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We suggest that the overall text be referenced in this fashion:


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Our Contributors
Introduction

Despite the fact that the United States was for a long time an internationally recognized model for accessible, affordable education, fewer than 60 percent of the students who enroll in an American university today actually graduate (Bowen, Chingos & McPherson, 2011), and most of those who do graduate, take more than four years to reach that goal. This has become a much-discussed issue in American society and American colleges and universities are struggling to improve their four-year graduation rate. One key to solving this problem is academic advising. Academic Advising provides the opportunity for faculty and/or staff to exchange information designed to help students reach their educational and career goals in the most efficient, cost-effective manner possible.

Advising is a shared responsibility between an adviser and the student, although the final responsibility for making decisions about his or her life goals rests with the student. Advisors can assist students by helping them to understand their academic options, determine the resources needed to meet their goals and identify alternatives to unrealistic expectations.

While the process of advising students has been present in some shape or form since the beginning of higher education in America, formal academic advising can be traced to 1841, when Kenyon College President David Douglass required students to select a faculty member as an adviser (Gillispie, 2003; Harrison, 2009). However, in recent years, academic advising has become much more prominent on most college campuses and given increased responsibility for the development of students.

Without much in the way of formal training, most academic advisors are expected to help students make practical academic plans and decisions, discover a range of options available to them, and to consider the consequences of their choices (Lowe & Toney, 2000). In addition, academic advisors are often the source of accurate information about policies, procedures, and requirements as well as providing an understanding of the rationale and potential of a liberal arts education. Finally, advisors often act as advocates for students, knowing when it is appropriate to refer students to other University resources and services and helping the students to create positive working relationships with faculty and staff at their institution.

Purpose of the Book

Academic Advising is an on-going, intentional, educational partnership that can play a crucial role in students’ academic success. To accomplish this, advisors are required to provide students with information and resources that will facilitate their sense of direction in planning for and/or identifying academic careers and programs of study. After completing their BA/BS degrees, psychology majors have a considerable number of areas in which to specialize. In addition many advisors extend assistance to a diverse student population, including traditional
and nontraditional students, first-generation students, students “at-risk”, honor’s students, international students, etc.

This handbook consists of two volumes. In this volume there are chapters that are intended to provide the reader with ideas on how to organize the advising process, advising students with a wide range of special needs, using the advising process to promote both curricular and extra-curricular activities, what to say in an advising session, and how to assess advising. In Volume 2, the chapters provide advisors and students with information about how to prepare for a career in one of the many sub-fields of psychology.

Organization of the book
This book is intended to serve as a reference tool for advisers in psychology as well as students in the discipline. In this volume, the focus is on (a) different models that can be used to provide student advising, e.g., doing advising online; (b) advising different types of students, e.g., international students; (c) topics that should be addressed during advising, e.g., choosing a minor; and (d) addressing different issues in advising, e.g., advising assessment. Each chapter will include best practices, data when available, and other information relevant to different aspects of advising.

In the companion volume to this book, each chapter will address the most critical questions (and answers of course!) that students interested in pursuing the various sub-fields of psychology may have. Because we all specialize in this discipline, we often do not know those questions (or their answers) for sub-fields other than our own; however, our advisees often have interests that span the discipline and beyond. Thus, Volume 2 of this Handbook is unique in that experts in advising and experts within each sub-field have contributed to the chapters.

Section 1: Models of Advising
The Handbook leads off with a chapter by Kenn Barron and Darcey Powell who present different options on how psychology departments can organize and structure advising services. First, they offer an introduction to general models of advising that appear in the advising literature. Then, they provide an alternative approach focused on Who, Where, What, When, and How, which will prompt readers to consider a greater range of options depending on the answers to each question. Throughout the chapter, they also include key references to learn more about different models that are introduced.

For a second look at ways to organize advising, Chapter 2 by Pam MacDonald and Bob Aman describes some common departmental models for advising and discuss how Emporia State University implements the different models with their students. The models of advising covered in this chapter include Student Initiated Advising, Shared Advising (all faculty members in a department share the advising load), Centralized Advising (such as a student advising center) and Intrusive Advising. Intrusive Advising is the preferred method for the Psychology
Department at Emporia State and involves a shared decision making process between the advisor and the student being advised. In Intrusive Advising, the advisor asks questions about all areas of the student’s life and attempts to advise and assist with potential problems before they interfere with academics, such as discussing outside jobs, work load, number of hours the student can handle, and referrals to the campus counseling center when appropriate.

Dawson and Robertson focus on the advantageous and ease of use of creating audio and video podcasts for students to access in order to better understand the major and their potential vocational choices after attaining their bachelor’s degree. Data is presented that reflects the significant learning gains in these areas that undergraduate psychology majors made after being exposed to the podcast. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the long-term benefits for both faculty and students of creating the podcasts. Among these are the potential to allow students to be refreshed on the academic advising material at their leisure and the potential to answer many simple questions prior to meeting face-to-face with advisees thus allowing for a richer and more rewarding advisement session.

In their chapter entitled The Online Advisor: Purpose, Process, and Potential, Catya von Karolyi and Jeffrey Goodman discuss the role of an online advisor, as well as some of the ideas and information derived from empirical and theoretical literature. This is followed by a discussion of (a) the purpose of an online advisor, (b) what content might be included, and (c) the processes involved in delivering advising information to undergraduate college students. The chapter ends with their speculations regarding possible future directions of online or “e-advising.”

**Section 2: Types of Advisees**

In this section, the authors provide advice on how to work with a wide variety of students. To begin, Kenn Barron summarizes key lessons that he’s learned serving in the role of a freshman advisor for 10 years. His lessons learned are presented as a series of 10 tips, along with relevant references to highlight specific advising research and scholarship for additional information. He also shares example activities or strategies that he has effectively used with his freshman advisees to promote particular tips.

Good face-to-face advising is considered by some to be the single most important characteristic of a successful college experience. But deciding students are a category of students that provides special challenges for the advisor. Bill Wozniak’s chapter reviews some of the demands placed on those students by their parents, by their advisors, and by themselves as they struggle with the choice of their major. Some models for advising deciders are discussed, including the student’s decision-making style, a this-is-how-I-did-it approach, a “hands-off” natural selection approach, a psychometric approach of finding the “correct” major, and a supportive scaffolding approach. There is no single straightforward recipe for advising deciders, but it certainly includes a healthy amount of non-judgmental, supportive listening.
Amber Esping, Robin Melton, and Esmeralda Hernández-Gómez provide guidance for faculty who advise first-generation college students with aspirations to study psychology in graduate school. These three chapter authors are (or were at one time) among the first in their families to attend college. They approach the topic from three perspectives: the faculty advisor, the staff advisor, and the current undergraduate advisee. These combined first-person perspectives triangulate their discussion of best practices in the literature. The authors focus on definitional issues (who is a first-generation student?), encouraging disclosure, developing empathy, academic trouble-shooting, and providing concrete direction for day-to-day functioning in college. The unique role of family expectations, and special considerations when choosing graduate schools are also emphasized.

In their chapter on advising “at-risk” students, Paul Smith and Mikki Ray examine two issues related to academic advising these students. The first issue is the extent to which the psychological literature suggests novel ways to advise these students. The authors suggest shifting the focus from external risk factors to internal efficacy beliefs. They discuss ways that advisors can help students to adopt an incremental theory of intelligence. The second issue is the extent to which "at-risk" status presents special advising problems for psychology majors. Smith and Ray discuss psychology departments' responsibility to inform students of potential issues and solutions.

For help in advising students with disabilities, Christine M. Nowik provides practical advice for working with these students, including the increasing population of disabled veterans. A summary of the relevant federal guidelines provides a framework for advisors’ roles in supporting students with disabilities, including a list of potential discussion points designed to uncover perceived or hidden barriers to student success. Students with disabilities are often considered an invisible minority on campus, and advisors can serve as a resource to help mitigate roadblocks for both current and future students.

B. Jean Mandernach, Ted Cross and Shanna Huslig highlight the vital role of academic advising in supporting the success of nontraditional students. The unique practical, psychological and professional needs of adult learners mandates dedicated advising that is adapted to the goals, needs and lifestyles of this student population. The authors recommend tailoring academic advising for nontraditional students to: proactively foster awareness of university processes and resources; assist nontraditional students in understanding the culture of the university; provide emotional support to foster engagement; tailor academic opportunities in recognition of learners’ professional experience; and provide flexibility in the scheduling and delivery of academic advising.

Advising International students by Wyatt Hoback and Rick Miller, provides a summary of the governmental regulations that affect international students, cultural differences between many
international students and the average American student, the language difficulties that international students may encounter as well as several academic challenges that an advisor may need to help the student understand. The chapter closes with practical suggestions for those who advise international students and a summary of the Appreciative Advising approach.

Advice on advising online students is provided by Ted Cross, Jean Mandernach, and Shanna Huslig, who discuss the unique challenges of advising the virtual student. From higher attrition rates to time management, work/life balance, and technology issues--online students often face unique obstacles in successfully completing their program of study. The authors suggest adopting innovative advising models and focusing on proactive advising measures to help online students be more academically and personally successful.

When students transfer from one institution to the other, they often underestimate the amount of time and the degree of effort that goes into learning how their new institution works. The goal of Krista Forrest’s chapter is to assist faculty advisors by addressing unexpected concerns such as transfer students’ perceptions of isolation, frustration with the unfamiliar campus’ system for advising, registration and other processes as well as the transfer shock often associated with a student’s first semester at the new school. This chapter also offers advisors solutions for getting transfer students back on the path toward graduation.

For suggestions on advising seniors, Jeannetta Williams provides an approach to advising students in the final year of study that is grounded in the literature on Appreciative Advising. Senior students vary widely in terms of academic interests and career preparation. In addition to assisting students to complete their degree plans and making referrals to campus resources, advisors facilitate key conversations on identifying expectations and overcoming setbacks. The author focuses on ways for advisors to guide students’ successful transitions from college toward their academic and career goals.

Section 3: Topics to Address in Advising
For advice in discussing the importance of General Education courses for psychology majors, Heather Mitchell and Kim Kleinman address the core competencies necessary for responsible, global citizenship in the 21st century. The chapter briefly reviews empirical evidence supporting the role of metacognition in general education because metacognition, or thinking about one’s thinking, can be an extremely useful tool in an effort to promote student achievement. Additionally, this chapter considers 1) contributions that the psychology discipline offers general education and 2) benefits of general education to solve problems of the 21st century. Lastly, the chapter focuses on the current direction of general education as deemed by the American Association of Colleges and Universities and its Liberal Education and America’s Promise (LEAP) vision for learning and provides one university’s attempt to meet this vision.
In the chapter on Choosing a Minor, Rick Miller begins with a discussion of the value of the minor including career advantages and avocational interests. The chapter then outlines the bases for choosing a particular minor, including interest in the field, personal passion, minors that add depth or breadth to the psychology major, minors that help the student prepare for a job or future study and minors that allow the student to focus on a particular population of interest.

Drew Appleby provides information that can increase academic advisors’ ability to help job-seeking psychology majors develop not only the constellation of skills that employers value during the hiring process, but also the skill set they will need to survive and thrive in the jobs they can obtain with a bachelor’s degree. Its two major advantages over other similar publications are that it is research-based and it provides practical and actionable advice advisors can give undergraduates who plan to enter the workforce immediately after graduation. The major theme that permeates this chapter is that advisors should do everything in their power to convince advisees that the true purpose of an undergraduate education is not to race through the “overt curriculum” (i.e., their required classes) as quickly as possible to earn a diploma, but rather to take full advantage of the “covert curriculum” (i.e., the crucial life-long learning skills and work habits they can develop as they complete the overt curriculum) that will prepare them to accomplish their post-baccalaureate occupational aspirations in an increasingly competitive job market.

In their chapter on promoting student engagement outside of the classroom, Harnish, Bridges, and Karelitz provide readers with reasons why engagement through service-learning aids students in career planning and assists faculty in such advising activities. The authors argue that students’ engagement through service-learning helps the students clarify their values and identify their strengths and weaknesses so that informed career decisions can be made. Best practices are presented to illustrate how engagement through service-learning can be integrated into any college or university course.

Tara Ivie discusses the opportunity to advise students on available student services. While academics are the primary component of the collegiate experience, students are greatly benefited by services that increase connection to campus, commitment to their education, and provide necessary structure and support for specific or general needs. Student services vary broadly. This chapter attempts to include some fundamental and frequently occurring standards to increase the understanding and awareness of how to incorporate these resources into daily advising practices.

Undergraduate majors in psychology can choose among many different career paths, including clinical work, academic research, marketing, medicine, and many other disciplines. In their chapter, Balcetis, Granot and Cole describe the importance of participating in learning
communities, collaborative learning environments in which individuals may participate as both learners and teachers. These communities’ foster inclusion, empowerment, and enhanced skill acquisition. They discuss how post-baccalaureate research experience in learning communities prepares individuals for careers and graduate school, but can also help individuals discover which path is right for them. The authors suggest opportunities and present links to resources for learning communities in social, clinical and industrial-organizational psychology as well as medicine. These unique post-baccalaureate research experiences can open almost any door the motivated undergraduate psychology major seeks to pursue.

Section 4: Issues in Advising

In the chapter on Advising as Teaching, Alan Hughes discusses the many ways that advising is much like teaching. In drawing connections between advising and teaching Hughes illustrates that when done effectively, advising, like teaching, can facilitate student success. In his review, Hughes summarizes how developmental advising differs from prescriptive advising, with a particular emphasis on the advantages of developmental advising. Hughes also reviews faculty perceptions of advising and how often these perceptions negatively impact the willingness of faculty to take its importance seriously. As a way to mitigate these problems, Hughes outlines how advising is like teaching as well as explicates the many characteristics that both good advisors and good teachers have in common. Finally, he suggests making advising a formal part of faculty work by placing a stronger emphasis on it in promotion and tenure decisions.

In their chapter on student perspectives, Jeanne Butler, Blaine Peden and a group of students from the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire describe three studies of student perceptions of the advising process at their universities. Since the quality of academic advising can vary greatly from one university or college to another and from one department to another within the same organization, it is important to gather student input on whether the advising process is working and what changes might be needed to increase student success. The three complimentary studies asked for input from students at a variety of institutions; from the entire student body at University of Nebraska at Kearney (UNK); and from students in the Psychology Department at UNK. Data from all three studies were used to bring about needed changes in the advising process at the participating institutions.

In the chapter discussing what to talk about in the advising session, Tara Ivie and Jeanne Butler discuss the impact of advising on student success. They also suggest that it is important to know the best approach to use and the content to include in the sessions with students. The authors describe NSSE data collected from freshman, graduating seniors, and faculty at institutions across the country related to the topics each view as most important to include in advising sessions. Finally, a discussion of the results of a study conducted with students and faculty at University of Nebraska at Kearney provides additional insights into topics rated as
important to include in advising sessions. Of particular interest are the differences between faculty and students’ ratings of important topics.

Students often assume that becoming a part of the professional culture is an automatic process by attending classes, engaging in a practice or internship experience, receiving supervision; and graduating. However, more must occur for students to acculturate to the profession in an integrated way. In their chapter, Sharon Anderson and Jackie Peila-Shuster introduce the ethical acculturation model and its utility in expanding academic advising, and discuss and promote the notion of professional ethical identity as an end target of academic advising. The chapter concludes with a case study to demonstrate how the advisor can use the ethical acculturation model to enhance the advising process.

The importance of high quality advising on a myriad of educational outcomes coupled with the increasing focus on assessment in higher education means that advisors need to find ways to measure their successes and identify areas for development. Though the importance of assessment of academic advising is widely recognized, relatively few higher education institutions assess academic advising. In her chapter on assessment, Eleni Pinnow describes a variety of assessments for academic advising. These advising assessments include a variety of qualitative and quantitative assessments: advisor self-assessment; assessment by advisees; and peer assessment of advising. The goal of this chapter is to offer a variety of assessments options for advisors to help strengthen their practice.

Finally, Rick Miller’s chapter on Resources provides an annotated bibliography that is intended to assist advisors in obtaining the most useful information from books, journals and websites on a myriad of advising topics for various types of students, including career and graduate school advice for psychology majors. The type of information that can be obtained from each of the resources listed is described in some detail.

References


Harrison, E. (2009). Faculty perceptions of academic advising: “I don’t get no respect.” Nursing Education Perspectives, 30, 229-233.

Acknowledgments
We want to thank our authors for their generous and thoughtful contributions to the e-book. The authors have had firsthand experiences, and in their chapters they share their successes as well as the challenges in implementing and assessing a wide-range of programs, techniques and opportunities for advising students. Our goal is that the reader will be able to use this e-book in a very practical way to answer questions, generate ideas, and adapt the information to their special circumstances. I hope you will find that this book achieves its goal.

Richard L. Miller
Texas A&M University – Kingsville
August, 2014
Section 1: Models for Advising

1. Options on How to Organize and Structure Advising
   Kenneth E. Barron & Darcey N. Powell
2. Models of Advising
   Pamelyn M. MacDonald & M. Robert Aman
3. Podcasting and its Use in Academic and Career Advising
   Bryan Dawson & Chuck Robertson
4. The Online Advisor: Purpose, Process, and Potential
   Catya von Károlyi & Jeffrey A. Goodman
In the 1820s, the first known model for academic advising in American colleges and universities was introduced at Kenyon College in Ohio (Cook, 2001). Each student was assigned a faculty member who then served as that student’s formal academic advisor. Although once the dominant model for how to structure advising, only 1 in 6 campuses still adopt this approach (Carlstrom & Miller, 2013). Instead, a variety of options now exist in an attempt to improve or more creatively address the advising needs of students with available campus resources.

In the current chapter, we review different options on how to organize and structure advising. First, we offer an introduction to general models of advising that appear in the advising literature. Then, we provide an alternative approach focused on Who, Where, What, When, and How, which will prompt readers to consider a greater range of options depending on the answers to each question. Throughout the chapter, we also include key references to learn more about different models that are introduced.

**General Models for Organizing Advising**

One of the best resources about college advising is *Academic Advising: A Comprehensive Handbook* published by the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA). Chapters about organizational models for advising appear in both the first (Pardee, 2000) and second edition (M. C. King, 2008). Each begins with the work of Habley (1983), who outlined seven models on how advising services are organized on different campuses. Habley’s models were further grouped by Pardee (2004) into decentralized, centralized, or shared approaches. When decentralized, advising is coordinated by individual academic departments or academic sub-units (e.g., a school or college). When centralized, advising is coordinated by a single administrative unit on campus (e.g., an advising or counseling center). When shared, advising involves a combination of decentralized and centralized components for a hybrid approach.

