bias, differing understanding or interpretation of questions, or inaccurate responses.

Definition of Terms

1. Academic advising – "Academic advising, based in the teaching and learning mission of higher education, is a series of intentional interactions with a curriculum, a pedagogy, and a set of student learning outcomes. Academic advising synthesizes and contextualizes students' educational experiences within the frameworks of their aspirations, abilities and lives to extend learning beyond campus boundaries and timeframes" (National Academic Advising Association, 2006).

2. Prescriptive advising – a style of academic advising focused on the expertise of the advisor. The advisor maintains control and responsibility for advising. The primary goal is task completion.

3. Developmental advising – a style of academic advising focused on the relationship between advisor and student. The advisor and the student share responsibility for advising. The primary goal is problem-solving.

4. Readiness – the state of being equipped to perform a task. Readiness has two factors, ability and willingness.

5. Ability – "the knowledge, experience, and skill" of individuals in regard to the task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 175).

6. Willingness – "the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 175).

Overview of Methodology

This non-experimental study was conducted using quantitative research methods. The participants in the study were selected from undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory public speaking course at a large southeastern public university. All students were invited to participate on a voluntary basis. They were awarded extra-credit for their participation.

Surveys were used to collect data. Surveys were distributed, completed, and returned to the researcher in an out-of-class setting. Students were asked to complete the demographic form, the Readiness for College scale, the Academic Advising Inventory, and the additional Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale. The Readiness for College scale and the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scales were developed by the researcher.

Data was analyzed using factor analysis, chi-square, regression methods, and analysis of variance to describe the nature and pattern of students' preferences for academic advising.

Organization of Study

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter One introduces the study, and provides the problem statement, significance of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, assumptions and limitations of the study, definitions, and an overview of methodology. Chapter Two reviews the literature relevant to the study, as it pertains to student development, advising, and readiness. Chapter Three outlines the design of the study including purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, research design, participants, instrumentation, procedures, independent and dependent variables, and data analysis. Chapter Four presents the results for the study. Chapter Five discusses the results, their implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Academic advising is essential to higher education. "Academic advising is the only structured activity on the campus in which all students have the opportunity for on-going, one-to-one interaction with a concerned representative of the institution" (Habley, 2003). The ultimate goal of academic advising is the education and development of students (Creamer, 2000). Advisors strive to meet the needs of students and create meaningful interaction with them. Understanding those needs is critical to the process of advising. There remains a paucity of research into the advising style preferences of students and the changes in advising style preference that occur over time as students progress through college. Awareness of the patterns of student advising preferences will enable advisors to respond appropriately and to provide the best possible help for their students as they strive to meet their developmental needs.

Advising Style

Crookston (1972) published one of the first conceptions of advising style. He contrasted two major styles: prescriptive and developmental. Prescriptive styles are based on the expertise of the advisor. Advisors tell students what to do, and the student follows through. It is an authoritative style, with the goal of task completion. "In this context, the adviser presumably 'teaches' and the student 'learns'" (Crookston, 1972, p. 13).

The prescriptive advising style is similar to a behavioral, teacher-centered approach to learning. The problem is defined by the advisor and proper resolution is dictated. The advisor expects the student to behave in the way he or she has prescribed. According to Bredo (1997),

"whatever skill is being taught at a given time, however complexly contingent, the defining and planning involved in the formulation of *that* skill are all done by the instructor" (p. 22).

Developmental styles are shared processes in which the advisor and the student have equal authority. Advisors talk about options, explore alternatives, and concentrate on the development of the student as a whole. Developmental advising can be 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" (Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1984, p. 19).

Developmental styles adhere more closely to the cognitive, learner-centered approach to education. Bredo (1997) states, "one needs to be sensitive to the problem-solving process, as defined by a learner's problem representation and search strategy to know how to lead him or her to a certain conclusion" (p. 30). This creates a partnership for learning in which the learner helps define the problem and the teacher guides the learner in problem solving. The learner and the teacher share responsibility for the learning process.

Crookston (1972) argued that developmental advising and prescriptive advising are two separate constructs and that developmental advising is a superior technique to prescriptive advising. This academic preference for developmental advising has persisted. However, students are not universally satisfied with developmental advising (Mottarella, Fritzsche, & Cerabino, 2004; Smith, 2002). Some evidence exists that freshman prefer more prescriptive approaches while older students prefer developmental approaches (Smith, 2002). Although preferences appear to change over time, the pattern of change has not been investigated, nor have the student characteristics which may influence their advising preferences. This study attempts

to understand the pattern of changes in student advising preferences from the perspective of college student development theories.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) Situational Leadership Theory argues that leadership should be based on the needs of followers, which change over time. Leadership has two major components: task direction and relationship behaviors. The readiness of followers, or "how ready a person is to perform a particular task" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 174-175), is a critical variable in determining the needs of the follower for both task direction and relationship behaviors. The need for task direction decreases as a follower increases in readiness. The need for relationship behaviors starts low, increases in the middle readiness stages, and then decreases again as followers become highly ready for a task.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) model provides a potential explanation for the change in student advising preferences over time. Task direction, or prescriptive approaches, may be more useful for students of low readiness, for example new freshmen. As they progress in college, and become more ready for academic tasks, they need progressively less task direction, or prescriptive approaches, and more relationship behaviors, or developmental approaches.

Thus, the readiness of a student may have significant impact on the ideal advising approach for that student. Advisors' understanding of the patterns associated with advising style preferences as they relate to student readiness can direct the actions of advisors and the choices they make in working with students. At the least, the advising interaction could be more satisfying for the student, encouraging them to continue to seek out advising services. At best, the effectiveness and efficiency of advising could be improved since it would be based on meeting the needs of each individual student.

Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between advising style preference and student readiness. Preference for prescriptive or developmental advising styles is defined as the score on Part V of the Academic Advising Inventory. Readiness is defined as total score on the Readiness for College scale, developed by the researcher. Undergraduate students enrolled in a basic public speaking course were surveyed. Correlation and regression analyses were used to test for relationships between variables. The hypotheses for the study were based on Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) Situational Leadership Theory which states that as students progress in readiness, they should indicate greater preference for developmental advising.

Developmental Advising

Developmental advising focuses on development of the student as a whole, addressing both cognitive and social development. The idea of integrated development, that academic concerns and growth cannot be separated from the personal concerns and growth of the student, is a fundamental tenet of developmental advising (Grites & Gordon, 2000). Developmental advising can be 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" (Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1984, p. 19).

Crookston (1972) articulated one of the first conceptions of developmental advising. Although his primary goal in the article was to argue for advising as teaching, he proposed a division in advising approaches that continues to be debated (Hemwall & Trachte, 1999; Laff, 1994). Crookston argued that academic advising could be separated into two primary approaches: prescriptive and developmental. Prescriptive approaches are founded in authority.

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"In this context, the adviser presumably 'teaches' and the student 'learns'" (p. 13). In prescriptive relationships, the advisor gives the student advice, which the student is then expected to follow.   Students are not active participants in the relationship, nor are they given the chance to define or shape the relationship. The advisor is responsible for good advice, and the student can logically blame the advisor for a bad outcome (Crookston, 1972).

In contrast, developmental advising involves the interactive relationship of advisor and advisee as "the student becomes aware of his[/her] own changing self" (Crookston, 1972, p. 12). In this approach, the relationship, not simply the advice, is central to the advising process. By making the student an active partner, Crookston's conception of developmental advising is designed "to insure that intellectual exchanges became the substance of the academic advising process" (Grites & Gordon, 2000, p. 12).

Originally, Crookston (1972) outlined these prescriptive and developmental approaches as mutually exclusive, discussing the differences in outcomes based on the advising method. However, some theorists argue that the two approaches should be considered a continuum, not a dichotomy (Grites & Gordon, 2000).   In fact, different situations may call for different approaches.

Shane's Advising Typology

Shane (1981) delineates typology of advising situations. Informational advising is concerned with delivering information to the student. This approach is simple question and answer advising. In today's advising world, websites often supplement advising with regard to basic informational needs. "Explanatory advising seeks to clarify and explain" (p. 18). This type of advising might consist of conversations about policy, procedures, or opportunities at the university. Analytic academic advising focuses on exploring and integrating a student's entire

educational experience. "It seeks to develop student insight, and it focuses. . . upon the student as a student" (p. 19). Finally, therapeutic academic advising "deals with values, commitments, and emotional preferences" (p. 21). Therapeutic advising should not be confused with psychological therapy. It is reserved for students who, although dealing with significant problems, "are still coping with these stresses, and are searching actively for effective coping mechanisms" (p. 21). Informational and explanatory levels may tend more toward prescriptive approaches, while analytic and therapeutic approaches are more developmentally oriented. Simple questions or explanations do not demand or require developmental efforts. However, prescriptive and developmental approaches can be successfully combined at the informational and explanatory levels to meet the student's needs through developmental means (Shane, 1981). For example, advisors can quickly answer informational questions, and also tell students how to find the information for themselves. The typology of academic advising situations reveals the heuristic value of the prescriptive-developmental continuum, instead of conceiving the two approaches as mutually exclusive.

Although developmental advising is considered the gold standard by authorities in the field (Crockett, 1985; Gordon, 1994, 1988; Grites & Gordon, 2000; Raushi, 1993), some students express a preference for more prescriptive approaches. Smith (2002) analyzed focus group discussions about academic advising, including advising style preferences. The groups consisted of a total of 34 students advised through an advising center at the State University of New York at Albany. All students were first-year, traditional-aged, and living on campus. Groups were conducted by two facilitators with seven to ten students. A standard set of questions was used, with additional follow-up questions based on the flow of the conversation. Each group was audio-taped. Audiotapes were transcribed and comments were categorized by

similar content and meaning. Smith found that freshman students indicate preference for prescriptive advising approaches.

Smith (2002) offers several reasons that first-year students prefer prescriptive approaches while older students seem to want developmental approaches. First-year students may have more of the informational and explanatory needs that lend themselves to this approach. In addition, first-year students' level of cognitive development and understanding about the college environment may lead them to prefer prescriptive approaches. In essence, new students may still want to be told what to do, rather than participate in a planning or decision-making session. Also, new students may not understand "the importance of taking advantage of the resources offered by the college" (Smith, 2002, p. 46).

These apparent differences in advising style preference have been linked by Smith to the maturity of the student. Freshmen seem to want more direction from an advisor, while older students prefer the relationship-driven advising inherent in developmental approaches. However, the pattern of students' advising preferences over time has not been examined in the literature. An understanding for how college students' needs develop and change over time is critical to our understanding of college students' intellectual and personal development.

<center>Theoretical Background</center>

Any discussion of developmental advising requires consideration of development in college students. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) argue that development "usually implies or presumes growth, or the potential for growth, toward maturity or toward greater complexity through differentiation and integration" (p. 17). They contrast this with change. Change describes the condition of becoming different. It lacks direction or valence. "It means simply

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that a condition at Time$_2$ is different from what it was at Time$_1$" (p. 18). Major theorists of

student intellectual development in college include Chickering, Perry, and Baxter-Magolda.

Chickering's Theory of Identity Development

Chickering's (1969) theory of identity development is a prominent theory in

developmental advising. "For Chickering, development involves differentiation and integration

as students encounter increasing complexity in ideas, values, and other people and struggle to

reconcile these new positions with their own ideas, values, and beliefs" (Pascarella & Terenzini,

2005, p. 21). Chickering identified seven vectors along which students are continually

developing.   Vectors are not considered stages, but areas in which students evolve. Students

may progress along multiple vectors at one time, and revisit vectors repeatedly. In fact,

Chickering argued that vectors may be better conceived "by spiral or by steps than by a straight

line" (p. 8).

The first vector is achieving competence. As students progress in college, they increase

their cognitive, affective, and physical skills, as well as competence in relationships. Managing

emotions is another critical developmental vector. Students learn to "control impulses and to

develop appropriate responses" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 21). Managing emotions

should lead to better appreciation of and response to both positive and negative emotions. The

third vector is moving through autonomy toward interdependence. Along this vector, students

are learning to be self-sufficient, responsible, decision-makers without continual input from

others. As part of the vector, students are learning to be independent while confirming and

valuing their relationships. The need for approval from others lessens. The fourth vector,

developing mature interpersonal relationships, involves creating and maintaining relationships

that respect diversity and individuality in others. In addition, the vector reflects the increasing

capacity to establish meaningful, intimate, and committed relationships. Fifth, establishing

identity "involves a developing sense of self in a context shared by historical events and social

and cultural conditions and by issues emanating from family and ethnic heritage" (Pascarella &

Terenzini, 2005, p. 22). The vector includes increased comfort with all aspects of self, internal

and external. The sixth vector is developing purpose. "Development along the sixth vector

occurs as an individual answer not only the question 'Who am I?' but also 'Who am I going to

be?' and not just 'Where am I?' but 'Where am I going?'" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 22).

Finally, the seventh vector is developing integrity. Values and beliefs are the focus of the

seventh vector. "Values previously taken on authority are reviewed, and those found consistent

with the emerging identity are retained, personalized, and internalized" (Pascarella & Terenzini,

2005, p. 23). Chickering conceived of development as a complex, interdependent, and continual

process. The seven vectors represent seven significant areas of challenge, development, and

growth throughout the college years.

Perry's Theory of Intellectual and Ethical Development

One of the most commonly cited theories is Perry's (1968) theory of intellectual and

ethical development during college. Perry argued that people progress through a series of stages

of development, each associated with particular ways of thinking and solving ethical dilemmas.

