The Advising Behaviors Checklist: A Study of Preferred Qualities and Behaviors of Academic Advisors

by

Jake T. Williamson

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Approved by

David DiRamio, Chair, Associate Professor of Administration of Higher Education
James Groccia, Professor of Education, Foundations, Leadership, & Technology
James Witte, Professor of Education, Foundations, Leadership, & Technology

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine what qualities/behaviors undergraduate students value in their academic advisors versus those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors. More specifically, this is a study to determine if preference for those qualities/behaviors change or are different over time for students and advisors; if they vary according to gender of the student; and what relationship exists between the findings of the original Teaching Behaviors Checklist (Buskist., Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002) and a modified instrument.

A survey asking participants to rank the top-10 behaviors most important to excellent academic advising was administered to 360 undergraduate students, freshmen through senior, and 50 academic advisors. The findings of this study show that students and advisors agreed on the top seven out of twenty-eight qualities/behaviors. Results from chi-square tests indicated that other student and advisor characteristics such as year in school, gender, or years of experience in advising do not influence the preference for qualities/behaviors. However, results also showed that differences exist in student value of certain qualities/behaviors in advisors, as well as faculty and advisors' value of certain qualities/behaviors.

These findings suggest the greater importance of interpersonal skill as opposed to technical skill, in academic advising, which is congruent with the developmental approach to advising.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

While often overlooked in terms of importance on campuses across the country, quality academic advising is essential to the mission of the university. With increasing calls from students, parents, and government for improved retention and accountability for rising costs, academic advising, well developed and appropriately accessed, is perhaps the only structured campus endeavor that can guarantee students some kind of sustained interaction with a caring and concerned adult representative of the institution (Hunter & White, 2004; King, 1993). Through this interaction, students can remain engaged in the learning process, their campus community, and progress towards attainment of a degree. Therefore, it is not surprising, that students have listed advising among the most important factors influencing their success and institutions with success in retention have placed academic advising in the center of their efforts (Habley & McClanahan; 2004, Lotkowski, Robbins, & Noeth, 2004; Tinto, 1987).

Although commonly viewed as focusing only on the navigation of curriculum and selection of major and courses, the student-advisor interaction is ultimately about relationship, which includes development of the student and of the processes that lead them to make decisions during their academic career (Crookston, 1972). Even if the selection of a major and its subsequent courses is the only outcome of the student-advisor interaction, its importance cannot be understated. Within a quality academic advising experience, a student can clarify his or her strengths, weaknesses, goals, and needs. It is

by understanding and properly communicating these needs, and the corresponding suggestions of the advisor, that students are aided in persisting through a curriculum to graduation (Tuttle, 2000). As such, quality academic advising is critical to the educational experience for students and the success of the institution. For this reason, the relationship between the needs and expectations of the student and advisor should be explored.

The matter of retention and persistence is also necessary to examine when considering the importance of quality academic advising. Currently, six of every ten jobs require some postsecondary education and training and it is estimated that, by the end of 2012, the number of jobs requiring advanced skills will grow at twice the rate of those only requiring basic skills (Lotkowski, Robbins, & Noeth, 2004). In order to provide a more educated and capable workforce in an increasingly globalized economy, the United States will need to graduate more students from its postsecondary institutions. Further illustrating this need is recent data showing attainment of postsecondary degrees by Americans is somewhat sluggish compared to European and Asian nations (Russell, 2011).

Tinto claims that consistent interactions with those on campus and the subsequent perception of those interactions are what students use in determining whether to stay or leave the institution (Tinto, 1987). In addition, it is the connection to the campus developed through interactions that students build college affiliation and association with others in their community (Tinto, 1999). Building on the importance of these interactions is O'Banion (1972), who claims that occurring at least once a semester, "few student personnel functions occur as often or affect so many students" as academic advising (p.

10). Thus, advisors are provided a greater opportunity than most others on campus to have consistent interaction with students and assist them in developing a connection to their institution, thereby increasing the likelihood of retention and persistence.

Having examined the importance of academic advising, it is necessary to examine the function of advisors. There are two major epistemological categories into which advisors are commonly placed: prescriptive and developmental.

Many describe prescriptive advising as the traditional relationship established between students and advisors, or "bookkeeping" as noted by Lowenstein (2005). Completely one-way in nature, the sole job of the prescriptive advisor is to provide the student with the correct guidance for course selection and any clerical functions related to the curriculum and academic progress. The responsibilities of the advisor are then fulfilled and it is the responsibility of the student to follow the advice given by the advisor, with any consequences resulting from error by either party left to be resolved by the student (Crookston, 1972). Problems with the prescriptive model arise when dilemmas presented to the advisor are treated as symptomatic and cannot be addressed by appropriate course and curriculum suggestions instead. Often these dilemmas are caused by a student's underlying issues. It is in exploring and addressing these underlying issues that developmental advising finds its strength.

The concept of developmental advising was first introduced in 1972 by Crookston. Described as a relationship based on different values and principles where student and advisor engage in developmental tasks ultimately leading to learning by both parties, developmental advising is concerned with the development of the student not only as a learner but an individual (Crookston, 1972). Similar to counseling, the

developmental advisor seeks to not only address the bookkeeping or clerical needs of students in advising, but also engaging in active two-way interactions that facilitate the rational processes leading them to make decisions. Lowenstein states that the goal in an advisors interaction with a student "should extend beyond the specific substantive question at hand; it should be broader, more lasting, and more profound than the prescription of advice" (Lowenstein, 2005, p. 67). O'Banion expounds upon this line of thinking by stating that academic advising should include five dimensions: exploration of life goals, exploration of vocational goals, program choice, course choice, and scheduling courses. When advising is approached in this manner, the developmental as well as the academic needs of the student can begin to be met by the advisor.

As a concerned adult and academic professional, the advisors responsibility to the student goes beyond only providing information, he or she should also engage the student in active learning about themselves and the decisions they make. It is in this engagement in the learning process that academic advising finds its connection to teaching.

McKeachie and Svinicki (2011) state "the objective of a course is not just to cover a certain set of topics, but rather to *facilitate student learning and thinking*" (p. 12). As such, the responsibility of the teacher is to not only ensure students acquire needed information within a course but assist them in developing the skills to adequately think about, or process, that information. At its most basic level, learning is the process by which one acquires knowledge or information and the classroom is one place where transmission of knowledge or information takes place. A teacher conveys information, and its importance, verbally, non-verbally or visually, and the student in response accepts or rejects that information (Gredler, 1977). The acceptance or rejection of information by

students classifies them and their learning as either active or passive. Ryan and Martens (1989) observed:

> Students learn both passively and actively. Passive learning takes place when students take on the role of "receptacles of knowledge;" that is, they do not directly participate in the learning process…Active learning is more likely to take place when students do something besides listening. (p.20)

It is this "something" that is the processing of information, aided by practice of that information, by which students learn and develop as individuals.

The two models of academic advising distinguish themselves in the use of one-way versus two-way communication, much in the same way that teachers use one-way or two-way communication in transmitting information in the classroom. The teacher employing largely one-way communication requires the student to be responsible for rote memorization and recitation of facts as opposed to the teacher using two-way communication who engages the student in active learning and contextualization of information.

This distinction in teaching styles highlights the relationship between students and how their learning takes place. In the introduction of the developmental advising model, Crookston (1972) argued that both teachers and advisors work with students to improve their problem-solving and decision-making skills. Lowenstein continued by stating "the excellent teacher focuses on the academic material in a way that promotes active learning" (Lowenstein, 2005). This connection is further demonstrated in the literature with Appleby (2002) who claims that the characteristics, knowledge, and skills displayed by effective teachers are essentially the same as those exhibited by effective advisors.

The establishment of rapport between students and advisors in developmental advising that allows each party to participate in open dialogue and engage in active learning is also found to be important in teaching. Buskist (1998) noted that rapport is essential to the learning environment because it builds two-way relationships and opens the door for future communication between teacher and student. In advising, this freedom of communication, especially future communication, is essential to meeting the student's academic and personal needs that lead them to an institutions successful efforts towards retention and persistence. This study investigated those characteristics of advisors that best allow them to begin to meet their student's need and help them serve as guides toward a successful college experience.

Problem Statement

The student-advisor relationship that emphasizes quality through the meeting of student's needs is necessary to maximize effectiveness and achieve successful and timely progression through a curriculum (Coll & Draves, 2009). Students and advisors may bring different expectations when meeting, therefore it is important to establish what behaviors are valued in the advising experience. Modeled after the Teacher Behaviors Checklist (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002), the purpose of this study is to (a) determine what qualities/behaviors students value in their academic advisors versus those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors, (b) if the valued qualities/behaviors are different over time for students and advisors, (c) if preference for qualities/behaviors vary according to gender, and (e) the relationship between the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the findings from the modified instrument used in this study.

Significance of Study

In addition to each student's individual rewards from a student-centered focus, successful advising is critical to the achievement of missions such as President Obama's goal to have the largest share of college graduates in the world by 2020. Affirming this is literature showing good advising is among the best practices for increasing retention (Lotkowski, Robbins, & Noeth, 2004) and students at 4-year public schools ranked advising first in importance among aspects of their college experience (Noel-Levitz, 2009). Considering its value to higher education, efforts should be made to enable an advisor to maximize their time with students and facilitate a more positive and successful relationship by learning what behaviors are most valued and effective.

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors and those valued by students?
2. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors change over the course of their academic career?
3. Does academic advisor preference for qualities/behaviors change over the course of their professional career?
4. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors vary between genders?
5. What is the relationship between the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the modified instrument?

Research Design

The design is a survey instrument, previously validated but modified for the purposes of this study, and distributed online to undergraduate students and academic advisors at a large, public research university. The original survey, the Teacher Behaviors Checklist (TBC), was designed to determine the qualities and behaviors of excellent teachers, defined by the authors as "teachers from whom students had learned a great deal and who made the learning process enjoyable" (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002). Containing 28 items, the TBC asked undergraduate students and faculty members to rank the top 10 qualities/behaviors they felt were best exhibited by excellent teachers (Table 1.1). The resulting congruence between student and faculty ratings of the top 10 items demonstrated evidence of the most desirable behaviors of teachers from both a student and faculty perspective (Table 1.2).

The instrument used in this study also contains 28 items and asks students and academic advisors to rank the top 10 qualities/behaviors they feel are most important to excellent advising, defined as "individual who is highly effective as an academic advisor." Analysis of the survey data will be conducted using chi-square tests.

Definitions

1. 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 beyond

campus boundaries and timeframes." (National Academic Advising Association [NACADA], 2006)

2. Academic Advisor—An employee of the institution whose primary responsibility is to assist students in the selection of courses, creation of schedules, major selection, and development of an academic plan leading towards completion of a degree. In addition, the academic advisor serves as a resource to students on matters of academic policies, procedures, and services available to them on campus.
3. Prescriptive advising—concerned with technical aspects of the curriculum; largely one-way in that the advisor directs the student with the expectation they will follow guidance.
4. Developmental advising—A systematic process based on a close student-advisor relationship intended to aid students in achieving educational, career, and personal goals through the use of the full range of institutional and community resources, (Winston, Enders, & Miller, 1984. p. 19)
5. Retention Rate—"A measure of the rate at which students persist in their educational program at an institution, expressed as a percentage. For four-year institutions, this is the percentage of first time bachelors (or equivalent) degree-seeking undergraduates from the previous fall who are again enrolled in the current fall." (U.S. Department of Education: Institute of Education Statistics, n.d.).
6. Interpersonal Skill—An advisors ability to facilitate effective communication and interaction with others.

7. Technical Skill—An advisors ability to effectively perform the administrative or procedural tasks of their job.

Limitations

As the study included first-semester freshmen with limited exposure to academic advising, knowledge base and experience of this sample were limited. The study used self-reported measures, which can be unreliable due to bias, differing understanding or interpretation of questions, or inaccurate responses. In addition, as the study used an online survey to collect data, response rate presented a limitation to the study. The response rate of online surveys is on average about 23% less than that of paper surveys, which are administered face-to-face by the researcher (Nulty, 2008). A suggested means of mitigating this is repeat emails to non-respondents, a practice the researcher is planning to use following distribution (Dillman, 2006).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Quality academic advising is critical to student success and the overall mission of higher education to educate students and provide them the needed tools to reach completion of a degree. Hunter and White (2004, p. 21) remarked that, "academic advising, well developed and appropriately accessed, is perhaps the only structured campus endeavor that can guarantee students sustained interaction with a caring and concerned adult…." Although commonly viewed as focusing only on the navigation of curriculum and selection of major and courses, the student-advisor interaction is ultimately about relationship, development of the student and development of the processes that lead to decisions during his or her academic career (Crookston, 1972).

The student-advisor relationship that emphasizes quality through the meeting of students' needs is necessary to maximize effectiveness and achieve successful and timely progression through a curriculum (Coll & Draves, 2009). Students and advisors may bring different expectations to the table when meeting, therefore it is important to establish the behaviors valued by each individual in the advising experience. Modeled after the Teacher Behaviors Checklist (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002) the purpose of this study is to determine what behaviors students value in their academic advisors versus those behaviors valued by academic advisors, if the valued behaviors change or are different over time for students and advisors, and the relationship of the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the modified instrument.