Two of Habley’s (1983) advising models are considered decentralized approaches. In the faculty-only model, students are advised by a faculty member typically from the department that students are majoring in, while students without a declared major are either randomly assigned to an advisor or advised by faculty who specialize in working with undeclared students. In the satellite model, advising is provided through separate advising offices located within each academic subunit that advise all majors housed within that particular subunit. In
the most recent 2011 National Survey of Academic Advising conducted by American College Testing and NACADA (Carlstrom & Miller, 2013), the use of decentralized models is on the decline. Only 17% of campuses reported a faculty-only approach, down from 25% in the 2003 survey (Habley, 2004), and the satellite model was no longer reported as a major category, down from 7% in the 2003 survey.

Only one of Habley’s (1983) models is considered a centralized approach. In the self-contained model, a single campus-wide, administrative unit (e.g., an advising center or counseling center) coordinates and oversees all advising. Adoption of this model has dramatically increased. In the 2011 national advising survey, 29% of institutions used a self-contained model, up from 14% in the 2003 survey (Carlstrom & Miller, 2013; Habley, 2004).

Habley’s (1983) remaining four models are variations of shared approaches. In the dual model, students have two primary advisors. Departmental faculty advise students about their major, and a staff or professional advisor advises students about general-education and broader university policies and requirements. In the supplementary model, students are assigned to a departmental advisor who serves as their primary advisor, with a centralized advising office available for further support. In the total intake model, initial advising is conducted by a centralized advising office. However, once students meet particular criteria (e.g., the pre-requisites for a major), students transfer to an academic subunit for the remainder of their advising. Finally, in the split model, advising is divided between departmental advisors and a centralized advising office that assumes responsibility for only a subset of students (e.g., students who are undeclared or students who have not been formally admitted to their major). The use of particular shared models also has increased. In the 2011 national advising survey (Carlstrom & Miller, 2013), 39% of institutions adopted split models and 16% adopted total intake models, up from 27% and 6%, respectively, in the 2003 survey (Habley, 2004). In contrast, 14% used supplementary models and the dual model was no longer reported as a major category, down from 17% and 5% respectively in the 2003 survey (Carlstrom & Miller, 2013; Habley, 2004).

Which model is optimal for a given department or campus depends on a host of factors. Each possesses strengths and weaknesses that are reviewed in the above references. However, M. C. King (2008) offered insight into the benefits of shared models and why they may be growing in popularity:

Given the complexity of academic advising, it is probably unrealistic to expect any one group of people to be able to know and do it all. It is also important that there be sufficient personnel available to address students’ advising needs without unreasonable delay and to accomplish the mission and goal of the advising program. Sharing the advising responsibilities makes that more feasible. (p. 248)
Moving beyond a general investigation of what advising models occur on college campuses, Lunneborg and Baker (1986) conducted a national survey to investigate advising models adopted specifically by undergraduate psychology departments. Using slightly different categories than Habley (1983), they found that 55% of departments adopted an all faculty model where all student advising was handled by faculty in the department; 32% adopted a part faculty model where a campus-wide advising office advised pre-majors and psychology faculty advised majors; and 13% adopted a no faculty model in which pre-majors were advised by a campus-wide advising office and majors were advised in a departmental advising office run by a faculty or staff member, while the rest of the faculty were not involved in advising. They also evaluated a centralized model where all advising was coordinated by a campus-wide office, but excluded it from analyses because it was reported by only a couple of departments. The model most commonly adopted depended on the type of institution. The all faculty model was particularly popular at private, 4-year colleges; the part faculty model was more common at public, 4-year colleges; and the no faculty model was popular at public, graduate institutions. Enrollment size of the institution and department also impacted which model was implemented, with smaller enrollments favoring the all faculty model and larger enrollments favoring the no faculty model.

**Moving from Macro to Micro Level Organizational Issues**

Habley’s (1983), Pardee’s (2000), and Lunneborg and Baker’s (1986) classifications of advising models are helpful in capturing overall organizational or structural options for advising, however they focus on bigger picture (or macro level issues) involved in organizing advising. The next step is to consider the finer details (or micro level issues) involved in organizing an advising program. In particular, we propose six questions to help guide readers through important decisions, which entail (1) who will advise, (2) where will advising occur, (3) what will be focus of advising, (4) when will advising occur, (5) how will advisors-advisees interact, and (6) are there other considerations? Each of these questions and possible answers are portrayed in Figure 1 below.

![Figure 1: Key micro level questions when organizing and structuring undergraduate advising](image)
The question of “Who will advise?” has historically centered on using faculty versus professional or staff advisors (see Hemwall, 2008 and Self, 2008 for more information about strengths and weaknesses of each choice). However, in the latest National Survey of Academic Advising (Carlstrom & Miller, 2013), the list of who advises also includes undergraduate peers, graduate student advisors, and administrators (see Table 1).

Table 1. Who advises undergraduate students?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time Professional Advisors</td>
<td>81.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time Faculty</td>
<td>78.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjunct Professional Advisors</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjunct Faculty</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Advisors</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Students</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraprofessional Advisors</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Staff</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Positions Advise</td>
<td>63.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chose Not to Reply</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Results from the 2011 National Survey of Academic Advising. A total of 770 institutions responded. Institutions were permitted to check off any individual(s) involved in advising on their campus. In addition, the percentage of institutions who checked more than one option were indicated above by the category of “Multiple Positions Advise.” This table was reproduced from [http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Portals/0/Clearinghouse/documents/Chapter%204%20-%20Who%20Advises%20-%20FINAL.pdf](http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Portals/0/Clearinghouse/documents/Chapter%204%20-%20Who%20Advises%20-%20FINAL.pdf)

The strengths and challenges of using undergraduate peer advisors have been addressed by Rosenthal and Shinebarger (2010) and Swisher (2013), while Self (2008) has addressed the use of graduate student advisors and administrators. Many departments are moving to a multifaceted or “tag team” approach (Miller, 2012) where a combination of people assist with advising (see Johnson & Morgan, 2005).

The question of “Where will advising occur?” reflects both the administrative level and physical location of advising. Initially, Habley (1983) linked faculty advisors to departmental levels and professional advisors to advising offices coordinated at the college or institution level. However, as evidenced by the 2011 National Survey of Academic Advising (Carlstrom & Miller, 2013), the who does not necessarily dictate the where. Faculty, professional advisors, staff, and peer advisors are all reported to advise at departmental, college, and institutional levels. In addition, the where of the administrative level does not necessarily dictate the physical location of advising. Advising can occur in an advisor’s office, advising center, a classroom, or other gathering spaces on campus.
The question of “What will be the focus of advising?” is determined by an advisor’s philosophy of advising. Below we provide five examples (also see Williams, 2007):

1. **Prescriptive advising** is the traditional approach, where the advisor is perceived to be the authority figure who makes suggestions and tells the student what to do, and the student is expected to follow this advice (Crookston, 1972).

2. **Developmental advising** on the other hand requires a deeper degree of interaction between the advisor and the student (Crookston, 1972). This style focuses on the student’s potentials, developing the student’s self-direction, joint decision-making and problem-solving, and a shared division of control and responsibility.

3. **Proactive advising** (formally known as intrusive advising) is similar to developmental advising but calls for the advisor to initiate contact at key points during the student’s postsecondary education (Glennen, 1975; Varney, 2012). For example, Garing (1993) suggested four critical times: (1) the first 3 weeks of the semester, (2) at midterm, (3) during the preregistration period, and (4) in between semesters. In addition, a student may be required to meet with their advisor every semester to develop a personalized plan, discuss their progress, and examine their short- and long-term goals.

4. **Full-range advising** compares the advisor-student relationship to the categorization of leadership styles: laissez-faire to transactional to transformative (Barbuto, Story, Fritz, & Schinstock, 2011). A laissez-faire advisor is hands-off in their approach, avoids making decisions, and expects the student to find their own path while also meeting curriculum requirements. A transactional advisor expects students to follow their advice and suggestions without much deviation, handle situations retroactively, and rely on contingent rewards. A transformative advisor develops an individualized plan with students, serves as a role model, and excites students about the opportunities within their major and career field.

5. **Appreciative advising** is an emerging approach to help students reach their full potential and to improve advisor-student relationships (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008). Grounded in positive psychology principles, appreciative advising is guided by a six phase model of disarm, discover, dream, design, deliver, and don’t settle. In early phases, the advisor takes initial responsibility in leading advising, in middle phases advisors and students share responsibility, then in later phases advising becomes the student’s responsibility.

The question of “When will advising occur?” refers to the timing and frequency of advising. As previously noted for proactive advising, Garing (1993) recommended contacting students at four time points during a typical semester. Titley and Titley (1982) recommended additional time points related to students’ progression through a major (e.g., early in the major to advise whether psychology is the right major and later in the major to help students successfully transition from college to graduate school or a job). Some institutions also require students to
meet with their advisor at least once every semester, often around the time of registration for the following semester.

The question of “How will advisors-advisees interact?” refers to the different formats that we can use to communicate when advising. Below we outline four options:

1. **Face-to-face individual advising** is the traditional format of advising. However, given increased responsibilities of advisors and growing enrollments of students, other formats of advising have been developed to assist advisors.

2. **Face-to-face group advising** allows advisors to disseminate information that would otherwise need to be repeated to each student in a more efficient manner. Gadow and Silverson (2005), Grahn, Kahn, and Kroll (1983), and N. S. King (2008) have all provided recommendations regarding how to conduct group advising sessions.

3. In the early 1980s, Appleby (1983) promoted the use of a floppy disc and microcomputer to facilitate advising. As technology has advanced, so have computer-assisted advising programs. Many institutions now use computer programs that create databases that advisors and students can use to track progress towards graduation requirements. Computer-assisted advising programs also allow students to examine how their graduation requirements would change if they changed their major or added a minor. The more integration there is between administrative units on campus, the more information that can be embedded within these programs (Phillips, 2013).

4. With the increase in distance education, non-traditional students, and busier schedules for all students, some advisors have turned to online advising. This format of advising allows students to log onto a system from wherever they are to chat in real time with their advisor or to access archived presentations related to advising. Luna and Medina (2007) found that students rated online advising fairly positively, but noted the need for students to periodically call or meet with their advisor in person for clarification or assistance with certain issues. Another on-line format of communication that has increased in usage is email. However, concerns about advising through email have been reported from both students (Taylor, Jowi, Schreier, & Bertelsen, 2011) and advisors (Steele & Gordon, 2001).

Finally, the question of “Are there other considerations that impact advising?” refers to additional factors that influence decisions on how advising can be structured on a particular campus. These factors include but are not limited to type of institution, the size of the institution, student demographics, the institutional mission, available resources, and budgetary restrictions. Similar lists of key questions and other important considerations to help plan advising practices are highlighted by Kuthmann (2004), Miller (2004), Pardee (2004), and White and Anttonen (2012). Although we end with the question of other considerations, in reality, any
organizational discussion of advising may benefit by first identifying what these other considerations are before moving on to answer questions of who, where, what, when, and how.

**An Example of Re-Organizing Departmental Advising in Psychology**

Although key resources now exist on how psychology departments should approach organizing and structuring our undergraduate curriculum (e.g., Brewer et al., 1983; Dunn et al., 2010), less has been written about how to organize and structure academic advising in our departments (Lunneborg & Baker, 1986; Tittley & Tittley, 1982; Ware et al., 1983). So, we’d like to conclude by highlighting an excellent article by Johnson and Morgan (2005) who describe the process that they took to systematically re-organize advising services in their psychology department. This entailed clearly defining advising outcomes that they hoped their undergraduates would achieve at different phases of students’ undergraduate careers, implementing a number of changes that would promote each of these outcomes, and collecting and analyzing departmental and university assessment data. Their changes addressed each of the who, where, what, when, how, and other consideration questions posed above. Their article also highlighted the importance of adopting a multi-faceted, re-organization approach to improve advising. Over a 10-year period, graduating seniors who highly rated advising in their major dramatically improved from 38% to 70%. We hope this article can serve as a case study and an inspiration on how to improve student advising on your campus as well.

**References**


Miller, M. A. (2004). Factors to consider when restructuring academic advising. Retrieved from the NACADA Clearinghouse of Academic Advising Resources website


Models of Advising

PAMELYN M. MACDONALD AND M. ROBERT AMAN
EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

Universities handle advising in many different ways (Gordon, Habley & Grites, 2008). Here, we will outline some of the most common ways advising is handled and give advice to the psychology major as to how to get the most out of your advising sessions within each model. Departments who wish to switch methods of advising may also glean some best practices from this chapter.

Student Initiated Advising

The first method of “advising” we will cover is most common in very large universities. Students initially enroll at a freshman orientation, or orientations for transfer students. They may be given a list of suggested courses to take for their major, and semesters in which they should take them, and then they are expected to enroll themselves in courses each semester. There may be advisors available, either through a centralized advising center on campus, or by making an appointment with individual faculty members. Advising is not necessary for the student to enroll in classes, however. Students can work completely independently, but then are solely responsible for determining whether they have met all graduation requirements.

Students attending large universities often get information and advising informally from more senior students in their departments; however this may not be the best approach. Students should instead set up regular advising appointments with a campus advisor or a faculty member in their department in order to “check in” and make sure they stay on track. Keep in mind that advising is not factored into faculty load with this type of advising system, so do not abuse faculty time. Come prepared with your list of questions and courses you are enrolling in and be efficient with the time you have scheduled. You may meet with someone infrequently at first, perhaps once a year, and then each semester as you approach graduation. Your final semester, have someone run a degree evaluation or audit to make sure that you are on course to graduate and nothing is missing. You should be able to run degree evaluations/audits yourself at most universities, depending on the management system which incorporates course enrollment and records (e.g., Banner) that is in place in your university. Our University, Emporia State, uses Banner and students can look at a degree evaluation information immediately after enrolling in order to see what they will have left to take once they’ve passed the classes in which they’re currently enrolled. This is a very useful tool and imperative to students attending schools with this advising model.
Shared Advising

Many colleges and universities spread advising across all the faculty members within a department. Students may be assigned a faculty member to advise them, ensuring that all faculty members have a roughly equal number of advisees; or students may be allowed to choose which faculty member they would like as an advisor. This can cause problems with faculty load as some faculty will be more popular than others, for various reasons (e.g., they teach more lower level undergraduate classes, have more convenient office hours, are more approachable, etc.). Often only tenured or tenure track faculty are required to advise, so Instructor level faculty members may not be available, even if students ask them to help advise (they can do so in an unofficial capacity only). Other schools allow instructors or temporary faculty to advise. Adjunct status faculty members rarely engage in advising, and would not be as familiar with course requirements, unless they happened to attend that university or had graduated from the program.

Students again should make the best use of their time with their advisor. Always show up on time and be prepared with the classes you would like to take at specific times. Have your questions written down so you don’t forget to ask any of them. During pre-enrollment times, advisors are very busy, so you should save your “what should I do with my life” questions for another appointment, when your advisor has more time available. If you are way off base with the classes you would like to take, you may need to schedule a second appointment. Inform your advisor of times that you cannot take classes because of work or other obligations.

Centralized Advising

At our University, all freshmen are advised at the Student Advising Center, which handles advising for all freshmen majors and undecided students. Once the student has accumulated 30 hours, he or she is moved to their major department for advising. Some departments have spread advising (as described above) but many, including psychology, have a centralized advisor or set of advisors. Advising is factored into the advisor’s teaching load, or compensated in another manner (e.g., overload pay) so your advisor should be more available to students for appointments. They may even have drop-in hours, although making an appointment is always preferred.

In our department, we also have trained student Peer Advisors available for students to talk to when their advisor is not available. They can ask questions of another student who has taken the classes (Peer Advisors should be upper classmen when possible). Peer Advisors are carefully trained to always maintain the highest level of confidentiality regarding student information (i.e. FERPA) and to always be positive in their comments to the students they are serving; that is, they never “slam” professors from their department or other majors. Our Peer Advisors can say “I struggled with that class” and advise students to take a lighter load during certain semesters. They can also say things like “I did well with that professor’s teaching style”.
To prepare for an advising appointment, students can do the things already mentioned in this chapter (e.g., come prepared!). However, they may have more time available with the advisor to delve into deeper issues. During early enrollment time periods, students who want to discuss deeper issues, such as work/school/life conflicts, should sign up for multiple time slots, in order to keep advising sessions on schedule. Again, some of those questions may be best addressed in a session outside of enrollment. If you have a centralized advisor in your department, you can make multiple advising appointments within the same semester. Just be sure to be respectful of your advisor’s time and other students he or she may need to advise, by coming to all sessions prepared.

**Intrusive Advising**

As the name indicates, this form of advising becomes much more of a shared decision making process between the advisor and the student being advised (Varney, 2007). During this process the student signs up for a designated time slot, generally in 15 minute increments, for the purpose of enrolling. Students may sign up for an additional time slot if s/he feels more than 15 minutes will be required. The advisors ask students questions about how things are going outside of the classroom. This way, problems can be identified that may interfere with the student’s success and hopefully help the student deal with those problems before they get out of hand. For example, students can be advised to either cut back on work hours, or if that is not financially possible, then to cut back on class hours or not take too many highly demanding classes during the same semester. The suggested course of classes should be flexible enough that advising can take into account the student’s life outside the classroom when arranging a course schedule. The advisor will then complete a comprehensive review of the student’s degree evaluation to determine (the following may vary depending on your University’s requirements):

- Number of hours completed toward graduation
- Completion of all general education requirements
- Completion of all courses required for the major
- Completion of hours required for the major electives
- Completion of hours required for a declared minor or related field
- Number of hours with a 300 level or above designation from a 4-year institution as required for graduation
- Whether or not the student will be required to take the comprehensive achievement exams in the areas of writing, mathematics and reading. Certain grades in Composition II, College Algebra and the Reading subsection of the ACT may have the Collegiate Assessment of Academic Proficiency (CAAP) requirement waived for any or all qualifying courses
Once this review has been completed, the advisor will share with the student what course deficiencies exist and make recommendations for required courses enrollments. The student may choose to accept these recommendations or suggest courses in which s/he desires to enroll. If the student chooses to enroll in courses not recommended, the advisor may have the student sign a waiver form indicating that the deviation from the recommendation may affect and/or delay the student’s intended graduation schedule. In addition, if the student is adamant about self-enrolling without advice from the advisor, then the student will be provided with his/her enrollment pin number upon a signed completion of the “Waiver of Liability” regarding self-enrollment. Students are further advised that failing a course, dropping a course or not getting the required minimum grade in one of their major courses will have an impact on the student’s intended graduation date.