The first stage, duality, is characterized by dual positions, such as right-wrong and black-white.

Students do not think in the in-betweens or the gray areas apparent in later stages of

development. Perry (1970) described the stage as "the familiar world of Authority-right-we, as

against the alien world of illegitimate-wrong-others" (p. 59).

In the next stage, multiplicity, students begin to understand that multiple viewpoints and

answers exist, particularly in areas where the "right" answer is still unknown. The student may

believe that every answer is equally "right", because the true answers are not known by anyone. The next stage, relativism, is marked by a willingness to consider evidence, source, values, and judgment in determining the "right" answer. Students understand that all answers may not be known, but judgments can be made about which one answer is better, or more valid. The final stage, commitment, involves the student's adherence to a particular perspective, understanding, or ethical position (Perry, 1970). Students in this stage are able to judge positions, as in relativism, but also to make a commitment to a position. "The individual makes commitments to ideas, values, behaviors, and other people" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 35).

<u>Baxter Magolda's Epistemological Reflection Model</u>

Baxter Magolda's Epistemological Reflection Model is another model of the ways in which students know. Her research included women, who were neglected in Perry's development of his Intellectual and Ethical Development model. Baxter Magolda found four types of meaning-making. In addition, she found that certain patterns within these types were used more often by one gender or another, but both genders make use of all of the patterns. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) present the four types as absolute knowing, transitional knowing, independent knowing, and contextual knowing.

Absolute knowing is the position that knowledge is "absolute, and any uncertainty reflects the conviction that the individual just does not know the right answer" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 38). Education is seen as the acquisition of knowledge that authorities possess. Two patterns emerge in absolute knowers. The receiving pattern is characterized by "listening and recording information rather than on talking and asking questions" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 39) and is most common among women. In contrast, the mastery pattern is

characterized by asking questions, discussion, and verbal interaction and is most common among men.

Transitional knowing is a position of understanding that some knowledge is definite, but not all. "Reliance on authority begins to recede as students come to accept that the learner's role is to understand rather than simply acquire" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 39). Education becomes more active, with the goal of understanding rather than knowing. Interpersonal-pattern knowers, mostly women, seek to learn and understand the ideas of others in order to broaden their own knowledge and perspectives. Impersonal-pattern knowers, mostly men, seek the ideas and understanding of others in order to refine their own perspectives.

Independent knowing furthers the understanding that knowledge is not definite. Independent knowers understand that many different ideas and understandings are possible from a variety of authorities. This uncertainty from experts creates a greater appreciation of the learner's views and opinions. Education focuses on individual thought and expression and refining of new opinions. "As independent-pattern knowers gain confidence in their own view, the importance of the reactions of others diminishes. These learners are finding their own 'voice'" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 40). The interindividual pattern, associated with women, is associated with increased interaction with others to clarify the learner's own views. The individual pattern, associated with men, "acknowledge[s] the legitimacy of others' views, but find[s] it difficult to pay attention to those views" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 40). Yet, affirming that other views are possible and legitimate seems to allow the individual pattern knowers to validate their own views.

Contextual knowing is the last of Baxter Magolda's types of knowing. Contextual knowing allows the knower to place knowledge within the greater context of evidence, values,

other knowledge and relationships with others. Contextual knowers are able to judge evidence and alternative claims while balancing the importance of other views, and to make decisions based on these judgments.

A common theme in these developmental theories is the reduced dependence on other people for information, values, beliefs, and sense of self. Chickering argues that as students progress in the vectors they become less dependent on others as judges and decision-makers, and instead become interdependent. Relationships still matter, but the individual takes more responsibility for judgment and definition of evidence, and integrating their own values and beliefs into decisions (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Perry and Baxter Magolda talk about the influence of the authority in the first types of development. Students rely on the authority of others to define knowledge. The perception that knowledge is given by a more learned person puts the responsibility for learning on the instructor, rather than the student. As a student develops, the emphasis on authorities as the sole possessors of knowledge lessens and the learner becomes a more integral part in the development of knowledge. The values, beliefs, and understanding of the learner are part of the larger context of knowledge (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

These developmental theories provide some framework for how students develop and grow during college. The needs and perspectives of students change as they develop. In particular, their relationships with others and the influence of others on knowledge development changes as students mature. Although not developed for a college population or for an advising context, the Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1988) may provide some additional insight into the changing needs and relationships of students as they mature and how advisors should respond.

Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) Situational Leadership model is founded on three variables. The amount and type of direction given by a leader, commonly called task behavior; the amount and type of social support given, commonly called relationship behavior; and the readiness (preparedness/maturity) of the follower to perform a given task. The model is based on the claim that no single best method of leadership applies to all people in all situations. The interaction of these three variables with the situation creates an infinite range of responses. Good leadership is dependent on displaying the right style for the situation. "The more that leaders can adapt their behavior to the situation, the more effective their attempts to influence become" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 174).

Task behavior is defined as "the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 172). Task behaviors are typically one-way communication. Leaders concentrating on task behaviors are not focused on the feelings of the follower or the support and encouragement of the follower. The leader is providing direction about completing the given task.

Relationship behavior is defined as "the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication. The behaviors include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 172). Leaders involved in relationship behavior are not telling the followers what to do or how. They are motivating, comforting, supporting, and encouraging.

"Readiness is how ready a person is to perform a particular task" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 174-175). It has two factors, ability and willingness. These two dimensions interact to determine a person's level of readiness to perform a certain task. Readiness is highly task-

specific, and not related to individual characteristics, such as age. Ability refers to "the knowledge, experience, and skill" of individuals in regard to the task (p. 175). Willingness is "the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task" (p. 175).

Hersey and Blanchard argue that readiness is not an overall characteristic of an individual. The readiness of a particular person will vary with the situation and the particular task. They continue the model with the claim that as followers progress in readiness, leaders should adjust their styles. "As followers move from low-levels of readiness to higher levels, the combinations of task and relationship behavior appropriate to the situation begin to change" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 177). Low-readiness followers require high task and relatively low relationship behaviors. Mid-low-readiness followers need high task and high relationship behaviors. Mid-high-readiness requires low task, but still high relationship behavior. By the time followers are at high levels of readiness, they need relatively little direction at all in task or relationship behaviors.

A critical tenet of situational leadership is the focus on the follower, rather than the leader. "The follower can get any behavior desired depending on the *follower's* behavior. The follower's behavior determines the leader's behavior" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 180). Thus, good leadership depends on the leader's ability to respond appropriately to the individual needs of followers in varying situations.

Vecchio and Boatright (2002) studied employee preferences for ideal leader behavior and how these preferences are related to employee maturity. Researchers sent a total of 4604 surveys to employees of three different companies. 1137 were returned. The surveys were distributed by supervisors at work. Respondents completed a demographic survey, as well as an established

instrument used to describe their ideal supervisor (not their current supervisor). The sample was a good mix of male and female, but overwhelmingly white. Data was analyzed through factor analysis and related statistical analyses.

The researchers found a linear relationship between employee maturity and desire for socio-emotional behaviors, not the inverted U predicted by Hersey and Blanchard (1988). In addition, desire for task direction is inverse on two of three measures of employee maturity, time in current position and education. Age was positively correlated with desire for task direction. In studying sex differences, they found that men and women differ significantly in their desires for social support from supervisors, but not in their desire for task direction. The authors interpret these results as suggesting that employees possess different preferences for style of supervision that can be linked to gender, education, time in position, and age. Although some irregularities were found, the results confirm the basic tenets of Situational Leadership Theory.

Situational Leadership Theory has potential power for explaining differences in students' academic advising preferences, as well. Certainly, advisors can be considered leaders, while students are potential followers. Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) is based on the tenet that followers' needs significantly influence the ideal type of leadership for a given situation. In particular, the readiness of a follower should guide the leader in making decisions about the level of task direction and relationship direction appropriate for the situation at hand. A less experienced follower requires more task direction. Relationship behaviors are less important for very new and very experienced followers and more important for followers with some, but not extensive experience. Prescriptive advising approaches are more task-directed, while developmental approaches are more relationship-driven (Crookston, 1972). Thus, according to Situational Leadership Theory, prescriptive approaches are more appropriate

for low-readiness students, while developmental approaches become more appropriate as students progress in readiness.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) define readiness as "the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task" (p. 174). The ability of college students to accomplish a specific task is related to their experience with the task. Low willingness may likely be rooted in insecurity or fear, rather than simple motivation. "Generally, if it is an issue of never having done something, the problem is insecurity" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 176). Therefore, students' ongoing development during college will likely increase their ability and willingness to complete a task.

The ability of advisors to respond appropriately to the needs of their students is a critical factor in academic advising. In addition, experts in the field call for the use of developmental advising over all other approaches (Crockett, 1985; Crookston, 1972; Gordon, 1994, 1988; Grites & Gordon, 2000; Raushi, 1993). Situational Leadership Theory provides a basis for the potential effectiveness of prescriptive advising. Students who are unable or insecure about tackling a problem may genuinely need the directive leadership of prescriptive approaches. Lerstrom (2008) uses Situational Leadership as the foundation for an advising case study. He argues for the potential of the theory to guide advising practice. Yet, the tenets of the theory have not been tested in an advising setting. This is particularly important since other research has suggested that student needs change over time, and advisors must understand the nature and patterns of that change (Andrews, Andrews, Long, & Henton , 1987; Creamer, 2000; Smith, 2002).

<u>Adaptive Counseling and Therapy</u>

Howard's (1987) Adaptive Counseling and Therapy (ACT) model may provide some insight into how those needs and patterns may change over time. ACT is an application of

Situational Leadership Theory to counseling and therapy situations. Howard compares therapists to leaders and clients to workers in the sense that therapists are charged with structuring the method and climate of therapy, while the client is charged with completing therapeutic tasks. ACT concentrates on the same variables as Situational Leadership Theory, directive behavior and supportive behavior by therapists and client readiness. Directive behavior is "behavior focused on the accomplishment of an identified goal…The variation lies in how much structure or direction is provided by the therapists and how much by the client or other sources" (Howard, 1987, p. 32-33). Supportive behavior is "showing concern for the client, demonstrating support, being empathic, and building rapport" (Howard, 1987, p. 34). Directive and supportive behavior are considered two different dimensions and therapists can demonstrate high or low levels of both dimensions.

The resulting combinations of low and high levels of direction and support create four therapists styles: telling, teaching, supporting, and delegating. Telling is a high-direction, low-support style in which therapists essentially tell clients what to do. "[The therapist] assumes responsibility for deciding what needs to be done, how it needs to be done, in what order, and so on. The client's role is to comply – to do what is prescribed" (Howard, 1987, p. 37). This is a similar style to the prescriptive advising style. Teaching is a high-direction, high-support style in which therapists teach a client who is willing to complete tasks, but is unsure or unable to complete them without help. Supporting is a low-direction, high-support style in which "the focus is less on what the client is doing and more on *how* the client is doing…Responsibility for structure and direction belongs to the client" (Howard, 1987, p. 39). These middle two styles are more in line with traditional concepts of developmental advising. Finally, the last style,

delegating, puts the therapists in the position of "interested observer" (Howard, 1987, p. 40). The client is able to direct the tasks of therapy and does not require high levels of support.

Client readiness is the critical variable in determining which style is most appropriate. Client readiness consists of the same three dimensions as Situational Leadership Theory: "willingness (motivation), ability (competence), and self-confidence" (Howard, 1987, p. 41). These three components of readiness combine in different varieties to create four levels of client readiness. Clients who are unable, unwilling, and not confident are at the lowest level of readiness and require a telling style of therapy. Clients who are unable and unwilling are in the mid-low readiness and may respond most favorably to a teaching style. Mid-high readiness clients are able, willing, but have low self-confidence. These clients respond best to a supporting therapy style. Finally, high readiness clients are able, willing, and confident and require the delegating style of therapy (Howard, 1987). Although these readiness levels are well-defined for the sake of simplicity, it is important to note that "there is fluidity and movement from one quadrant to another with respect to the tasks on which the client's readiness level is being assessed" (Howard, 1987, p. 41).

Anderson and Tracey (1995) used the adaptive counseling and therapy model to examine career counseling. They found that as client readiness increases, the preference for counselor directiveness decreases. They found no relationship between client readiness and counselor supportiveness. The results of Anderson and Tracey's (1995) study support the model advanced by Creamer (2000). Creamer's model indicates a linear relationship between maturity and advising needs. As students progress through college, they need less information and more consultation during their advising sessions. However, Anderson and Tracey (1995) propose that restriction of range may have affected their results. They argue that the use of students in career

counseling courses may target the students in the middle ranges of readiness, rather than including students who are either very unready or are highly ready. Neither of these groups may be likely to participate in a career counseling class. The curvilinear relationship between directiveness/supportiveness needs and readiness, as predicted by both Situational Leadership Theory and Adaptive Counseling and Therapy models, may become apparent with a larger, more diverse sample.

The current study attempted to understand students' preferences for academic advising in relationship to their readiness as a function of their development through college. The results of the study should provide insight into the ways in which students' preferences for advising change over time, and, in turn, the ways in which advisors should change approaches to best meet their students' needs.

Theories of student development in college predict not only continual growth, but also students' lessening dependence on the opinions and input of others as they develop. Developmental advising argues that advisors should use the developmental needs of students to define, structure, and guide advising practice. Thus, understanding the changing relationship needs of students is a critical part of appropriate advising practice.