This chapter will expand on the brief look at the importance of academic advising discussed in the previous chapter to include: (a) the history of academic advising; (b) developmental versus prescriptive approaches to academic advising; (c) institutional interactions with students and the applicability of student development theory to academic advising; (d) teaching and learning behaviors and their relationship to academic advising; and (e) contemporary issues in academic advising.

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors and those valued by students?
2. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors change over the course of their academic career?
3. Does academic advisor preference for qualities/behaviors change over the course of their professional career?
4. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors vary between genders?
5. What is the relationship between the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the present instrument?

History of Academic Advising

Although there has been debate concerning the field of academic advising as a profession (Habley, 2009; Kuhn & Padak, 2008; Shaffer, Zalewski, & Leveille, 2010) there is little argument about whether academic advising has its own defined place and path in the history and development of American higher education. And while changing in appearance and structure since its inception as formal system at Kenyon College in

1841 (Cook, 2009), the purpose of academic advising to, "help the student choose a program of study which will serve him in the development of his total potential," (O'Banion, 1972, p. 10) has remained unchanged.

Historically, advising has been largely conducted by faculty and has focused on course selection and progression through a curriculum. This need for assistance in navigation was created in large part as a result of a shift away from the predominate rigid and prescribed classical curriculum model, to a greater inclusion of practical subjects and elective courses following passage of the Morrill Acts of 1863 and 1869 (Cook, 2009). This expansion of the curriculum was followed at Harvard in 1870 by Harvard President Charles W. Eliot, who recognized the need for advisement regarding course choices and because of this, is considered by many to be the "godfather of all academic advising administrators" (Tuttle, 2000, p. 1).

Continuing through the remainder of the 19th century, Harvard and other institutions such as Johns Hopkins, the University of Chicago, and Boston University created a trend of establishing and developing formal systems of faculty advisors that would become a standard practice spreading to most institutions across the country by the 1930s (Bishop, 1987; Grites, 1979). And though historically established as a practice conducted by faculty and relating to course selection, academic advising has never been limited in scope to matters relating solely to the classroom. On the contrary, it is within and through this advising that administrators and faculty members have long provided students guidance on personal, vocational, moral, and intellectual matters (Cook, 2009); Shaffer, Zalewski & Leveille, 2010)

Evidence of the importance of O'Banion's (1972) perspective on the role of academic advising in development of the student's total potential can be found in Eliot's remarks following his inauguration as Harvard president that students should be assisted in selecting courses based on their individual skills, interests and career goals (Cook, 2009). With philosophical underpinnings firmly established and advising entrenched as a common practice in higher education, the field began to undergo rapid expansion, reevaluation and development beginning with the large surge in enrollment after World War I and II and a sharp rise in institutional participation and focus in sponsored research and development (Thelin & Hirschy, 2009; Tuttle, 2000). In much the same way as an increase in course offerings created a demand for increased attention to the changing needs of students, so to did a larger and more diverse student body. And as the focus of faculty increasingly turned to research, the need for professional advisors and comprehensive advising systems became more apparent (Frost, 1991; Tuttle, 2000).

While slowly gaining momentum for decades, the impetus for shift in construct from faculty advisor to professional advisor is largely attributed to seminal articles by Crookston (1972) and O'Banion (1972) and the equally important creation of The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) in 1979. This professionalization of advising proved timely as the 1970s and 1980s saw a decrease in enrollment, lowered retention, less faculty interest and participation in advising, and increasing student demands for better advising (Cook, 2009; Thelin & Hirschy, 2009, Tuttle, 2000).

By the late 1970s and early 1980s, advising had grown in importance and recognition as a necessary part of higher education, however it was the creation of NACADA that coalesced what was viewed by many as a disjointed, low-status, and

largely clerical function of student personnel into a vital part of institutional efforts towards student development (Cook, 2009). NACADA quickly began to increase the status of academic advising by creating it's own journal, awarding excellence in advising (Cook, 2009), demonstrating the relationship of advisement to positive institutional outcomes such as retention (Habley, 1981), developing policies for the delivery of advising (Crockett & Levitz, 1983), and establishing a general, accepted operational definition of advising (NACADA, 2006). In addition, NACADA provided a focused avenue by which important relevant scholarly work such as Crookston, O'Banion, and Grites (1979) could be expounded upon and further developed. This need for scholarly contributions in the field was quickly realized and is evident by the important contributions of Winston, Enders, and Miller (1982), Habley (1981), and Winston and Sandor (1984), all within a relatively short time of the first publication of the NACADA Journal in 1981.

The next three decades saw the role of the advisor and the structure of advising models grow and evolve as higher education began assessment of advisors and advising programs (Hanson & Huston, 1995), realization of the claims made in advising literature regarding the strong connection between academic advising and student retention (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Cowart, 1987; Cuseo, 2002; Lotkowski, Robbins, & 2004), the effects of advising on special populations (Gordon, 1992; Strommer, 1995), and the benefit of alignment of institutional mission and learning objectives and student development that can intersect in academic advising (Hanson & Huston, 1995; Martin, 2007; National Academic Advising Association, 2007; Strommer, 1995).

Developmental Versus Prescriptive Advising

The definition of academic advising has continually changed and evolved over time but what has remained at its core is a commitment to the growth and development of the student primarily, but also the advisor. Raushi (1993) states "quality academic advising not only fosters student development, but it enriches the academic community and the advisor." Going beyond merely the selection of programs and courses, advising is a delivery method of personal, professional and academic guidance by means of interaction, dialogue and relationship that seeks to empower students for personal growth and decision making (Creamer, 2000; Gordon, 2006). Cook (2009) noted how advising in its earliest forms, while primarily focused on directing students, it also sought to match student with faculty member or administrator for the purposed of affording the student the direction and assistance needed to realize that collegiate experience best suited for them as an individual.

As higher education changed, student enrollments and campuses grew becoming larger and more diverse, so to did institution's needs of their advisors. As such, the nature of advising has several times shifted from only providing direction for either the short term benefit; scheduling courses and reviewing degree requirements, or long-term student benefit; exploration of individual student needs and interests, to incorporating the mission and goals of the university (Frost, 1991; Habley, 1981; Lotkowski, Robbins, & Noeth, 2004; Walsh, 1979). The most marked and notable of these shifts came in the early 1970's with seminal articles by Crookston (1972) and O'Banion (1972) and the subsequent delineation of the prescriptive and developmental approaches to advising.

The former concerned with primarily with delivery of information and the latter with development of the individual.

While appearing to be dichotomous, Gordon and Grites (2000) argue that the two constructs share common principals and therefore should be considered on a continuum. The foremost of these principles is the advisor playing a role in a student's determination of how they want to live their life and pursue a vocation using their education, unique skills and interests (O'Banion, 1972). As well, Crookston (1972) highlights that within both approaches exists a measure of authority versus dependency; who is responsible for the decisions made, how they are made and what the student-advisor relationship looks like. The advisor, while not authoritative, but an authority, must seek to find balance between administrative responsibility and developmental responsibility. It is the position on this continuum where the advisor exists that determines their individual approach to advising.

Developmental Advising

The concept of developmental advising was first made notable in separate articles by Crookston and O'Banion, both published in 1972. At the time of publication, this concept ran counter to the prevailing notion of academic advising as a one-way relationship between student and advisor, termed by Crookston as "prescriptive" advising. While Crookston uses the concept of developmental advising as the connection of advising to teaching, each presents the argument that instead of a student-advisor relationship based solely on the student's present curriculum or course dilemma to which the advisor directs the student to a non-negotiable solution, the advisor acts as a guide

and collaborator thus facilitating the learning and developmental processes of the student (Crookston, 1972, O'Banion, 1972; Winston & Sandor, 1984).

Similar to a counseling approach, developmental advising seeks to first listen to the students, then create a relationship built on mutual trust and works toward what the student can be instead of what they currently are. By implementing a developmental advising strategy, the advisor is able to assist the student in the myriad other areas of a student's life that effect their academic performance, thereby leading to a successful and fulfilling college experience both inside and outside the classroom.

Often, even the best advisors are guilty of operating under the assumption that every entering freshman knows what vocation they want to pursue, thus misinterpreting a student's uncertainty with indecisiveness or immaturity (Titley, 1982). Developmental advising seeks to remedy this through first establishment, then development of a relationship with the student for mutual benefit (Crookston, 1972; Gordon, 1994). As an employee with expertise and experience, the advisor possesses knowledge and inherent authority necessary for the completion of certain administrative tasks. However, O'Banion (1972) writes that this should be the final step in the advising process.

Proceeding it should be "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" (Enders, Winston, & Miller, 1984, p. 19). This process and relationship also creates opportunity for the advisor to act as conduit to other student services provided by the institution such as counseling, financial aid, tutoring and career planning (King, 1993; O'Banion, 1972). Operating with this understanding and under this definition, the

student and advisor exhibit equal responsibility for sharing information and participation, and authority for decision-making and outcomes (Winston & Sandor, 1984).

Raushi (1993, p. 8) expands on this idea, stating "Developmental advising is both goal-centered and student-ownership-based. Goal-centered advising engages the student in the tasks of identifying and setting goals as well as in taking action toward those goals." While nuanced and unique to each individual, the nearly universal goal of students, beyond the intrinsic value of learning, is their vocation upon completion of a degree. Through fostering of a relationship, developmental advising seeks to assist students in their exploration and evaluation of how their vocation fits into their individual life plan, rather than building their life around their vocation (O'Banion, 1972). Within this process of choosing a major and subsequent vocation is realization and clarification of the student's values, needs and skills for their benefit during and after college.

Prescriptive Advising

In contrast to the systematic, interpersonal nature of developmental advising is the prescriptive approach. The concept of relationship in the prescriptive approach is markedly different and is characterized by the delivery of information and responsibilities of each party.

Crookston (1972) compares the relationship to that of a doctor and patient; the advisor is the doctor whose responsibility is examining the problem, making a diagnosis and subsequent recommendation for the patient (student) to follow. The responsibility of the advisor is fulfilled and the student's success then depends on following the direction given to him. In this model the student is passive, communication is one-way and the advisor remains largely uninvolved (Lowenstein, 2005).

Many in the field (Habley & Morales, 1998; Hunter & White, 2004; Tuttle, 2000) argue that the clerical functions of advisors such as interpreting academic policies and requirements, declaring and changing majors, approving graduation, evaluating credits, and maintaining academic records often take precedent over forming a more meaningful relationship with their students. In addition, nationally, full-time advisors are responsible for an average of 267 advisees and see each student 2.7 times per academic term (Tuttle, 2000).

Because of this, the approach is concerned with answering specific questions most often related to the administrative function of advising and not the individual development of the student, the relationship between student and advisor is impersonal and authoritarian in nature (Jordan, 2000).

Lowenstein (2005) differs from much of the literature in stating that there is a time when this is necessary, although it is limited. Smith (2002) provided an example for this and suggested that certain student populations, such as freshmen, may prefer or benefit from a prescriptive approach that is more informational and rigid. Smith found that because first-year students' level of cognitive-development and general understanding of common practices, available services, and expectations within an institution are less than that of older, more experienced students, a prescriptive approach may be more appropriate and preferred. In essence, a foundational level of knowledge and maturity should be established from which the student and advisor can effectively operate and build a meaningful relationship.

Academic Advising and Student Development Theory

While there are no established theories of academic advising, it is accepted that advising is a process reaching students in every year of their college education, thereby involving interaction with students at various stages of development. Raushi (1993, p. 5) argues "quality advising fosters student development" and as such, the theoretical background for this development must be considered. Among the multiple theorists providing a basis for effective advising are Perry, Chickering, and Tinto, with Tinto being examined specifically within the context of retention.

Perry's Theory of Intellectual and Ethical Development

From his 1970 study, consisting almost entirely of young male, Caucasian students, Perry's scheme examined how individuals form knowledge. Composed of nine different positions in three major categories of student development: dualism, multiplicity, and relativism; the positions are situational and there is no assumption for how long an individual might remain at a particular position. In each position, students experience increasing complexity in how they perceive and think about knowledge, their peers, and authorities or experts. Further research has also added a fourth category of commitment to the scheme (Creamer, 2000; Evans, et al., 2010; Perry, 1970, 1981).

In the first category of dualism, students view the world in two forms: right or wrong, black or white ; there is no gray area only one correct answer to every question (Evans, et al., 2010; Williams, 2007). The knowledge they possess is seen as facts provided by an authority figure and questioning those facts is unnecessary because the authority claims it to be true. As this is most commonly evident in first-year students, it serves as a theoretical basis for Smith's (2002) claim that first-year students may benefit

from prescriptive advising where they are more comfortable being directed to answers and outcomes by an authority figure. In dualism, the responsibility of the student is to learn and follow the right answers and disregard challenges to those solutions provided them. It is when they begin to realize that authorities may not have all the right answers or those answers may be conflicting that they experience cognitive dissonance and begin transition to multiplicity (Evans, et al., 2010; Perry, 1970, 1981).

In multiplicity, the student begins to acknowledge that an authority may not have all the right answers, therefore relying less upon them as a sole source of knowledge, and they start to explore learning and the formation of knowledge independently. Early in multiplicity, students recognize that not all problems have definitive solutions, and many have multiple solutions that may be correct depending on an individual's point of view. As they differentiate between the two forms, students expand the area from which they seek answers to include their peers and themselves as they improve their ability to think analytically (Evans, et al., 2010; Perry, 1970, 1981). Later in the stage, the student shifts their consideration of their own and other's perspectives from simple attention to legitimate. It is at this point the student acknowledges the need to support different perspectives with quality evidence, moving to the third category of relativism.