**Conclusion**

Students should feel comfortable asking their advisor questions and for advice on a myriad of topics, from courses, major changes, career counseling, etc. Not all advisors are trained in counseling and may refer students to the campus counseling or wellness center if students’ questions fall outside the advisor’s areas of expertise. No matter which advising model your school ascribes to, your advisor should be your academic partner and assist you in reaching your goals.

**Suggested Readings and Resources**


**References**


What are Podcasts?
A podcast is any form of downloadable audio or video file that can be made available over the internet (Lloyd & Robertson, 2012). Essentially a podcast is a short or long format audio or video file that allows an individual to subscribe and access a section of material over multiple sessions. In this chapter we will examine the use of audio and video files to enhance students’ understanding of the curriculum requirements for their major and increase their knowledge about the various career opportunities and career-pathing within the field of Psychology.

Within the scope of measuring learning gains, it seems that viewpoints on podcasts are somewhat mixed. Some research has suggested that when podcasts are used to replace traditional forms of instruction they may lead students to perform more poorly in a classroom environment, however when podcasted information was presented as supplemental to the primary content, students were more likely to benefit in terms of learning gains (Copley, 2007; Daniel & Woody, 2010). Others have found that when given a podcast alternative to lecture, students may attend class less but achieved greater academic success and retained information over a longer period of time (Chester, Buntine, Hammon & Atkinson, 2011; Mckinney, Dyck, & Luber, 2009). What is consistently agreed upon is that students and professors tend to rate the podcast experience as enjoyable when used as a supplement to traditional forms of lecture or communication (e.g., Sutton-Brady, Scott, Taylor, Carabetta & Clark, 2009).

The challenge then: How do we best utilize this medium for student engagement in a manner that aids them in their academic and life career paths while not replacing the traditional forms of communication? For the purposes of Academic and Career advising, we feel that podcasts should be used primarily as supplementary guides that can enrich the primary content in courses and what is found on the advising website, but should not necessarily replace this information.

How to record?
There are a variety of methods to record a podcast, but the most popular are using GarageBand (Mac OS) or audacity (Windows). GarageBand is included in the Mac OS system and audacity is a free download. We have provided links at the end of this chapter to access the software. You will need a couple of high quality USB or line-in microphones that can cancel out extraneous noise and a decent pair of headphones to monitor the audio quality as you record. We have provided some resources at the end of this chapter that will guide you step by step in how to set up the recording.
Beyond the simple setup of a podcast it is important to create an outline of each recording session as an overview of the content to be covered. This also serves the purpose of allowing the interviewer(s) to redirect the conversation when tangents occur, and helps to reduce potential silence or stiltedness in the conversation that may occur when individuals are not sure where the stream of thought continues. Without an outline you may run the risk of awkward silences and unnecessary pauses while the interviewer or interviewee is thinking of the next set of follow up questions to a particular subject. Perhaps the best advice is to remain comfortable when talking to other people on the microphone. When having students or guests, who have never podcasted before, we find it helpful to start an initial conversation with the microphones in front of us for 10-15 minutes to help them become more comfortable having a conversation “on mic” before the actual recording process begins.

What to record?
Since the podcasted material can be downloaded and listened to multiple times by students, it is important to carefully consider what information to gather before recording. The best place to start is with questions frequently asked by your students. Typically, faculty members get asked similar questions about the core curriculum or what courses are good/bad by several students during each academic advising season. By culling these questions from your faculty you can create the basis for the information provided in an academic advising podcast. We suggest that podcasts are best used to deliver information that is either frequently requested, or would be beneficial to have stored in a consistent manner. To this end, we feel that information centered on advising may be the perfect candidate for podcasting to your students.

Academic Advising
Advising students on the required courses to earn a BS degree is full of minutiae. The knowledge of, pick 2 of these 5 social sciences and 1 from the following list of three, or take MATH X and either MATH Y or Z, often leads to students taking extra classes to graduate. Podcasting allows for the careful attention needed to avoid mistakes. Chapter breaks in the podcast allow students to check just the information they need without watching or listening to an entire episode. Additionally, because academic advising inherently requires several call numbers and shortening of course names in the major (e.g. PSYC 1101, PSYC 4950), we suggest creating a video podcast (Vodcast) to display the information for students as they listen to the audio.

The advising information we created for our students was a simplified version of requirements for the earned degree in psychology, including general education requirements common among all majors. Data collected from both majors and non-majors indicated that podcast advising works just as well as forcing a student to read the requirements for earning a degree in the student bulletin (Robertson, 2007). Additionally, because less information is in the podcast, the
information is easier to find and access. Chapters in the podcast serve a similar function as the index in a printed catalog.

Graduate Advising

In preparation for the career advising podcast series, we have found much success separating the podcasts into two broad areas: Graduate school and Careers in Psychology. Even as an expert in your field, your experiences and perception of the field are unique based upon your goals and career choices, while many of our experiences about our own graduate school application process, trials and tribulations may be perceived as arcane by today’s students. As a result, including multiple viewpoints regarding both careers and graduate school expectations would allow for a richer understanding of the processes involved in each area. Furthermore, the APA Guidelines for the Undergraduate Psychology Major lists understanding career goals and the development of meaningful direction for life after graduation as major goals for undergraduate education (APA 2012).

The graduate school podcasts can include episodes such as simple recordings of Q&A sessions with graduate students and undergraduates, wherein they ask a series of questions pertaining to getting accepted into graduate school. We tend to hold a graduate school session once a year but since many students may not be able to attend the session we are able to archive the information in audio format for our current students throughout the year.

Other graduate school podcasts include: “What was the first semester experience like in graduate school?” In this series we re-connect with our recently graduated alumni to record their experiences and impressions of the first semester of graduate school. We detail the realities of graduate school versus their expectations, the change in study habits, the experience moving away from their comfort zone of their undergraduate institution and their current research.

This is especially helpful to our students because it allows them to hear about the experiences first hand from someone who is slightly older than them but has gone through many of the same experiences. While faculty may try to impart many of these same messages, it is important to consider the source of the information and how it is perceived. Undergraduate students sometimes need to hear the information from someone they consider a peer versus a superior for it to make an impact.

Careers in Psychology

Careers in Psychology podcasts are perhaps the most fruitful of our efforts. We tap motivated upper level students to connect with various practitioners and psychologists who are actively practicing in the field. The students maintain contact and conduct some background research on both the field and the individual and eventually they record an informal podcast that details the Psychologists educational background, their current employment, a “day in the life”, and
any pertinent research that they are currently involved in. This loose format of interview questions allows for the podcast audio to come across as a conversation rather than a strict interview, and allows the student to create a potential contact within their field of interest. It encourages them to take the initiative to learn as much about their particular field and guest so they can appear as well informed as possible. These podcasts can then be used in lower level Careers in Psychology courses to give students a better understanding of the typical lives of researchers and practitioners, while demonstrating the various career options available with similar degree types.

Beyond the instructional uses, it allows faculty to direct advisees to particular podcasts to gain a basic level of information about their potential career path prior to meeting to discuss graduate school or career aspirations in person. This saves faculty time by not having to answer many repeated lower level questions such as:

“What is an LPC?”

“What are the differences between a Masters program and a doctoral program in [insert field]”? 

Furthermore, this allows advisees to come prepared with some higher order questions that may arise from listening to the real world professionals’ interview:

“Are salary ranges commensurate with certifications or with degrees?”

“If I am able to practice with a Masters degree and LPC certification, why might I want to pursue my Ph.D. in Clinical Psychology?”

By broaching these higher order questions faculty and students can engage in more fruitful conversations regarding the potential careers that may be interesting to the student. By interviewing several professionals with similar backgrounds, this allows students to have a more diverse viewpoint of their chosen field. Therefore these podcasts can serve a twofold purpose: initial information gathering for first and second year undergraduates and networking opportunities for third and fourth year undergraduates. When students are able to start early in podcasting they gain the skills and contacts necessary to maintain an up-to-date database of interviews. Older students pass on their knowledge and contact information to younger students and each subsequent academic year the process becomes more efficient and streamlined.

**Academic Advising Outcomes**

In the first study we examined a general use of podcasting using a one-way ANOVA with four groups. A difference was indicated among the four groups, a control group with no training ($M = 7.80, SE = .39$), a group watching the podcast on either a 4th generation color iPod ($M =$
11.20, SE = .57) or a 13-inch notebook computer (M = 10.20, SE = .48), and a final group given a traditional bound copy of the student bulletin (M = 11.15, SE = .50) with relevant sections flagged to be studied, F(3,54) = 12.76, p<.001. An LSD (.05) indicated that all three groups receiving training significantly improved their scores for how to graduate with a psychology BS over the control group. Both formats for sharing the podcast (small and large screen) worked as well as forcing the students to read the relevant sections of the student catalog.

Study two looked at the same information among psychology majors to see if the information shared was also beneficial to majors that theoretically had been previously exposed to what is required to graduate with a psychology degree. A 2x2 ANOVA using a pre-test post-test design looked at the benefits of the podcast via the 4th generation color iPod and the 13-inch notebook. An interaction, F(1,28) = 6.81, p = .014, qualified the main effect of learning (pre-test M = 10.37, SE = .36 ; post-test M = 12.98, SE = .31 ), F(1, 28) = 127.89, p<.001, and the absence of an effect of device (iPod M = 11.80, SE = .45 ; computer M = 11.53, SE = .45), F(1, 28) = 0.17, p >.05. While significant learning occurred in both devices, the computer group (pre-test M = 9.93, SE = .52 ; post-test M = 13.13, SE = .44) improved more than the small-screened iPod (pre-test M = 10.80, SE = .52; post-test M = 12.80, SE = .44). Given the growth and availability of large screened smartphones this interaction effect found on 2007 technology is probably irrelevant today. A podcasted video (even in a single format such as .mv4), may be watched on any number of screened devices (phone, tablet, computer, HDTV, etc.).

**Graduate and Career Advising Outcomes**

Over the past year we have examined the usefulness of these podcasts and their ability to increase the knowledge of students in terms of advisement and understanding of basic career related goals.

In one study examining 46 undergraduate students’ knowledge of the requirements for licensure for a clinical psychologist as well as the qualifications (e.g., MS, or Ph.D.) needed to practice, the podcasts have proved successful. Based on a four question pre and post-test we found no initial difference in knowledge between students tasked to listen (n = 32, M = 1.875, SE = .194) to the podcast and those who did not (n = 12, M = 1.333, SE = .284), t(42) = 1.494, p>.05. However, when surveyed again after listening to a podcast with a clinical psychologist, those students who listened to the podcast (M = 3.00, SE = .173) performed significantly better in the post test than those students who did not listen (M = 2.00, SE = .326), t (42) = 2.886, p = 003.

Students were surveyed on their experiences with podcasts. Nearly half (40.6%) were familiar with podcasts before the study, and all students (100%) felt the podcast was helpful in expanding their understanding of clinical psychology. Of these students 84% recommended continuing the podcasts in our courses.

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A similar study examined the effectiveness of the podcasts in helping students prepare for graduate school. Students had the choice of listening to a podcast detailing the process of applying to graduate school mapping out when to ask for letters of recommendation, when to take the GRE, and what credentials are generally necessary to apply for graduate education. They then answered a 5-question survey about their understanding of the process. Students who listened (n = 29, $M = 3.138$, $SE = .215$) did not differ significantly from those who did not listen on the pre-test (n = 13, $M = 3.154$, $SE = .317$); $t(40) = -.041, p = .967$. After exposure to the podcast, students who listened ($M = 4.310$, $SE = .141$) performed significantly better than those who did not listen ($M = 3.539$, $SE = .385$), $t(15.314) = 1.878, p = .04$. Similarly, 44.8% of the students were familiar with podcasts before the study, and 93% felt the podcast was helpful in expanding their understanding of applying to Graduate School. Of these students 86% recommended continuing the podcasts in our courses.

Given these results, podcasting can be an effective way of disseminating broad information to undergraduate students regarding graduate study and career based advising while allowing the faculty to deliver consistent information to students in a timely manner. Students have the ability to repeat their exposure to the material on their own time and quickly access the information they need pertaining to a particular career field or the nebulous process of applying to graduate school whenever they have the need.

Best Practices

- Incorporate consistent information in your podcasts
- Utilize your current/previous students to assist in the creation
- Tackle the areas where you are asked the same basic information repeatedly
- Create an outline before you record
- Things to Avoid
  - Lecture Based Podcasts- Podcast best used as a supplement to traditional information
  - Rambling during podcasts (can be edited down later if this occurs)
  - Forgetting to edit deadspace. Make the podcasts as trim as possible by eliminating dead air (quiet moments or long pauses).

Links for Further information

- Graduate School Podcast: [http://podcasting.gcsu.edu/4DCGI/Podcasting/NGCSU/Episodes/15918/849319819.m4a](http://podcasting.gcsu.edu/4DCGI/Podcasting/NGCSU/Episodes/15918/849319819.m4a)
• Clinical Psychology Podcast:  
  http://podcasting.gcsu.edu/4DCGI/Podcasting/NGCSU/Episodes/271/4489936.m4a
• North Georgia Psych Podcast: itunes.apple.com/us/podcast/north-georgia-psychology-podcast/id579017054

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In the strictest sense, the web-based online advisor functions as a clearinghouse for generic advising content—including information one provides to each advisee in face-to-face meetings, and provides access to resources that might only be of interest to certain advisees or to advisees at certain points during their college career. A department’s online advisor is only one possible component of a well-designed academic department webpage. Not all information related to the discipline and the major will fall under the purview of the online advisor and its role will vary according to the character of the associated educational institution and academic department. Here we limit our discussion to employing a web-based online advisor for undergraduate students attending a traditional university, with a declared major, who also meet in person with assigned advisors. We do not discuss the role of an institution-wide online advisor, one in an online school, nor personal and interactive advising through technologically-based delivery systems (i.e., email; instant messaging; social media; IP-based voice or image methods such as Skype; or virtual reality such as Second Life; see also Leonard, 2008; National Academic Advising Association, 2013).

We begin with some ideas derived from the literature. The lion’s share of our discussion, however, is focused on why one might wish to have an online advisor; who would be served by it; and which content should be included. We end with speculations about future directions for online advisors.

In 2005, when the first author conceived of deploying an online advisor on our department’s website, she developed it based solely on her experiences, in spite of the fact that there were already numerous published sources of information relating to supplemental online advising (i.e., Griffin; 2000) and recommendations for best practices (i.e., Dahl, 2004). Much of the literature relating to online advising is focused on the advising needs of distance learners. Distance learners’ needs differ from those of traditional students with assigned advisors. An early study that considered preferences of this latter group revealed that only 22% of participants (students and faculty at a brick and mortar university) considered it important to provide advising information on individual faculty members’ web pages (Palmitier & Renjilian, 2003). It makes more sense to us to consolidate advising information in an online advisor, rather than have redundant information across multiple faculty home pages.

When visiting a web-based online advisor, students focus on information that helps them answer specific questions and, according to Boatright-Horowitz, Langley and Gunnip (2009), have little memory for other content. In order to assist students in navigating an online advisor,
Boatright-Horowitz et al suggest that menus should be consistently positioned; that the number of hyperlinks on any given page be limited to just a few; and that it is easier for students to locate information upon revisiting a site when the appearance and content remains consistent across visits. Boatright et al conclude that to gain greater benefit from advising websites one might want to develop activities that prompt students to focus intentionally on important content. Although this could be accomplished in a variety of ways, Johnson, Morgan, and Smith, (2001 as cited in Johnson & Morgan, 2006) employed a “mandatory interactive Web advising tutorial” (p.16).

**Purpose**
A mission statement helps both the visitor and the developer to focus on the purpose of an online advisor site. Our department’s advising mission statement declares that “Our philosophy of advising is to help students find direction in their academic careers, chart a course for getting to their intended academic and professional destinations, work through any roadblocks they may encounter on the way, then help them recognize their accomplishments and how far they have come on their journey” (What is advising?, 2011).

A well-designed online advisor uses an outcome-based approach. Any evaluation of the effectiveness of an online advisor should be focused on the extent to which it meets one’s goals and objectives. Consistent with our department’s mission statement, the goal is to help students successfully navigate the mechanics of their college experience. The objectives are derived from the goal.

One objective of an online advisor is to help students navigate their major. The online advisor can help accomplish this by...

- providing 24/7 access to advising-related information
- optimizing time available for face-to-face contact with the assigned advisor
- reducing redundancy across advisors
- providing major-related resources

Another objective of an online advisor is to help students navigate the college or university. The online advisor can help accomplish this by...

- providing access to specific institution-wide resources
- providing the major’s ‘slant’ on specific institution-wide resources

A third objective is to provide majors and minors instruction in navigating life as a college student. The online advisor can help accomplish this by providing information related to:

- degree planning
- course selection
- determining and selecting a minor appropriate to the student’s goals and interests
• registration procedures
• selecting service learning, study abroad, and other activities, etc., appropriate to the student’s goals

An online advisor could serve students at any level, in any discipline. It can also serve faculty by providing generic advising information and thus reducing redundancy during face-to-face contact times and increase time available for individualizing meetings (Hunter & White, 2004). It can serve as a starting point for advising conversations. Although our goals and objectives are student-centered, advisor-centered goals and objectives could also be met through the online advisor.

Process
A webmaster is needed to set up and maintain an online advisor. Some institutions have staff available to perform this function or an IT-oriented member of the department might elect to function as the webmaster. It is important to determine and meet training requirements, protocols set by the institution, and obtain permission to function as a site publisher. Many institutions require some standardized content, structure, or graphics, and the use of specific web-page authoring software. An essential first step is to become knowledgeable about one’s institution’s requirements.

It is also important to consider the graphical nature, structure, and flow of an online advisor. For example, one should consider whether a linked page opens up in a new window or not. Ours is set up so that university-wide resources open up in a new window and department-related information does not. Content and links will need to be maintained and updated. Having a responsive IT person contributes greatly to having a functional online advisor. This person may or may not also be responsible for writing the content. Before one can publish an online advisor website, careful consideration must be given to content.

Content
Some online advisor content will be internal: information provided within the website itself. Other content will be external: information accessed through links from the online advisor website. And some content will fall between these two extremes—access to external links with annotations.