Situational Leadership Theory, and its extension Adaptive Counseling and Therapy models, argue that the relationship needs of workers or clients change as they develop and learn within a new context. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) argue that readiness influences the supervisory relationship needs of workers. The need for directive and supportive supervision has a curvilinear relationship to readiness. Low-readiness followers require high task and relatively low relationship behaviors. Mid-low-readiness followers need high task and high relationship behaviors. Mid-high-readiness requires low task, but still high relationship behavior. By the

time followers are at high levels of readiness, they need relatively little direction at all in task or relationship behaviors.

The Adaptive Counseling and Therapy model argues a similar curvilinear relationship. Low readiness clients need directive therapists with low supportive behaviors. Mid-low-readiness clients need high direction and support. Mid-high-readiness clients still require high levels of support, but lessening direction. Finally, high-readiness clients need relatively low levels of either direction or support (Nance, et. al, 1995).

Research Questions

The current study explored how students' advising preferences change during college, as well as how student readiness impacts advising style preference. In addition, the study investigated whether evidence exists that prescriptive and developmental approaches should be measured as separate constructs, rather than as a continuum.

Specifically, the study examined the following questions:

1. Is the currently accepted measurement of prescriptive/developmental advising as a continuum appropriate?

2. Do students' academic advising style preferences change as a function of college student development?

3. Does student readiness influence preference for academic advising style?

Hypotheses

1. The Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale will assess different constructs than the Academic Advising Inventory.

2. College students' advising preferences will differ as a function of their academic development.

3. Readiness for college will be significant predictor of preference for academic

advising style.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate developmental differences among college students' academic advising preferences. Students' preferences for academic advising have been examined in qualitative studies, but no systematic investigation of how student preferences change during college has been undertaken. The results of the study should help academic advisors to better understand the changing needs of students and to design more developmentally appropriate advising practices.

Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions:

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Research Design

A cross-sectional survey methodology was used as the primary source of data collection. The benefits of survey methodology include its efficient approach to collecting a relatively large amount of data across a relatively large sample, the ease of data entry and analysis, and its relatively low cost. Further, the majority of the existing studies in the area of advising style preference have been conducted using a more qualitative research methodology and analysis, so it was believed by the researcher that a more quantitative approach would be able to further elucidate our knowledge into advising style preferences.

It should also be noted however, that along with the aforementioned benefits of a more quantitative survey methodological approach, this approach also has some limitations. Specifically, survey data may be unreliable, and may be inaccurate due to its reliance on the subjects' self-report. Further, the use of a survey methodology only allows for the exploration of students' opinions or preferences about advising style. No claims about outcomes of advising can be made using these data.

Participants

The sample for the study was 119 college undergraduates enrolled in a basic introductory public speaking course at a Land Grant University in the Southeastern United States. The study was conducted during the spring semester, 2010. Participation in the study was voluntary, and subjects received extra credit for their participation. IRB approval was secured before the study was conducted (Appendix A).

Instrumentation

Demographic survey.

Students were asked self-report demographic questions to assess gender, ethnicity, and age. A copy of the demographic survey is included in Appendix D.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed by the researcher to assess the readiness of students for common college tasks (see Appendix E). According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), readiness has two factors, ability and willingness. These two dimensions interact to determine a person's level of readiness to perform a certain task. Readiness is highly task specific, and not related to individual characteristics, such as age. Ability refers to "the knowledge, experience, and skill" of individuals in regard to the task (p. 175). Willingness is "the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task" (p. 175). Thus, the questionnaire focused on these two dimensions of readiness.

Students were asked to respond to a series of questions with a five-point Likert-type scale rating, with potential responses of Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neither Agree or Disagree (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly Disagree (1). Ability questions focus on the student's knowledge and skill about common college tasks. Examples include, "I know my teachers", "I always meet deadlines", and "I have solved problems I've had in college." Willingness questions focus on the student's confidence and motivation. Examples may include, "I go to class regularly", "Talking to professors is easy for me", and "I can meet the demands of college".

Establishing Validity Evidence

Potential questions were developed by the researcher based on previous research and professional experience. These questions were given to a panel of experts in the field of college

readiness. Experts included advisors and faculty members with expertise in advising and advising theory. Experts were asked to review the items for clarity and completeness. They were asked to rate each item as to its relevance to readiness for college, and to add any additional items they thought were missing from the scale. The scale was revised based on the panel's feedback.   Initial ratings were compiled and items with insufficient scores were eliminated from the scale.

As a result of expert feedback, nine additional items were added to the scale (items 39-47). Some items were reworded for clarification. For example, "I meet with my advisor regularly" became "I meet with my advisor once a semester or more." In addition, many of the items were reworded to become more direct. For example, "If I have a question about college, I know where to go to get answers" became "I know where to go to get answers about college."

Academic Advising Inventory

The Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) was developed by Winston and Sandor (1984a) (see Appendix F). The AAI is provided to researchers and students by Student Development Associates, Inc. through the National Academic Advising Association. No written permission is required to use the instrument or to include it as an appendix.

The Academic Advising Inventory was developed to assess both the actual experiences and preferences of students in academic advising situations. The inventory is based on Crookston's (1972) conception of the prescriptive and developmental advising approaches. Prescriptive advising is based on the authority of the advisor. Students are told what to do and expected to follow that advice. Developmental advising is a more relationship-oriented approach in which the advisor and the student share responsibility for the advising session.

The Academic Advising Inventory consists of five parts. The first part is designed to assess the prescriptive or developmental approach of an actual advising situation. The second part is a list of advising topics often addressed in advising situations. For both scales, students respond to questions about their actual advising situation. The third part assesses student satisfaction with advising and the fourth part is demographic information. The fifth part is identical to the first part, but asks students to respond based on their ideal, rather than their actual advising situation. This study used some questions from Part IV, the demographic section, and all of Part V, the ideal advising situation scale.

The questions in Part V of the scale are designed to assess the extent to which a student prefers prescriptive or developmental advising techniques from their ideal advising situation. The survey is a 14-item self-report, Likert-type instrument. Students are given a pair of advisor behaviors, one prescriptive in nature, the other developmental. They are asked to respond with the degree to which they prefer behavior one or behavior two. Each behavior is given a four-point Likert-type scale, for a total of an eight-point scale. For example, "My advisor plans my schedule" has a response range of A)Very True to D) Slightly True (middle points B and C are not defined). Its counterpart "My advisor and I plan my schedule together" has a response range of E) Slightly True to H) Very True. Again, middle points F and G are not defined. Thus, the student chooses among A through H to indicate the strength of their preference for one of the two statements.

The Academic Advising Inventory consists of the Developmental-Prescriptive Advising scale and three subscales: Personalizing Education, Academic Decision-Making, and Selecting Courses (Winston & Sandor, 2002). The Developmental-Prescriptive Advising scale measures the extent to which students prefer developmental or prescriptive approaches in academic

advising. The three subscales measure the same concept as the overall scale (preference for developmental or prescriptive approaches), but focus on a particular advising domain. Personalizing Education "reflects a concern for the student's total education, including career/vocational planning, extracurricular activities, personal concerns, goal setting, and identification and utilization of resources on the campus" (Winston & Sandor, 2002, p. 11). Academic Decision-Making "includes monitoring academic progress, collecting information and assessing the student's interests and abilities concerning academic concentrations…and then carrying through by registering for appropriate courses" (Winston & Sandor, 2002, p. 11). Finally, Selecting Courses focuses on the process of schedule planning, including identifying courses and determining a schedule. For all scales, high scores indicate preference for developmental advising behaviors, while low scores indicate preference for prescriptive advising behaviors.

Winston and Sandor (2002) report internal consistency reliability for the overall scale and its subscales. The coefficient alpha was .78 for the overall Developmental-Prescriptive scale. For subscales, coefficient alphas were .81 for Personalizing Education, .66 for Academic Decision-Making, and .42 for Selecting Courses. Mottarella, Fritzsche and Cerabino (2004) report internal-consistency reliability coefficients as .78 for the Developmental-Prescriptive scale, .75 for Personalizing Education, .65 for Academic Decision-Making, and .45 for Selecting Courses.

Winston and Sandor (2002) admit to difficulty in establishing validity because no other existing scales measure developmental or prescriptive advising methods. To address validity, the authors tested two groups they believed were receiving categorically different advising. One group was perceived to be receiving developmental advising through an intrusive advising

program for high-risk students and the other group was receiving advising through a standard advising office. These students did report significantly different advising experiences based on the Developmental-Prescriptive Advising scale ($t(115) = 6.57$, $p < .001$) and the Personalizing Education subscale ($t(122) = 8.36$, $p < .001$). In addition, Winston and Sandor used factor analysis to examine the scales and found that "factor loadings ranged from .43 to .79 for their assigned scales and all items loaded highest on their assigned scale" (Winston & Sandor, 1984, 1984-1986). A copy of the survey is included in Appendix F.

Prescriptive/Developmental Preference Scale

As an addendum to the Academic Advising Inventory, the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale was developed by the researcher to assess the preferences of students for prescriptive and developmental advising, when not measured on a continuum as in the Academic Advising Inventory (see Appendix G). The AAI does not allow for students to express preference for both prescriptive and developmental techniques. By measuring the two dimensions separately, the study intended to find potential evidence of two distinct constructs, rather than two ends of a continuum. Sixteen questions were developed, eight testing only prescriptive preference and eight testing only developmental preference. Students were asked to respond to the questions with a five-point Likert-type scale rating, with potential responses of Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neither Agree or Disagree (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly Disagree (1). High scores on both dimensions would reveal a more complex construct than the AAI currently measures. The questions were subjected to the same validity and testing procedures as the Readiness for College scale.

As a result of expert feedback, several questions were deleted from the Prescriptive/Developmental Scale. "My ideal advisor would direct me to resources that I need",

"My ideal advisor would make sure I know what I need to, and "My ideal advisor would help me with personal problems" and "my ideal advisor would suggest majors for me" were removed from the instrument because of disagreement about the scale to which they belonged.

Procedures

The surveys were administered by the researcher during spring semester 2010 to students enrolled in an introductory level public speaking course. Surveys were completed outside of class and instructors gave extra credit to those who volunteered to participate. Participation was voluntary. Announcements of an extra credit opportunity were sent to students' university email account with instructions about when and where the research would be conducted.

Students who volunteered for the study were given an overview of the study and its objectives by the researcher. Consent was obtained from all participants according to the requirements of the Institutional Review Board. After consent, students were asked to complete the demographic form, the Readiness for College scale, the Academic Advising Inventory, and the additional Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale. To avoid any potential order effects, half of the survey packets contained the Academic Advising Inventory prior to the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale, while the other half reversed the order of these two scales. The surveys were given as pencil and paper surveys with bubble-type responses to be scanned into a data file. Surveys were coded to ensure that surveys from a given participant remain together. Surveys took approximately 15 minutes to complete. The surveys were scanned, scored, and read into an SPSS data file using ReMark Office optical scanning software.

Independent and Dependent Variables

The dependent variables are the scores on the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) Part V and the score on the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale. Total score on the AAI

inventory indicates a student's overall preference for prescriptive or developmental advising. Scores on the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale indicate preferences for prescriptive and developmental advising, not measured on a continuum as in the AAI. Two scores, one for prescriptive preference and one for developmental preference, were calculated. The independent variables are the scores on the Readiness for College measure, sex, ethnicity, and class standing.

Data Analysis

SPSS version 17 for Windows was used for data analysis. Reliability measures (Cronbach's alpha) were conducted on all instruments. The data analysis addressed the following research questions:

1. Is the currently accepted measurement of prescriptive/developmental advising as a continuum appropriate?

Reliability measures were conducted for the scale. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale to test for a two-factor structure. Simple correlations were conducted to test concurrent validity of the scale by assessing the relationship between the scores on the two parts of the Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale and the Academic Advising Inventory.

2. Do students' academic advising style preferences change as a function of college student development?

An analysis of variance was conducted to examine differences between the independent variable of class standing (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior) and the dependent variable of advising preference (score on the Academic Advising Inventory).

Hierarchical cluster analysis was used to determine if students display different combinations of advising preference for developmental and prescriptive advising techniques

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(scores on the developmental and prescriptive scales developed by the researcher) based on their academic development.

3. Does student readiness influence preference for academic advising style?

Hierarchical cluster analysis was used to determine whether students display different combinations of advising preference for developmental and prescriptive advising techniques (scores on the developmental and prescriptive scales developed by the researcher) based on their readiness.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Data Analysis

Responses from the 119 subjects were entered into an SPSS data file. Analyses were performed using the SPSS 17.0 version for Windows.

The research questions addressed in this study focus on the relationships between advising style preference and measures of academic development, including classification and college readiness. The hypotheses were:

1. The Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale will assess different constructs than the Academic Advising Inventory.

2. College students' advising preferences will differ as a function of their academic development.

3. Readiness for college will be significant predictor of preference for academic advising style.

To test the first hypothesis, reliability measures were conducted for the Academic Advising Inventory and the Prescriptive and Developmental scales. Then, correlations were conducted to assess the relationships among the scales. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the scale as a whole. In addition, measurement models were created on each of the two subscales, prescriptive and developmental. Finally, an exploratory principle components analysis with an oblique rotation was used to explore further the factor structure of the Prescriptive/Developmental Scale.