In relativism, the student begins to understand that knowledge is subjective and not all opinions can be equally valid. "Some opinions are of little value, yet reasonable people can also legitimately disagree on some matters" (Evans, et al. 2010, p. 86). The degree to which knowledge is correct is based on evidence and supporting arguments (Evans, et al., 2010; Perry, 1970, 1981). As students move through relativism, their evaluation of an opinion or perspective is viewed not only by the evidence presented, but

also the context in which it is presented and the relationship it has to them as an individual. This is provided by reflection on their personal beliefs and opinions (Evans, et al., 2010).

In the final category of commitment, the student confirms what it is they believe and commits to the knowledge they have gained. Within commitment is affirmation of identify stemming from a choices and decisions made about their life within a relativistic framework (Evans, et al., 2010; Perry, 1970, 1981). While the student realizes what it is they believe and why, they also understand that their views may be challenged and reevaluated as commitment is as much a process as an endpoint.

Perry's theory can be most clearly seen in academic advising as a student grows and gains experience from freshman to senior year the guidance they seek from their academic advisor changes. As a freshman, the advisor is the authority of matters related to course selection, program choice, career counseling, etc. because they possess the greatest or most relevant knowledge. Over time as they develop, the student not only recognizes peers, instructors, and others are valuable sources of information in these areas but the information they seek changes to that which is most applicable and important to them presently and who they want to be in the future. Advisors who know their students through development of a relationship are in a position to recognize this growth and encourage, challenge, and assist them throughout their time at the institution.

Chickering's Theory of Identity Development

Building on Erikson's (1959, 1980) theories of identity development, Chickering focused specifically on identity formation and development for college students. In his theory, Chickering (1969) offered seven vectors of development, each of which with

increasing complexity in contributing to the formation of a student's identity (Evans, et al., 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Raushi, 1993). Different from Perry, the vectors are not necessarily distinct or linear; rather they can be thought of as areas among which students can progress through multiple vectors simultaneously and revisit over the course of their development. It is the responsibility of the advisor to help students recognize and appropriately move through the vectors by understanding their students as individuals and effectively communicating and guiding them through their time at the institution.

The first vector is developing competence. Within this vector students acquire intellectual and cognitive abilities, increase physical skills, and gain competency in interpersonal relationships and communicating with others. This provides "a sense of competence that stems from the confidence that one can cope with what comes and achieve goals successfully" (Evans, et al., 2010, p. 67).

In the second vector of managing emotions, students learn to recognize, accept, express, and control emotions and impulses as well as develop appropriate responses to their emotions (Evans, et al., 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). This includes both positive and negative emotions. An example of how advisors can play a key role in this vector is encouraging students who may be struggling in a difficult course or redirecting students toward another program better suited to their interests and abilities.

As students move through the third vector of moving from autonomy toward interdependence they realize a greater need for interdependence and connection with others achieved by greater competency in communicating and forming relationships. And while they find more value in those relationships, they also experience increased

self-sufficiency, and problem-solving ability leading to increased emotional independence (Evans, et al., 2010).

Continuing to the fourth vector, developing mature interpersonal relationships, students recognize the importance of relationships to their own development and improve their capacity for healthy long-term relationships. This is accomplished by accepting a tolerance and appreciation of differences among others (Evans, et al., 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

The fifth vector of establishing identity continues to build on the vectors before it and incorporates gender, ethnicity and heritage, and social status into the students' development of self. Through this, students gain self-esteem and acceptance resulting in greater security in who they are as an individual (Evans, et al., 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). In the context of advising, through establishing identity students begin to determine those factors most important to them as they make decisions about their future. The importance of fulfillment in their major and it's alignment with their strengths and interests, subsequent vocation, it's perceived status, and salary can all begin to be examined and understood in this vector.

The sixth vector is developing purpose. In this vector the student is influenced by lifestyle and family values in decision-making, and begins to intentionally make and adhere to decisions in the face of challenges. In so doing, they develop clear vocational goals and commitment to specific interests and relationships (Evans, et al. 2010).

Lastly, the seventh vector of developing integrity. This final vector focuses on the student's values and beliefs and contains three stages: humanizing values, personal values, and developing congruence. Progressing through the stages, the student moves

from thinking of their interests and values as rigid and self-serving to balancing them with others and finally to finding congruence between their values and a sense of social responsibility (Evans, et al. 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

When considered as part of the student development process and not an isolated student service, each of Chickering's vectors can be translated by advisors into concrete objectives and outcomes for the purpose of student growth and development during their time in college.

The Relationship Between Advising and Teaching

Although universally considered to be one of a notable work for introducing the concept of developmental advising on a scholarly level, Crookston's 1972 article did so within the framework of teaching. He states, "teaching includes any experience in the learning community in which teacher and student interact that contributes to individual, group, or community growth and development and can be evaluated" (p. 5). As the developmental advisor is concerned with facilitating students' cognitive processes, problem-solving, decision-making, and evaluation skills, these functions are also practices employed by teachers (Appleby, 2005; Lowenstein, 2005). Kramer (2003) and Gordon, Habley, and Grites (2008) continue this notion that the interaction between advisor and student is a specific teaching activity during which educational choices are questioned and challenged through curriculum, pedagogy, and establishment of learning outcomes.

In her presidential address to the members of the National Academic Advising Association, Ryan (1992) stressed the importance of the association between teaching and advising. Using a comprehensive search of the ERIC database to identify and

develop 21 characteristics of effective teachers and advisors provided substantial evidence of the overlap of the two activities. Appleby (2005) confirmed this and added seven additional characteristics collected from teaching and advising literature. Put succinctly by Appleby (2005), "the knowledge, skills, and characteristics displayed by effective teachers are essentially the same as those exhibited by effective advisors" (p. 125).

Considering this, it would follow that good advisors should be able to apply the characteristics of good teaching to advising. In *Teaching Tips,* McKeachie and Svinicki (2011, p. 12) state, "the objective of a course is not just to cover a certain set of topics, but rather to *facilitate student learning and thinking."* (p. 12). This point of facilitating student learning and thinking is repeated and expounded upon in a tremendous amount of literature on effective advising (Appleby, 2000, 2005; Crookston, 1972; Frost, 2000; Grites and Gordon, 2000; Hurt, 2007; Lowenstein, 1999, 2005; O'Banion, 1972). As such, the responsibility of the teacher and the advisor is to not only ensure students acquire needed information within a course but assist them in developing the skills to adequately think about, or process, that information.

At its most basic level, learning is the process by which one acquires knowledge or information and with the understanding of the significant overlap between advising and teaching, the classroom as well the advisors office, are the places where transmission of knowledge or information takes place. A teacher conveys information, and its importance, verbally, non-verbally or visually, and the student in response accepts or rejects that information. The acceptance or rejection of information by students classifies them and their learning as either active or passive. Crookston (1972) described passive

learners as “receptacles of knowledge” to reflect the one-way communication often present in professors’ classrooms and the prescriptive advisors’ offices. And in their book, *Planning a College Course: A Guidebook for the Graduate Teaching Assistant,* Ryan and Martens (1989) echoed this in stating:

> “Students learn both passively and actively. Passive learning takes place when students take on the role of “receptacles of knowledge;” that is, they do not directly participate in the learning process…Active learning is more likely to take place when students do something besides listening.” (p.20).

And it is this “something” that is the processing of information, aided by practice of that information, by which students learn.

The learning process itself occurs in stages. Gredler (1997) describes this as a multistage event wherein information is received by the sensory system as a stimulus and moved into short-term memory where it is evaluated by the learner and either moved to short-term memory for further processing or discarded. Information not discarded is then re-evaluated and again moved to long-term working memory or discarded. Information moved to long-term working memory is encoded, stored permanently and becomes part of the learner’s knowledge system. As a concept, little variation will be seen in the average learner. However, the degree of complexity with which the learner considers information can vary considerably.

As stated, and put simply, the processing of information is receiving and thinking about that information. Among the most notable frameworks examining the act of thinking is Bloom’s Taxonomy. The taxonomy originally classified thinking into six categories, or dimensions, with each dimension representing a higher level of complexity

in thinking (Bloom, 1956; Forehand, 2005). Students demonstrating lower-order thinking skills will be able to recall and classify facts, summarize information and make classifications. Higher-order thinking is demonstrated by drawing conclusions, further generation or production of knowledge and critiquing information. Revised in 2001 by Anderson and Krathwohl to improve its pedagogical utility and accuracy, the taxonomy can be used to not only assist educators in forming learning objectives but also assess students' current thinking skills and help them develop higher-order thinking skills (McKeachie & Svinicki, 2011, p310-312).

This transition from simple to complex thinking is shown in the advising process through advisors movement of students from directed processes and outcomes related to curriculum choices to guiding of the students as they evaluate and contextualize knowledge relevant to them and their chosen academic path (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005).

Looking specifically at first-year students, Smith (2002) explains how the needs and expectations of many freshmen can be met through a prescriptive approach where students are directed to specific choices and outcomes because not only is it what they are accustomed to coming out of high school, but it can be used as a foundation to initiate developmental interactions. Within the advising context, over time this development sees the student gaining an understanding of the overarching structure and logic of the curriculum and how it best fits into their life plan (Lowenstein, 2005; O'Banion, 1972).

And just as good teachers give consideration to this development in their teaching and interactions with students, so to do good advisors. Lowenstein (2005) refers to this as "learning-centered advising" (p. 72). Elaborating on this philosophical concept of applying the tools employed in good teaching to the advising process, Hurt (2007) uses

Bloom's Taxonomy to explain how to develop learning objectives within the context of advising.

Hurt describes learning-centered advising as a process containing three parts that are sequential, yet are continually evolving and being reassessed for further refinement and development. The process begins by establishing learning objectives that are "specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and timely" so that advisors can not only assess where the student is cognitively in the developmental process, but so the relationship is given direction for future interactions (p. 37).

Following initial establishment and attainment of objectives, through content delivery such as university catalogs, reading guides and curriculum worksheets, the student develops critical thinking skills and a basis for discussion with advisors. Provided with specific, relevant information the student can begin seeking answers to questions about their own learning, program choice, and career direction.

Lastly, assessment of student learning within their advising experience. Arguing that advising is indeed a form of teaching, Hurt recommends the use of classroom assessment techniques to provide feedback to advisors about their students' progress in achieving learning outcomes as well as form discussion and future interactions, and in turn to the student it confirms they have indeed learned the information, fills in gaps in information otherwise unknown to the student, and provides them direction in improving future work (Nichol, 2011; Orrell, 2006).

Contemporary Issues in Academic Advising

Facing demands created by reduced budgets, shifting demographics, and the changing needs of an ever-evolving workforce, a universal goal of all institutions is the

retention of students and their timely progression towards a degree. In short, student success and graduation. And as a vehicle by which students can access needed guidance, direction, support and university services, quality academic advising supports key institutional conditions that have been identified with promoting student success (Campbell and Nutt, 2008).

While skill or trade-based jobs still remain a vital part of the economy and society at large, the increasing demand for knowledge-based jobs requiring postsecondary education, or beyond, a high-school diploma will increasingly become insufficient. And if the country is to maintain and advance the labor force in a more globalized economy while at the same time recognizing the continual rise in the number of positions requiring those abilities found in postsecondary education, efforts must be made to see more students remain enrolled and completing a degree in five or six years (Lotkowski, Robbins & Noeth, 2004; U.S. Department of Labor, 2009). Because by nature effective academic advising promotes interaction between student and faculty or staff, and high levels of student interaction have been found to be empirically associated with higher rates of student retention, quality academic advising is a key component to institutional success in this goal of retention (Cuseo, 2002; Drake, 2011; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Tinto, 1987; Astin, 1993).