The “front door” of our site orients majors and minors to what they can expect from the online advisor, a content menu, and a disclaimer indicating that it is not intended to replace their assigned advisor. It also apprises students of the importance of maintaining regular contact with their advisors. A section that delineates both the advisee’s and advisor’s roles and responsibilities is critical. Our university holds that the ultimate responsibility lies with the student to become informed, initiate contact with the advisor, learn how to generate and interpret degree audits, etc. However, advisors often assist with these things. Because we carry
heavy advising loads (over 50 students on average), it behooves us to help our advisees develop the skills they need to locate relevant information that is generic in nature, such as course prerequisites. This frees up time to address student-specific advising issues (i.e., *Which core courses would be most appropriate if I plan to pursue a career in X or attend graduate school in Y?*). Both students and advisors benefit when their individual responsibilities and the dyadic expectations of the advisor-advisee relationship are spelled out explicitly.

*Direct links to department-related services and information.*

The department home page spells out course requirements for our majors and minors and registration services provides degree audits, transcripts, etc. Therefore the information provided on our online advisor is supplementary—not comprehensive. To facilitate students’ ability to initiate application processes, we provide links to some of the necessary forms.

Some content can help students understand academic “etiquette.” For example, suggesting that students gain knowledge of an instructor’s areas of research before requesting a research assistantship. In terms of reducing redundancy, perhaps the most useful page we have relates to requesting letters of recommendation. Students benefit from guidance about (a) the selection of recommenders, (b) ways to optimize the odds of getting a successful recommendation, and (c) recommended procedures and approaches. We can simply send a student requesting a recommendation to that site, rather than spelling out the specifics each time.

*Direct links to discipline-specific resources and information.*

Other discipline-specific resources that might be of benefit on an online advising site include links to information about disciplinary writing style guides (i.e., APA); links to the institutional review board (IRB) training, forms, and procedures; information about developing effective conference presentations; statistics resources, such as decision trees, etc.; and links to professional organizations within the discipline.

*Annotated links to university-wide resources and information.*

In addition to direct links, for certain university-wide resources, we have annotated links with brief descriptions of how the linked sources relate to our discipline. For other resources, we first link students to a page that provides a greater depth of discipline-related guidance and with direct links to the relevant site’s home page. In other words, briefly or in greater detail, we help students see how the university’s various opportunities and requirements can be applied to our discipline and vice versa. For example, on the intervening page for the University’s study abroad site, we provide a general overview of the study abroad program; specify which institutions provide programs that are most suited to our majors; and from there link to the program’s home page.
Direct links to university-wide resources and information.

We provide a variety of links to university-wide resources and information. Examples include registration services; information related to declaring or changing one’s major, minor, or catalogue year with links to the associated forms. There are also direct links to Health & Counseling Services; Academic Skills Center; and the university’s resources page.

In summary, the objectives, content, graphics, and structure of an online advisor have to be developed prior to launching the advisor. One must also determine a means of informing students and instructors that the site is online and available once it is launched. The effectiveness of the site, in terms of one’s objectives, could be evaluated through collecting informal feedback from users, by undertaking formal evaluations, or both. The results of these analyses could be used to guide future approaches and content.

Untapped Potential and Possible Limitations.

This semester our university began a peer-advising program. Due to large student response and a limited number of openings in our department, we hope to recruit students who were not selected as peer advisors to help generate online advisor content. Specifically, we have plans for them to make short instructional and informational videos similar to those offered by a growing number of colleges and universities (National Academic Advising Association, 2013). These could range from how to navigate our online-registration system to school-related ‘day in the life’ shorts.

We have also discussed developing a number of additional components. An advising Wiki site could be developed (Trost, 2009); however moderation would be essential and could consume time that might be better spent in face-to-face contact with students. Working in collaboration with career services and our faculty, recruited student could develop and post interviews--text, video, or hybrid--with alumni who have discipline-related careers. Advisor profiles could be posted, though this could have a negative impact on the equitable distribution of advisees across advisors. A series of discipline-related self-tests to help students evaluate their readiness for a particular course, graduate school, or career path are worth consideration. A job-board with both student resumes and employment opportunities in the community could also prove useful; as might a list of students willing to tutor struggling students in particular content areas (see also Trost, 2009). There are a number of approaches to providing a range of content with the objective of helping students navigate their academic careers and providing guidance as they consider and prepare for their future academic and professional careers.

The potential of online advisors is vast--both in the present and in the future. The focus of our discussion is on website-based delivery of advising content rather than on interactive e-advising. Nevertheless, the latter is a likely future of advising. We all communicate with our advisees via email, but instant messaging, social media, pod casts, webinars, and even virtual
reality may increasingly become essential to faculty-student and peer advising activities. Thompson & Prieto (2013) provide evidence that advisor availability and advisor knowledge are key components in students’ ratings of their satisfaction with advising and their motivation to earn a college degree. They note that online advising resources provide 24/7 access and thus maximize availability. However, virtual online advising systems may be limited by their relative lack of knowledge and responsive capabilities for answering more complex questions pertaining to career preparation, graduate school decision making processes, and finding a balance between academics, extracurricular activities, and employment. This concern should be less relevant for real-time interaction virtual advising than for static content.

Advisees might eventually be assigned to advisors using an adaptation of the matching approach used by some online dating services. Algorithms might be developed to evaluate whether students’ proposed semester course schedules—or four-year plans—are balanced across courses, meet degree requirements and constitutes a reasonable workload, given the student’s class and academic standing and other constraints (such as employment or family responsibilities or a disability). Prior to meeting with an advisor, a student could run different scenarios and bring his or her proposed and tested schedules to the advising session.

As technology develops and student needs and approaches to learning shift, best practices for online advising must also shift. In the face of the future of interactive e-advising and whatever other approaches may emerge, we offer one piece of advice: Let your advising goals and objectives drive your online advising. A well-designed online advisor, in the context of a traditional brick-and-mortar institution, should free up time for face-to-face conversations. When it comes to promoting student success, nothing can really compete with the effectiveness of an in-depth advisor-advisee conversation. And, of course, the ultimate goal of any advising system is to promote student success.

References

Note: Suggested readings are indicated with an asterisk.


Section 2: Types of Advisees

5. Advising First Year Students
   Kenneth E. Barron

6. Advising the “Deciding” Student
   William Wozniak

7. Advising First-Generation College Students
   Amber Esping, Robin Melton, & Esmeralda Hernández-Gómez

8. Advising At-Risk Psychology Students
   Paul C. Smith & Mikelene Ray

9. Advising Students with Disabilities
   Christine M. Nowik

10. Academic Advising for Nontraditional Students
    B. Jean Mandernach, Ted Cross, & Shanna Huslig

11. Advising International Students
    W. Wyatt Hoback & Richard L. Miller

12. Academic Advising for Online Students
    Ted Cross, B. Jean Mandernach, & Shanna Huslig

13. Crossing the Bridge: Guiding Transfer Students to Success at Four-Year Institutions
    Krista D. Forrest

14. Advising the Senior Year: A Practical Guide
    Jeannetta G. Williams
My only memories of being advised as a first year student involved walking into my advisor’s office towards the end of each semester, handing her a form with the classes that I had picked out for the following semester, watching her quickly scan over the form, then having her remark “Looks great!” as she signed and handed the form back to me. The entire process took less than 2 minutes. As a result, I didn’t see much need for an advisor. I figured I could easily advise myself. I only went back because our university required an advisor’s signature on our course registration form before we could turn it in. In contrast, I just completed my 10th year serving in a unique advising role on our campus – being a freshman advisor. At our university, all first year students are assigned to an initial academic advisor who is specially trained to help students navigate the transition from high school to college. Freshman advisors begin interacting with students during summer orientation activities and continue serving as students’ primary advisor during their first year. We also have a much richer job description on what to accomplish with our freshman advisees than what I experienced with my advisor during my freshman year, which entails:

- helping students understand the differences between high school and college
- helping students understand university expectations, policies, structures, and “jargon”
- assisting students in developing personal, academic, and career goals
- helping students understand what it means to get an undergraduate degree and how they will be asked to fulfill a combination of general-education, major, degree, and elective requirements
- helping students choose appropriate classes during the Freshman year, taking into consideration placement scores and any college credit earned through dual enrollment, Advanced Placement or International Baccalaureate
- serving as students’ initial resource to discuss any issues or concerns during their first year at JMU as they transition to the university and become increasingly independent
- referring students to campus resources as needed
- What also stands out about our program is that freshman advisors work closely with staff from our Career and Academic Planning (CAP) Office, who coordinate our Freshman Advising program. CAP introduces freshmen advisors to advising philosophies, resources, and best practices. They also provide training on university issues and policies that impact students’ lives both in and out of the classroom.
In addition, most freshman advisors are faculty members in the major that students think they would like to pursue. Thus, students get the best of both worlds: an advisor who is well versed in how the whole university works, and an advisor who can provide detailed, “inside” information on their academic major of interest. Not surprisingly, freshman advising can play a significant role in promoting the early success of students (Frost, 1991; Upcraft, Gardner, & Barefoot, 2004; Upcraft & Kramer, 1995), and high quality advising is linked to student retention and persistence (Drake, 2011; Metzner, 1989; Nutt, 2003).

Therefore, in the current chapter, I’d like to share lessons that I’ve learned serving in the role of a freshman advisor, and what it means to advise this unique population. My lessons learned are presented as a series of 10 tips, along with key references for additional information. Where appropriate, I also share example activities or strategies that I have used with my freshman advisees to promote a particular tip.

**Tip #1: Adopt a developmental philosophy of advising**

The first lesson that I learned was to question my philosophy of advising. In 1972, Crookston authored one of the seminal articles about advising in which he contrasted two types of advising: *prescriptive vs. developmental*. In prescriptive advising, Crookston likened the typical relationship between an advisor and advisee to that of a doctor and patient, where both the advisor and advisee see a clear differential on who has the authority and expertise. When students need advice, they seek out an advisor who listens to their problem and then prescribes a treatment. The advisor’s role ends as soon as the student leaves, and it is up to the student to follow the prescribed treatment.

In contrast, developmental advising re-evaluates the roles of the advisor and advisee. As King (2005) aptly noted, the relationship goes well beyond “simply giving information or signing a form.” The key to developmental advising is to appreciate that both parties share responsibility for a student’s success, and both embark on an on-going relationship to develop the whole student.

The concept of developmental advising has evolved over time and a variety of definitions have been proposed (Bloom, 2013). However, one that I find particularly helpful is listed on the National Academic Advising Association’s website under their definitions for academic advising (see also NACADA, 2003):

“Academic advising is a developmental process which assists students in the clarification of their life/career goals and in the development of educational plans for the realization of these goals. It is a decision-making process by which students realize their maximum educational potential through communication and information exchanges with an advisor; it is ongoing, multifaceted, and the responsibility of both student and advisor. The advisor serves as a facilitator of communication, a coordinator of learning experiences through course and career
planning and academic progress review, and an agent of referral to other campus agencies as necessary.”

At our university, developmental advising also implies providing students with initial scaffolding and support, then shifting more and more responsibility to students, so they take full control and ownership of their educational decisions. It also means creating an advising program that highlights information that is developmentally appropriate for incoming first year students, while still being mindful of the needs of incoming students who may be more developmentally advanced or delayed.

**Tip #2: Make advising intrusive**
In addition to a developmental theory of advising, a number of other emerging advising theories have influenced my approach to first year advising. For example, although I failed to appreciate the importance and benefits of having high quality advising in my own undergraduate experience, I appreciate its importance now. I also appreciate the need to take initial responsibility as an advisor to be more proactive in promoting the role of advising in a student’s first year. Originally known as *intrusive advising*, it has since been re-labeled *proactive advising*. It calls for an advisor to initiate contact at critical times during the academic year. For example, Garing (1993) suggested contacting students (1) in the first 3 weeks of the semester, (2) at midterm, (3) during the preregistration period, and (4) between semesters. Our freshman advising program designates similar times in which to be intrusive in the lives of our first year students.

Over time, I realized that I could promote being intrusive and developmental by creating an advising website on Blackboard (our university’s on-line course management system) that all of my freshman and major advisees can regularly access. Posting the website on Blackboard is my way to be *intrusive* because every time students log on for their course websites, they have an opportunity to see and be reminded of advising. Then to be *developmental*, I organize information into folders along a developmental continuum. A folder labeled “Freshman Advisees” contains information most relevant to transitioning into the university. For example, I include information to help them learn about (1) our psychology program, (2) how to explore other majors and minors on our campus, (3) how to get involved (by joining student clubs and organizations, participating in intramural athletics, and volunteering in the community), (4) how to get help (through academic support and student life services), and (5) how to pay for college (through part-time employment opportunities, financial aid, and scholarships). A folder labeled “Major Advisees” contains information on how to get the most out of being a psychology major, along with specific advice on each unique opportunity of our program. Finally, folders labeled “Getting a job after your BA/BS degree”, “Getting into Graduate School”, and “Plan B” contain information to help students prepare for transitioning out of our university.
Another strategy I employ to be both intrusive and developmental is to email my first year advisees a monthly newsletter that highlights critical information relevant to that particular part of the academic year. Although creating the initial set of newsletters was time consuming, they are easy to update and help structure my advising efforts over the year.

**Tip #3: Clearly communicate your roles in advising**

Because students arrive on our campuses with quite varied experiences working with guidance counselors in high school, I like to take time to find out what role academic advisors, such as high school guidance counselors, have played in my advisees’ past. I then discuss the role that advisors will play on our campus, and how it may differ from their previous experiences. For example, on our campus, students will interact with a number of different academic advisors, including Freshman Advisors, Major Advisors, Minor Advisors, and Pre-Professional Program Advisors. After listing each of the different advisors, I discuss the unique job responsibilities of a Freshman Advisor that I highlighted at the outset of this chapter. I also discuss what role each advisee needs to play and that they have a list of job responsibilities as well. Finally, I share our university’s philosophy of adopting a developmental approach over a prescriptive approach, where advisors are here to support students, but students ultimately are responsible for making each of their own academic decisions.

Creating an advising syllabus (Trabant, 2006) is another strategy that many of my colleagues adopt. Similar to a course syllabus, an advising syllabus can be given during an initial meeting to explain the expectations and roles of both the advisor and advisee. In addition, other information can be included, such as advising objectives for students, activities that students can do to achieve those advising objectives, recommended readings about academic and career development, an advisor’s contact information, and a schedule of key advising dates and deadlines.

**Tip #4: Make yourself approachable and less intimidating**

A more recent theory to improve the advisor and advisee relationship and to help students achieve their fullest potential is *appreciative advising* (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008). Appreciative advising is linked to positive psychology and is guided by an advising model that moves through six phases of *disarm, discover, dream, design, deliver, and don’t settle.* Relevant to Tip #4 is the first phase, disarm, where it is the responsibility of the advisor to build rapport and to create an environment in which advisees feel welcome and safe to interact with their advisor. As a first year student, I will never forget how intimidated I found faculty, so I use a number of strategies to make students feel comfortable and willing to talk to me about their concerns. For example, in addition to learning my advisees’ names as quickly as possible, I ask them how they should address me. Most say they will use an appropriate title followed by my last name (e.g., Dr. Barron or Professor Barron). Although I agree that this is the approach they should use when meeting any new professor, I unequivocally tell my advisees to call me by my
first name instead. I provide my rationale that coming to college signifies the transition from adolescence to adulthood, and I want us to be on an equal footing where we treat each other like adults. Furthermore, I highlight that for our advising relationship to be successful, I need each advisee to be 100% honest about what they are thinking and feeling. I emphasize that it is not my goal to make them a psychology major, and that they will never hurt my feelings by telling me they no longer are interested in psychology. Instead, I reinforce our university’s mission statement that I am here to help students find a “meaningful life.” I recommend reviewing the appreciative advising literature for additional tips, which range from how you interact with your advisees to how your office is arranged to make it more inviting.

Tip #5: Help advisees understand the difference between college and high school

One of the most pressing issues in advising first year students is helping students appreciate how college differs from high school. I center this discussion around an activity where I survey my advisees about their past high school behaviors and what they expect their future college behaviors will be. I first ask my advisees to report how many hours they spent in various activities during their senior year in high school (such as attending classes, studying outside of classes, participating in extracurricular activities, socializing, and working). Then I ask them to report how they judged whether they were successful in high school. Most advisees typically report spending 30-35 hours per week attending classes, 1-5 hours per week studying outside of classes, and that getting a good grade indicated when they were successful.

Next I ask them to report how many hours they expect to attend classes and study in college. Although they are able to determine that they now are only in college classes 12-15 hours per week (depending on their credit load), they are less clear on how much they will need to study outside of class. Rather than providing a formula to study 2-3 hours for each hour in class, I note that successful students approach college like a full-time, 40 hour per week job. I also point out that adding up the number of hours they attended class and studied outside of class in high school shows that most of them are already accustomed to working 40 hours per week. The major difference for college is that students need to learn how to log time outside of class to reach their 40 hours, and we review different approaches on how to schedule blocks of study time into their weekly schedules.

We also discuss how success in college should be judged on far more than grades. In particular, I stress the importance of developing and mastering skills. I note that few employers or graduate schools will be impressed by getting an A in a class if students are unable to remember or demonstrate the skills that they supposedly learned. So, we discuss the importance of adopting study strategies to master material at a deeper level. I also recommend introducing Bloom’s Taxonomy of Learning (Anderson et al., 2000; Bloom, 1956) to help advisees appreciate how learning in college can differ from high school. It provides an easy to
understand vocabulary and visual diagram on how college aspires to move beyond lower levels of learning focused on just remembering or understanding information to higher levels of learning focused on applying and critically thinking about information, as well as creating new information.

Tip #6: Provide context
When researchers (Bransford & Johnson, 1972) have evaluated how learning is impacted when students are provided context before, context after, or no context at all, a clear pattern emerges. Students have the highest levels of academic success when they are provided context before they learn material and the poorest academic success when no context is provided. But interestingly, students have equally poor outcomes when we wait to provide context after. So, it isn’t good enough to tell students that they’ll appreciate what they’re learning later on (e.g., telling students in introductory courses that they’ll understand what they’re learning once they get to upper level classes). For students to benefit from context, it must be provided before they engage in a learning activity. Thus, I repeatedly ask myself the following questions: Do my advisees have adequate context to understand why the university is asking them to fulfill certain major, general education, or degree requirements before they begin them? And do my advisees have adequate context on what life after college will be like, so they can best prepare for it while they are still in college?

I also regularly take my advisees through a demonstration of one of Bransford and Johnson’s (1972) classic experiments to have then experience firsthand what it is like to learn with and without context. Then, I ask them to see my role as an advisor as the person who can provide context, and that they should always challenge me and others on campus to provide context for what they are learning so they can maximize their educational experience.