For the second hypothesis, three analyses of variance were conducted using classification as the independent variable and using the total score on the Academic Advising Inventory, score on the Prescriptive Scale, and score on the Developmental Scale as the dependent variables. Hierarchical cluster analysis was attempted using the scores on the Prescriptive and Developmental scales as clustering variables. However, no stable clusters could be identified. Therefore, quartiles were used to force clusters. Students were assigned to a Developmental quartile and a Prescriptive quartile based on their scores on the Developmental and Prescriptive preferences scales. The quartiles were then used to assign students to clusters. The four advising preference clusters were defined as: Low/Low (1st quartile on both), Low/High (quartile 1-2 on Developmental, quartile 3-4 on Prescriptive), High/Low (quartile 3-4 on Developmental, quartile 1-2 on Prescriptive), and High/High (quartile 4 on both). A chi-square was conducted using classification and advising preference cluster.

For hypothesis three, reliability measures were conducted for the readiness scale. Three separate ANOVAs were conducted using readiness as the independent variable and scores on the Developmental scale, Prescriptive scale, and Academic Advising Inventory as the dependent variables.

Additional analyses were conducted to investigate the relationship between sex and the major variables in the study. ANOVAs were conducted using sex as the independent variable and scores on the Academic Advising Inventory, Prescriptive and Developmental Scales, and readiness as the dependent variables. In addition, a chi-square was conducted on sex and advising preference cluster membership.

Results

The sample consisted of 75 women (63%) and 43 men (36.1%). Reported ethnicity was as follows: 8 African American (6.7 %); 3 Asian (2.5%); 4 Hispanic (3.4%); 98 White, Non-Hispanic (82.4%); 1 Native American (.8%); 2 Biracial/Multiethnic (1.7%); and 2 declined to respond (1.7%). Participants' ages were: 6 were 18 (5%); 36 were 19 (30.3%); 28 were 20 (31.9%); 22 were 21 (18.5%); 10 were 22 (8.4%); and 6 were 23 or older (5.1%). Finally, there were 19 freshmen (16%); 44 sophomores (37%); 28 juniors (23.5%); and 27 seniors (22.7%).

Hypothesis 1: The Prescriptive/Developmental Preference scale will assess different constructs than the Academic Advising Inventory.

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the scale using the eight variables assigned to the Prescriptive subscale and the eight variables assigned to the Developmental subscale. The analysis resulted in only four variables loading on the latent variable of prescriptive advising. Items 1, 2, 7, and 11 failed to load on the prescriptive variable. All eight developmental variables loaded as predicted on the latent variable of developmental advising. Overall model fit indices indicated a poor fit, CFI = .569; RMSEA = .120. This model can be found in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Model 1: 8 Variable Prescriptive and Developmental Scales
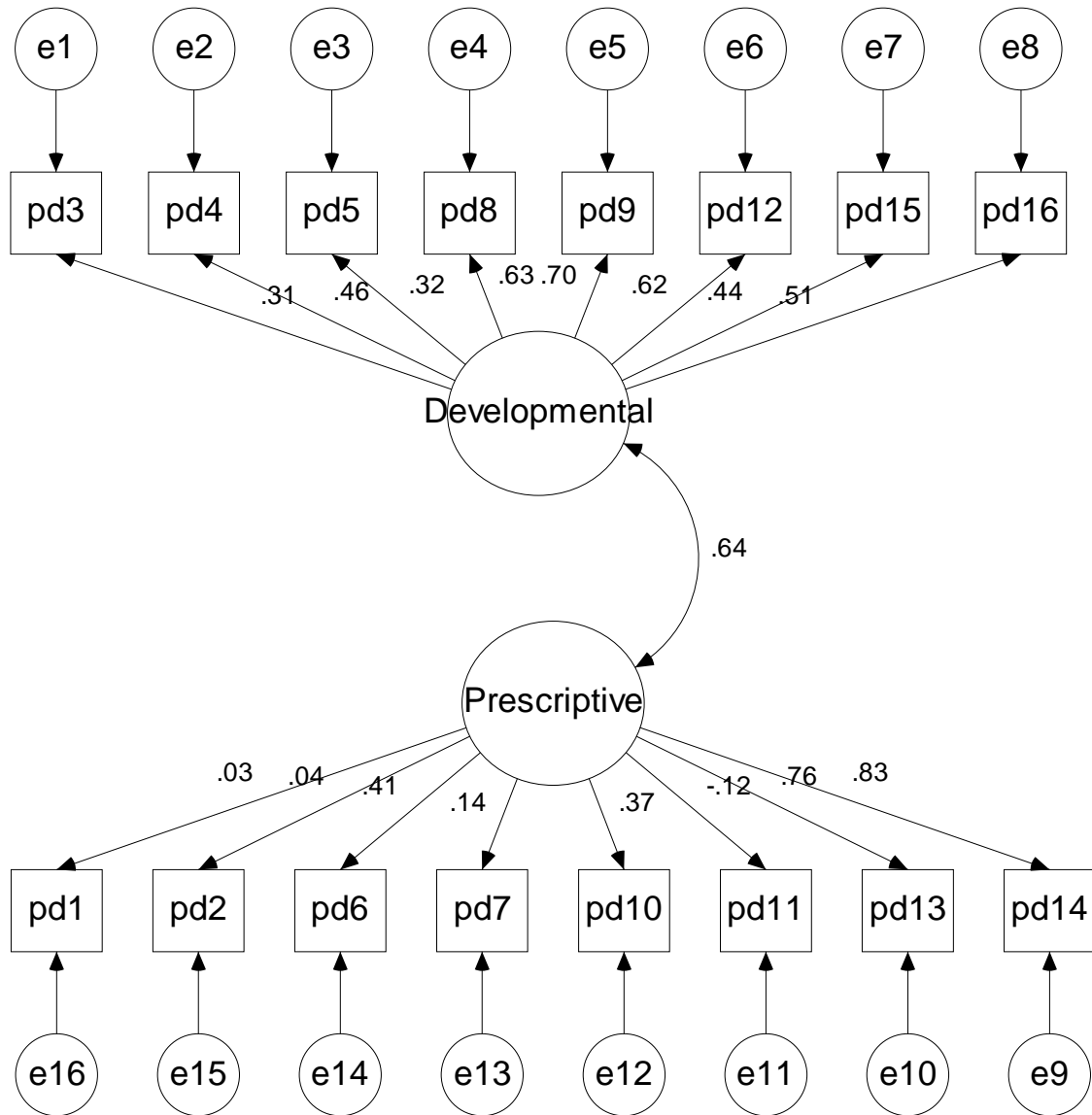
As a result of the poor loading of prescriptive variables 1, 2, 7, and 11, the model was respecified, eliminating the four prescriptive variables with weak loadings. Model 2 showed significant improvement with fit indices of CFI = .810 and RMSEA = .097. All variables had strong loadings on their assigned factors. Model 2 can be found in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Model 2: 4 Variable Prescriptive Scale and 8 Variable Developmental Scale
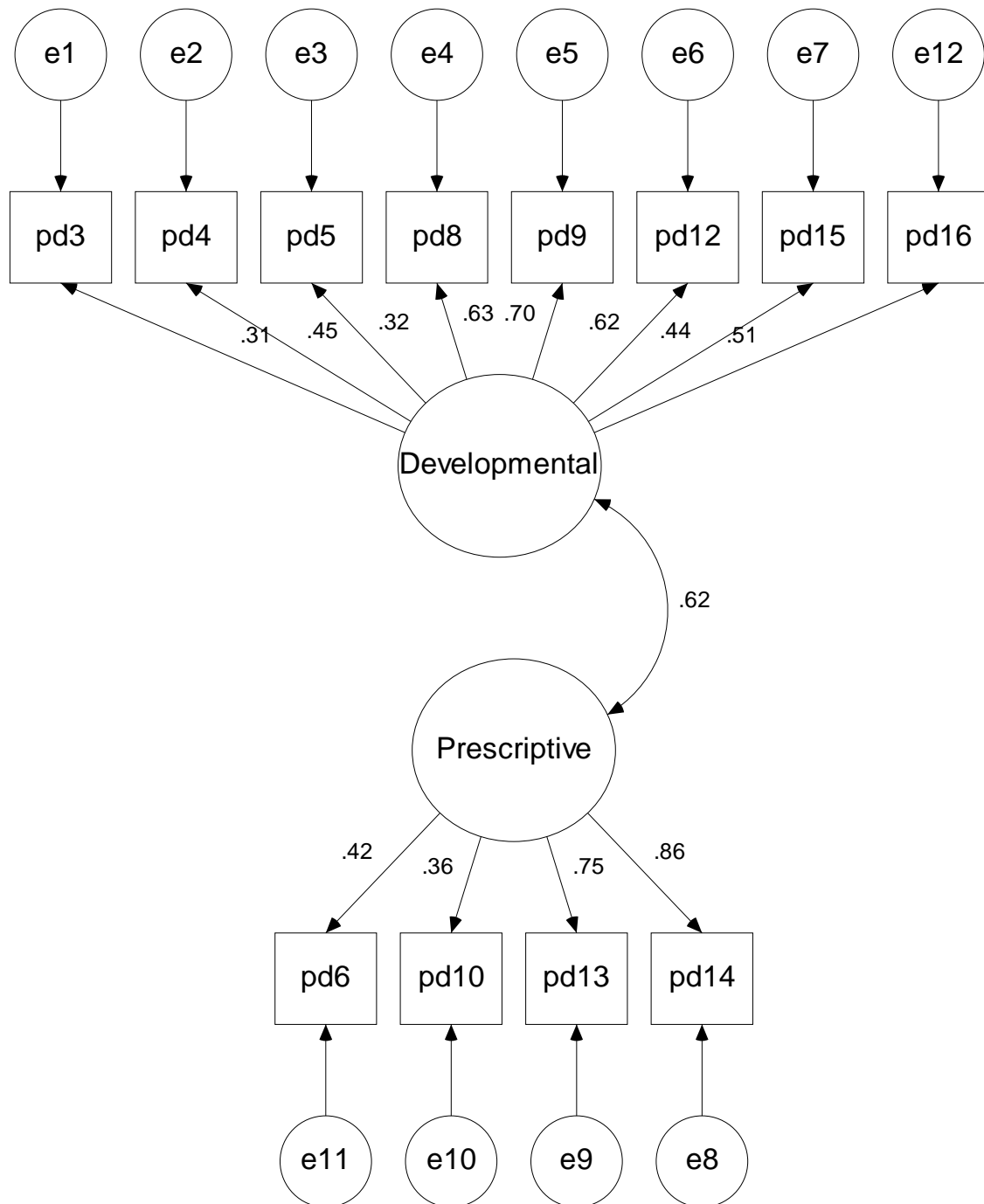
Modification indices from Model 2 indicated that item 9 was correlated with the latent variable of prescriptive advising. Based on theory, item 9 was assigned to the developmental

scale. However, its inclusion in the model as part of the prescriptive scale improves the overall

fit of the model, CFI = .846; RMSEA = .088. Model 3 can be found in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Model 3: Model with Addition of Item 9 to Prescriptive Scale
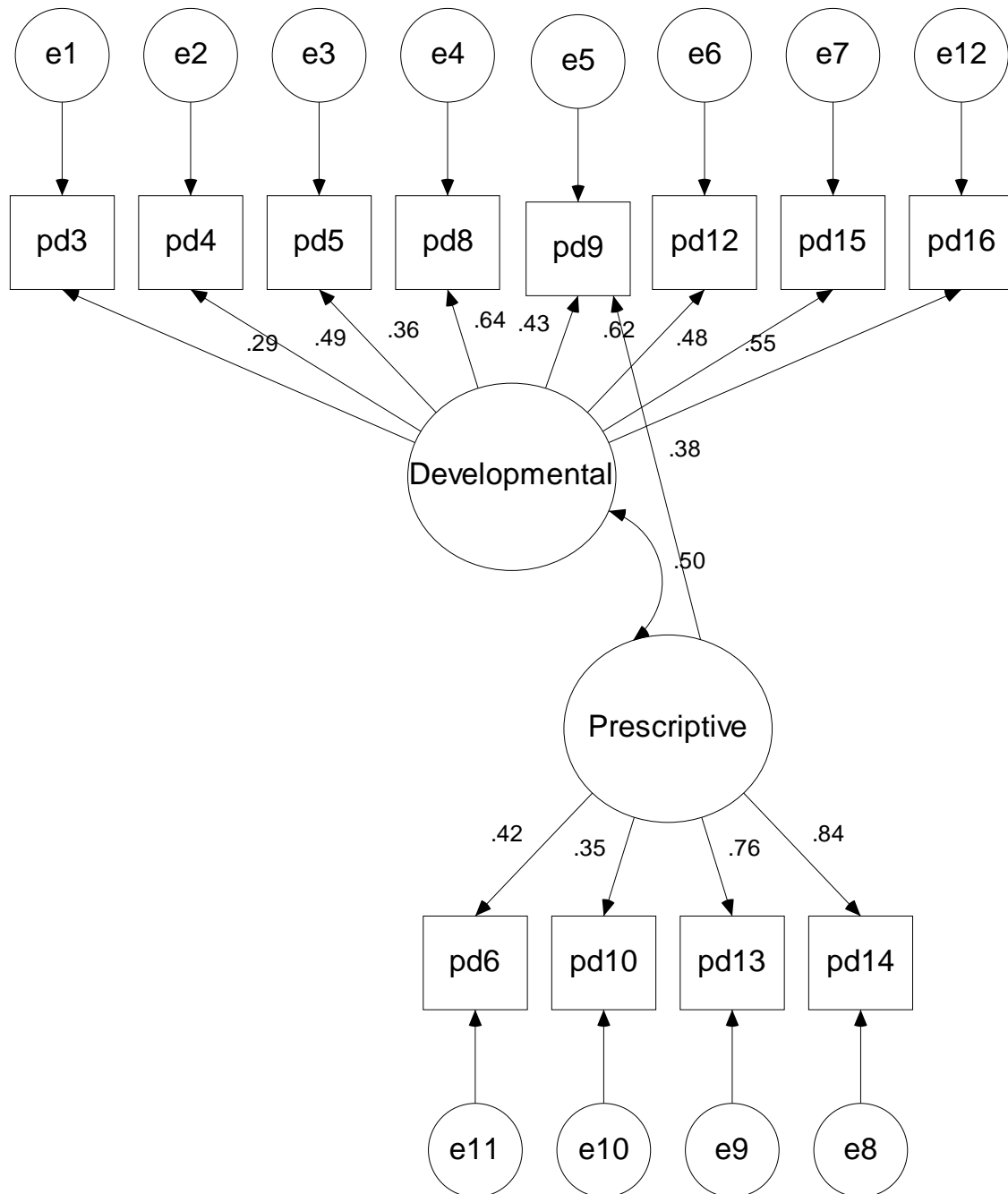
Although Model 3 has better fit indices, Item 9 creates a theoretical problem. Item 9 is clearly developmental in nature. Thus, an additional model was created removing Item 9 from either scale. As a result, the fit indices drop, CFI = .812; RMSEA = .096. These results indicate that item 9 has a genuine relationship with both the prescriptive and developmental scales. A summary of fit indices for the models can be found in Table 1.