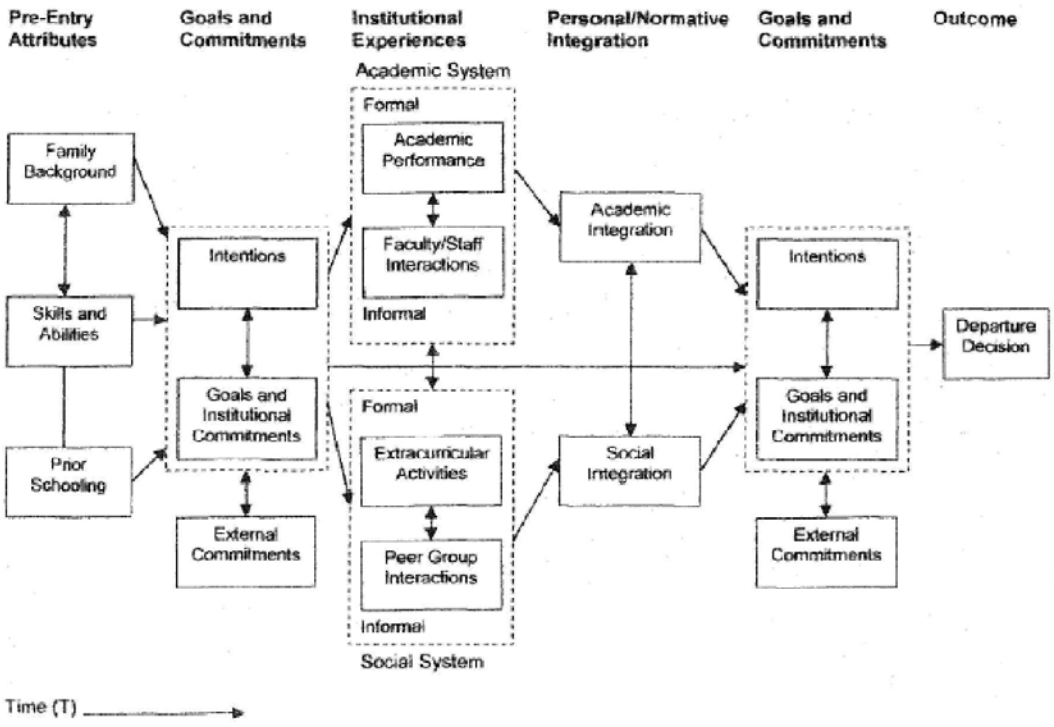
Described by Tinto (1987) as both formal and informal, this regular interaction with a representative of the institution contributes significantly to students' perception of their college experience and the degree to which students integrate into and choose to remain on or leave campus.

Tinto's Model of Student Departure.

Tinto's (1987) model of student departure is the most commonly referred to in literature on student retention. In it he focuses on this concept of transition and integration into a society, viewing colleges and universities as small societies, made up of academic components concerned with the training of students and social components concerned with the students' daily lives and personal needs. In order to achieve success in both components, thereby remaining at the institution, students must integrate into and establish membership in the society.

Comprised of three stages of transition where students move from youth to adulthood, students (1) separate from past associations; (2) transition to new interactions with the new group; and (3) incorporation to the new group as an established member. Within each of these stages, the student evaluates experiences as positive or negative. If the balance of experiences is positive; the student enjoys their course of study, does well academically, develops friendships and connections with students, staff, and faculty, is financially stable, etc., then they become integrated, their membership on campus is established and they are likely to persist. If the balance of experiences are negative; academic performance is poor, prolonged uncertainty about program choice or paying for their education, trouble establishing relationships, or the student experiences difficulty negotiating the steps, they may fail to establish membership and are more likely to leave the institution (King, 1993; Tinto, 1987; 1999).

Figure 1. Model of Tinto's Theory of College Student Departure (Tinto, 1987)



Focusing on the specific reasons for attrition, Noel, Levitz, Saluri, and Associates (1985) stated "uncertainty about what to study is the most frequent reason talented students give for dropping out of college" (p. 121). This need to realize successful academic integration is echoed by Halpin (1990) and Astin (1977, 1993) among others, and remains consistent throughout literature on factors affecting retention. In addition, Nutt (2003) notes that causes of students stopping their education, or dropping out, are not limited to academics but include isolation, adjustment problems, uncertainty, and difficulty finding a place in the community. An equal, if not greater amount of literature places increasing importance on the role of these non-academic factors, and places academic advisors at the center of successful institutional efforts towards retention.

Academic advising is the only structured service on campus that guarantees students will have one-on-one interaction with a concerned member or representative of the institution, who is capable of recognizing and responding to problems and difficulties faced by the student (Habley, 2004; King, 1993). Going beyond simply answering student questions and directing them in matters related to curriculum, advisors are often the personnel most readily available and equipped to provide students with needed information about other support services on campus. King (1993, p. 22) called this role of the advisor the "hub of the student services wheel". By offering connection to these services, students are given assistance in addressing both academic and non-academic needs demonstrating a positive association with student success and retention. (Crockett, 1978; O'Banion, 1972; Tinto, 1987, 2007).

In writing of the relationship between advising and retention, Drake (2011) discussed how nearly four decades of research in the area have regularly pointed to three essential components of student persistence: connecting students early to the institution through learning support systems such as tutoring and supplemental instruction, first-year programming such as learning communities, and quality academic advising.

With effective academic advising that directs students to other services on campus at the center of these components, instead of just another isolated services amount many provided by institutions, students experience greater satisfaction with their college experience, effective educational and career planning, personal growth and decision making ability, understanding and management of financial obligations, and ultimately retention (Cuseo, 2002; Drake, 2011; Lotkowski, Robbins, & Noeth, 2004).

The ultimate mission of colleges and universities is successful instruction and development of students. This success is demonstrated by their retention, persistence, and graduation. As such, quality academic advising that focuses on effectively engaging students in their educations and institutional community and the meeting of students' needs is an indispensable element of higher education.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Introduction

The student-advisor relationship that exhibits quality through the meeting of students' academic and emotional needs is necessary to maximize effectiveness and achieve successful and timely progression through a curriculum (Coll & Draves, 2009). Students and advisors may bring different expectations to the table when meeting, therefore it is important to establish the behaviors each value in the advising experience.

Modeled after the Teacher Behaviors Checklist (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002) the purpose of this study is to determine what qualities/behaviors students value in their academic advisors versus those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors, if the valued behaviors change or are different over time for students and advisors, and the relationship of the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the modified instrument.

The previous chapter provided a comprehensive review of the literature on the history of academic advising, developmental versus prescriptive approaches to advising, the theoretical foundation for advising, the relationship between teaching and advising, and how academic advising is positively connected to retention and persistence. This chapter: provides the research questions; explains the design of the study and its rationale; lists the sample participants; provides description of the data, its collection and

subsequent analysis; addresses any concerns for reliability and generalizability of the results; and possible limitations of the study.

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors and those valued by students?
2. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors change over the course of their academic career?
3. Does academic advisor preference for qualities/behaviors change over the course of their professional career?
4. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors vary between genders?
5. What is the relationship between the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the modified instrument?

Research Design and Rationale

This study was non-experimental in design with no treatment, using a survey to collect data. Fowler (2008, p. 11) states:

> "…the purpose of a survey is to provide statistical estimates of a target population, some set of people…The hope is that the characteristics the survey is designed to describe are present to the same degree, and are distributed in the same way, in the sample responding as in the target population as a whole."

The survey method is the most efficient means of collecting a large amount of data from a potentially large sample (Dillman, 2006). Because of current survey software, distribution of the survey to samples can be done quickly and with no cost to the

researcher.

However, while there are many benefits to obtaining data via survey, there are also several limitations. Most notably, the survey only explores students' and advisors' self-reported opinions about the specific behaviors that comprise an advisors interaction with their students. As such, survey data can be inaccurate and not make claims about the outcomes of those interactions (Dillman, 2006).

The Teacher Behaviors Checklist

The survey used in the study was based on a previously validated instrument, the *Teacher Behaviors Checklist* (TBC). The TBC survey was designed to determine the qualities and behaviors of excellent teachers, defined by the authors as "teachers from whom students had learned a great deal and who made the learning process enjoyable," (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002). Containing 28 items, the TBC asked undergraduate students and faculty members to rate the top 10 behaviors they felt were best exhibited by excellent teachers (Appendix E). The resulting congruence between student and faculty ratings of the top 10 items demonstrated evidence of the most desirable behaviors of teachers from both a student and faculty perspective (Appendix E).

With the permission of the original author, the TBC has been modified for the purposes of this study, to measure the qualities and behaviors of academic advisors preferred by both undergraduate students and academic advisors, instead of teachers. The modification of the survey was supported by literature suggesting that academic advisors share many of the behaviors exhibited by excellent teachers, as well as literature demonstrating a similarity between the practice of teaching and advising. In addition, the survey was further reviewed for validation by three individuals at two universities, all of

whom have significant experience in the field of academic advising.

Sample Participants

The students comprising the sample are representative of undergraduates at a four-year public research university in the southeastern United States. The survey was made available to 1,562 students and in order to obtain an accurate assessment of the perception of behaviors of academic advisors at different times in a student's academic career, across academic disciplines, and any differences between gender, respondents were asked to indicate their year, age, college, and gender. In total, 83 freshmen, 107 sophomores, 91 juniors, and 79 seniors, completed the survey for a total of 360 students in nine different colleges, yielding a 23% response rate. In addition to students surveyed within specific colleges, 17 university experience courses, comprised entirely of freshmen were surveyed. Following the collection of data, the colleges were collapsed into three categories to better reflect academic disciplines rather than specific colleges at the university. Results from those disciplines surveyed are as follows:

Science and Engineering: 104

Business and Professional: 192

Social Sciences: 64

The advisors surveyed in the study were all available academic advisors, or those in an academic advising role, at the university; for a total of 65 individuals in 10 different colleges and three offices on campus. In addition to those academic advisors in a college, three advisors from Interdisciplinary Studies, two advisors from the university's Honors College, and 11 academic counselors from Student Athlete Support Services were surveyed. In total, 50 advisors in 12 different areas completed the survey, yielding a 77%

response rate. The composition of the sample of academic advisors, or those in advising roles, was also collapsed following data collection but with the addition of the Interdisciplinary category to reflect those advisors in Interdisciplinary Studies, Honor's College, and Student Athlete Support Services. Results from those disciplines surveyed are as follows:

Science and Engineering: 18

Business and Professional: 11

Social Sciences: 11

Interdisciplinary: 10

Participation for both students and advisors was completely voluntary and no incentive was offered to individuals in either sample. IRB approval was granted before the study was conducted.

Data Description and Collection

Data were collected using a modified version of the TBC survey (Table 2). The original TBC lists 28 qualities and behaviors that reflect each quality and asks students and teachers to select 10 of the qualities and behaviors that are most important to effective teaching, and the modified version also contained 28 items as well as asking for participants to self-report demographic information. Surveys distributed to students asked for gender, college (e.g. liberal arts, science and math, etc.), year in school (e.g. freshman, junior, etc.) and age. Surveys distributed to advisors asked for gender, college, and years of advising experience. Students and advisors were given the following instructions at the beginning of the survey:

> "Please select the 10 qualities/behaviors that are most important to "excellent advising" at the college level. An excellent advisor can be thought of as an individual who is highly effective as an academic advisor—think of the best advisors you know. Select the "top 10 qualities/behaviors" by filling in the circle to the immediate left of the descriptions given for these qualities/behaviors. Please do not check fewer than, or more than, 10 qualities/behaviors."

Following IRB approval, instructors of classes chosen for the study were contacted by the researcher via email, given explanation of the study and instructions for its delivery, and a follow-up office visit to explain the study and offered answer any questions. Upon agreement of the instructor to participate, they were e-mailed a link to the survey on Qualtrics and asked to forward the e-mail containing the link and consent information to their class, or classes, and request their students complete the survey within 10 days. They were also asked to send a reminder email to their students after five days.

Advisors were e-mailed by the researcher at the same time as the survey was opened to students. Like the students, they were provided with a link to the survey and an informed consent form was attached to the email. As with the instructors, a follow-up office visit to explain the study and answer any questions was offered. Advisors were asked to respond to the survey within 10 days and sent a reminder email after five days.

Data Analysis

As the data collected is categorical and the purpose of the research questions is to determine differences between variables, non-parametric tests were conducted. Gay

(1976) states, “Nonparametric tests make no assumption about the shape of the distribution. They are usually used when the data represent an ordinal or nominal scale, when a parametric assumption has been greatly violated, or when the nature of the distribution is not known” (p.251).

Following the collection of surveys, multiple chi-square tests were used to analyze the data and answer all research questions. The chi-square test, symbolized by x^2, is a single-sample nonparametric test of significance, also referred to as a Pearson's chi-square goodness-of-fit test or the one-sample goodness-of-fit test. It is used to compare frequencies of categorical variables to determine if an event occurs more frequently in one variable than it does in another. By comparing proportions that are actually observed in a study to those that are hypothesized, the chi-square test determines the degree to which they are significantly different (Gay, 1976).

The chi-square test may be used to compare frequencies occurring in different groups (e.g. students and advisors) or different categories (e.g. students and year). As the difference between those proportions that are observed and those that are hypothesized are different increases, so does the chi-square value.

Descriptive data, such as frequencies, was also collected and all data was computed using the statistical software, SPSS version 22.

Concerns for Internal and External Validity

As the study is non-experimental, with no treatment and no claim to causality, many common threats to internal validity, such as history or maturation are not applicable. However, as convenience sampling was used in the selection of the sample

participants, both students and advisors, it presents several potential threats to the external validity of the study.

As the study was conducted at a university that is largely comprised of traditional-aged students, the variability in age of students surveyed was limited. In addition, the structure of advising varies by college on campus resulting in some students being required to meet with an advisor every semester while for others it is strictly voluntary. In order to protect against these threats the survey was distributed to classes whose colleges both required and voluntary advising structures, freshman through senior level in the four largest colleges on campus.

Similar threats are also present with the selection of the population of academic advisors. Tuttle (2000) shows that advisor workload affects the style of advising employed by academic advisors. To protect against this as well as the influence of age, experience and personal philosophy of advising, the survey was distributed to the entire population of those in an academic advising role on campus, a total of 65 individuals.

The study used an instrument that while previously validated, was altered for the purposes of this research. Modification was limited to the changing of terms germane only to teaching and the classroom to better address the advisor-student interaction.