Tip #7: Start with the end in sight
In another seminal article about advising, O’Banion (1972) also declared that advising meetings need to move beyond simply discussing what classes to pick in a given semester. Instead, he outlined five dimensions for a more complete academic advising process that would ideally progress sequentially through (1) exploration of life goals, (2) exploration of vocational goals, (3) program choice, (4) course choice, and (5) scheduling courses. I couldn’t agree more. I find it invaluable to start advising meetings by asking advisees to reflect on their life and vocational goals. Starting with the end in sight provides critical direction to our advising meetings and what advice I should offer. I have advisees imagine a crystal ball sitting on my desk and to tell me what they currently see themselves doing after they graduate. For students who express a strong vocational interest, I might recommend particular classes, exploring additional majors or minors on campus, getting a particular hands-on experience, or interviewing someone who works in that profession. I also like to encourage my advisees to obtain experiences in what they are interested in as soon as they can to either verify that they’re on the right vocational
path or to have adequate time to change in case they don’t like it. Finally, I can quickly diagnose which advisees have no idea what they want to do with their lives, which leads to a different set of recommendations on how a student can take advantage of our university’s career exploration services.

**Tip #8: Increase your students’ success by advising about high impact experiences**

The Association for American Colleges and Universities (Kuh, 2008), in conjunction with research conducted by George Kuh, has identified a number of high impact learning experiences that promote student engagement and success in college. This list includes participation in first-year seminar courses, learning communities, undergraduate research, service learning, internships, senior capstone courses, writing-intensive courses, diversity/global learning, and collaborative assignments and projects. To have students benefit from as many of these experiences as possible, I recommend them to my first year advisees early and often. I also routinely share recommendations from other college success researchers, like Astin (1993) and Chickering and Gamson (1987).

**Tip #9: Learn about the characteristics of the first year students you will advise**

Each year Beloit College publishes an amusing list of cultural and historical references that a traditional first year student may enter college with to provide faculty greater appreciation of the perspective of their incoming students (see [www.beloit.edu/mindset/](http://www.beloit.edu/mindset/)). But more specific advice on how to better understand and advise students from the millennial generation (students born in the early 1980s through the early 2000s) is provided by Keeling (2003). In particular, she highlights the highly structured curriculum millennials have experienced in K-12 education. Millennial students may enter college expecting similar structure, and may have difficulty with ambiguity and with engaging in critical or creative thinking. In addition, millennials have experienced great pressure to achieve good grades, to excel in extra-curricular activities, and to get into a good college. As a result, rates of anxiety and depression are on the rise. Millennials also arrive on our campuses with lofty goals, but frequently lack a plan or are unrealistic about how to achieve those goals. Finally, intense parental involvement and frequent contact may lead millennials to overly rely on their parents’ advice.

However, the traditional profile of the first year student is changing, and numerous publications have documented new trends in the characteristics of incoming first year students (Keup & Kinzie, 2007; Kennedy & Ishler, 2008). For example, Bigger (2005) highlighted a rise in adult learners, students with disabilities, at-risk students, and students from diverse cultures. Also, poor academic preparedness, mental health issues, and the rising costs of college are growing issues that first year advisors may encounter. Taking the time to appreciate the particular characteristics of your advisees is time well spent to better address their specific needs.
Tip #10: Know your campus resources and refer advisees to them
On our campuses, we all have a wealth of additional academic and student life support services that can promote our advisees’ success. For example, my university has a math and science help center, writing center, communication center, health center, counseling center, disability office, community service learning center, multicultural student services center, and career and academic planning center to name just a few. One of the major goals of our freshman advising program is to refer students to campus resources, and I have greatly appreciated being able to draw from a wide base of expertise on my campus to better advise my students. In addition, I highly recommend finding out if your campus has an ombudsperson who can provide impartial advice on university policies when students face particularly difficult academic or personal situations.

Bonus Tip: Where to find additional information
After 10 years of freshmen advising, my list of tips could easily continue. So I’d like to end on a bonus tip on where to find additional information on first year advising. Just as many of us use APA’s Division 2 (The Society for the Teaching of Psychology) and the web resources and publications that Division 2 sponsors to learn how to improve our skills to be more effective psychology instructors, similar organizations exist to improve the quality of academic advising and the quality of the first year experience. In particular, I’d like to highlight two major professional organizations and their websites. The first is the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA), which can be found at http://www.nacada.ksu.edu. The second is the National Resource Center (NRC) for the First Year Experience and Students in Transition, which can be found at http://sc.edu/fye/index.html. Finally, I strongly encourage you to seek out and partner with the advising and career planning offices on your campus. I continue to be indebted to mine and to my colleagues who coordinate our Freshman Advising program.

References


Nutt, C. L. (2003). Academic advising and student retention and persistence from the NACADA Clearinghouse of Academic Advising Resources http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/tabid/3318/articleType/ArticleView/articleId/636/article.aspx


Advising the “Deciding” Student

WILLIAM WOZNIAK
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT KEARNEY

Our society places a high value on children becoming productive, wage-earning citizens—so much, it affects how we converse with them. When they are asked the question “What do you want to be when you grow up?” kindergarteners readily provide responses (e.g., firefighter, police officer.) Most adults understand that it is rare that the kids actually end up in these careers. Yet the question seems to have become a standard opener for starting a conversation. When the young person is older and has begun college, “What’s your major?” is a similar conversation opener but with more serious ramifications. The response is indicative of what career he or she is actually working toward rather than a “pie in the sky” dream. Indeed, they are closer to “growing up” and should know precisely where they are heading. The choice of major determines the curriculum the student must follow to get a degree, and subsequent to graduation, the career paths that are available to him or her. The declared major also becomes part of the person’s identity, with all of the attributed rights, privileges, and prestige of the aspired-to career. This is quite a change in expectations over time.

But choices are always made with a degree of uncertainty. In choosing a major, it is not possible to consider all of the contingencies that might change the path of one’s career. Given the potential consequences of a wrong choice, such as the difficulty in changing one’s major after a year or two of college, the cost of extra years in college, and even an unhappy life, the choice may be perceived as important, difficult, and urgent.

Furthermore, delaying the choice of a major may have negative consequences. A college student who does not have a declared academic major may be considered a person who is adrift with no purpose to his or her life, except perhaps to “party” in college. Even serious existential questions like “Why am I here?” or “What should I do with my life?” receive short shrift in our utilitarian society. We like decisive individuals. From the philosophical to the practical, the selection of a major needs to be thoughtfully and speedily addressed by the student and sympathetically supported by faculty and professional advisors.

Who Cares About the Choice of Major and Why?
The student’s selection of the “right” major is a decision with a few stakeholders. Parents, who may be the least informed about different academic majors and programs, are usually concerned about their child’s earning potential and are certainly concerned about their child’s happiness. I suspect that parents are less accepting of students who are undecided, suspicious that they are wasting time by partying, rather than being “on track” in their major. The high cost of a college education has only added pressure for the student to decide which major as
soon as possible so they can complete their education in the minimum amount of time and expense to their parents (Bennett and Wilezol 2013, Skorton and Altschuler 2013).

Faculty advisors have a vested interest in attracting the best students into their own discipline and in having students perceive them as generally helpful and informative. Faculty members also have a vested disinterest in advising because teaching and research have a higher priority than service activities, such as advising. Many statements concerning faculty workload emphasize teaching and scholarship, while service (which includes advising) is acknowledged as important but is a distant third (American Association of University Professors 2000). Regardless, the role of the faculty advisor is tremendously important for the deciding student’s well being. As Light (2001) stated, “Good advising may be the single most underestimated characteristic of a successful college experience. Graduating seniors report that certain kinds of advising, often described as asking unexpected questions, were critical for their success.” (p. 81)

The student is the most important stakeholder in making the correct decision about a major. Unfortunately, sometimes their decisions are based on minimal, incomplete, or erroneous information. The large number of majors and programs offered at a typical college or university makes picking a major a formidable task. These alternatives change over time, so even a seasoned professional advisor has difficulty understanding all of the options. Even so, students may consider a major for any of a variety of reasons (Jacobs and Hyman 2009), such as interest and enjoyment in the topic, earning potential, good and/or bad grades, good and/or bad teachers and mentors, what their friends are majoring in, and possibly popular television shows’ depictions of careers. (e.g., The number of students interested in forensics seems to have increased lately, possibly due to the popularity of CSI television series (Bruckheimer and Zuiker 2000).)

Nevertheless, declaring a major is a critical life event. The simple task of declaring a major may rest on answers to questions concerning one’s purpose in life and deeper philosophical and religious questions that academics tend to avoid. The declared major becomes part of the identity of the student and will determine where and with whom a student will spend a large portion of their time. The identity associated with a declared major is not only defined by the academic institution via the program requirements, but also by the popular culture, which for right or wrong, associates any number of personal and professional qualities with some majors. (One need look no farther than the popular television series, Big Bang Theory (Lorre, Prady, and Cendrowski 2007) to see a humorous depiction of what Physicists and Engineers are apparently like. Other more academic considerations include which occupations are stereotypically associated with particular gender roles, e.g., see White & White 2006.)
More practically, the declared major determines the lengthy path of courses that a student must take in order to graduate with a degree. Sometimes the coursework for a major requires a schedule of courses that extends over four or more years of a baccalaureate degree program (e.g., The University of Nebraska Teacher Education programs required a rigid sequence of courses for Nebraska Department of Education certification. The sequence was so full of required courses that any deviation (electives) from the program would extend a student’s 4-year program. (University of Nebraska 2014.)) When college is completed, it is the declared major that usually determines the career and life path of the graduate. The declared major is seen as a partial answer to the question “What do you want to be when you grow up?” This is an important and urgent question indeed.

**Who Are The Deciders?**

According to Gordon (2007) between 9 and 61 percent of high school and college students have indicated they are deciding. There is some difficulty in estimating an accurate number since some college students will choose a major as a matter of convenience and subsequently change majors. So many declared majors are actually deciding. One estimate of the percentage of students who do change their major at least once is 50% (Ronan 2005). Many institutions assign the difficult task of advising deciding students to the professionals in student services. However, given the proportion of students who do change their major, it is fair to say that most faculty advisors will have advisees that need to deal with such major life-choices (Ware 1995).

Gordon (1998) offered a review of a classification of the types of deciding students and suggested that there are seven subtypes, three decided and four undecided. At the extreme of the undecided, are chronically undecided students, whose indecisiveness permeates many aspects of their personal lives and whose anxiety over decisions may require counseling. At the other extreme are students who feel good about themselves, confident about their decisions, and possess an internal locus of control. Generally, the lesson for advisors is that the personal characteristics of each student’s decision-making style must be taken into account and patiently handled when advising deciding students. Steele and McDonald (2000) suggested that the student’s ability to make decisions, as described by the subtypes, should guide the strategy that the advisor takes.

**What Is Their Quest?**

The declared major is a declaration of a particular goal that the student is working towards. Aside from having a major, there is also the notion that there is a *right* major. The “rightness” may be determined by a person’s similar interests to those professionals in the career, or by the skills the person has and how well they match the skills needed for success in a career. The field of career counseling is replete with tests and surveys that purportedly assess a person’s skills and interests in order to match them to the correct choice of major (Gysbers, Heppner, and Johnston 2009). It would be wonderful if there were a recipe for choosing the right major, but it
is possible that there are several positive choices, each with a different level of “rightness.” The quality of the professors, the availability of resources, the changing interests of the student, and other factors could make the “right” major a moving multiple bulls-eyed target.

How does one determine whether the student has selected the “right” major? How does one define the “right” choice? As colleges and universities offer more programs in exotic academic specialties to suit the demands of a rapidly changing job market, the choice of major is as complicated as choosing a salsa at a food market (Slowinski and Hammock 2012.)

**Suggestions For Advising Deciding Students**
The context for advisors of deciding students then includes: (a) a large and rapidly growing number of educational paths from which the student picks, (b) societal and parental expectations of making the “right” choice, (c) prospects for employment, (d) interests and skills of the deciding student, (e) the possibly inaccurate knowledge of potential careers, (f) the general decisiveness of the student, and (g) an unclear definition of what the “right” major is (Slowinski and Hammock 2012.)

There is a temptation to advise deciding students in a manner consistent with our own experiences and values. In my romanticized view of the “right” major, the student selects a major because they have a passion for the subject matter. Since the student finds enjoyment in their major field, they will work hard, and, ultimately become competent. Of course, a side effect is that well-paying employment or admission to a good graduate program will follow, pleasing the student’s parents. The student then proceeds with a satisfying, productive career and a happy life.

Perhaps this view of the “right” major is a sanitized description of my personal development, but does it necessarily define the goal for all of our present-day deciding students? It is generally a mistake in advising (perhaps, as with parenting) to project one’s own values and career pathways onto the advisee (or offspring.)

Perhaps choosing a major should be akin to natural selection (Darwin 1859.) If advisors leave well enough alone, the student’s academic and personal experiences in college will select his or her major. Positive experiences (e.g., good grades, well-liked instructors) will cause the student to gravitate toward that area and perhaps choose it as their major. The selection of the major follows a “natural” course, and, over time, results in an acceptable choice. The major advantage of this approach is that it requires little effort on the part of the advisor. However, the approach may be inefficient and inhumane, especially since it is possible to intervene in order to avoid total failure in college, much less in selecting a major.

Students do select their courses by their individual preferences and self-perceived skills. So even extremely indecisive students will chose a general direction, if not a specific major path.
Indeed, the natural selection metaphor breaks down if we wish to direct students away from areas for which they are disinterested, unmotivated, or ill-prepared.

So now the question becomes “How can the process be expedited in a manner that ensures relative success in the choice of major?” The metaphor evolves from a hands-off natural-selection process to guiding the experiences of the student and intervening in a constructive manner, so that the student successfully chooses a major that is a “natural fit.” However, “fit” and “success” are yet to be defined.

Perhaps these definitions are at the core of a strategy for advising a deciding student. Advising a deciding student is allowing that student to define and operationalize what “fit” and “success” are. This can done by suggesting activities that the student participates in, and following up with a reflection of what those activities might mean for the student in their career choice (Slowinski and Hammock 2012.)

Specifically What Is Your Favorite Color?

In order to effectively advise a an undecided student, it is important to first look at the reasons why the student is undecided, which may be loosely sorted into internal and external factors (Gordon 1998). Level of decisiveness is not the only internal characteristics of the advisee that is important to understand. As has been suggested in personnel selection and counseling research, the need to find a match between the individual’s personal traits and abilities is important in assessing the career choice (Gysbers et al 2009). The admissions office, and perhaps the institutional advising center may provide this type of information to advisors. The American College Testing Program (1994) and the College Board (Harper 2002) have developed standardized tests (the ACT and SAT, respectively) required for admission to many colleges. They are generally predictive of success in higher education and could also provide clues to skills possessed by a deciding student. In both cases, the test scores can minimally illuminate abilities in mathematics and comprehension. Interest surveys, such as the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (Kuder and Diamond 1979). and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (Strong, Campbell and Hansen 1981), can provide data as self reported by the student. Student Support Services may also provide other evaluations (e.g., Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Myers 1962) upon the request of the student. However, these sorts of evaluations should be used with care since their reliability and validity may not be very good. In this case, the test may only serve as a conversation starter.

While it is a nice goal to find a major that matches the interests and skills of a student, motivation may be a trump card in the entire process. Educators have long believed that hard work and high motivation can overcome any limitations that a student has (Howey 2012). It is important for the advisor to attempt to assess the level of motivation of the student. Further, the advisor can also educate the student about the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic
motivation. Perhaps this knowledge can inform the student about the role that their own enjoyment plays in the choice of a major (Howey 2012).

It is also important to understand the external pressures that may be placed on the student. Parental support or lack of it, immediate financial concerns (especially for those students who have part-time employment while in school), other extracurricular commitments, such as athletics, and their own personal expectations may limit their choices. The best way to assess these pressures is to first develop a rapport with the student by engaging him or her in pleasant and unthreatening conversation. Asking open-ended and thought provoking questions can open doors for the deciding student.

Gordon (1992) has suggested that the exploration process includes four types of information; self-knowledge—personal interests and abilities, educational knowledge—types of programs available, occupational knowledge—career and job seeking, and decision-making knowledge—the integration of knowledge to lead to action. The advisor can provide definitive information for some of the categories, but also should direct the student to seek out information. There is no reason to hide these categories from advisees. As a matter of fact, conversations about their past and planned experiences can easily be framed by these categories and lead to considering their personal progress.

Sometimes, for the sake of expediency, advisors try to limit their dealings with advisees to picking courses that meet academic requirements. While this may safeguard the advisor from legal and ethical issues that may arise from a more personal approach, this “business only” approach is incomplete. It is similar to saying that college is merely attending and passing all of the required classes. College is more than “seat time,” and an advisor, especially one for deciding students, should be aware of and encourage participation in extracurricular activities. The advisor needs a good campus awareness to make the student aware of the information sessions and valuable activities on campus. The search for the “right” major should extend beyond the classroom.

The advisor of the deciding student should know key faculty advisors in other departments. If a student expresses an interest in a major, the advisor can be the student’s patron and foster contact with other key faculty. However, the advisor also needs to know the willingness, availability, and personal style of other key faculty advisors to judge whether sending this student to him or her will be beneficial, i.e., don’t send them to the department “ogre.”

Advising deciding students is a relatively passive activity; listen, be non-judgmental, and be supportive. But some activities are more proactive; guide the conversation with provocative questions, be a patron for the students, guide them to the best experiences and information available, keep in touch even after they have declared a major as there still may be doubts
about the choices they have made. All in all, there is no single straightforward recipe to advising deciders.

**Conclusions**

Given the tremendous growth in professional staff at colleges and universities (Ginsburg 2011), advising deciding students is leaving the to-do lists of the faculty. First-year programs, advising centers, and other student services are absorbing the advisement of deciding students. Even so, faculty who have contact with undergraduate students will need to help students address significant decisions in their lives, such as, “What major is the right one for me?” Indeed, many declared majors are still grappling with whether they made the right choice.

Kahneman (2011) has argued that decision-making in humans has major flaws. Once a decision is made, we tend to avoid loss, remember data that supports our desired conclusion, rationalize the correctness of our decisions, and make other errors. Depending on your outlook, this inability to objectively measure the correctness of the choice of major is either good news or bad news. Most students will tell us that they ultimately made the “right” decision, regardless of the objective evidence. That should not reduce the importance of the choice and the thoughtful, deliberate process that led up to it.

Changing technologies and economics has made the goal of doing the “right” thing a rapidly changing target. It has been stated that the average worker will change occupations 7 times in their career. (This statistic has been challenged, see Bialik, 2010.) We argue that the baccalaureate degree gives the students critical generic skills that allow them to adapt to a rapidly changing world and job market. We tout the value of “learning to learn” and “life-long learning.” Yet we hope that we can find the “right” major for them.