Table 1

Model Comparisons

Model	Chi-Square	CFI	RMSEA
Model 1	278.60	.569	.120
Model 2	110.83	.810	.097
Model 3	98.76	.846	.088

To test the integrity of the individual scales, measurement models were created for the Prescriptive Scale and the Developmental Scale. The Prescriptive Model, found in Figure 4, indicated CFI = .963 and RMSEA = .122.

Figure 4

Measurement Model of Prescriptive Scale
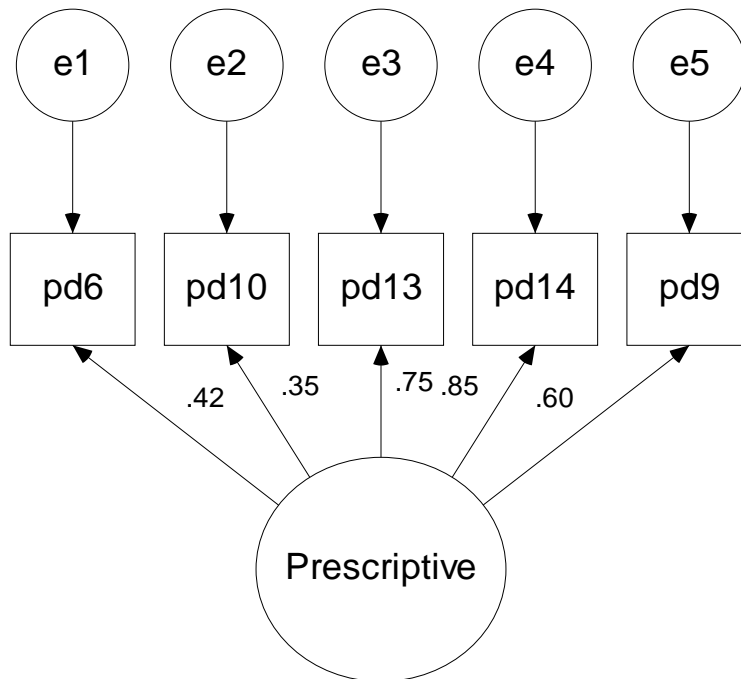
The measurement model for the Developmental Scale, found in Figure 5, had fit indices

of CFI = .832; RMSEA = .106

Figure 5

Measurement Model of Developmental Scale
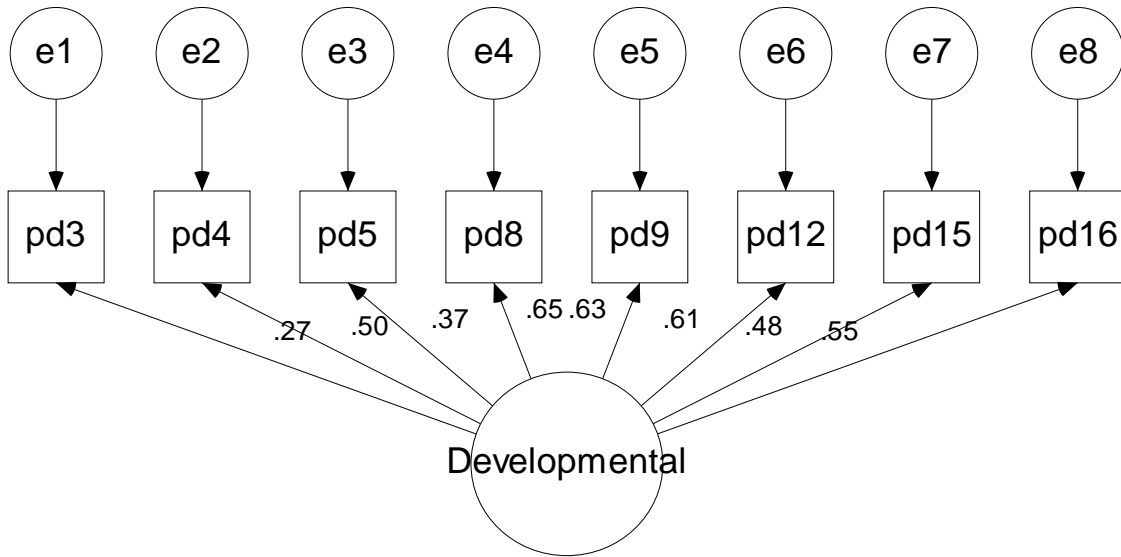
As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis, four of the prescriptive variables were considered weak measures of the latent variable. Thus, the Prescriptive Scale was reduced to the remaining four variables. The revised four-item Prescriptive scale was used for the remaining data analysis procedures.

Because the confirmatory factor analysis did not fully support the theory, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to explore further the factor structure of the scale. A principal components analysis with an oblique rotation was performed on the 16-item Prescriptive/Developmental Scale. Using the eigenvalue convention of greater than one, a five factor solution was derived as may be seen in Table One. The five factors accounted for a total of 64.3% of the variance. In order to interpret these factors, items assigned to a factor had to exhibit a structure coefficient above .40 on that factor and could not have a structure coefficient on any other factor at a level above one-half of the structure coefficient on the primary factor. The structure coefficients for the oblique pattern matrix are found in Table Two.

Table 2

Principal Components Analysis of 16-Item Prescriptive/Developmental Scale

Five Factor Solution

Item	Rules	Holistic	Skills	Directive	Career
9	.576*	-.088	.193	.253	.109
13	.835*	-.019	.042	.025	-.085
14	.857*	.009	.049	-.116	.115
1	-.035	.788*	-.042	-.018	-.031
2	-.016	.746*	-.222	-.032	.331
15	.037	.025	.776*	.032	-.070
16	.072	-.085	.794*	-.028	.067
4	-.101	.021	.057	.856*	.098
11	.044	.127	.133	-.844*	.041
3	.244	.199	-.194	.172	.602*
5	-.262	.082	.345	.191	.732*
6	.435	-.083	-.093	-.231	.617
7	.019	.595	.508	-.146	-.042
8	.266	-.240	.457	.210	.135
10	.431	0398	.058	.203	-.346
12	.309	.087	.134	.589	.018

* indicates item was assigned to factor

Factor one, with an eigenvalue of 3.790 and an alpha reliability of .776, accounted for 23.6% of the variance. Items assigned to this factor are "My ideal advisor would tell me about policies that may affect me", "My ideal advisor would talk to me about my interests and abilities to help me plan classes", and "My ideal advisor would tell me about important deadlines." This factor indicates the students' need for practical, requirement-based information.

Factor two, with an eigenvalue of 2.076 and an alpha reliability of .624, accounted for 12.9% of the variance. "My ideal advisor would tell me what to do" and "My ideal advisor

would tell me which classes I should take" are assigned to this factor. These items reflect the students' need for directive advising.

Factor three, with an eigenvalue of 1.613 and an alpha reliability of .638, accounted for 10% of the variance. Items assigned to this factor are "My ideal advisor would help me with study skills and time management" and "My ideal advisor would teach me how to make decisions for myself." This factor constitutes the students' desire for skill development as a part of advising.

Factor four, with an eigenvalue of 1.540 and an alpha reliability of .768, accounted for 9.6% of the variance. "My ideal advisor would be interested in my life outside of school" and "My ideal advisor and I would talk only about academics" are assigned to this factor. These items constitute the students' desire for holistic advising.

Factor five, with an eigenvalue of 1.2 and an alpha reliability of .412, accounted for 7.9% of the variance. "My ideal advisor would talk to me about career opportunities" and "My ideal advisor would talk with me about my goals" are the items assigned to this factor. This factor indicates the students' interest in advising for long-range planning.

Reliability measures were run for the revised Prescriptive and Developmental scales, as well as the Academic Advising Inventory. The Prescriptive scale resulted in $\alpha = .607$. The Developmental scale resulted in $\alpha = .724$. The Academic Advising Inventory indicated $\alpha = .641$.

The developmental scale was significantly correlated to the Academic Advising Inventory ($r = .433$, $p < .001$). The prescriptive scale was very slightly negatively correlated with the Academic Advising Inventory, however that correlation was not significant ($r = -.07$, $p = .45$).

Descriptive statistics were run for the scales used in the study. Those results are summarized in Table Three.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Scales

Scale	Number of Items	Mean (SD)	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)
AAI	14	86.87 (10.33)	.641
Prescriptive	4	17.47 (1.89)	.607
Developmental	8	31.92 (3.77)	.724
Readiness	47	190.71 (17.32)	. 905

Thus, hypothesis one has been supported. The Academic Advising Inventory and the Prescriptive/Developmental scale do appear to measure similar constructs, but a continuum measurement focused on advising style may not be the most appropriate method. Additional research into the nature of the constructs measured is warranted.

Hypothesis 2: College students' advising preferences will differ as a function of their academic development. An analysis of variance was performed to compare classification with total score on the Academic Advising Inventory. The results of the ANOVA indicate that no significant relationship exists between student classification and preference for developmental advising as measured by the AAI [$F(3, 110) = .430$, $p = .732$]. In addition, ANOVAs performed on the Prescriptive and Developmental Scales indicate no relationship between classification and preference for either prescriptive or developmental advising styles, [$F(3, 114) = .250$, $p = .861$] and [$F(3, 113) = .186$, $p = .906$], respectfully. Chi-square analysis performed on classification and the advising preference clusters also resulted in non-significant findings, $x^2 = 6.459$, $p =$

.693. Thus, hypothesis two was not supported. A summary of results can be found in Table

Four.

Table 4

Results by Scale and Classification

Scale	FR	SO	JR	SR	F	Effect Size
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		
AAI	89.21 (8.78)	86.16 (10.81)	87.04 (9.14)	86.11 (12.07)	.430	.012
Prescriptive	17.21 (2.84)	17.45 (1.85)	17.46 (1.55)	17.70 (1.56)	.250	.007
Developmental	31.89 (4.75)	32.25 (3.47)	31.78 (3.21)	31.59 (4.27)	.186	.005

Hypothesis 3: Readiness for college will be a significant predictor of preference for

academic advising style. Reliability measures were run for the College Readiness Scale. The

scale resulted in $\alpha = .905$. Readiness for college was expected to be related to student

classification with seniors reporting higher levels of readiness than freshmen. An analysis of

variance conducted to test for differences in readiness by classification yielded non-significant

results $[F(3, 113) = .148, p = .931]$. In fact, very little variance was found among the

classifications. Means and standard deviations for readiness by classification can be found in

Table Five.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics on Reported College Readiness by Classification

Scale	FR	SO	JR	SR	F	Effect Size
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		
Readiness	191.0 (16.87)	189.52 (16.31)	192.18 (17.78)	191.48 (19.6)	.148	.004

A simple correlation was performed to compare readiness with total score on the Academic Advising Inventory. No significant relationship exists between readiness and preference for developmental advising as measured by the AAI [r = .160, *p* = .08]. Simple regressions were performed examining readiness and its relationship to prescriptive and developmental advising preference. No relationship is indicated between readiness and preference for prescriptive advising [r = -.027, *p* = .774] or developmental advising [r = .026, *p* = .777]. A summary of the data can be seen in Table Six.

Table 6

Correlations of Reported College Readiness with Advising Preference Variables

	Correlation with Readiness
AAI	.160
Prescriptive	-.027
Developmental	.026

Readiness was examined as a predictor of as advising cluster membership. However, the cluster sizes were not sufficient for regression analyses. The readiness means by advising preference cluster indicate that there may be a pattern. Cluster 4 (High/High) had a higher readiness mean than the other groups. Additional research is necessary to determine if that pattern would be significant with a larger sample. Means can be found in Table Seven.

Table 7

Reported College Readiness Means by Advising Style Cluster

	Cluster 1 (Low/Low)	Cluster 2 (Low/High)	Cluster 3 (High/Low)	Cluster 4 (High/High)
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Readiness	191.0 (15.65)	193.76 (17.53)	188.60 (21.04)	203.18 (15.49)

Thus, hypothesis three was not supported. Readiness is not a significant predictor of overall advising style preference.