Concerns for Reliability and Generalizability of Results

While the TBC has been found to be a useful and psychometrically sound instrument for assessing the qualities of excellent teachers, and modifications have been made to the instrument and validated using factor analysis to this end (Keeley, Smith, Buskist, 2005), the primary concern for reliability in this study is the modification of terms within the qualities/behaviors for the purposes of assessing the qualities of

academic advisors instead of teachers. And although the modifications are supported through strong evidence within the literature on academic advising, the instrument was sent to three individuals with substantial experience in academic advising for further review.

All of the reviewers have been involved with academic advising both currently and throughout their careers, as well as in multiple levels of responsibility. The first reviewer was the director of academic advising at a large college within a four year university, the second was involved at the national level with the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA), and the third is a director of student services at a small private university. Appropriate changes to the instrument were made following their feedback.

Because of the threats to external validity stemming from selection, the results of the study may be limited in generalizability to other populations, especially colleges with a greater diversity in the age and experience of students and advisors.

Limitations of the Method

While there are many benefits of using an online survey to collect data, there are also several limitations, most notably response rate. The response rate of online surveys is on average about 23% less than that of paper surveys, administered face-to-face by the researcher (Nulty, 2008). A suggested means of mitigating this is repeat e-mails to non-respondents, a practice the researcher is planning to use following distribution. In addition, the survey only allows the researcher to discover opinions or preferences held by the subjects and not impetus or reasoning behind those opinions or preferences. Thus,

claims to causality can not be made and only suggestions for further practice by advisors or study can be recommended following the collection of data.

Conclusion

Successful and timely progression through a curriculum, leading not only to graduation but a positive overall experience while the student is enrolled is essential. In addition to an individual student-centered view of importance, effective advising is critical to the achievement of missions such as President Obama's goal to have the largest share of college graduates in the world by 2020 (Russell, 2011). Affirming this is literature showing quality advising is among the best practices for increasing retention and students at 4-year public schools ranking advising first in importance among aspects of their college experience ((Lotkowski, Robbins, & Noeth, 2004; Noel-Levitz, 2009). Considering its value to higher education, efforts should be made to enable an advisor to maximize their time with students and facilitate a more positive and successful relationship by learning what behaviors are most valued and effective.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Introduction

Quality academic advising is critical to student success and the overall mission of higher education to educate students and provide them the needed tools to reach completion of a degree. Hunter and White (2004) remarked that, "academic advising, well developed and appropriately accessed, is perhaps the only structured campus endeavor that can guarantee students sustained interaction with a caring and concerned adult…" (p. 21). Although commonly viewed as focusing only on the navigation of curriculum and the selection of major and courses, the student-advisor interaction is ultimately about relationship, development of the student, and of the processes that lead them to make decisions during their academic career (Crookston, 1972).

A student-advisor relationship that emphasizes quality through the meeting of each student's needs is necessary to maximize effectiveness and achieve successful and timely progression through a curriculum (Coll & Draves, 2009). Students and advisors may bring different expectations to the advising process; therefore, it is important to establish the behaviors valued by each individual in the advising experience. Modeled after the Teacher Behaviors Checklist (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002) the purpose of this study was to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors and those valued by students?

2. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors change over the course of their academic career?
3. Does academic advisor preference for qualities/behaviors change over the course of their professional career?
4. Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors vary by gender?
5. What is the relationship between the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the modified instrument?

Sample Demographics

The survey was made available to 1,562 students in 34 different courses and across three categories of academic disciplines. In total, 83 freshmen, 107 sophomores, 91 juniors, and 79 seniors, completed the survey for a total of 360 responses, yielding a 23% response rate. Of the 360 participants, 195 identified as male, 159 identified as female, and 6 did not identify their gender. The age of students ranged from 17-36 with a mean of 20.06. These figures can be found in Table 4.1.

The survey was also made available to all available academic advisors, or those in an academic advising role, at the university; for a total of 65 individuals. In total, 50 advisors completed the survey, yielding a 77% response rate. Of the 50 participants, 12 identified as male, and 38 identified as female. The career experience of advisors ranged from less than one to 32 years with a mean of 8.42. These figures can be found in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Demographic Statistics

Students			Advisors		
Gender	*n*	%	Gender	*n*	%
Male	195	54%	Male	12	23%
Female	159	44%	Female	38	77%
Did not ID	6	2%	Total	50	
Total	360				
Age			Experience	Years	%
Mean	20.06		Mean	8.42	
Mode	20		Mode	2	
Range	17-36		Range	<1-32 years	
			1-10 years	35	70%
Year	*n*	%	11+ years	15	30%
Freshman	83	23%			
Sophomore	107	30%			
Junior	91	22%			
Senior	79	22%			
Total	360				
Fields	*n*	%	Fields	*n*	%
STEM	105	29%	STEM	18	36%
Business/Professional	195	54%	Business/Professional	11	22%
Social Sciences	60	17%	Social Sciences	11	22%
			Interdisc/Athletics	10	20%
Response Rate:	23%		Response Rate	77%	

Data Analysis

Table 4.2 is a comparison of the order of importance both student and advisor placed on each of the 28 qualities/behaviors. Interesting to note is that while the order of importance was different between the two groups, students and advisors agreed on the top seven qualities/behaviors. These seven behaviors were (a) approachable/personable; (b) accessible; (c) knowledgeable about topic; (d) effective communicator; (e)

encourages/cares for students; (f) good listener; and (g) confident. For this reason, these seven behaviors were used for comparison of groups for all data analysis.

Table 4.2

Comparison of Student and Advisor Rankings of the 28 Qualities/Behaviors

	Students			Advisor		
Quality/Behavior Category	n	%	Rank	n	%	rank
Approachable/Personable	282	78	1	45	90	1
Accessible	265	74	2	30	60	5
Knowledgeable about topic	245	68	3	34	68	3
Effective communicator	207	58	4	29	58	6
Encourages/cares for students	193	54	5	34	68	3
Good listener	179	50	6	37	74	2
Confident	170	47	7	26	52	7
Prepared	166	46	8	11	22	18
Realistic Expectations	164	46	9	13	26	17
Understanding	150	42	10	17	34	14
Provides constructive feedback	147	41	11	20	40	10
Enthusiastic about advising	142	39	12	17	34	14
Respectful	141	39	13	18	36	12
Presents Current Information	139	39	14	17	34	14
Establishes goals	135	38	15	5	10	27
Happy/positive/humorous	131	36	16	7	14	25
Flexible/open minded	116	32	17	8	16	23
Manages time well	100	28	18	20	40	10
Strives to be a better advisor	95	26	19	22	44	9
Technologically competent	83	23	20	11	22	18
Creative/Interesting	79	22	21	8	16	23
Professional	76	21	22	9	18	20
Sensitive/Persistent	72	20	23	7	14	25
Humble	57	16	24	9	18	20
Promotes critical thinking	56	16	25	18	36	12
Promotes discussion	54	15	26	9	18	20
Rapport	43	12	27	26	52	7
Authoritative	30	8	28	3	6	28

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors and those valued by students?

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior indicated there was a statistically significant difference in student preference for (a) approachable/personable; (b) accessible; (c) encourages/cares for students; and (d) good listener as qualities/behaviors when compared with academic advisor preference. Student preference for these four qualities/behaviors was statistically lower than academic advisors. These figures are shown in Table 4.3.

There were no statistically significant differences in student preference and academic advisor preference for (e) knowledgeable about topic; (f) effective communicator; and (g) confident. These figures are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Student Preferences versus Advisor Preferences

Qualities	Students (N=360)		Advisors (N=50)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	282	78	45	5	54.444	1	<0.001
Accessible	265	95	37	13	27.789	1	<0.001
Knowledgeable	245	115	34	16	0.000	1	1.000
Effective Communicator	207	153	34	16	0.046	1	0.831
Encourages	193	167	30	20	34.55	1	<0.001
Good listener	179	181	29	21	108.976	1	<0.001
Confident	170	190	26	24	3.216	1	0.073

Research Question 2: Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors change over the course of their academic career?

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in student preference for qualities/behaviors in the freshman year when

compared with those of the total sample of students. These figures are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Quality/Behavior Preference by Student Year: Freshmen

Qualities	Freshmen (N=83)		All Students (N=360)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	66	17	282	78	0.071	1	0.790
Accessible	58	25	265	95	0.557	1	0.456
Knowledgeable	58	25	245	115	0.220	1	0.639
Effective Communicator	48	35	207	153	0.000	1	1.000
Encourages	42	41	193	167	0.437	1	0.509
Good listener	45	38	179	181	0.590	1	0.442
Confident	43	40	170	190	0.774	1	0.379

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in student preference for qualities/behaviors in the sophomore year when compared with those of the total sample of students. These figures are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Quality/Behavior Preference by Student Year: Sophomore

Qualities	Sophomore (N=107)		All Students (N=360)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	84	23	282	78	0.003	1	0.959
Accessible	83	24	265	95	0.774	1	0.379
Knowledgeable	64	43	245	115	3.492	1	0.062
Effective Communicator	70	37	207	153	2.454	1	0.117
Encourages	62	45	193	167	0.602	1	0.438
Good listener	51	56	179	181	0.234	1	0.629
Confident	46	61	170	190	0.601	1	0.438

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in student preference for qualities/behaviors in the junior year when compared with those of the total sample of students. These figures are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Quality/Behavior Preference by Student Year: Junior

Qualities	Junior (N=91)		All Students (N=360)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	71	20	282	78	0.00	1	1.000
Accessible	63	28	265	95	0.905	1	0.341
Knowledgeable	63	28	245	115	0.051	1	0.822
Effective Communicator	50	41	207	153	0.407	1	0.524
Encourages	46	45	193	167	0.398	1	0.528
Good listener	46	45	179	181	0.011	1	0.917
Confident	46	45	170	190	0.937	1	0.529

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in student preference for qualities/behaviors in the senior year when compared with those of the total sample of students. These figures are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Quality/Behavior Preference by Student Year: Senior

Qualities	Senior (N=79)		All Students (N=360)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	61	1	282	78	0.075	1	0.784
Accessible	61	18	265	95	0.584	1	0.445
Knowledgeable	60	19	245	115	2.107	1	0.147
Effective Communicator	39	40	207	153	2.550	1	0.110
Encourages	43	36	193	167	0.000	1	1.000
Good listener	37	43	179	181	0.316	1	0.574
Confident	35	44	170	190	0.203	1	0.652

Research Question 3: Does academic advisor preference for qualities/behaviors change over the course of their professional career?

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in academic advisor preference for qualities/behaviors in early to mid-career academic advisors (<1-10 years' experience) when compared with those of the total sample of academic advisors. These figures are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Quality/Behavior Preference by Advisor Experience: Early to Mid-Career (<1 to 10 years)

Qualities	Early-Mid Career (N=35)		All Advisors (N=50)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	31	4	45	5	0.365	1	0.546
Good listener	25	10	37	13	0.530	1	0.699
Encourages	22	13	34	16	0.530	1	0.466
Knowledgeable	26	9	34	16	0.530	1	0.466
Accessible	21	14	30	20	0.000	1	1.000
Effective Communicator	22	13	29	21	0.467	1	0.495
Confident	18	17	26	24	0.000	1	1.000

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in academic advisor preference for qualities/behaviors in late-career advisors (11+ years' experience) when compared with those of the total sample of academic advisors. These figures are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Behavior Preference by Advisor Experience: Late Career (11+ years)

Qualities	Late Career (N=15)		All Advisors (N=50)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	14	1	45	5	0.000	1	1.000
Good listener	12	3	37	13	0.341	1	0.559
Encourages	12	3	34	16	1.200	1	0.273
Knowledgeable	8	7	34	16	1.200	1	0.273
Accessible	9	6	30	20	0.000	1	1.000
Effective Communicator	7	8	29	21	1.111	1	0.292
Confident	8	7	26	24	0.000	1	1.000

Research Question 4: Does student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors vary by gender?

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in male student preferences for academic advising qualities/behaviors when compared with those of the total sample of students. These figures are shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

Behavior Preference by Gender: Male

Qualities	Male (N=195)		All Students (N=360)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	157	38	282	78	0.746	1	0.388
Accessible	150	45	265	95	0.956	1	0.328
Knowledgeable	130	65	245	115	0.213	1	0.645
Effective Communicator	114	81	207	153	0.021	1	0.885
Encourages	101	94	193	167	0.330	1	0.566
Good listener	103	92	179	181	0.621	1	0.431
Confident	101	94	170	190	1.667	1	0.197

A chi-square test for each quality/behavior revealed no statistically significant differences in female student preferences for academic advising qualities/behaviors when compared to the total sample of students. These figures are shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Behavior Preference by Gender: Female

Qualities	Female (N=159)		All Students (N=360)		Analysis		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
Approachable	120	39	282	78	0.586	1	0.444
Accessible	112	47	265	95	1.183	1	0.277
Knowledgeable	112	47	245	115	0.462	1	0.497
Effective Communicator	89	70	207	153	0.232	1	0.630
Encourages	88	71	193	167	0.101	1	0.750
Good listener	74	85	179	181	0.761	1	0.383
Confident	67	92	170	190	1.615	1	0.204

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between the results of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist and the present instrument?