As a final note of caution, Hunter Thompson has written “To give advice to a man who asks what to do with his life implies something very close to egomania. To presume to point a man to the right and ultimate goal—to point with a trembling finger in the RIGHT direction is something only a fool would take upon himself.” (Usher, 2013)

**Suggestions for Further Reading**

The National Academic Advising Association provides extensive on-line resources about advising deciding students. See: [www.ksu.edu/nacada](http://www.ksu.edu/nacada)

The National Resource Center for the First-Year Experience & Students in Transition also provides extensive on-line resources. [http://www.sc.edu/fye](http://www.sc.edu/fye)

Virginia N. Gordon is the guru of academic advising in general and advising deciding students. Any of her publications and books are worth reading, especially the most recent edited handbook, Gordon, Habley, and Grites (2008)
References


It is an established best practice to take the prior knowledge and experiences of students into account when helping them to learn new information, skills, or dispositions (e.g. Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). It is perhaps especially important to keep this precept in mind when advising first-generation college students, because their eventual success depends not only on the quality of guidance they receive about where they are going (e.g. which psychology subfield or which graduate program), but also on their advisor’s insight regarding where they might be coming from (e.g. influence of their family of origin on their educational goals and their values that might make it harder for them to enter graduate school). Psychology faculty advisors will be better equipped to give useful guidance if both of these pieces are in place. Understanding the definition of “first-generation” is a good first step toward facilitating this goal.

Generally speaking, the label “first generation” is applied to college students who are the first in their family to attend college. However, it can also mean students whose parent or parents enrolled in college, but did not finish (United States Department of Education, 2008). Some first generation students have older siblings who went before them, so they may not actually be the first in their family to receive postsecondary education. Advisors should keep these loose boundaries in mind when they meet students who have been identified, or who self-identify, as first-generation. Some of the information in this chapter will apply to particular first-generation advisees, but not to all.

**Encouraging Disclosure**

Some first-generation advisees will share information about family, finances, and other relevant issues right away. More often, they will share a little at first and then share more as they begin to build trust. Some advisees will never share personal details, but will make declarative statements that give important information (e.g. “Moving to another state is simply not an option”). Respect limits, but gently encourage disclosure. In addition to providing useful information about students’ circumstances and goals, disclosure may also help the advisees to reduce stress (Barry, et al., 2009).

Even though advising is not a therapeutic relationship (see Knapp, 2007), psychologists with clinical experience may find counseling skills useful in getting first-generation students to feel comfortable opening up about their needs and concerns. Advisors without this background might consider learning about Appreciative Advising, a model used by many universities that offers a six-step structure for engaging students in dialogues about academic, career, and personal issues related to school life (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008; Olsen, 2009; Truschel, 2008).
The steps in Appreciative Advising are: Disarm, Discover, Dream, Design, Deliver, and Don’t Settle.

The goal of the Disarm phase is to make a good first impression and establish a warm rapport. At the Discover step, the advisor uses open-ended questions to learn what the student is enthusiastic and excited about, as well as relevant strengths and weaknesses. These questions lead naturally into the Dream phase, where the advisor can learn more about the advisee’s hopes, dreams, and aspirations. The information obtained through these interchanges can be used to help move the student to the Design phase, where concrete action steps can be developed in order to make dreams and aspirations manifest. At this point, the student enters the Deliver phase, where she or he becomes responsible for delivering on the goals and objectives co-created during advising meetings. The advisor also delivers by remaining an active, positive, and engaged supporter along the way. The final phase of the model is Don’t Settle. The advisor should convey sincere belief in the advisee’s potential for success (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008). Advisors may find these six Appreciative Advising steps helpful for dealing with the following issues, common among first-generation college students.

**Academic Trouble-Shooting**

First-generation advisees are often academically at risk (Ishitani, 2006). A low grade on a major exam may put them in a very stressful and uncertain position. They may not seek help immediately because they do not know how to speak to faculty, they do not know that it is appropriate to ask for help, or they are afraid there might be consequences if they show ignorance (Collier & Morgan, 2007). It is very important to ascertain the degree to which first-generation advisees understand campus norms and expectations about communicating with faculty. Where deficits are noted, role-playing can help build confidence. It is also essential to make sure advisees know about key resources on campus, such as tutoring services and writing centers (Pascarella, et al., 2004, Reid & Moore, 2008).

**Family Expectations**

First-generation students typically feel strong parental pressures regardless of finances or the new demands and opportunities of the college experience (Bryan & Simmons, 2009). Expectations may include performing chores at home, participating in family gatherings and spending as much time with family as they did before entering college. These requests are often to the detriment of upcoming exams, projects and even class attendance. They are also more likely than their peers to express anxiety and worry about their parents (Hartig & Steigerwald 2007; Wang, 2012). Often they are concerned about the family finances, job satisfaction/security, and the health of their parents. This may be particularly salient for students whose cultural roots are planted in collectivist societies (Garrett & Herring, 2001, Tang 2002). Students may not feel totally free to find themselves and to explore socially as well as academically because they do not feel a part of the non-academic aspects of school, or they
feel worried about their parents and/or compelled to spend much time with them (Pascarella, et al., 2004; Wang, 2012). Advisors can assist first-generation students by showing empathy, and brainstorming ways to balance family responsibilities with professional aspirations.

**Choosing a Graduate School: Special Considerations**

Most advisees need guidance when choosing graduate schools, but there are special considerations when working with first-generation students. The only college these students may have encountered is the one where they are currently earning their undergraduate degree. They may never have considered the pros and cons of their present academic environment, let alone a different environment (Lunceford, 2011). Therefore, it may be especially important for advisors to spend extra time talking about the characteristics of different universities. This discussion should not be limited to academic and professional considerations: Advisees need to understand that they are not merely building a vita. They are building a life, and the larger social and demographic context of graduate school matters (Lowery-Hart & Pacheco, 2011).

Some first-generation students may express reluctance to move away from home to attend graduate school. This might be because they have minimal experience with travel in general—they may not know how to travel by train or airplane, or they may worry about the newness of the experience (Barry, et al., 2009). They may also have fears about living in a place where there are few students who share their own ethnic or cultural backgrounds (Leyva, 2011; Stephens, et al., 2012). Some students express profound discomfort about living away from family support, or guilt about leaving when their family of origin still relies heavily on them for support (Bryan & Simmons, 2009; Wang 2012). Moving away for a master’s or Ph.D. in psychology may be discouraged by family members who have conflicting feelings about their child’s educational attainments in light of their own. Parents may express acceptance of their child’s choice to attend college, but may not understand the college experience. This may manifest itself in behaviors such as failure to attend significant events such as an award ceremony or graduation, an inability to express pride and acceptance of the student’s accomplishments, or expressions of incredulity about their child’s ambitions (Bryan & Simmons, 2009; Leyva, 2011). First-generation students may also feel uncomfortable as they develop new plans for their lives, which are so very different from that of their families (Stephens, et al., 2012).

**Educate Yourself to Empathy**

Advisors may also find it helpful to read first-person narratives written by graduate students and faculty from working class backgrounds and/or who were first-generation college students. This will help cultivate empathy for first-generation advisees. Three excellent compilations are *This Fine Place So Far from Home: Voices of Academics from the Working Class* (Dews & Law, 1995), *Strangers in Paradise: Academics from the Working Class* (Ryan, & Sackrey, 1995), and *Working-Class Women in the Academy* (Tokarczyk & Fay, 1993). Advisors might also suggest
that their advisees read these so that they can see that their seemingly unique struggles are shared by others. This may be thought of as an informal form of bibliotherapy (e.g. Deane & Kavanagh, 2012). The first author has given away copies of the Dews & Law (1995) book many times, and students report that it has helped them feel “not alone” and “that the way I feel about school is normal.”

Providing Concrete Direction for Day to Day Functioning

Peters (2007) offers a list of six habits that advisors should encourage first-generation students to develop as part of their daily routine:

- Develop and maintain healthy friendships with positive, motivated peers. These relationships provide an essential support network, particularly important for students who may be lacking relevant supports at home. Meaningful relationships can be developed through engagement in professional development or special interest peer groups on campus.

- Keep a list of important dates. First-generation advisees are particularly vulnerable to punitive repercussions from missing important financial aid, admission, and registration deadlines. Whereas other students may have parents who are vigilant about these things, first-generation students may be on their own. Advisors may find it useful to emphasize the importance of deadlines and create a list of essential dates for each student.

- Create a contact list. First-generation students may experience anxiety or confusion when navigating higher education bureaucracy. Advisors can help by creating and distributing a list of trusted “go-to" people in various academic departments and campus units. Advisees should be encouraged to document dates, names, and a brief summary of important conversations.

- Utilize technology to your advantage. Advisors should establish protocols for online communications, such as emails, and provide important information (such as impending deadlines) virtually whenever possible. It is also important to discuss technology use with advisees; some first generation students will have limited computer experience. It is helpful to know where to send them for help on campus.

- Take advantage of federal programs. For example, the Ronald E. McNair Post Baccalaureate Achievement Program offers a comprehensive system of academic, social, cultural, and financial supports for high-achieving college students from economically-disadvantaged backgrounds.

- Facilitate Persistence. First-generation students are at increased risk for dropping out when the challenges of school feel overwhelming. Advisors can help by sharing personal stories of struggles, and modeling persistence. Advisors may also choose to provide students with a small token of persistence, such as a poem or a magnet with an inspirational quote, as a positive symbol for the journey.
We will close this paper with first-person insights from a first-generation college junior with aspirations for a Ph.D. in educational psychology.

**Final Thoughts: Advice from a First-Generation College Junior**

As I was growing up, attending college was never in doubt. My parents always encouraged my siblings and me to move towards success without limiting ourselves. When I came to college for the first time, I did not realize the challenge I was about to face. Even though my two siblings had previously attended college in Mexico, their experience was very different from mine. To begin with, I encountered a culture completely different than mine. I had graduated from a high-poverty public high school in the U.S., where the majority was the minority. But during my first semester as a college student I realized I was the only Mexican-American in most of my classes. For some students this would not seem to be a challenge, but for me it was. The first college advisor I met with demonstrated a lack of understanding in regards to my seemingly unique situation. For instance, no one ever told me that there were ways for me to save money when buying books such as Amazon.com. This might seem like a little fact, but when your parents simply cannot help you pay for school because that would prevent them from making other home payments and you are having to work to pay for your books, this little fact has the potential of making a huge difference.

In many aspects, I felt a part of the first-generation student description provided at the beginning of this chapter. Indeed, I was a serious student who did not know how to handle a low exam grade and I most certainly did not know what resources were available to me. Most importantly, I did not know how to ask for help. It was not until I met an advisor who understood my background and my challenges that I started getting out of the hole I thought I was in. This advisor supported me in every possible way. In fact, I looked forward to meeting with her because I had found someone to talk to about the things I did not feel I could talk to my parents about—Not because I did not want to share my experiences with them, but because they did not have the knowledge and skills to provide help.

Now that I am a junior, I am able to look back and see how much progress I made thanks to that one advisor. I now have the opportunity to interact at a professional level with other mentors such as the co-authors of the present paper, who have exhorted me to think about my future career as an educational psychologist. While I had not considered pursuing a master’s degree before, I am now planning to pursue not only a Masters’ but a doctoral degree in my area of interest.

As a college advisee, my first insight for college advisors is to get to know their students on a personal level. The impact you might have on first-generation students is greater than you think. In fact, you can potentially change for the better their overall college experience. Also, do
not ever limit them. If anything, push them to achieve more than they ever considered possible before. You will be amazed at how much we can accomplish when we are genuinely inspired.

**Take-Aways**
- Consider where the advisee is coming from as well as where he or she is going.
- Encourage disclosure, but respect boundaries.
- Engage in academic trouble-shooting. Make sure the advisee knows how to talk with faculty, that it is okay to do so, and where to find necessary resources.
- Understand that the advisee may feel pressure to take care of their family of origin, and this might make it hard to move away to attend graduate school.
- Travel may be a new experience. Talk about it.
- Cultivate empathy by reading narratives written by working-class academics. If appropriate, share these resources with first-generation students.
- Provide concrete direction for daily decision-making.
- Expect excellence.

**References**


Advising At-Risk Psychology Students

PAUL C. SMITH AND MIKELENE RAY
ALVERNO COLLEGE

What is an "At-Risk" Student?
The label "at-risk" implies that a student is expected to have difficulty moving through her academic program at an appropriate pace. The label may be applied as a result of the student's own past performance, as for example when she is put on a special academic status (e.g., Probation, Probation with Warning), or when she arrives having been dismissed from another college. Alternatively, the label may reflect expectations about difficulties the student will face as a result of her life situation (e.g., living in a single-parent household or receiving government financial assistance, Wirt et al., 2004). An institution may have special concerns about students of racial minorities, single parents, economically disadvantaged students, or students with special physical or mental health issues. The label "at-risk" serves an essential purpose in helping match students with available assistance. However, as with any potentially negative label, the "at-risk" label may lead to the negative consequences of stereotyping, such as lowered expectations, self-fulfilling prophecies, segregation, and self-handicapping. As a result, the term "at-risk" must be used with care.

There are two issues concerning the advising of at-risk students that are of particular importance to psychology teachers. The first is the extent to which the discipline of psychology helps inform advisers about how best to advise at-risk students. Jones and Becker (2002) remind us that underprepared students are an inevitable part of the college population, and that we need to change our practices in order to accommodate their needs. The second issue is the possibility that the aspects of her life situation that place the student in the "at-risk" category also present challenges for her specific to her wish to be a psychology major and eventually to work in a psychological field. How can we advise the student in such a way that those challenges don't prevent her from reaching her goals? Alternatively, how do we advise the student to adjust her goals so that they are realistic given her life situation?

Can the Discipline of Psychology Make Special Contributions to Advising of At-Risk Students?
Students identified as "at-risk" face a variety of challenges in their academic careers. Many of them nonetheless succeed, graduating on schedule despite sometimes facing an array of daunting risk factors. Of course other students facing similar challenges do not fare as well. If we focus narrowly on risk factors we may conclude that the difference in outcomes was due to pure chance, and therefore that we can do nothing to help the unfortunate victims of those risk factors. However, Social-Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1989, 1999) provides a much more useful way of thinking about those differences, shifting the focus from external risk factors to internal
efficacy beliefs. Bandura notes that "efficacy beliefs determine the goal challenges people set for themselves, how much effort they enlist in the endeavor, their staying power in the face of difficulties, and how formidable they perceive the impediments to be" (1999, p. 214). Social-Cognitive Theory encourages us to think about the situation as under the control of the student: it is her efforts and not uncontrollable risk factors that determine the outcome.

Unlike the magical thinking required in vague exhortations to "believe in yourself, and you can do anything", the self-efficacy focus provides a concrete way for students to understand success:

- A student who believes that she can accomplish a task will persist in her efforts at accomplishing that task even after facing setbacks.
- That persistence of effort is what enables her to accomplish the task.

Of course it is always possible that circumstances will prevent an at-risk student (or any student, for that matter) from accomplishing her academic goals, but if she is to accomplish them, it will certainly be through persistent effort over time. Nothing can guarantee success, but high self-efficacy can equip the student to continue to make her best efforts when a setback threatens to discourage her into giving up.

Understanding students' successes and failures as the product of their self-efficacy equips academic advisors with an important way to think about how to advise at-risk students. Anything that increases students' self-efficacy will increase their persistence and therefore increase their chance of eventual success. In an article applying Social-Cognitive theory to efforts at recovery from substance addiction, Bandura notes some interesting characteristics of efficacious persons that could apply as well to students' academic efforts. He points out that "successful self-regulators" keep careful track of their behaviors and the situations in which they perform those behaviors; that they set for themselves short-term goals; that they establish incentives for themselves, rewarding themselves for productive behavior (Bandura, 1999, p. 214). Each of these works because it explicitly puts control over progress into the hands of the student herself, increasing her sense of self-efficacy. That increased self-efficacy then in turn increases her persistence in the face of setbacks, and that persistence increases her odds of success.

This sense of control not only helps students persist to graduation, it can help students - and especially at-risk students - set appropriate goals for their careers after graduation. As Bandura suggests,

The more efficacious people judge themselves to be, the wider the range of career options they consider appropriate and the better they prepare themselves educationally for different occupational pursuits. Self-limitation of career development arises more from perceived self-
inefficacy than from actual inability. By constricting choice behavior that can cultivate interests and competencies, self-disbeliefs create their own validation (Bandura, 1989, p. 1178-1179)

The possibility that at-risk students may unnecessarily limit their own career choices suggests another application of the content of psychology to the advising of such students. Psychologists have long been interested in accounting for differences in intelligence among people. Dweck and Leggett (1988) suggested that people hold "implicit theories" of these differences: theories that they use but may not be aware that they hold. Furthermore, Dweck and Leggett suggest that the kind of implicit theory of intelligence that a person holds has a significant impact on that person's performance goals in a learning situation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Licht & Dweck, 1984). Some students hold an "entity theory" of intelligence with respect to a subject area, which holds that high performance in that area is a product of natural talent in the area. These students tend to pursue performance goals: trying to perform well immediately in order to establish that they hold that natural talent. A student holding an "entity theory" of intelligence who fails to perform well in an area is inclined to stop making effort in that area, adopting a helpless stance. She takes failure in an area as a sign that she does not have the natural talent required for that area, and gives up on her goal of demonstrating her competence in that area, turning instead to areas where she may feel more likely to demonstrate her competence.

In contrast, other students may hold an "incremental theory" of intelligence in that area, holding that performance is the product of effort over time. These students tend to pursue learning goals: trying to improve their performance in the area over time. When a student who holds an incremental theory of intelligence in an area performs poorly in that area, she takes that as a sign that she needs to direct her efforts at improving her performance. She continues to make those efforts in the area she really wants to pursue, rather than settling for a less challenging goal.

Ehrlich and Russ-Eft (2011) describe the application of Social-Cognitive theory to the challenge of advising students to do more effective academic planning. They discuss some simple and fairly obvious methods, including providing strong academic models for the student and giving the student encouragement. The implicit theories of intelligence orientation suggest some ways to use those methods most effectively. When the advisor's intent is to help students to adopt an incremental theory of intelligence, it is clear that the best role models will be ones whose success was clearly the product of persistent effort despite occasional setbacks, rather than role models who moved effortlessly through their academic work. In particular, students who don't have academic role models in their families may have never known a person during that person's successful academic work. When she sees other students cross the stage to receive their diplomas, she may assume that those are the students who never faced the kinds of challenges that she faces. An advisor can suggest appropriate role models who make the
student understand that the students receiving their diplomas faced the same kinds of challenges that she faces, and overcame them.