Additional analyses were conducted to examine the relationship of sex to major variables in the study. An ANOVA using sex as the independent variable and scores on the Academic Advising Inventory as the dependent variable indicate that women prefer developmental advising more than men, $[F(1, 112) = 5.42, p = .02]$. No significant differences in preference for advising style between men and women were found using scores on the Prescriptive and Developmental Scales $[F(1, 116) = .58, p = .810]$ and $[F(1, 115) = 3.596, p = .06]$, respectfully. However, a chi-square analysis using sex and developmental preference quartile does indicate some differences between men and women. There are fewer women than would be expected in the lowest developmental quartile and more than would be expected in the highest developmental quartile. Conversely, there are more men than would be expected in the lowest developmental quartile and fewer than would be expected in the highest developmental quartile, $(x^2 = 8.91, p = .03)$. An ANOVA was conducted using sex as the independent variable and readiness as the dependent variable. Women reported themselves as more ready than men, $[F(1, 115) = 11.396, p < .001]$.

Summary

Factor analysis and correlations indicate that the Academic Advising Inventory and the Prescriptive/Developmental Scale do assess different constructs. Analysis of the data through ANOVA, chi-square, and regression led to failure to support hypotheses two and three. No differences in advising style can be attributed to classification. Reported college readiness has no significant relationship with classification or advising style preference. Differences were observed in advising style preference between men and women. Women show preference for developmental advising techniques on the Academic Advising Inventory. In addition, women are more represented in the high developmental quartile and men are more represented in the low developmental quartile than would be expected. Finally, women report themselves as more ready than men on the College Readiness Scale.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Summary

Relationships among student classification, college readiness, and academic advising style preferences were the focus of this study. The study attempted to show how students' advising preferences change during college, as well as how student readiness impacts advising style preference. In addition, the study investigated whether prescriptive and developmental approaches should be measured as separate constructs, rather than as a continuum.

One hundred and nineteen college students completed a College Readiness Scale, the Academic Advising Inventory, a Prescriptive/Developmental Scale, and a brief demographic questionnaire. Confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis were performed on the Prescriptive/Developmental Scale to determine the structure of the scale. In addition, statistical procedures were performed using scores on the scales, demographic variables, and advising style preference quadrant membership.

Confirmatory factor analysis indicates that the two-factor solution is not an adequate fit for the data. In particular, item 9 appears to confound the two-factor solution. Modeling of the scales indicates that item 9 loads significantly on both developmental and prescriptive scales, despite its clearly developmental nature. Exploratory factor analysis indicates that the scale contains five factors, not the two factors proposed. The factors are advising function-driven, rather than advising style-driven as originally conceived. This interpretation of factors helps explain the dual loading of item 9. In addition, gender was a significant predictor of advising preference.   Women preferred developmental advising based on the scores on the Academic

Advising Inventory. Women were more represented than expected in the highest developmental preference quartile and men were more represented than expected in the lowest developmental preference quartile. This chapter includes a discussion of the findings, limitations, conclusions, and recommendations.

<div align="center">Discussion</div>

Research Question One

The first research question asked whether the currently accepted measurement of prescriptive/developmental advising as a continuum is appropriate. The Academic Advising Inventory requires students to choose between prescriptive advising behaviors and developmental advising behaviors. Students cannot report high preference for both prescriptive techniques and developmental techniques. This study hypothesized that these preferences might be better conceived as task and relational dimensions and students could have preference for both. Thus, the Prescriptive/Developmental Scale was devised to separate the scales and to allow students to report a preference for both.

Results of this study suggest that the two instruments measure similar constructs, but a continuum may not be the most appropriate measure. High scores on the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI) indicate high preference for developmental advising. As would be expected, scores on the AAI correlate positively and significantly with scores on the Developmental Scale. Scores on the AAI correlate negatively with scores on the Prescriptive Scale. This is to be expected since low scores on the AAI indicate preference for prescriptive advising. However, the correlation between the AAI and the Prescriptive scale is not significant.

Some students do report high preference for both prescriptive and developmental behaviors. This finding supports the assertion that a continuum is not the best measure of

advising style preference. Yet, low reliability measures for the prescriptive scale in particular call into question the newly developed scale.

In an attempt to confirm the scale and its structure, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed. A two-factor structure was predicted, consisting of a prescriptive factor and a developmental factor. Results of the confirmatory factor analysis do not indicate a strict two factor solution. In particular, item 9 created substantial theoretical questions.

Item 9 stated, "My ideal advisor would talk to me about my interests and abilities to help me plan classes." Although item 9 is a textbook developmental advising question, it loaded significantly on both the prescriptive and developmental scales. In fact, its inclusion on both scales resulted in the best model fit for the data. Thus, item 9 creates a theoretical mismatch. It has no theoretical place on a prescriptive scale, yet makes the scale better reflect the data.

Upon reexamination of the scales including item 9 on both, an alternative pattern emerges. Rather than focusing on the advising behavior embedded in the questions, students appear to focus on the advising function within the question. The items loading on the previously named developmental factor are focused on holistic concerns. Questions about careers, goals, skills, life outside of school, activities and organizations, and decision making all load on this factor. The previously named prescriptive factor appears to focus on directed issues, such as graduation requirements, classes, policies, and procedures. Item 9 contains elements of both holistic and directed concerns. The item, "Talk to me about my interests and activities" [holistic] "to help me plan classes" [directed] targets two separate advising situations. Thus, by interpreting the factors as situational or functionally-driven, the inclusion of item 9 on both scales makes theoretical sense.

As a result of the mixed findings of the confirmatory factor analysis, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. A five-factor structure was determined. The factors are: requirement issues, holistic advising, skill development, directive advising, and long-range planning. These factors further confirm the emphasis on advising situations or functions, rather than advising style. The focus on function, rather than style, may be an important distinction. While advising theory has typically concentrated on the behaviors involved in working with students, it may be that the function of the advising session is the primary force in determining a student's needs. For example, they may be very comfortable with prescriptive behaviors in an information gathering session, but prefer a developmental approach in a goal or career focused session. Thus, they could prefer high levels of both styles depending on the situation. Neither the Academic Advising Inventory nor the Prescriptive/Developmental Scale are structured to test for situational preferences in advising style.

The results of these factor analyses indicate that the advising style on which advising research has focused is not the driving force behind students' perception of advising. Although advising style may interact with function in influencing the success of advising, the situation or function appears to be the primary issue for students. Rather than the strictly behavioral approach advocated by prescriptive techniques or the more cognitive approach of developmental advising, a transactional or situated approach to advising is warranted.

Dewey argued for a transactional approach in which the environment changes the organism, and through its response, the organism changes the environment. Dewey said that no action could be understood outside of its environmental context. As part of the interplay between environment and individual, social interaction is critical in creating learning (Bredo,

1997).   The social interaction between advisor and advisee, with continual attention to the transactional nature of student and environment, should result in the best learning for the student.

A functionalist classroom would emphasize authentic learning through defining a long-term problem, and then working on the short-term steps it takes to solve the problem. For example, learning to balance a checkbook would require writing skills, addition and subtraction, as well as reading statements and attention to detail. Balancing the checkbook could be the endpoint of a number of related skills the students develop throughout the year. It appears that students have a similar concept of advising. The holistic factor emphasizes the long-term problem of developing goals, plans, and skills.   The directed factor focuses on the short-term steps of selecting classes, learning graduation requirements, and understanding policies and procedures.

One of the criticisms of behavioral and cognitive approaches is that they "cannot possibly model how humans learn, because human beings are much more flexible in attending to shifting, practical relevancies. They are also much more able to *make* the situation what they prefer it to be, rather than sticking with a given definition" (Bredo, 1997, p. 34). Students seem to be making advising situations what they need them to be, rather than sticking with the advising style that advising theory would predict they need.

Smith and Allen (2006) focused on advising from a functional perspective, asking students to rate the importance of the advising function, rather than the advising behavior. Functions that are typically described as prescriptive in nature topped the students' rankings of importance. "Accurate information" was ranked as the most important advising function. Smith and Allen note, "the advising functions that some theorists would argue define the essence of developmental advising (i.e., knowing students as individuals; taking into account their skills,

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interests, and abilities; and encouraging them to assume responsibility for their education) were in the middle of the rankings" (p. 62).

These findings indicate that the conceptualization of prescriptive and developmental advising styles may not be salient for students. Although advising theory has focused on advising styles, the field may have missed the point. Although advising behavior is important, it does not drive student satisfaction with advising. The advising function sets the stage for the interaction, the student's expectations, and their eventual satisfaction (or lack of it) with their advising experience.   These results suggest that a hallmark of a good advisor is the ability to vary advising style and approach based on the function and student.

Research Question Two

Research question two asked whether students' academic advising style preferences change as a function of college student development. For this question, development was defined as student classification: freshman, sophomore, junior, senior. No significant differences were found in academic advising preference based on classification.

As discussed for the research question above, advising style preference may be a secondary concern for students. The advising function may be the determining factor for students in evaluating their advising experiences. Thus, if advising style preference is situational and dependent upon the need of the individual learner, rather than developmental in nature, no differences would be expected based on student classification.

Another potential explanation is that college environments are not work environments. Students may not meet with advisors regularly or at all, and students are not required to follow the advice in order to succeed. Students can fail to meet an advisor's expectations and

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successfully complete a college education. Students are not dependent on advisors in the same way that employees depend on a supervisor.

Moreover, Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) theory is job task-specific. In a work environment, tasks of the employee are relatively stable.   The tasks of college students change rapidly. Freshmen are trying to figure out the institution and their new responsibilities. Students may understand the college environment by their sophomore year, but now must decide on a major. As juniors, perhaps they have chosen a major, but are now trying to learn the conventions of the field, as well as investigate internships and other off-campus activities. Finally, as seniors, they may feel comfortable in their majors, but suddenly be confronted with graduate school applications, resumes, interviews, and job searches. The tasks students are required to complete may change quickly enough that students do not demonstrate the change in advising needs that would be predicted by development over time. They may have developed beyond freshman-level tasks, but have an entirely new set of senior-level tasks before them.

Research Question Three

Research question three asked whether student readiness influences preference for academic advising style. To determine student readiness, students were asked to complete a College Readiness Scale, designed to assess their overall readiness to complete college tasks. Readiness was not related to student classification. The means reported for readiness by class were all very high and varied by only 2.66 points out of a possible 235. Juniors reported the highest mean of 192.18, with sophomores reporting the lowest mean of 189.52. They all report themselves as highly ready for college tasks. Sophomores, with the lowest mean, still average a 4.03 (4= Agree) on a five-point Likert-type scale.

The findings on readiness do not match with the predicted outcomes. Readiness mean by advising style cluster suggest that readiness may be a predictor of high prescriptive and high developmental preference. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) would argue that high readiness would indicate a low preference for either type of advising. People with high levels of readiness need low levels of task and social support. However, another theory may provide some insight. Blake and Mouton (1985) propose that leaders who are highly concerned about both production and people within an organization are the most effective leaders. They argue that attention to both task and social dimensions of leadership are hallmarks of good leadership. Blake and Mouton (1985) also argue the versatility to appreciate both dimensions and to act "in a way that is appropriate to the particular situation" (p. 100) are critical to success. It may be that the students who are higher in readiness have learned an appreciation for both the task and social aspects of advising and understand that versatility is an important component in advising.

The lack of variation in reported readiness among classifications is particularly interesting. It seems unlikely that freshmen actually are as ready for college as upper-division students. There may be some self-selection involved with those who came to the extra credit session to take the survey. Students were required to read their email and plan to come during a time that the survey was being conducted. In addition, they would have had to believe that an extra credit point was worth their time and effort to complete the survey. Those factors likely skew the sample towards the more ready student. However, that alone would be unlikely to produce such consistent results across all levels of students. It is most likely the lack of variance/variability in this scale that accounted for these results.

In constructing the College Readiness Scale, a five-point Likert-type scale was used, consisting of "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree". That structure creates self-reported

perceptions of readiness. Students are asked to agree or disagree that they are prepared to handle a task. Perhaps using "Always", "Usually", "Sometimes", and "Never" as the response points would tap into behavior, rather than attitude. That adjustment might create a more accurate report of readiness. Students would be responding to questions about what they do, not what they think.

However, a more complicated phenomenon may be at work. Kruger and Dunning (1999) investigated the inability of the unskilled to make accurate self-judgments. "In essence, we argue that the skills that engender competence in a particular domain are often the very same skills necessary to evaluate competence in that domain – one's own or anyone else's" (p. 1121). Their study tested subjects self-assessments in four tests of three domains that required a certain level of "knowledge, wisdom, or savvy" (p. 1122). The domains were humor, English grammar, and logical reasoning (tested in two different manners). They found that "across the four studies, participants in the bottom quartile not only overestimated themselves, but thought they were above average, $Z = 4.64$, $p < .0001$" (p. 1130).

In a study with first-year pharmacy students, Sharif, et. al. (2007) found that better students gave more accurate predictions than weaker ones. Lepowski, et. al. (2009) found that in a pre-test of counselors-in-training "overestimated their skills performance compared to the trained-rater assessments" (p. 368).

These studies give support to the pattern observed here. The least-skilled students are also the least able to judge their own abilities. Thus, freshmen rate their own readiness as equal to the readiness of their upper-division classmates. They simply do not have the metacognition necessary to make accurate judgments. Kruger and Dunning (1999) found "a lack of metacognitive skills among less skilled participants" (p. 1131) and that self-assessment skills

increased with an increase in metacognitive skills. These findings have significant implications for the structure and practice of advising at the university. Those implications will be discussed at a later point.