While no statistical tests were performed for this research question because of measurement differences in each instrument, two noteworthy observations were made. Although the order of rankings are different, results from the current study showed that five of the top ten qualities/behaviors students felt were most important in an excellent academic advisor were also ranked in the top 10 qualities/behaviors students felt were most important in excellent teachers. In addition, although the order of rankings are again different, results from the current study show that three of the top ten qualities/behaviors academic advisors felt were most important in an excellent academic advisor were also ranked in the top 10 qualities/behaviors faculty members felt were most important in excellent teachers. These figures are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Comparison of findings of original instrument (TBC) to present instrument(ABC)

Student TBC vs Student ABC			Faculty TBC vs Advisor ABC		
Quality/Behavior	TBC	ABC	Quality/Behavior	TBC	ABC
Realistic Expectations/Fair	1	9	Knowledgeable	1	4
Knowledgeable	2	3	Enthusiastic	2	13
Understanding	3	10	Critical Thinking	3	14
Approachable/Personable	4	1	Prepared	4	18
Respectful	5	14	Approachable/Personable	5	1
Creative/Interesting	6	21	Master Communicator	6	6
Happy/Positive/Humorous	7	16	Respectful	7	12
Encourages/Cares	8	5	Creative/Interesting	8	23
Flexible/Open Minded	9	17	Realistic Expectations	9	17
Enthusiastic	10	12	Current Information	10	15

Summary

Results from the survey show that students and academic advisors agreed that the same seven qualities/behaviors were most important, although differing in order. Analysis of data through chi-square tests indicated there were statistically significant differences in those qualities/behaviors preferred by students and those preferred by academic advisors, specifically: (a) approachable/personable; (b) accessible; (c) encourages/cares for students; and (d) good listener. No statistically significant differences can be attributed to a student's year in college or gender. Neither can statistically significant differences be attributed to the years of experience of an academic advisor. Students in the original instrument and the present instrument shared preference for five of the top ten qualities/behaviors in both faculty and academic advisors. In addition, faculty in the original instrument and academic advisors in the present instrument shared preference for three of the top ten qualities/behaviors in both faculty and academic advisors.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Summary

The purpose of the present study was to determine the preference of certain qualities/behaviors of academic advisors among undergraduate students and academic advisors. Specifically, the study examines the relationship between those qualities/behaviors shared in importance between students and advisors, if student preference for qualities/behaviors changed over time, if advisor preference for qualities/behaviors changed over time, if student preference for qualities/behaviors was different between gender, and if there was any relationship between the findings of the Teacher Behaviors Checklist (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002) and the present instrument.

To answer these questions, 360 undergraduate students and 50 academic advisors at a large, public research university in the Southeast completed a survey asking participants to select 10 of 28 qualities/behaviors they found most important in an excellent academic advisor and rank those 10 in order of preference. In addition, the survey asked participants to identify their gender, college in which they were enrolled or advised, and year in school or number of years they had been in an academic advising role. The survey was made available to 1,562 students and 65 academic advisors, and yielded response rates of 23% and 77%, respectively. Following collection of this data, statistical analysis was performed using multiple chi-square tests.

Results of the data collection showed that while specific order differed, students and advisors shared a preference for seven of the top ten qualities/behaviors. However, statistical analysis showed statistically significant differences in only four of the seven qualities/behaviors. The analysis failed to indicate any statistically significant differences that can be attributed to a student's year in college or gender, or the years of experience of an academic advisor. Observational comparison of the original instrument and the present instrument indicated a shared preference among students for five of the top ten qualities/behaviors in faculty and academic advisors, as well as a shared preference among advisors and faculty for three of the top ten qualities/behaviors.

Included in this chapter is a discussion of the findings and conclusions, implications for practice, and recommendations for future research.

Discussion

Research Question One

The first research question asked if there was a relationship between those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors and those valued by the students. First, observation of the data interestingly highlights both students and advisors ranked "Approachable/Personable" as the most important quality/behavior for an academic advisor to possess. Similarly, although specific ranking was different, both students and advisors shared preference for the subsequent six highest-ranked qualities/behaviors. Following "Approachable/Personable," the qualities/behaviors were: (a) Accessible; (b) Knowledgeable About Topic; (c) Effective Communicator; (d) Encourages/Cares for Students; (e) Good Listener; and (f) Confident. These findings suggest that technical skill specific to advising are thought of as less important to the advising experience than

interpersonal skill. The desired technical skill is that which can answer specific questions the student may have related to curriculum, program or course choice and can be satisfied by the advisor possessing knowledge about the germane topic(s). This supports much of the literature suggesting the limited utility of the prescriptive advising approach when compared to the developmental approach (Crookston, 1972; Drake, 2011; Gordon, 1994; King, 1993; O'Banion, 1972, Raushi, 1993). Nonetheless, in considering this it is also important to note that while "Knowledgeable About the Topic," is more of a technical skill, it still serves a critical role in quality advising. The academic advisor's interaction with students, coupled with their knowledge about important topics falls directly in line with King's (1993, p. 22) description of the advisor as the "hub of the student services wheel;" connecting students to other services available on campus that can address both academic and non-academic needs. And by doing so, providing them a greater opportunity for academic and social success, better connection to the campus community, and increased likelihood of retention (Crockett, 1978; O'Banion, 1972; Tinto, 1987, 1999).

Because of their congruence between the two groups, the aforementioned seven behaviors were selected for statistical analysis in answering all research questions. Analysis of research question one was done using a chi-square test and indicated there was a statistically significant difference in student preference for the following four qualities/behaviors when compared with advisor preference: (a) approachable/personable (x^2=54.444, $p<0.001$); (b) accessible (x^2=27.789, $p<0.001$); (c) encourages/cares for students (x^2=34.55, $p<0.001$); and (d) good listener (x^2=108.976, $p<0.001$). These findings show that while both students and advisors may consider these

qualities/behaviors important for an advisor to possess, the advisor's felt them to be more important than the students. For the remaining three qualities/behaviors, there was no statistically significant difference in student preference and advisor preference. However, as the qualities/behaviors, in total, have greater alignment with the developmental approach, the findings for research question one support previous research suggesting developmental advising as the preferred style (Hale, Graham, and Johnson, 2009). By operating within this framework, the developmental advisor has the opportunity not only to meet their students' academic needs, but give them an avenue for a positive relationship with a concerned adult representative of the institution who can provide the assistance needed to enhance their college experience.

Research Question Two

The second research question asked if student preference for academic advising qualities/behaviors changed over the course of their academic career. Chi-square tests were conducted for each of the seven qualities/behaviors in the freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years, comparing each year to the total sample of students.

Data analysis did not reveal a statistically significant difference in student preference over their time in college, suggesting that the amount of time a student has spent in college does not impact their view of what is important in an academic advisor. However, although not statistically significant, one interesting finding was the chi-square value of knowledge between the freshman and sophomore year (x^2=0.220, p = 0.639 vs. x^2=3.492, p = 0.062). It appears that by the sophomore year, students are beginning to be concerned with their advisor's knowledge or amount of information their advisor can provide them during their meetings. This is likely due to students beginning to recognize

their transition to more focused coursework that will impact them beyond just the meeting of curriculum requirements. At this point, the decisions student make based on the information they receive from their advisors begin to have implications outside the classroom for areas such as internships, jobs, or careers.

And while statistically contradictory, the findings of this study are an interesting contrast to those of Smith (2002), who reported a difference in preference of advising styles according to year in college. He notes that younger students, particularly freshmen, may prefer and benefit from a more prescriptive approach based on providing information instead of seeking or taking part in developing a relationship for benefit beyond answering specific questions. Additionally, other relevant research of first-year students has suggested students in their first year are distinguished from other students because of issues related to transition to college (Bigger, 2005; Gardner, 1986; Gardner & Seigel, 2001; Barefoot, 2000). Nearly all authors point to a need for improved interactions with students as essential for successfully transitioning them in their first year. The findings of this study do not contradict those of other authors; rather they reinforce the need for advisors to strive towards quality interactions through better interpersonal and developmental skill, starting with students in their first year.

While they should be aware of a student's prior experience in college and with the subject matter being discussed, this analysis suggests that an advisor's approach to their students may not have to differ based on the year of their student, thereby allowing the advisor to primarily focus on exhibiting those behaviors preferred by students and refining their skills as developmental advisors.

Research Question Three

Similar to research question two, the third research question asked if advisor preference for qualities/behaviors changed over the course of their professional career. For this question, years of experience were collapsed into two categories: early-mid career, <1 to 10 years experience; and late career, 11+ years experience. Chi-square tests were again selected for statistical analysis and then conducted for each of the seven qualities/behaviors in both experience categories, comparing each category to the total sample of advisors.

The data analysis did not show statistically significant differences in advisor preference for any of the qualities/behaviors in either early-mid career advisors or late career advisors. While there is an abundance of research examining student preference for advising style, research asking the same of advisors is very limited. Instead literature primarily focuses on the critical components of an academic advisor. This analysis reinforces claims in the literature by Hughey (2011) and NACADA (2006), who note an advisors interpersonal skill and ability to connect with students directly influence their success as advisors. Moreover, the findings of this study demonstrating academic advisors value the same qualities/behaviors regardless of experience suggests the field of academic advising tends to draw professionals who share a similar ideology that remains true over time; quality academic advising plays a key role in student success by supporting and facilitating student learning and development.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question asked if student preference for academic advising qualities/behavior varied by gender. Like the previous questions, chi-square tests were

selected for statistical analysis and then conducted for each of the seven qualities/behaviors for both male and female students, comparing each group to the total sample of students. The data analysis did not show statistically significant differences in male or female preference for any of the qualities/behaviors.

Astin (1977) and Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin (2002) suggested female students are typically more likely to be more involved in the classroom, and with peers and faculty, thereby giving academic advisors greater reason to believe they will have to be more persistent with male students who are less likely to solicit help from advisors.

However, the findings of this study suggest that within the interaction itself, male and female students bring similar expectations to the table, thus an advisors approach to their students may not have to change based on their student's gender. And similar to the conclusions drawn from research question two, the advisor can focus on improving and exhibiting those behaviors preferred by their students and refining their skills as developmental advisors.

Research Question Five

The final research question examined the relationship between the findings of the original Teacher Behaviors Checklist (TBC) (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002) and the present instrument. Analysis for this research question was limited to observation because of lack of statistical tests available to compare differences between two instruments with different measurements.

In the TBC, the top 10 qualities/behaviors students felt were most important in excellent teachers were compared to those qualities/behaviors faculty felt were most important in teachers. When compared to the present instrument, analysis indicated

students felt that 5 of those top 10 qualities/behaviors important in excellent teaching were also important in excellent advising. The qualities/behaviors were: (a) Realistic Expectations/Fair, (b) Knowledgeable About the Topic, (c) Understanding, (d) Approachable/Personable, and (e) Encourages/Cares for Students. In addition, when comparing faculty in the original instrument to advisors in the present instrument, the two groups shared three of the top ten qualities/behaviors. Those qualities/behaviors were: (a) Knowledgeable About the Topic, (b) Approachable/Personable, and (c) Master/Effective Communicator.

These findings reinforce claims in literature that teaching and advising share the common function of facilitating student development by improving students' problem-solving and decision-making skills (Appleby, 2002; Crookston, 1972; Kramer, 1983). Furthermore, while the subject matter or context may be different, students in an advisor's office or teacher's classroom view each individual as possessing knowledge or expertise for which they are responsible for conveying to students. Considering the congruence between the qualities/behaviors students found important in teachers and those they found important in academic advisors, the value of interpersonal skill again emerges. This idea is supported by Ramsden (2003) who stated, "The emotional aspect of the teacher-student relationship is much more important than the traditional advice on methods and techniques of lecturing would suggest." (p. 74).

The findings of this research question underscore the notion that even when the student is primarily concerned with the teacher or advisor transferring information, the context created by that individual is equally important.

Limitations

This study was non-experimental in design with no treatment, therefore most of the common threats to internal validity are not applicable. However, there are several limitations to the study.

The first of which is the degree to which some students could accurately report a preference for qualities/behaviors based on limited experience with an academic advisor. This concern primarily arises with freshman students whose exposure to academic advisors is limited as they were surveyed in their first semester. In addition, some of the students surveyed are required to meet with an advisor at least one time per semester, while others have no requirements for meetings. Those students with greater experience interacting with advisors, either by virtue of year or college in which they are enrolled, may have different perceptions of what qualities/behaviors constitute an excellent advisor. This limitation could be improved by increasing the sample size, either by surveying the entire population of students at a university or incorporating several institutions.

Second, the composition of advisors is not diverse, with the sample being comprised of 77% female advisors and 23% male advisors. Additionally, the sample of advisors contained largely early-mid career advisors, with only 30% of the advisors in the sample having 11 or more years experience advising. And while 77% (n = 50) of the advisors at the surveyed institution participated in the study, incorporating several institutions could have mitigated this limitation.

Lastly, the findings of this study may not be generalizable to other populations. As the study was conducted at a large, public institution in the Southeast that is

predominately Caucasian, the results may only reflect the beliefs of this sample and may be very different at other institutions. And while the years of the students were evenly distributed, 54% (n = 195) of the students were enrolled in business or professional programs compared to 29% (n = 105) enrolled in STEM programs, and 17% (n = 60) enrolled in social science programs. With varying advising systems and student characteristics potentially impacting student preferences, others wishing to apply these findings should first consider any differences in their own populations.