Similarly, an advisor giving a student encouragement should consider the message about the nature of intelligence conveyed by that encouragement. Evidence suggests that praise that implies that ability in an area is a fixed trait risks teaching students an entity theory of intelligence. Again, this can cause students to take the inevitable setbacks later as reason to stop making efforts to learn in that area (Kamins & Dweck, 1999). Encouragement that attributes the student's success to her effort is more likely to reinforce the incremental theory and therefore the persistent effort after later setbacks.

**Does Being a Psychology Major Raise Issues for At-Risk Students?**

While at-risk students may sometimes limit themselves unnecessarily, it is also true that some of the factors that place students in the "at-risk" category can put real limits on students. Many of the careers sought by psychology majors involve private interactions with children, with adults with criminal records or substance abuse problems, or with children and adults who have mental illnesses. The exact rules vary from state to state, but students hoping to become providers of services to these populations should expect at some point to be required to pass a government background check. Students who do not pass a background check present a special advising problem. In our experience, students are not aware of the implications of a failed background check until we talk with them about those implications. It is the department's responsibility to ensure that these students are aware of the barrier to employment they face, and also of their options for remediation. Ideally the background checks will be done early enough in the students' academic careers that they can either make alternative plans without delaying their graduation or complete whatever remediation is available before they expect to begin working.

Some of the life circumstances that lead a student to be "at-risk" may raise particular challenges for her in her psychology coursework. While life experience can provide a student with important context, it can also interfere with the student's ability to understand psychological perspectives on an issue. Because psychology is a field whose implications are very personal, quite a bit of the discipline can conflict with students' heartfelt beliefs and attitudes. At one extreme are students whose beliefs in paranormal phenomena challenge their ability to learn in psychology courses (Messer & Griggs, 1989). More commonly, students whose at-risk status is the result of health issues may have developed any of a myriad of beliefs in alternative medical practices, and may use those beliefs to maintain her sense of hope, and of control (Stanovich, 2007). It is important for psychology students to develop critical thinking skills, but advisors of at-risk students should be careful that students have some legitimate basis for self efficacy beliefs to shift over to before their pre-academic efficacy-supporting beliefs are too enthusiastically undermined.
How Can We Support At-Risk Students?
There are a number of concrete practices that advisors can use to support at-risk psychology students. Probably the most important is to establish communication among the department faculty concerning her academic performance in the Psychology curriculum. An integrated curriculum provides a context in which faculty can provide feedback to students about their academic performance in a course that does not only indicate whether or not the student will pass the course, but also how well she can expect to do in later courses. This is particularly true for mid-program courses that are prerequisites for upper level coursework. It is at this critical point that advisors and faculty working together can provide the necessary advice to help at-risk students progress through the program. Miller and Murray (2005) observe that underprepared students are often unaware of the importance of building basic skills and knowledge. Advisors play an important role in helping students to understand what is expected of them and why those expectations will help the student progress through the curriculum. Advisors may want to pay close attention to how the student approaches learning the material in a mid-program course as an indication of how she will perform in her upper level coursework. Will a particular course be a potential struggle? What resources are available for her? Is she prepared to access them?

As noted earlier, individuals who have high self-efficacy keep track of their own behaviors and of the situations in which they perform those behaviors (Bandura, 1999). At-risk students may lack the ability to do this for themselves in the academic setting. Advisors can help raise the self-efficacy of an at-risk student by providing her a framework to keep track of her academic performance as she moves through the Psychology curriculum. Professional advisors (e.g., Earl, 1987) suggest an "intrusive advising" approach in recognition of students' reluctance to seek help, and difficulty recognizing when they need it.

A challenge for both faculty and advisors can occur when an at-risk student wants permission to take a course prior to completing the prerequisites. At-risk students may want to catch up from earlier setbacks if they needed to repeat or delayed taking general education requirements. Communication between course instructors and advisors is critical to ensure that students progress through the curriculum appropriately. The struggle in advising is helping the student realize the benefit of taking courses in the appropriate sequence. At times it may be appropriate in the judgment of the faculty and the advisor to waive a prerequisite. Doing so when it is appropriate will help teach the student that the requirements are not just obstacles put in her way but are part of the plan for her academic development.

Conclusion
The discipline of psychology offers both special challenges and special resources to the at-risk student. Mindful attention to such student’s needs can guide psychology advisors to provide the help needed.
References


Advising Students with Disabilities

CHRISTINE M. NOWIK
HACC: CENTRAL PENNSYLVANIA’S COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The number of students with disabilities on college campuses has increased in the past decade and will likely continue to increase steadily, with some states reporting as much as a 40% increase over eight years in the number of students with disabilities enrolled as undergraduate and graduate students (United States Government Accountability Office [GAO], 2009). The increase of students with disabilities on college campuses presents both opportunities and challenges for academic advisors. Advisors are on the front line of student support and can help students transition to higher education, promote student development, and contribute to student success.

In order to effectively advise students with disabilities, advisors must first understand the federal protection afforded to students with disabilities and assist students in their understanding of the law, particularly for veterans and students who transition from the K-12 disability support system. This chapter provides a brief overview of the applicable laws associated with students with disabilities, as well as specific recommendations for best practices for advising students with disabilities. At the end of the chapter, a list of practical questions is included to assist in the uncovering of information that will help advisors best assist students. With a quality academic advising relationship, students with disabilities will experience an increase in both academic success and satisfaction with their higher education experience.

Disability Law

Federal laws and regulations protect the rights of students with disabilities and provide equal opportunities from kindergarten through all levels of higher education. Students with disabilities in the K-12 system are protected by federal law under the 2004 Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA), which requires public educational institutions to deliver equal, free education to all students in the least restrictive environment possible. At the collegiate level, students are protected under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Americans with Disabilities Act Amendments Act of 2008 [ADAAA] (Section 504, 2007; ADAAA, 2008). Under these federal regulations, students with disabilities must be provided with equal access to educational activities; colleges and universities must provide reasonable accommodations and modifications to programs and policies unless the institution can demonstrate that such modifications fundamentally alter the nature of the educational program or policy (ADAAA, 2008).
Recent federal regulations designed to provide veterans with financial benefits for the pursuit of higher education have contributed to the increase in students with disabilities on college campuses. The Veterans Educational Assistance Act of 2008, also known as the New GI Bill, provided additional educational benefits for veterans serving since 9/11/01 and made over two million veterans eligible for expanded educational benefits (United States Department of Veterans Affairs, 2011). The Veterans Administration (2011) reports that over 950,000 combat veterans and their dependents have accessed the program, with another half-million having applied for benefits. Of the veterans serving since 2001, over 20% experience post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, or other psychiatric illnesses, while just under 20% are living with a traumatic brain injury (TBI) as a result of combat (RAND Corporation, 2008). Many of those disabled veterans end up on college campuses as a result of the new GI Bill, and a crucial point of contact for veteran students is the academic advisor.

Beyond federal legislation and initiatives designed to provide equal opportunity for students with disabilities, however, is the spirit of “meaningful access and full participation” (Belch, 2000, p. 1). Academic advisors play a crucial role in helping students with disabilities fully engage in the collegiate experience by understanding the challenges students with disabilities face in higher education and on their individual campuses, working to ensure the climate for students with disabilities is inclusive and supportive, and supporting the interventions that promote “fair opportunity” (Belch, 2000, p.2). According to Belch (2000), fair opportunity is “equality in which intentional intervention mitigates the effects of discrimination, bias, or inequality” (p. 2). Academic advisors are perfectly positioned to help students engage in higher education with meaning, intention, and purpose while also influencing the landscape and climate of higher education for students with disabilities.

Implications for Advisors
Advising students with disabilities will require advisors to understand the varying effects of disabilities on students. While reading the most recent research and learning about various diagnoses will certainly benefit advisors in expanding their knowledge base, the most effective means of understanding the individual impact of any disability is to listen to the student explain the details. It is important that advisors avoid assuming that a particular diagnosis results in a specific set of functional impacts; disabilities affect individuals differently, so advisors should listen for students’ individual needs.

Though the effects of disabilities vary, one common need of students who are making the transition from high school to college is information about the differences between the aforementioned federal regulations at the K-12 level and the federal regulations at the post-secondary level. Students and their parents might not understand that while IDEA provided students with a team of educators who ensured a student’s success in meeting educational objectives, Section 504 and the ADAAA provide guaranteed access to educational and other
campus opportunities provided a student makes the request for accommodations using the appropriate process, is otherwise qualified, and provides documentation in support of an accommodations request. Advisors can be instrumental in articulating the framework of disability support in higher education so that students and parents can adequately prepare for the transition.

The difference between IDEA and laws applicable in higher education is a point of conversation for students who have been in the pipeline of receiving disability services, but some students will not have the background for this discussion. Veterans, for example, might be new to the idea of disability services, having experienced a combat injury that results in new challenges (Grossman, 2009). Advisors should provide information about the resources available to returning veterans, the laws and policies designed to assist Veterans in accessing higher education, and the prevalence of returning Veterans who access support services.

After discussing the framework for disability support in higher education, advisors should listen carefully to how students describe needs in order to anticipate potential barriers. Course selection is an essential component of the advising process, and advisors should help students with disabilities select courses that will optimize the potential for success. For example, students whose treatment includes medication that produces side effects might be best served by classes that run at a particular time of day. Students with fatigue issues or mobility impairments might require a class schedule that allows for additional travel time. Students who are unable to carry heavy books might need to stop at a locker, residence hall, or vehicle between classes. Further, advisors who are aware of how a student’s disability affects learning can recommend classes of a particular modality: Online courses, for example, could assist a student in meeting educational goals while managing the effects of an illness. Advisors can also recommend courses that are structured to address a student’s specific needs (Hemphill, 2002). A course designed with accessibility in mind will almost always be preferred to a course whose structure does not permit students with disabilities to easily engage with the material.

Advisors should also become knowledgeable about campus resources and should actively pursue partnerships with professionals in all areas. While all students face challenges when transitioning to college, students with disabilities face additional challenges that will require the services of a variety of campus offices (Clemetson, 2006), and advisors are instrumental in connecting the many silos of services on campus (Brunett & Segoria, 2009).

One of the most important partnerships is with the disability support office. Professionals who work regularly with students with disabilities can provide additional insight on the impact of disabilities on learning, assist in problem solving, and provide additional resources to help students become strong self-advocates. Health and Counseling Services can also provide information and support, and all students should be oriented to the available services. Students
with disabilities under the care of an off-campus health provider should develop a relationship with on-campus medical staff to convey any specific health needs that could arise during the student’s academic career. As the student charts an academic path, it will be important to collaborate with campus offices such as Career Planning and Study Abroad to identify and mitigate any potential barriers to internships and travel experiences. Students with disabilities and their advisors would also be well served by building a relationship with the financial aid office. In addition to providing guidance when unexpected complications disrupt a student’s educational plans, the financial aid office can share information about potential scholarships and other support opportunities. For veterans, in particular, a close relationship with financial counselors is important as students work to understand their educational benefits. In fact, Vance and Miller (2008) found that veterans used financial counseling more than any other academic accommodation or campus resource. Advisors who draw upon a variety of resources in their work with students demonstrate one of the basic tenets of good advising: A “tag team” approach is best and is all the more crucial when advising students with disabilities (DeSousa, 2005).

In addition to the resources on campus, advisors should take time to consider the campus itself and the potential barriers for students with disabilities. Often the physical structure of a campus can make traveling between classes or accessing resources difficult for a student with a disability, and advisors who are intimate with the campus can make recommendations to students with regard to class location, residence halls, and other campus buildings. Many buildings on college campuses were constructed prior to accessibility mandates (Hemphill, 2002), and advisors who are attentive to facilities issues can make recommendations for improvements to the institution as well; often, even minor adjustments can improve the experience of students with disabilities as they navigate the campus.

Advisors should be attentive to other types of potential barriers as well. Some programs or majors require licensure or comprehensive exams, and students and advisors should begin early discussions of those requirements. Advisors can assist in developing a plan to ensure that students have the best chance at success, and early planning is always crucial. It is never too early to begin discussing potential careers as well. As professionals in the field, advisors can provide insight into the demands of various career options with an eye toward the functional impacts of a disability. While an advisor will never discourage a student from pursuing a particular career on the basis of disability alone, it is important for both advisor and student to consider the impact of the disability when evaluating potential career choices and to create a plan for minimizing those impacts.

Students with disabilities have been referred to as an “invisible majority” because so many experience the impact of disabilities on their education (Harding, 2008, p. 193). However, one
of the challenges of advising is that students do not often disclose the presence of a disability to an academic advisor, particularly if that disability is not apparent (Preece et al., 2007). Therefore, advisors should become educated about the differences between typical distress associated with the rigor of academic life and the signs of distress associated with a disability that has been exacerbated by stress (Sharpe, 2012). Sudden changes in a student’s appearance, speech, energy level, or affect warrant a referral to the health and counseling center, even if the student has not disclosed the presence of a disability (Harper & Peterson, n.d.). Additional warning signs include changes in academic performance, lack of attendance, procrastination, and sleeping in class. Coordinating services is good practice in academic advising, as within HIPPA and FERPA regulations, health professionals and academic professionals can communicate to assist the student in developing a plan that could include academic support, counseling support, medical support, veteran services, and financial services (Shannon & Bucci, 2013).

In addition to helping students access the support they need from campus offices and organizations, advisors can also encourage students to speak directly with their faculty members about educational needs and goals. In Hadley’s (2006) qualitative study of college freshmen with learning disabilities, students expressed anxiety at the idea of communicating with faculty members, conveying a feeling that faculty members are “uninformed and unconcerned about students with learning disabilities” (p. 13). Coaching students through the process of communicating with a faculty member through role play or by assisting in the creation of a list of talking points will encourage students to take a more active role in communicating needs to faculty. The results of Hadley’s (2006) study indicate that students’ self-advocacy and faculty support were instrumental to student learning and success.

Campus integration is another essential component of student success. Advisors should encourage students to become active members of the campus community, suggesting participation in groups that appeal to individual student tastes and interests (Harding, 2008). Veterans, in particular, will benefit from a focused effort to connect with veterans services on campus, other student veterans, and campus professionals with military backgrounds who can assist in navigating the complexities of higher education (Grossman, 2009).

**Practical Application**

Advisors who are unfamiliar with the impact of disabilities in higher education might be uncomfortable with eliciting details about a student’s individual needs, even once a student has disclosed the presence of a disability. To assist in that endeavor, advisors should draw on the following questions to build trust and promote information sharing.

- What was your favorite subject in high school? Why did you enjoy it? How do you enjoy spending your free time? What activities are you particularly good at performing?
(These questions assist the advisor in identifying academic strengths, personal strengths, and the types of tasks toward which students gravitate. This information is useful in schedule planning, vocational planning, and identifying outlets for managing stress.)

- What are some of the ways in which your life is affected by your disability? (After a student has disclosed the presence of a disability, an advisor can learn about a student’s academic and non-academic needs and anticipate potential barriers to success.)

- What are some of the strategies you have developed to compensate for those effects? (Advisors will learn what techniques students naturally draw upon and can make recommendations for additional techniques and campus resources that can assist.)

- Based on your understanding of our campus and program, what are some of the things you think you will need to be successful here? (Students will provide insight that might differ from an advisor’s perception of needs based on the student’s experience with the campus.)

- What concerns or fears do you have about your membership in our campus community? (Advisors should learn as much as possible about real and perceived barriers to success and work with students to mitigate the effects.)

- As your advisor, what specific things can I do to assist you in meeting your goals? (Advisors can learn about students’ expectations of the advising relationship, provide referrals, and assist students in developing self-advocacy skills).

**Conclusion**

The number of students with disabilities has increased on college campuses nationwide, and that trend is likely to continue. Financial support for veterans – many of whom face new challenges after combat-related injuries and trauma – has contributed to the increase in students who require specialized support to achieve their academic goals. Advisors who are knowledgeable about the needs of students with disabilities can provide support, feedback, and advice to assist students in becoming strong self-advocates and well-prepared future professionals. Advisors can coordinate campus resources and make referrals in support of students’ educational goals, while also making recommendations to the institution for improving access for students with disabilities. As front-line professionals, academic advisors are in the unique position to serve as a student’s primary resource in navigating the often complex terrain of higher education.

**References**


Academic Advising for Nontraditional Students

B. JEAN MANDERNACH, TED CROSS, AND SHANNA HUSLIG
GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY

Due to shifting social and economic pressures, an increasing number of working adults are electing to enroll in postsecondary degree programs (Richardson & King, 1998). At present, nontraditional students are the fastest growing population on college campuses with current estimates classifying 40% to 75% (depending on the reporting structure) of undergraduate students as nontraditional learners (Giancola, Munz, & Trares, 2008; Jaschik, 2010; Miller-Brown, 2002; National Center for Education Statistics, 2011; Paulson & Boeke, 2006). While there are no universally accepted parameters defining nontraditional students, most classification systems utilize age, typically over 24-years-old, as the key characteristic (Schuetze & Slowey, 2002). Inherent in this age-based classification system is the assumption that nontraditional students have delayed enrollment (i.e., experienced time separation between high school and college), live off-campus, are financially independent, work fulltime (i.e., more than 35 hours per week) and/or have substantial family obligations (CAEL, 2000). As a function of these factors, nontraditional students are more likely than their traditional-age counterparts to attend college on a part-time basis (Munro, 2011; Tight, 1991) and are at a greater risk for failure to complete their educational degree programs (Lane, 2004; Miller-Brown, 2002; Patterson, Zhang, Song, & Guison-Dowdy, 2010; Wlodkowski, Mauldin, & Campbell, 2002). In order to help nontraditional students overcome the obstacles they face, faculty and programmatic leaders need to evaluate the unique academic advising needs of this population.
As highlighted by Ague (2013, ¶ 1), “While academic advising is critical for the success of students, it is also responsible for facilitating involvement in the total learning experiences for adults and other nontraditional learners.” The importance of effective academic advising is intensified for adult learners as they typically do not reside on campus, have differential motivation and availability to participate in extracurricular activities and may have a limited support network available on campus (Peters, Hyun, Taylor, & Varney, 2010). The academic advisors of adult learners not only provide necessary guidance in “connect[ing] students with learning opportunities in order to attain the defined learning outcomes” (Ague, 2013, ¶ 2), but also serve a key role in nurturing, motivating and supporting the holistic educational experience for nontraditional students. To effectively meet the needs of adult learners, academic advising must be adapted to the unique practical, situational and professional needs of nontraditional students. In addition, advising services and opportunities must consider the format, scheduling and availability of advising services to be amenable to the demands of adult learners.