<u>Demographics</u>

Gender differences provided significant results in the study. Women were found to prefer developmental advising more than men, both on the Academic Advising Inventory and developmental preference quartile membership. However, no gender differences were apparent for prescriptive preference quartile membership. This supports the finding of Vecchio and Boatright (2002) that women prefer more social support from supervisors than men, but no differences occur in desire for task direction.

The gender differences in readiness found by this study contradict previous research. This study found that women reported themselves as more ready than men. In other research men have been shown to overrate themselves more often than women. Sharif, et. al (2007) found that male first-year pharmacy students reported predicted higher levels of academic achievement for themselves than women did. However, women actually outperformed men academically. In addition, Lepowski, et. al. (2009) found that men rate themselves at a higher level of performance than women prior to skills training.

The gender differences in readiness are somewhat difficult to interpret. The sample was largely female. An increase in the number of men in the sample could change the results. In addition, it may be that the men are overrating themselves here as well. Since there is no measure of actual readiness within this study, determining the degree of potential overrating is impossible. The women may be rating themselves more accurately and are genuinely more ready than the men in the sample.

Limitations

Because this study was not experimental in design, and had no treatment, most of the common threats to internal validity do not apply. Many internal validity threats are relevant when researchers are attempting to prove some type of causality in the relationships. Without a claim to causality or a treatment, the selection of the population remains the only potential threat to internal validity in this particular study.

Several factors in selection are apparent. First, the sample was overwhelmingly traditional-aged. Readiness may have different implications when working with returning adult students or other non-traditional populations. Moreover, some of the students surveyed were required to see an advisor at least once during each semester that they are enrolled. These students may have different perceptions of advising than a student who is not required to meet with his/her advisor. Selection issues could be improved by sampling a larger population, such as an entire university or a population across several institutions to control for age, ethnicity, and advising system as possible confounding variables.

Several external threats to this study exist. Related to issues of selection above, experimentally accessible populations vs. target population is a primary external threat. Thus, results of the present study may not be generalizable to other populations. Students in this population may be very different from other college populations. Age, major, advising system, ethnicity, choice of institution, or other individual characteristics may impact student's perceptions of advising style. Universities or colleges wishing to apply these results to their students should likely undertake a survey of their own population, as student characteristics and advising program factors may impact results.

The measurement of variables is another major threat to external validity. Prescriptive and developmental advising are theoretical constructs which have been operationalized by the Academic Advising Inventory. Although the scale has produced reliable results in other studies, there is no guarantee that the constructs actually exist in a real world advising situation. In addition, students may not conceive of the differences in the ways that the literature expresses. In fact, the low reliability of the scales and the results of the factor analysis indicate that these constructs may not be salient for students. Broadbridge (1996) found that although many students appreciate development techniques in idealized situations, they do not consider developmental advising to be a reasonable expectation of their advisors. These students might have very different responses to the survey given in this study.

Moreover, readiness is particularly difficult to measure. This study relies on scores on the College Readiness Scale developed by the researcher. However, arguably, other factors influence readiness, such as siblings in college, parents who attended college, exposure to college environments, living on or near a campus, and other similar factors. Perhaps other factors related to readiness could be assessed through more qualitative methodological approaches such as individual case studies, individual interviews, and focus groups to more fully elucidate the effects of these variables. In addition, perhaps more mixed methodological approaches could be used to further our understanding of these critical variables and their relationships to success in the university setting. The problems in measurement of readiness are difficult to offset. Additional research on readiness and variables which impact academic task completion would be necessary to provide a better measurement of readiness.

Finally, experimenter effects may also influence results. Students may not be completely truthful about their perceptions of advising, particularly because the survey is being conducted

by an academic advisor from the university. Students may mistakenly feel that they must reply in certain ways to please advisors and gain their cooperation on later advising tasks. The general tendency of people to distort answers on surveys cannot be fully offset.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are supported by data from the present study:

1. The current measurement of prescriptive/developmental advising style with the continuous measure of the Academic Advising Inventory is not adequate.

2. The factor analysis of the Prescriptive/Developmental Scale indicates that students find advising function to be a more salient characteristic of advising interactions than advising style.

3. Preference for advising style has no discernable pattern based on college student development as measured by student classification.

4. College readiness is not a predictor of advising style preference. However, the self-report of readiness appears to have significant challenges. Prior research shows that the least capable are the least capable of accurate self-judgments. The inability of students to accurately judge their readiness may have masked any actual relationship between readiness and advising style preference.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. Further exploration of the advising preferences of students is necessary. Identifying what drives advising satisfaction would be an important goal. In particular, exploration of the role of advising function in satisfactory advising experiences is important. It appears that advising function, rather than advising style, may be a more important characteristic of advising interaction.

2. If advising function is most important, then advising style may play a secondary role. Students may want different techniques and behaviors from advisors based on the advising function at hand. Understanding any interaction between function and style would further enhance an advisor's ability to connect well with students and provide the support they need to succeed. Examining advising from a situated, learner-centered approach should give additional insight into the transactional nature of function, style and students' needs.

3. Readiness provides a rich source of research ideas. Students appear to overestimate their own readiness for college. Interviewing students at each developmental level about their perceptions of readiness could give researchers a better understanding of what students think about their own levels of readiness.

4. Developing a measure of actual readiness would also be useful. The results from this study suggest that a self-report instrument may not be the best approach for collecting data of this nature. If a more valid assessment of readiness could be developed, educators could identify students who are and are not ready, and compare actual readiness with perceived readiness. The perception-reality gap may be the more intractable problem for students. Students who are not ready and know it will likely be motivated to take part in activities that increase their readiness and their overall academic performance. The students who are not ready and do not know it may be in the most difficult position of all.

5. Linking readiness with self-regulation may prove to be useful. The metacognition and self-assessment inherent in self-regulation appears to be related to overall readiness. The extent and nature of the relationships between the two concepts could advance our understanding of adequate preparation for college and appropriate interventions for the underprepared.

Recommendations for Practice

1. Advisors should examine their advising practice in light of advising function. Although a fully developmental practice is advocated by the field, it may be more than a student needs at a given time. By concentrating on the function being served by the advising session, advisors may better direct their resources and time. For example, giving the same amount of appointment time to students needing information about general education requirements as one needing a goal-setting session may not be the most effective approach for advisors or students.

2. Peer advisors or other personnel may be trained to adequately handle advising functions that do not require the skills and experience needed for developmental advising, thus freeing advisors to do more complicated advising.

The findings on readiness suggest a number of issues relevant to academic advising practice and to student services practice across the university.

3. Kruger and Dunning (1999) suggest that "one way to make people recognize their incompetence is to make them competent" (p. 1131). They acknowledge the difficulty of that situation, but understand that as metacognition improves, so does self-assessment. Advisors and universities need to enact programs to work on student's metacognition. Initiatives such as learning communities, required orientations, and university skills courses for freshmen are common on many campuses. It is critical that these efforts be supported and extended to the best of the school's ability.

4. The interventions developed by student services units to improve a students' readiness should be mandatory whenever possible. As previous research suggests, students are not accurate in their self-assessments. Voluntary programs require that students be aware of their

shortcomings and motivated to correct them. That is unlikely for the most unskilled students.

Thus, intrusive programs which require students to participate are the best approach.

5. Advisors should consider ways in which their advising practice can enhance the metacognition of students. Kruger and Dunning (1999) suggest that people do not receive enough negative feedback to enhance their learning. Rather than give criticism of someone, people neglect to say anything. They also indicate that the unskilled are not good at social comparison. Thus, advisors must give consistent, constructive criticism to students. If they approach a situation inappropriately, they should be corrected. If they voice unrealistic expectations of the university environment, they should be told what to expect. By failing to correct students' cognitive or social behavior, advisors fail in an opportunity to enhance students' ability to succeed.

6. Advising programs should target the least prepared. Programs for freshmen may need to be different that programs for upper-division students. For example, more intrusive advising time could be given to freshman (who need lots of help) and then mandatory advising could be tapered off once students had demonstrated competence, perhaps through the cumulative GPA.

7. However, in targeting the least prepared, it is important not to panic the better prepared. Kruger and Dunning (1999), Lepowski, et. al. (2009), and Mattern, Burrus, and Shaw (2010) find that highly skilled people underestimate their abilities, at least in comparison to their peers. Thus, in emphasizing the importance of increasing skill level (for the underprepared), it would be easy for the highly skilled to misinterpret themselves as the target of the intervention.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

Academic advising plays an important role in students' academic careers. It has been related to increased success and retention of students (Habley, 2003). Understanding the nature

of students' preferences for academic advising should create more enjoyable and productive interactions in advising. The continued emphasis on advising style may prove to be less heuristic than shifting that focus to a situational and functionally-based advising approach. Students do not seem to connect with the advising style constructs in the same way that advising theory has conceptualized them. Further exploration of functional advising could begin building a much-needed theory of academic advising.

In particular, understanding the construct and role of student readiness is critical for student success. Universities have put increasing emphasis on success and retention of students. Readiness for college tasks is a critical part of academic success. The tendency of students to overestimate their readiness is particularly troubling. Universities spend millions of dollars on initiatives for underprepared students. However, to take advantage of those opportunities, students must be ready (defined as willing and able by Hersey and Blanchard (1988)) to judge their own readiness. Further research into the ability of students to accurately judge their competence has implications throughout the university, for advising situations, choice of major, and pursuit of assistance when it is needed, not to mention learning, study strategies and behaviors, and ultimately, academic achievement and success.

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APPENDIX A:

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

Office of Human Subjects Research
307 Samford Hall
Auburn University, AL 36849

Telephone: 334-844-5966
Fax: 334-844-4391
hsubjec@auburn.edu

December 4, 2009

MEMORANDUM TO: Elizabeth Yarbrough
Education Foundation Leadership Technology

PROTOCOL TITLE: "A Study of the Relationship between College Readiness and Advising Style Preferences in Undergraduate Students"

IRB AUTHORIZATION NO: 09-301 EP 0911

APPROVAL DATE: November 18, 2009
EXPIRATION DATE: November 17, 2010

The above referenced protocol was approved by IRB Expedited procedure under 45 CFR 46.110 (Category #7):

> "Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

You should report to the IRB any proposed changes in the protocol or procedures and any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects or others. Please reference the above authorization number in any future correspondence regarding this project.

If you will be unable to file a Final Report on your project before November 17, 2009, you must submit a request for an extension of approval to the IRB no later than November 1, 2009. If your IRB authorization expires and/or you have not received written notice that a request for an extension has been approved prior to November 17, 2009, you must suspend the project immediately and contact the Office of Human Subjects Research for assistance.

A Final Report will be required to close your IRB project file. You are reminded that you must use the stamped, IRB-approved parental permission and information letter when you consent your participants. Please remember that signed consent forms must be retained at least three years after completion of your study.

If you have any questions concerning this Board action, please contact the Office of Human Subjects Research at 844-5966.

Sincerely,

Kathy Jo Ellison, RN, DSN, CIP
Chair of the Institutional Review Board
for the Use of Human Subjects in Research

cc: Dr. Sherida Downer
Dr. Jill Salisbury-Glennon

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APPENDIX B:

INFORMATION LETTER

The Auburn University
Institutional Review Board
has approved this document for use
from _11/18/09_ to _11/17/10_.
Protocol # _09-301 EP 0911_

(NOTE: DO NOT SIGN THIS DOCUMENT UNLESS AN IRB APPROVAL STAMP WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN APPLIED TO THIS DOCUMENT.)

INFORMATION LETTER
for a Research Study entitled

A Study of the Relationship between College Readiness and Advising Style Preferences in Undergraduate Students

You are invited to participate in a research study to determine if a relationship exists between students' readiness for college and their preferences for academic advising style. The study is being conducted by Elizabeth Yarbrough, doctoral student, under the direction of Dr. Jill Salisbury-Glennon, Associate Professor, in the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology at Auburn University. You were selected as a possible participant because you are an undergraduate student enrolled in a COMM 1000 course and are age 19 or older.

What will be involved if you participate? If you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to complete a survey about your current willingness, motivation, knowledge, and skills related to college tasks and your preferences for academic advising. Your total time commitment will be approximately 30-40 minutes.

Are there any risks or discomforts? Given the nature of the study, you should experience little or no risk in participating in this research project. There is no identifying information connecting the data to you. I will supervise the overall data collection and your instructor will not be in the room during data collection. Material will be stored in a locked drawer in my office in 239A Sciences Center Classrooms and on a password protected computer in the same office.

Are there any benefits to yourself or others? You will not receive any direct benefits from participating in this study. I hope that the results of this study will give us a better understanding of students' advising preferences and how they change over time. I hope that this information can be used to improve advising programs and the advising experience for undergraduate students. However, I cannot promise you that you will receive any or all of the benefits described.

Will you receive compensation for participating? To thank you for your time you will be offered 1 participation point for your COMM 1000 course.

Are there any costs? If you decide to participate, there are no costs involved.

If you change your mind about participating, you can withdraw at any time during the study. Your participation is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at any time by simply returning the incomplete questionnaire. However, once your turn in your anonymous, completed questionnaire, you will be unable to withdraw since there will be no way to identify individual information. Your decision about whether or not to participate or to stop participating will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University, the Department of Communication and Journalism or the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology.