Implications for Practice

This study demonstrated that students and advisors hold the same opinions of what qualities and behaviors are important for an advisor to possess when interacting with students. Advisors should be aware that not only is the information they provide to students important, but the manner in which they provide it and the environment they create for their students are of equal importance.

In light of these findings, institutions and advising offices should first examine their goals and objectives for what they want to accomplish through academic advising. A near-universal dilemma voiced by advisors is the time required to manage a large load of students and the subsequent amount of administrative tasks that seem to require a more prescriptive advising approach and make developmental practices less likely. By focusing on stated goals and objectives, institutions and advisors can determine how to best allocate time and resources to that individual student so his or her needs can be met. This may be as simple as restructuring the expected time advisors spend with students, so that students with common questions have the same amount of time with advisors as those students who have specific questions or problems needing more attention and

resources external to academic advising. This may also be as difficult as hiring new staff to accommodate needs from a large student population so that the former can be accomplished.

Encouraging to advisors, regardless of individual workload, are the nature of the findings of this study highlighting the importance of interpersonal skill. Whether it is a highly self-directed and talented student who needs little assistance or a freshman struggling academically and socially with the transition to college, all institutions and advisors can commit to enhancing advisors' interactions with students, particularly through incorporation of interpersonal skills. Schunk, Pintrich, and Meech (2008) showed how teachers trained in effective instructional practices are more successful at engaging students and raising their achievement than untrained teachers. Colleges and universities often provide this training for instructors and considering the relationship between advising and teaching, similar professional development opportunities should be made available to academic advisors. Properly trained, the advisor who is approachable, communicates effectively, and is knowledgeable requires no more time with their students than the advisor lacking those qualities. Development of a curriculum based on the top seven qualities/behaviors could further tailor the training to the needs of advisors.

In addition to training that helps advisors develop interpersonal skills, advisors should be well-informed of student development theory such as Perry, Chickering, and Tinto as it is applicable to every student they encounter. By understanding the signs indicating where a student may, or should, be developmentally, and the subsequent implications for both them and the student, an advisor can more appropriately respond and guide the student. For example, the advisor who recognizes a student in Perry's

(1970, 1981) position of multiplicity, understands the student is not challenging their knowledge or authority, rather they are likely transitioning to a point where they require more evidence and critical consideration of information in decision-making. The trained and aware advisor can support this development through interpersonal skills such as actively listening, effectively communicating, and encouraging.

Finally, a curriculum for training advisors based on the 7

Recommendations for Future Research

First, while this study shows congruence between student and advisor preference for qualities/behaviors of academic advisors, further examination of how preference influences advising satisfaction is necessary. More specifically, if demonstration of the stated qualities/behaviors leads to greater advising satisfaction than the accomplishment of goals or meeting of student needs.

Second, part and parcel with the matter of student satisfaction is the question of the degree to which students view academic advising as a function instead of a service and how they define the student/advisor relationship. When operating within the framework of academic advising as a task that must be accomplished instead of a service providing numerous benefits, students and advisors may construct their relationship and expectations differently, thus influencing outcomes of the interaction.

Finally, additional research with a larger sample of students should be conducted to determine how a student's developmental level, or year in college, influences their preference for qualities/behaviors. Several qualities/behaviors (e.g. "knowledgeable" in the freshman and sophomore years) may have reached significance with a larger sample.

Third, additional research into the relationship between teaching and academic

advising should be conducted. Not only would this strengthen the case for advising's inclusion in the instructional mission of institutions, it would provide greater clarity on the role and responsibility of advising within higher education. Moreover, given the abundant research and resources available to help teachers improve their instruction in the classroom, solidifying the connection between these two disciplines would provide advisors a larger body of research-based resources and professional development opportunities.

Summary

A wealth of research consistently points to quality academic advising as essential to student success and effective institutional retention efforts (Drake, 2011; Hunter & White, 2004; Habley, 2003; Tinto, 1987; 1999). Thus, academic advising is a critical component of not only the success of individual students and institutions, but also the larger mission of American higher education. Understanding what qualities and behaviors students feel are most important for an advisor to demonstrate is the first step in fostering a relationship that is gratifying to each party as both an interaction and productive educational activity.

This study attempted to determine those qualities/behaviors valued by undergraduate students in their academic advisors as well as those qualities/behaviors valued by academic advisors using a modified version of the Teacher Behaviors Checklist (TBC), (Buskist., Sikorski, Buckley, & Saville, 2002). In particular, this study examined changes in preference for those qualities/behaviors change over time or are different for students and advisors; if they vary according to gender of the student; and if any relationship existed between the findings of the original TBC and

the present instrument. Results show that while student and advisor characteristics such as year in school, gender, or years of experience advising do not influence preference for qualities/behaviors, students and advisors agreed on the top seven out of twenty-eight qualities/behaviors. This finding is significant. Furthermore, results also showed that similarities exist in student value of certain qualities/behaviors in faculty and advisors as well as faculty and advisor value of certain qualities/behaviors in their respective professions. Not only do students and advisors place importance on the many of the same behaviors but also at a minimum, there are elements of teaching and advising that are viewed similarly.

Therefore, it is important advisors create environments that are viewed by students as positive and by institutions as part of a collaborative learning process. Institutions should seek to develop advisors who are not only proficient in the technical or administrative aspects of their job, but capable of interacting with students on a more profound and personal level. By pursuing this type of relationship with their students, advisors place themselves in an instrumental position for positive student growth and development reaching far beyond the confines of a college or university.

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APPENDIX A:

IRB APPROVAL FORM

AUBURN UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD for RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

RESEARCH PROTOCOL REVIEW FORM

For Information or help contact **THE OFFICE OF RESEARCH COMPLIANCE**, 115 Ramsay Hall, Auburn University
Phone: 334-844-5966 **e-mail:** hsubjec@auburn.edu **Web Address:** http://www.auburn.edu/research/vpr/ohs/

Revised 03.26.11 – DO NOT STAPLE, CLIP TOGETHER ONLY.

Save a Copy

1. PROPOSED START DATE of STUDY: Oct 28, 2013

PROPOSED REVIEW CATEGORY (Check one): FULL BOARD ✓ EXPEDITED EXEMPT

2. PROJECT TITLE: The Advising Behaviors Checklist

Jake Williamson	Doctoral Candidate	EFLT	(334)844-7891	willijt@auburn.edu
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR	**TITLE**	**DEPT**	**PHONE**	**AU E-MAIL**

405 W. Magnolia Ave, Auburn University, AL 36849	(334)844-4861	williamson.jaket@gmail.com
MAILING ADDRESS	**FAX**	**ALTERNATE E-MAIL**

4. SOURCE OF FUNDING SUPPORT: ✓ Not Applicable — Internal — External Agency:_____ Pending Received

5. LIST ANY CONTRACTORS, SUB-CONTRACTORS, OTHER ENTITIES OR IRBs ASSOCIATED WITH THIS PROJECT:

6. GENERAL RESEARCH PROJECT CHARACTERISTICS

6A. Mandatory CITI Training

Names of key personnel who have completed CITI:
Jake Williamson ✓
Dr. David DiRamio ✓

CITI group completed for this study:
✓ Social/Behavioral Biomedical

PLEASE ATTACH TO HARD COPY *ALL* CITI CERTIFICATES FOR *EACH* KEY PERSONNEL

6B. Research Methodology

Please check all descriptors that best apply to the research methodology.

Data Source(s): ✓ New Data Existing Data
Will recorded data directly or indirectly identify participants? Yes ✓ No
Data collection will involve the use of:
- Educational Tests (cognitive diagnostic, aptitude, etc.)
- Interview / Observation
- Physical / Physiological Measures or Specimens (see Section 6D)
- ✓ Surveys / Questionnaires
- ✓ Internet / Electronic
- Audio / Video / Photos
- Private records or files

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from 11/3/13 to 11/2/14
Protocol # 13-346 EX 1311

6C. Participant Information

Please check all descriptors that apply to the participant population.
✓ Males ✓ Females ✓ AU students
Vulnerable Populations
Pregnant Women/Fetuses — Prisoners
✓ Children and/or Adolescents (under age 19 in AL)
Persons with:
Economic Disadvantages Physical Disabilities
Educational Disadvantages Intellectual Disabilities
Do you plan to compensate your participants? — Yes ✓ No

6D. Risks to Participants

Please identify all risks that participants might encounter in this research.
Breach of Confidentiality* Coercion
Deception Physical
Psychological Social
✓ None Other:

Received
OCT 07 2013
Research Ethics

*Note that if the investigator is using or accessing confidential or identifiable data, breach of confidentiality is always a risk.

Do you need IBC Approval for this study? ✓ No Yes - BUA #_____ **Expiration date** _____

FOR OHSR OFFICE USE ONLY

DATE RECEIVED IN OHSR: 10.7.13 by GB
DATE OF IRB REVIEW: 11/3/13 by CC
DATE OF IRB APPROVAL: _____ by _____
COMMENTS:

PROTOCOL # 13.346 EX 1311
APPROVAL CATEGORY: 45CFR 46.101(b)(2)
INTERVAL FOR CONTINUING REVIEW: 3 years

APPENDIX B:

STUDENT INFORMATION LETTER

EDUCATIONAL
FOUNDATIONS,
LEADERSHIP,
AND TECHNOLOGY

AUBURN UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

INFORMATION LETTER
for a research study entitled:
"The Advising Behaviors Checklist"

You are invited to participate in a research study to better understand what exactly are the important behaviors and qualities for an academic advisor to possess in order to have a meaningful interaction with their students.

The study is being conducted by Jake Williamson, a doctoral candidate, under the direction of Dr. David DiRamio, Associate Professor, in the Auburn University Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology. You have been selected for participation because you are an undergraduate student at Auburn University.

What will be involved if you participate? You participation in this study is completely voluntary and involves completing a brief online survey that will take **approximately 5 minutes**. The survey is completely anonymous and any information submitted will be unidentifiable. The data collected will be used report findings in a dissertation.

Are there any risks of discomforts? Please do not feel obligated to participate as your participation is completely voluntary and anonymous. The benefit of this research is that the results will be used to assist academic advisors and campus administrators better serve the needs of students on campus.

If you change your mind about participating, you can withdraw at any time by closing your browser window. Your participation is completely voluntary. However, if you choose to withdraw, your data cannot be withdrawn as long since it is unidentifiable. Your decision about whether or not to participate or to stop participating will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University, or the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Jake Williamson at (334)844-7891 or e-mail willijt@auburn.edu. 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 at (334)844-5966 or e-mail at hsubjec@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION ABOVE, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, PLEASE CLICK ON THE LINK BELOW. YOU MAY PRINT A COPY OF THIS LETTER FOR YOUR RECORDS.

10/3/13
Investigator Date

JAKE WILLIAMSON 10/3/13
Printed Name Date

Please add this approval information
in sentence form to this letter.
Send the updated letter,with a live link,
to the IRB.

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from _____ to _____. Protocol #_____

LINK TO SURVEY

The Auburn University Institutional
Review Board has approved this
document for use from
11/3/13 to 11/3/14
Protocol # 13-346 EX 1311

4036 Haley Center, Auburn, AL 36849-5221; Telephone: 334-844-4460; Fax: 334-844-3072
www.auburn.edu/cflt

APPENDIX C:

ADVISOR INFORMATION LETTER

EDUCATIONAL
FOUNDATIONS,
LEADERSHIP,
AND TECHNOLOGY

AUBURN UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

INFORMATION LETTER
for a research study entitled:
"The Advising Behaviors Checklist"

You are invited to participate in a research study to better understand what exactly are the important behaviors and qualities for an academic advisor to possess in order to have a meaningful interaction with their students.

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HAVING READ THE INFORMATION ABOVE, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, PLEASE CLICK ON THE LINK BELOW. YOU MAY PRINT A COPY OF THIS LETTER FOR YOUR RECORDS.

10/3/13
Investigator Date

JAKE WILLIAMSON 10/3/13
Printed Name Date

Please add this approval information in sentence form to this letter.
Send the updated letter,with a live link, to the IRB.

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from _____ to _____. Protocol #_____

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from 11/3/13 to 11/2/14 Protocol # 13-346 EX 1311

LINK TO SURVEY

4036 Haley Center, Auburn, AL 36849-5221; Telephone: 334-844-4460; Fax: 334-844-3072
www.auburn.edu/eflt

APPENDIX D:

ADVISING BEHAVIORS CHECKLIST SURVEY FOR STUDENTS

Q1. Please select your gender.

- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

Q2. Please select your college.

- ❍ College of Agriculture (1)
- ❍ College of Architecture, Design and Construction (2)
- ❍ Raymond J. Harbert College of Business (3)
- ❍ College of Education (4)
- ❍ Samuel Ginn College of Engineering (5)
- ❍ School of Forestry and Wildlife Science (6)
- ❍ College of Human Sciences (7)
- ❍ College of Liberal Arts (8)
- ❍ School of Nursing (9)
- ❍ College of Science and Mathematics (10)

Q3. Please select your year.