Any data obtained in connection with this study will remain anonymous. We will protect your privacy and the data you provide by holding the data collected in a locked drawer in my office in 239A Sciences Center Classroom Building or on a password-protected computer in that same office. Information obtained through your participation may be used to fulfill the educational requirement of my dissertation, published in a professional journal, and/or presented at a professional meeting.
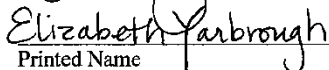
If you have questions about this study, please ask them now or contact me at 334-844-4269 or Dr. Salisbury-Glennon at 334-844-4460. A copy of this document will be given to you to keep.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Human Subjects Research or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334)-844-5966 or e-mail at hsubjec@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, THE DATA YOU PROVIDE WILL SERVE AS YOUR AGREEMENT TO DO SO. THIS LETTER IS YOURS TO KEEP.

_____   __1/19/10__
Investigator's signature   Date

Elizabeth Yarbrough
Printed Name

APPENDIX C:

MINOR ASSENT FORM

AUBURN UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, LEADERSHIP AND TECHNOLOGY

(NOTE: DO NOT SIGN THIS DOCUMENT UNLESS AN IRB APPROVAL STAMP WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN APPLIED TO THIS DOCUMENT.)

PARENTAL PERMISSION/MINOR ASSENT
for a Research Study entitled

A Study of the Relationship between College Readiness and Advising Style Preferences in Undergraduate Students

Your son or daughter is invited to participate in a research study to determine if a relationship exists between students' readiness for college and their preferences for academic advising style. The study is being conducted by Elizabeth Yarbrough, doctoral student, under the direction of Dr. Jill Salisbury-Glennon in the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology at Auburn University. Your son or daughter was selected as a possible participant because he or she is an undergraduate student enrolled in a COMM 1000 course. Since your son or daughter is age 18 or younger we must have your permission to include him/her in the study.

What will be involved if your son or daughter participates? If you decide to allow your son or daughter to participate in this research study, he or she will be asked to complete a survey about your current willingness, motivation, knowledge, and skills related to college tasks and your preferences for academic advising. Your son or daughter's total time commitment will be approximately 30-40 minutes.

Are there any risks or discomforts? Given the nature of the study, you should experience little or no risk in participating in this research project. There is no identifying information connecting the data to your son or daughter. I will supervise the overall data collection and the instructor will not be in the room during data collection. Material will be stored in a locked drawer in my office in 239A Sciences Center Classrooms and on a password protected computer in the same office.

Are there any benefits to your son or daughter or others? If your son or daughter participates in this study, he or she will not receive any direct benefits from participating in this study. I hope that the results of this study will give us a better understanding of students' advising preferences and how they change over time. I hope that this information can be used to improve advising programs and the advising experience for undergraduate students. However, I cannot promise your son or daughter that he or she will receive any or all of the benefits described.

Will you or your son or daughter receive compensation for participating? To thank your son or daughter for participating, he or she will be offered 1 participation point for his or her COMM 1000 course.

Are there any costs? If you decide to allow your son or daughter to participate, there are no costs involved.

Parent/Guardian Initials _____
Participant Initials _____

4036 Haley Center, Auburn, AL 36849-5221; Telephone: 334-844-4460; Fax: 334-844-3072
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If you (or your son or daughter) change your mind about participating, your son or daughter can be withdrawn from the study at any time. Your son or daughter's participation is completely voluntary. He or she can withdraw at any time during the study. His or her participation is completely voluntary. He or she may withdraw from this study at any time by simply returning the incomplete questionnaire. However, once he or she turns in the anonymous, completed questionnaire, he or she will be unable to withdraw since there will be no way to identify individual information. Your decision about whether or not to participate or to stop participating will not jeopardize you or your son or daughter's future relations with Auburn University, the Department of Communication and Journalism, or the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology.

Your son or daughter's privacy will be protected. Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain anonymous. The data collected will be protected by being held in a locked drawer in 239A Sciences Center Classrooms Building or on a password-protected computer in that same office. Information obtained through your son or daughter's participation may be used to fulfill the educational requirement of my dissertation, published in a professional journal, and/or presented at a professional meeting.

If you (or your son or daughter) have questions about this study, please ask them now or contact me at 334-844-4269 or Dr. Salisbury-Glennon at 334-844-4460. A copy of this document will be given to you to keep.

If you have questions about your son or daughter's rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Human Subjects Research or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334)-844-5966 or e-mail at hsubjec@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE WHETHER OR NOT YOU WISH FOR YOUR SON OR DAUGHTER TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY. YOUR SIGNATURE INDICATES YOUR WILLINGNESS TO ALLOW YOUR SON OR DAUGHTER TO PARTICIPATE. YOUR SON OR DAUGHTER'S SIGNATURE INDICATES HIS/HER WILLINGNESS TO PARTICIPATE.

_____   _____
Participant's signature   Date   Investigator obtaining consent   Date

                                         Elizabeth Yarbrough
_____   _____
Printed Name   Printed Name

_____
Parent/Guardian Signature   Date

_____
Printed Name

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APPENDIX D:

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

1. Are you: O Male
                 O Female

2. Are you: O African-American (Black)
                 O Asian-American
                 O Hispanic American/Latino/a/Pacific Islander
                 O White, non-Hispanic
                 O Native American
                 O Biracial/Multiethnic
                 O Other (please specify): _____
                 O Decline to respond

3. What was your age at your last birthday?

                 O 18 or younger
                 O 19
                 O 20
                 O 21
                 O 22
                 O 23
                 O 24
                 O 25 – 30
                 O 31 or older

4. How many years have you been enrolled in college? Please do not count any college work you
   completed before high school graduation (such as dual enrollment).

                 O I'm in my first year.
                 O I'm in my second year
                 O I'm in my third year
                 O I'm in my fourth year (or more)
                 O Other than any of the above

APPENDIX E:

READINESS FOR COLLEGE SCALE

For each sentence, please darken the circle that indicates your level of agreement with the sentence.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I talk with my instructors outside of class time.	○	○	○	○	○
2. I meet deadlines.	○	○	○	○	○
3. I have solved school-related problems I've had in college.	○	○	○	○	○
4. I meet with my advisor once a semester or more.	○	○	○	○	○
5. Talking to professors is easy for me.	○	○	○	○	○
6. I will graduate from college.	○	○	○	○	○
7. I have a hard time sticking to deadlines I set for myself.	○	○	○	○	○
8. I go to class regularly.	○	○	○	○	○
9. I feel overwhelmed by college.	○	○	○	○	○
10. I set short term goals to help me reach my long term goals.	○	○	○	○	○
11. I don't always understand what I am responsible for in college.	○	○	○	○	○
12. I make a plan about how to accomplish assignments.	○	○	○	○	○
13. I can solve problems when I have them.	○	○	○	○	○
14. I am proactive in planning my major and career.	○	○	○	○	○
15. I can meet the demands of college.	○	○	○	○	○
16. I know about resources I on campus I can go to for help.	○	○	○	○	○

----

17. I keep a schedule planner with all my appointments, classes, and deadlines marked.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

18. I have a good working relationship with at least one faculty member or administrator.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

19. I have strategies that help me work around my weaknesses.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

20. I rely on others to tell me what to do.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

21. I expect to do well in college.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

22. I attend non-academic events on campus (plays, dances, concerts, sporting events, etc).

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

23. Having a good GPA is important to me.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

24. I know where to go to get answers about college.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

25. I know the requirements I need to complete in order to graduate.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

26. I am active member in campus organizations.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

27. My schoolwork is important to me.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

28. I don't try as hard in classes I don't enjoy.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

29. I know what it takes to be successful in my chosen field.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

30. My family is supportive of my goals.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

31. I feel comfortable asking my professors or an advisor for help when I need it.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

32. I can balance my work, academic, and social life.

  ○　　○　　○　　○　　○

33. I spend significant time on my schoolwork.	○	○	○	○	○
34. I know my academic strengths and weaknesses.	○	○	○	○	○
35. I am willing to accept responsibility for my academic decisions.	○	○	○	○	○
36. Making decisions is hard for me.	○	○	○	○	○
37. My success in college is my responsibility.	○	○	○	○	○
38. I feel comfortable asking my advisor for help when I need it.	○	○	○	○	○
39. I don't want to select a major because I will lose options.	○	○	○	○	○
40. I know how to do a database search at the library.	○	○	○	○	○
41. I understand the meaning of plagiarism.	○	○	○	○	○
42. I know how to find a tutor.	○	○	○	○	○
43. My roommate and I have a good relationship.	○	○	○	○	○
44. If I need a resume for a job or internship, I know where to go for assistance.	○	○	○	○	○
45. I can develop a schedule for the next semester.	○	○	○	○	○
46. I know how to find my registration date for the next semester.	○	○	○	○	○
47. I can develop a plan that identifies all courses and when to take them to finish my degree.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX F:

ACADEMIC ADVISING INVENTORY, PART V

This section concerns how you view the **IDEAL** academic advisor. You are to choose the one statement from each pair that best describes, in your opinion, the *ideal* academic advisor (that is, what you would want an advisor to be like). Then determine how important that statement is to you for an ideal advisor. This is *not* an evaluation of your present or past advisors at this college. Please fill in the circle that best represents your answer.

EXAMPLE:

My advisor tells me what would be the best schedule for me.   **OR**   My advisor suggests important considerations in planning a schedule and then gives me responsibility for the final decision.

○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ●   ○   ○

Very   Slightly   Slightly   Very
Important   Important   Important   Important

EXPLANATION: In this example, the student has chosen the statement on the right as more descriptive of his or her IDEAL advisor, and determined that the statement is toward the slightly important end.

1. My advisor is interested in helping me learn how to find out about courses and programs for myself.   **OR**   My advisor tells me what I need to know about academic courses and programs.

○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very   Slightly   Slightly   Very
Important   Important   Important   Important

2. My advisor tells me what would be the best schedule for me.   **OR**   My advisor suggests important considerations in planning a schedule and then gives me responsibility for the final decision.

○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very   Slightly   Slightly   Very
Important   Important   Important   Important

3. My advisor and I talk about vocational opportunities in conjunction with advising   **OR**   My advisor and I do not talk about vocational opportunities in conjunction with advising.

○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very   Slightly   Slightly   Very
Important   Important   Important   Important

4. My advisor shows an interest in my outside-of-class activities and sometimes suggest activities.   **OR**   My advisor does not know what I do outside of class.

   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

5. My advisor assists me in identifying realistic academic goals based on what I know about myself, as well as my test scores and grades.   **OR**   My advisor identifies realistic academic goals for me based on my test scores and grades.

   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

6. My advisor registers me for my classes.   **OR**   My advisor teaches me how to register myself for classes

   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

7. When I'm faced with difficult decisions, my advisor tells me my alternatives and which one is the best choice.   **OR**   When I'm faced with difficult decisions, my advisor assists me in identifying alternatives and in considering the consequences of choosing each alternative.

   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

8. My advisor does not know who to contact about other-than-academic problems.   **OR**   My advisor knows who to contact about other-than-academic problems.

   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

9. My advisor gives me tips on managing my time better or on studying more effectively when I seem to need them.

OR

My advisor does not spend time giving me tips on managing my time better or on studying more effectively.

| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

10. My advisor tells me what I must do in order to be advised.

OR

My advisor and I discuss our expectations of advising and of each other.

| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

11. My advisor suggest what I should major in.

OR

My advisor suggests steps I can take to help me decide on a major.

| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

12. My advisor uses test scores and grades to let him or her know what courses are most appropriate for me to take.

OR

My advisor and I used information, such as test scores, grades, interests, and abilities, to determine what courses are most appropriate for me to take.

| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

13. My advisor talks with me about my other-than-academic interests and plans.

OR

My advisor does not talk with me about interests and plans other than academic ones.

| ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Very Important   Slightly Important   Slightly Important   Very Important

14. My advisor keeps me informed of   **OR**   My advisor keeps me informed of my
    my academic progress by   academic progress by examining my
    examining my files and grades   files and grades and talking to me
    only.   about my classes

   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○

Very   Slightly   Slightly   Very
Important   Important   Important   Important

APPENDIX G:

PRESCRIPTIVE/DEVELOPMENTAL PREFERENCE SCALE

Please consider how you view the **IDEAL** academic advisor. In other words, please think about what you would want an advisor to be like. Then determine how important that statement is to you for an ideal advisor. Remember, this is *not* an evaluation of your present or past advisors at this college. For each sentence, please darken the circle that indicates your level of agreement with the sentence.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. My ideal advisor would tell me what to do.	○	○	○	○	○
2. My ideal advisor would tell me which classes I should take.	○	○	○	○	○
3. My ideal advisor would talk to me about career opportunities.	○	○	○	○	○
4. My ideal advisor would be interested in my life outside of school.	○	○	○	○	○
5. My ideal advisor would talk with me about my goals.	○	○	○	○	○
6. My ideal advisor would make sure I know graduation requirements.	○	○	○	○	○
7. My ideal advisor would plan my schedules for me.	○	○	○	○	○
8. My ideal advisor would help me learn how to find information for myself.	○	○	○	○	○
9. My ideal advisor would talk to me about my interests and abilities to help me plan classes.	○	○	○	○	○
10. My ideal advisor would tell me what electives are best for me.	○	○	○	○	○
11. My ideal advisor and I would talk only about academics.	○	○	○	○	○
12. My ideal advisor would recommend activities and organizations I might enjoy.	○	○	○	○	○

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13. My ideal advisor would tell me about policies that may affect me.	○	○	○	○	○
14. My ideal advisor would tell me about important deadlines.	○	○	○	○	○
15. My ideal advisor would help me with study skills and time management.	○	○	○	○	○
16. My ideal advisor would teach me how to make decisions for myself.	○	○	○	○	○