- ❍ Freshman (1)
- ❍ Sophomore (2)
- ❍ Junior (3)
- ❍ Senior (4)

Q5. Please select the 10 qualities/behaviors that are most important to "excellent advising" at the college level. An excellent advisor can be thought of as an individual who is highly effective as an academic advisor—think of the best advisors you know. Select the "top 10 qualities/behaviors" by clicking in the circle to the immediate left of the descriptions given for these qualities/behaviors. Please do not check fewer than, or more than, 10 qualities/behaviors.

- ❍ 1. Accessible: Posts office hours, gives phone number and e-mail address (1)
- ❍ 2. Approachable/Personable: Smiles, greets students, initiates conversations, invites questions, responds respectfully to student comments (2)
- ❍ 3. Authoritative: Establishes clear meeting rules, maintains order (3)

- 4. Confident: Speaks clearly, makes eye contact, and answers questions correctly (4)
- 5. Creative/Interesting: Experiments with advising methods; uses technology to enhance meetings; uses interesting, relevant and personal examples (5)
- 6. Effective communicator: Speaks clearly, uses precise English, gives clear, compelling examples (6)
- 7. Encourages/cares for students: Provides praise for good student work, helps students who need it, knows student names (7)
- 8. Enthusiastic about advising: Smiles during meetings, uses gestures and expressions of emotion to emphasize important points (8)
- 9. Establishes goals: Prepares and follows a plan, outlines goals for each meeting at beginning (9)
- 10. Flexible/open minded: Changes meetings times when necessary, will meet at times outside of office hours, pays attention to students' opinions, accepts criticism (10)
- 11. Good listener: Does not interrupt students while they talk, maintains eye contact, replies respectfully to student comments, asks questions in response to students (11)
- 12. Happy/positive/humorous: Smiles, tells jokes and funny stories, laughs with students (12)
- 13. Humble: Admits mistakes, never brags, does not take credit for others' successes (13)
- 14. Knowledgeable about topic: Easily answers questions, uses clear and understandable examples (14)
- 15. Prepared: Brings necessary materials to meetings, is ready for meeting upon arrival, presents relevant information in meetings (15)
- 16. Presents Current Information: Provides up to date and/or current information about courses, instructors, career prospects, job outlook, etc. (16)
- 17. Professional: Dresses nicely (neat and clean shoes, slacks, blouses, dresses, shirts, ties), no profanity (17)
- 18. Promotes discussion: Asks difficult or challenging questions during meetings, encourages participation and interaction during meetings (18)
- 19. Promotes critical thinking: Asks thoughtful questions during meetings, allows student to evaluate pros and cons and make decisions based on discussion and information (19)
- 20. Provides constructive feedback: Answers students' questions, seeks to understand and give advice on areas in need of improvement and gives provides confirmation of positive development, praises student success (20)
- 21. Manages time well: Arrives to meeting on time/early, ensures meeting time is appropriate, leaves time for questions, keeps appointments, responds to emails in a reasonable amount of time (21)

- 22. Rapport: Makes students laugh through jokes and funny stories, initiates and maintains discussions, knows students names, interacts with students outside of meeting times (22)
- 23. Realistic Expectations: Has realistic expectations of students ability to manage advised courseload, shows awareness of the students level of understanding and knowledge (23)
- 24. Respectful: Does not humiliate or embarrass students in class, is polite to students, does not interrupt students while they are talking, does not talk down to students (24)
- 25. Sensitive/Persistent: Makes sure students understand what is taking place during meeting before moving on, repeats information when necessary, asks questions to check student understanding (25)
- 26. Strives to be a better advisor: Requests feedback on his/her advising ability from students, continues learning (26)
- 27. Technologically competent: Knows how to use a computer, knows how to use e-mail, knows how to use current software such as DegreeWorks (27)
- 28. Understanding: Accepts legitimate excuses for missing appointments, is available to answer questions, does not lose temper at students, takes extra time to discuss problems or concerns

APPENDIX E:

ADVISING BEHAVIORS CHECKLIST SURVEY FOR ADVISORS

Q1. Please select your gender.

- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

Q2. Please select your college or area.

- ❍ College of Agriculture (1)
- ❍ College of Architecture, Design and Construction (2)
- ❍ Raymond J. Harbert College of Business (3)
- ❍ College of Education (4)
- ❍ Samuel Ginn College of Engineering (5)
- ❍ School of Forestry and Wildlife Science (6)
- ❍ College of Human Sciences (7)
- ❍ College of Liberal Arts (8)
- ❍ School of Nursing (9)
- ❍ College of Science and Mathematics (10)
- ❍ Interdisciplinary Studies/Cater Center (11)
- ❍ Honors College (12)
- ❍ Student Athlete Support Services (13)

Q3. Please enter the number of years you have been in an academic advising role.

Q5. Please select the 10 qualities/behaviors that are most important to "excellent advising" at the college level. An excellent advisor can be thought of as an individual who is highly effective as an academic advisor—think of the best advisors you know. Select the "top 10 qualities/behaviors" by clicking in the circle to the immediate left of the descriptions given for these qualities/behaviors. Please do not check fewer than, or more than, 10 qualities/behaviors.

- ❍ 1. Accessible: Posts office hours, gives phone number and e-mail address (1)
- ❍ 2. Approachable/Personable: Smiles, greets students, initiates conversations, invites questions, responds respectfully to student comments (2)
- ❍ 3. Authoritative: Establishes clear meeting rules, maintains order (3)
- ❍ 4. Confident: Speaks clearly, makes eye contact, and answers questions correctly (4)

- 5. Creative/Interesting: Experiments with advising methods; uses technology to enhance meetings; uses interesting, relevant and personal examples (5)
- 6. Effective communicator: Speaks clearly, uses precise English, gives clear, compelling examples (6)
- 7. Encourages/cares for students: Provides praise for good student work, helps students who need it, knows student names (7)
- 8. Enthusiastic about advising: Smiles during meetings, uses gestures and expressions of emotion to emphasize important points (8)
- 9. Establishes goals: Prepares and follows a plan, outlines goals for each meeting at beginning (9)
- 10. Flexible/open minded: Changes meetings times when necessary, will meet at times outside of office hours, pays attention to students' opinions, accepts criticism (10)
- 11. Good listener: Does not interrupt students while they talk, maintains eye contact, replies respectfully to student comments, asks questions in response to students (11)
- 12. Happy/positive/humorous: Smiles, tells jokes and funny stories, laughs with students (12)
- 13. Humble: Admits mistakes, never brags, does not take credit for others' successes (13)
- 14. Knowledgeable about topic: Easily answers questions, uses clear and understandable examples (14)
- 15. Prepared: Brings necessary materials to meetings, is ready for meeting upon arrival, presents relevant information in meetings (15)
- 16. Presents Current Information: Provides up to date and/or current information about courses, instructors, career prospects, job outlook, etc. (16)
- 17. Professional: Dresses nicely (neat and clean shoes, slacks, blouses, dresses, shirts, ties), no profanity (17)
- 18. Promotes discussion: Asks difficult or challenging questions during meetings, encourages participation and interaction during meetings (18)
- 19. Promotes critical thinking: Asks thoughtful questions during meetings, allows student to evaluate pros and cons and make decisions based on discussion and information (19)
- 20. Provides constructive feedback: Answers students' questions, seeks to understand and give advice on areas in need of improvement and gives provides confirmation of positive development, praises student success (20)
- 21. Manages time well: Arrives to meeting on time/early, ensures meeting time is appropriate, leaves time for questions, keeps appointments, responds to emails in a reasonable amount of time (21)
- 22. Rapport: Makes students laugh through jokes and funny stories, initiates and maintains discussions, knows students names, interacts with students outside of meeting times (22)

- 23. Realistic Expectations: Has realistic expectations of students ability to manage advised courseload, shows awareness of the students level of understanding and knowledge (23)
- 24. Respectful: Does not humiliate or embarrass students in class, is polite to students, does not interrupt students while they are talking, does not talk down to students (24)
- 25. Sensitive/Persistent: Makes sure students understand what is taking place during meeting before moving on, repeats information when necessary, asks questions to check student understanding (25)
- 26. Strives to be a better advisor: Requests feedback on his/her advising ability from students, continues learning (26)
- 27. Technologically competent: Knows how to use a computer, knows how to use e-mail, knows how to use current software such as DegreeWorks (27)
- 28. Understanding: Accepts legitimate excuses for missing appointments, is available to answer questions, does not lose temper at students, takes extra time to discuss problems or concerns

APPENDIX F:

ORIGINAL TEACHER BEHAVIORS CHECKLIST

The Teaching Behaviors Checklist (Buskist et al., 2002)
The 28 Qualities and Behaviors as Derived from Undergraduates

Quality	*Behaviors*
1. Accessible	Posts office hours, gives phone number and e-mail address
2. Approachable/Personable	Smiles, greets students, initiates conversations, invites questions, responds respectfully to student comments
3. Authoritative	Establishes clear course rules, maintains classroom order
4. Confident	Speaks loudly, makes eye contact, and answers questions correctly
5. Creative/Interesting	Experiments with teaching methods; uses technological devices to enhance lectures; uses interesting, relevant and personal examples
6. Effective communicator	Speaks clearly, uses precise English, gives clear, compelling examples
7. Encourages/cares for students	Provides praise for good student work, helps students who need it, offers bonus points/extra credit, knows student names
8. Enthusiastic about teaching	Smiles during class, prepares interesting class activities, uses gestures and expressions of emotion to emphasize important points
9. Establishes goals	Prepares and follows a syllabus, outlines goals for each class meeting at beginning of period
10. Flexible/open minded	Changes calendar of course events when necessary, will meet at times outside of office hours, pays attention to students' opinions, accepts criticism, allows students to do make up work when appropriate
11. Good listener	Does not interrupt students while they talk, maintains eye contact, replies respectfully to student comments, asks questions about points students make
12. Happy/positive/humorous	Smiles, tells jokes and funny stories, laughs with students
13. Humble	Admits mistakes, never brags, does not take credit for others' successes
14. Knowledgeable about topic	Easily answers students' questions, does not read straight from book or notes, uses clear and understandable examples
15. Prepared	Brings necessary materials to class, provides outlines of class discussion

16. Presents current information	Relates topic to current, real life situations; uses recent videos, magazines, newspapers to highlight points
17. Professional	Dresses nicely (neat and clean shoes, slacks, blouses, dresses, shirts, ties), no profanity
18. Promotes class discussion	Asks controversial or challenging questions during class, gives points for class participation, involves students in group activities during class
19. Promotes critical thinking	Asks thoughtful questions during class, uses essay questions on tests and quizzes, assigns homework, holds group discussions/activities
20. Provides constructive feedback	Writes comments on returned work, answers students' questions, gives advice on test-taking
21. Manages class time	Arrives to class on time/early, dismisses class on time, presents relevant materials in class, leaves time for questions, keeps appointments, returns work in a timely way
22. Rapport	Makes class laugh through jokes and funny stories, initiates and maintains class discussions, knows students names, interacts with students before and after class
23. Realistic Expectations	Covers material to be tested during class, writes relevant test questions, does not overload students with reading, teaches at an appropriate level for the majority of students in the course, curves grades when appropriate, provides extra credit work
24. Respectful	Does not humiliate or embarrass students in class, is polite, to students, does not interrupt students while they are talking, does not talk down to students
25. Sensitive/persistent	Makes sure students understand material before moving to new material, holds extra study session, repeats information when necessary, asks questions to check student understanding
26. Strives to be a better teacher	Requests feedback on his/her teaching ability from students, continues learning
27. Technologically competent	Knows how to use a computer, knows how to use e-mail, knows how to use overheads during class, has a Web page for classes
28. Understanding	Accepts legitimate excuses for missing class or coursework, is available to answer questions, does not lose temper at students, takes extra time to discuss difficult concepts

The Teaching Behaviors Checklist (Buskist et al., 2002)
Comparison of Student and Faculty Ratings of the 28 Qualities/Behaviors

	Students			*Faculty*		
Quality/Behavior Category	*n*	*%*	*Rank*	*n*	*%*	*rank*
Realistic Expectations/Fair	587	64	1	55	47	9
Knowledgeable About Topic	558	61	2	107	91	1
Understanding	554	60	3	27	23	21
Approachable/Personable	543	59	4	62	53	5
Respectful	488	53	5	59	50	7
Creative/Interesting	469	51	6	58	49	8
Happy/Positive/Humorous	453	49	7	7	6	27
Encourages/Cares for Students	452	49	8	44	37	12
Flexible/Open Minded	450	49	9	43	36	13
Enthusiastic About Teaching	448	49	10	86	73	2
Rapport	387	42	11	8	7	26
Accessible	358	42	12	48	41	11
Provides Constructive Feedback	349	38	13	40	34	14
Sensitive/Persistent	347	38	14	25	21	22
Master Communicator	323	35	15	61	52	6
Confident	310	34	16	34	29	17
Strives to be a Better Teacher	268	29	17	39	33	15
Good Listener	244	27	18	31	26	20
Promotes Class Discussion	225	25	19	35	30	16
Prepared	208	23	20	72	61	4
Humble	179	20	21	7	6	27
Presents Current Information	166	18	23.5	55	47	9
Manages Class Time	165	18	23.5	33	28	18
Promotes Critical Thinking	164	18	23.5	75	64	3
Authoritative	145	16	26	22	19	23
Technologically Competent	79	9	27	13	11	24
Professional	76	8	28	12	10	25
Establishes Goals	165	165	23.5	32	27	19