Nontraditional students have distinctive needs and expectations not found among traditional 18- to 24-year-old students. Harding (2008, p. 195) highlights unique challenges for adult learners entering (or reentering) college:

- Additional financial burden
- Lack of familiarity with campus resources
- Family obligations
- Time-management skills, or time constraints on graduation
- Lack of study skills
- Lack of confidence in academic abilities
- Lack of integration into the social life of the campus
- Lack of utilization of life experiences in and out of the classroom
- Lack of a support system between adult learners on campus
- Lack of class scheduling around their other responsibilities

Recognizing these constraints, adult learners require additional advising considerations to support their successful integration into the academic community. The following recommendations provide guidance for designing an advising structure that supports nontraditional students to foster academic success.

**Recommendation #1: Proactively Foster Awareness of University Processes and Resources**

Due to the time delay between high school and college, nontraditional learners have less familiarity with college and a limited understanding of procedural processes underlying higher education (Giancola, Munz, & Trares, 2008). University processes (such as enrollment, financial aid, obtaining learning materials, needed computer software, etc.) are often foreign to those
removed from college settings and can create unintentional barriers to a successful college experience. Compounding this concern, the support networks of nontraditional students are also typically removed from the college setting and may provide inappropriate or outdated advice (Peters, Hyun, Taylor, & Varney, 2010). Advisors should be prepared to provide information beyond the scope of the academic program to help nontraditional students effectively navigate university systems. For example, advisors should be prepared to help students locate the proper learning materials for class. This may include helping students locate the correct books and corresponding editions, helping students understand the computer requirements for university learning management systems, orienting students with important university dates and deadlines, as well as helping students understand the financial aid documents, requirements, and associated websites.

Likewise, nontraditional students may not be aware of the range of university resources (i.e., disability resources, library, tutoring, writing center, technology support, etc.) available to support academic success (Redfern, 2008). Because nontraditional students often lack sufficient knowledge of academic services to ask appropriate questions, effective academic advising should go beyond being responsive to the student’s inquiries to proactively increase understanding of various education options (CAEL, 2000). For instance, advisors may want to create email-ready handouts that outline university resources. These handouts could include links to university webpages for such things as tutoring, writing centers, library services, health and counseling, and other services that may be beneficial to students.

**Recommendation #2: Assist Nontraditional Students in Understanding the Language and Culture of the University**

As highlighted by Ague (2013, ¶ 2), “adult learners coming back to college at this stage of life can easily be intimidated by the ‘collegease’ rhetoric necessary to process application and registration procedures.” Advisors serve an important role helping nontraditional students to navigate the language, processes and structures that surround their classroom experiences. In this way, academic advisors may need to serve the function of academic translator by helping frame academic speak into understandable language. Further, because nontraditional students are often intimidated by the novelty and foreignness of the academy, it may be helpful for advisors to proactively help students become familiar with new terms and processes. For instance, during the enrollment process advisors can have a document of commonly asked questions and frequently used terms. The advisors can review this document with the student and or provide an electronic copy of it to the student. This type of translating work presents the opportunity for advisors to help students become familiar with new terms and ideas.
Recommendation #3: Consider the Unique Circumstances Surrounding Nontraditional Students’ College Experience.

Unlike traditional students, adult learners are juggling a range of responsibilities that compete with their academic work (Peters, Hyun, Taylor, & Varney, 2010). Advisors must have a basic understanding of family systems theory, adult development/learning theory and work-life balance to be sensitive and responsive to the unique challenges faced by nontraditional students (Miller-Brown, 2002). While academic advising for traditional students typically focuses on course progression and career information, for nontraditional students “academic advising is more than just scheduling classes, it is a way of life … [it] is the tool that is used to encourage, nurture, support and provide a way for adult learners to succeed” (Ague, 2013, ¶ 2). Thus, it becomes a central part of the advisors’ job to help students deal with issues outside of course work that may hinder their academic progress.

For instance, advisors may find it helpful to start each academic counseling session by opening up time to chat about what is happening in the student’s life. As this practice becomes a habit, and as the advisor notes relevant personal information about each student, they can then look for patterns or red flags that the student may or may not be aware of. If for example, a student discloses that there is an upcoming major life event, such as a wedding or special vacation, the advisor can follow up with the student to develop plans to help the student be academically proactive so as not to fall behind when the event nears. These types of strategies can help students navigate the personal issues that may affect their course of study.

Recommendation #4: Provide Emotional and Social Support to Foster Academic Engagement.

Nontraditional students often enroll in college as a function of a major life transitions (i.e., divorce, career change, changing status of children, etc.) (Miller-Brown, 2002; Peters, Hyun, Taylor, & Varney, 2010; Redfern, 2008) and report higher levels of anxiety in relation to starting college (Redfern, 2008). As such, the typical stress associated with successfully attending college is compounded for nontraditional students by increased personal, financial and relationship factors along with associated barriers (i.e., childcare needs, financial obligations, work requirements) (Giancola, Munz, & Trares, 2008). Due to these competing obligations and stressors, nontraditional students report limited support from their families and/or communities in relation to their academic goals (Giancola, Munz, & Trares, 2008; Peters, Hyun, Taylor, & Varney, 2010).

Further, due to the time gap since attending schooling, adult learners may underestimate the challenges of college, hold unrealistic views about their ability to integrate schooling into their lives, and/or may lack confidence in their ability to be successful students (Giancola, Munz, & Trares, 2008; Miller-Brown, 2002). Nontraditional students attending college due to workplace requirements may also have increased pressure to complete their degree within a limited
timeframe (CAEL, 2000). An advisor who is sensitive to these concerns, limitations and pressures is essential for assisting students in designing realistic programs and courses of study.

One example of how advisors can help nontraditional students deal with these pressures is by providing case studies of how other “fictitious” students have dealt with the demands of life and schooling. In providing verbal or written examples of how others have overcome similar obstacles, advisors make implicit pressures explicit and thus create a space within which students may be more likely to share their problems. In addition, this technique also provides the student with concrete strategies that they could use to overcome similar problems. In this way, academic advising provides a consistent source of academic, motivational and social support for the life and career goals of adult learners (CAEL, 2000). Effective advising goes beyond a strictly academic scope to help nontraditional learners integrate with the campus community, create time-management strategies and build social networks.

Recommendation #5: Tailor Advising and Academic Opportunities in Recognition of Learners’ Professional Experience.

Despite being committed to their academic goals, nontraditional students tend to view themselves as workers first and students second (Compton, Cox, & Laanan, 2006). As such, it is essential that academic advisors work closely with adult learners to help them understand the value of the experiential knowledge that they bring to their degree program (CAEL, 2000). Within this context, advisors should discuss opportunities for students to gain credit by examination or to integrate employment into appropriate credit-based programs (CAEL, 2005).

Recommendation #6: Provide Flexibility in Scheduling and Delivery of Academic Advising

To accommodate conflicting work-family-school demands, many nontraditional learners enroll primarily in evening, weekend and online courses. As a result, adult learners are not on campus during the regular business hours for the majority of support and advising services. In addition, nontraditional learners have less time available and are more likely to expect their academic advisors to be available in response to their needs (Giancola, Munz, & Trares, 2008). Recognizing this disparity, there must be increased flexibility for students to access curricular and support services during non-traditional working hours (CAEL, 2000). As discussed by Ague (2013, ¶ 4), “A good academic advisor serving nontraditional learners will embrace this idea and be willing to think ‘outside of the box’ in order to design and deliver services that will encourage these students to persist toward the ultimate goal of completing their degree.” Advisors should provide a range of face-to-face scheduling options (including evening and weekends) as well as include opportunities to consult via email, telephone, web-conferencing or online chat.

In many ways, the less geographically fixed academic advising becomes, the better for nontraditional students. Advisors should take advantage of technology to communicate with
students often. Simple email templates can be set up and used as a way to efficiently reach out to students on a regular basis. Also, online web-conferencing services like Skype may be helpful in creating a face-to-face connection, but at the convenience of the student being able to meet with their advisor while not physically at campus. Last, advisors may want to prepare short videos in response to lengthy email questions that the student could watch on their own time. These videos could be part of a larger video library of responses to frequently asked questions. In essence, finding ways to meet with students in flexible ways creates a better chance for advisors to connect with and help nontraditional students.

**Recommendation #7: Integrate Appreciative Advising**

Appreciative Advising is “the intentional collaborative practice of asking positive, open-ended questions that help students optimize their educational experiences and achieve their dreams, goals, and potentials” (Appreciative Advising, n.d., ¶ 2). Designed as a comprehensive academic support model, Appreciative Advising emphasizes building and maintaining a relationship with each student as a pivotal component of alleviating barriers to promote academic success (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008). Due to the increased challenges faced by nontraditional students, Appreciative Advising has proven to be particularly beneficial in supporting adult learners (Bailey-Taylor, 2009; Redfern, 2008). The six stages of the Appreciative Advising model (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008) are:

1. Disarm – Build rapport to create a welcoming space.
2. Discover – Ask questions to uncover the strengths and skills of the student.
3. Dream - Understand the student’s passions, goals, and dreams for the future.
4. Design – Co-create a strategy that will help the student achieve their academic goals.
5. Deliver – Encourage and support the student as they work to reach their academic goals.
6. Don’t Settle – Promote continued growth and development with high expectations.

To effectively implement Appreciative Advising, advisors should ask questions related to the student’s personal life and dedicate time to building a relationship with the student. Since nontraditional learners may not be available for face-to-face meetings, email and phone communications are effective strategies for building rapport and gaining an understanding of the student’s strengths, skills and goals. Advisors must go beyond an exclusive focus on coursework and academic activities to discuss students’ long-term goals, then work collaboratively with students to design an action plan to foster goal-attainment. Activities aligned with an Appreciative Advising model include follow-up emails to see how the student’s class is going, calling or sending a congratulatory email when a course is successfully completed, or encouraging a student to start graduate studies upon completion of their undergraduate degree (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008).
Conclusions

“If nontraditional/adult students pursuing degrees are going to develop and prosper on college and university campuses, then the creation of special support programs for these students must be seen as a critical part of the entire lifelong-learning, degree-seeking enterprise” (Miller-Brown, 2002, p. 72). In order to be successful in college, adult learners need an integrated, comprehensive advising system that is tailored to support their unique needs (Bamber & Tett, 2000; Kim & Feldman, 2011). Key to effectively addressing the academic advising needs of nontraditional learners is awareness that this is not a homogeneous group and that the challenges faced by adult learners vary considerably from individual to individual (Miller-Brown, 2002). This range of circumstances and demographics mandates that academic advising continuously adapts to meet an ever-changing set of needs. In addition, academic advising for nontraditional students must expand the scope of advising to address the unique practical, psychological and professional needs of adult learners while fostering their integration in the college community (Ague, 2013). Through dedicated advising that is adapted to the goals, needs and lifestyles of nontraditional students, academic departments can enhance the success and satisfaction of these learners.

References


Higher education in the United States has become increasingly global. Even to the casual observer, it is clear that American institutions of higher education are populated with new faces of cultural diversity. According to Priest and McPhee (2000) American colleges and universities have been very successful in recruiting students from differing cultural backgrounds and that these students have changed the nature of the campus environment (Upcraft & Stephens, 2000). For several years, the United States has led the world in attracting the highest number of international students interested in pursuing higher education. Between 2000 and 2010, the number of international students attending U.S. institutions increased by 50% to nearly 725,000 (Institute of International Education, 2012) and those studying in the United States for the first time increased by 16% in just one year (Witherell & Soman, 2009).

American colleges and universities have good reasons to respond to international student interests. These students enrich campuses by adding global perspectives and unique cultural viewpoints, help maintain the stability of enrollment, and sustain tuition revenue (Chapdelaine & Alexitch, 2004). However, ensuring success of a highly diverse group of international students is not without challenges. While advisors can meaningfully contribute to the success of international students, and the long-term success of international education, many advisors have received little or no training in how to best work with international students (Priest & McPhee, 2000).

International students coming to study in the United States will face many unique challenges that are different from those experienced by domestic students. While some of the challenges are temporary in nature, such as adjusting to new foods, climate, and types of housing (Althen, 1984), other challenges are more serious and can negatively affect their academic performance. Among these challenges are coping with governmental regulations, cultural differences, language difficulties, and differences between our educational system and the one with which they are familiar. In this chapter we will discuss some of the challenges that advisors of international students should keep in mind in order to provide helpful student services. We will also describe some approaches to effective advising of international students.
Government Regulations
For the purposes of this chapter, an “international student” refers to an individual who has a permanent residence elsewhere, is in the United States for the purpose of fulltime study, and plans to return to their home country. All international students are required to register in the Student Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS) database, which is administered by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security. Because of the tragic events of September 11, 2001, the U.S. government intensified focus on international visitors. Prior to the events in 2001, the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) under the Department of Justice administered student visits. Since the Department of Homeland Security was implemented, these services are now housed in three separate bureaus, Customs and Border Protection (CBP), Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), and the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS). The CBP administers ports of entry, and will be the first contact with students, ICE oversees the SEVIS database and USCIS handles applications for visitor benefits. If students seek off-campus employment, USCIS issues authorization for this activity.

The SEVIS database allows the university to issue important forms including the I-20A, I-20B and the DS 2019. The I-94 form is the arrival/departure record and is usually stapled to the student’s passport upon entry into the United States. The I-94 form contains information about the student’s entry point and date of entry to the U.S., the type of visa and the permitted length of stay. The I-94 document is the official record of the student’s status in the U.S. and if it is lost, the student must get a replacement. The I-20 forms are issued by the University and certify the eligibility for student status. The Office of International Education at the University keeps the I-20A form while the student must keep all I-20B forms in his or her possession.

Most international students are issued an F-1 Visa, while a smaller number of students participating in an exchange program are issued a J-1 Visa. However, for non-migrant visitors to the United States, there are a total of 19 primary classifications, which are often subdivided into several additional categories. The designation of the international student visa can affect whether they are required to take classes (F-1 and J-1), can opt to take courses (most other designations), or are prohibited from doing so. Visas that prevent a non-migrant from fulltime study are tourist visas (B-1, B-2) and student-dependent visas (F-2).

Cultural Differences
Some of the adjustment problems that international students are likely to experience include loneliness, homesickness, disconnection from things familiar, difficulties in becoming a part of social activities, and discrimination (Sam, 2001). As an advisor, it may be tempting to group international students versus domestic students; however, each international student arrives with a unique history and previous education. For example, students from Canada and China are international students, but the social, cultural and educational systems in Canada are very similar to those in the United States while those systems in China can be vastly different. The
first meeting with an international student may be uncomfortable for the student or the advisor. For example, a young woman comes to my office for her advising appointment. She is from Brazil, all smiles, and nervousness. As I stand to shake her hand, she offers her cheek for the kisses of greeting that are typical in the city where she has come from. I wonder briefly if I have offended her by not following her expectation. A different young woman arrives at my office for advising. She is from Saudi Arabia and dressed in a traditional hijab, her face covered. I extend my hand in greeting and in response she quickly pulls her hand behind her back.

Some of the cultural differences that an advisor is likely to encounter among international students are their concept of time, their use of space, and their values (Charles & Stewart, 1991). While it is not possible to characterize all possible cultural differences, and the potential problems that they may cause in the relationship between an advisor and an international advisee, a good summary exists in Clark and Kalionzes (2008), which is highlighted along with tips from Boston University (http://www.bu.edu/) in the following paragraphs.

Depending on their country of origin, gender, social status, and individual family wealth, an international student will arrive for an advising appointment with an unpredictable set of expectations. During the meeting, there are physical indicators that cultural differences exist. For example, a student may be frustrating or frustrated as they try to understand how things are done at the U.S. University. This may result in obvious anger, no response, or inappropriate responses for the situation. As the advisor, you must remain calm and seek ways to resolve the lack of understanding and student acceptance.

The expectations of the student, based on their cultural experience, can influence the interactions with their advisor. For example, in some countries including India and Bangladesh, students have a standard curriculum and do not meet with an academic adviser. These students may be uncomfortable choosing classes and electives because they do not experience decision making with classes in their home country. Alternatively, in some parts of China, the academic advisor not only schedules classes, but arranges housing, talks with other professors on behalf of a student, and negotiates term grades.

Another area that is often likely to lead to conflict is associated with bureaucracy, which is universal, but unique in every country and campus. In some countries, it is necessary to work up to the most senior person in an organization for an answer while other students may only accept an answer from a male staff member. Students from certain countries have experienced success by asking the same question repeatedly until the desired outcome was achieved. In all of these situations, it is necessary for you to be clear and make sure that the student understands that there are no exceptions to the rule or policy. Make sure that your supervisor understands that a student may request to speak with a “higher up” and summarize your interactions with a “difficult advisee” so that the supervisor is fully aware of the situation.
**Language Difficulties**

Often a student’s success is dependent on their ability to understand the lecture material that is given in a second language (Stoynoff, 1997; Yeh & Inose, 2003). To gauge the student’s ability to understand English, a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) is usually required. TOEFL scores are based on the type of TOEFL that a student takes. Scores of 550 on a written TOEFL are equivalent to 213 on a computer-based TOEFL, and 80 on an Internet-based test. Students who score significantly below the benchmarks may need to take English courses prior to enrolling in regular academic coursework (ETS.org).

Occasionally, students will take other forms of English proficiency tests. The most common is the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) where a score of 6.0 indicates English proficiency.

Although the scores on these tests correlate with an international student’s English ability, many students struggle for a multitude of reasons. These reasons can really only be appreciated by having firsthand experience being in a foreign country without translation services where the language is familiar but native speakers speak quickly, use uncommon words and phrases, or use the language conversationally.

For advisors, the complexities of cross-cultural communication are real. To communicate effectively, advisors need to be aware of the attitudes, values and biases they bring to the table. Differences exist in terminology and procedures but the language barrier itself is often the most frustrating for both the student and the advisor. Be aware that students from some cultures are likely to agree politely with everything you suggest and yet leave your office both frustrated and confused because they understood so little of what was being discussed. It is important to check perceptions by having the student repeat their understanding of the conversation. To help in overcoming language difficulties in both advising and teaching international students, a number of useful tips have been developed by various sources including a set from Boston University (See http://www.bu.edu/).

**Academic Challenges**

International students are likely to have some difficulty in adjusting to the academic requirements of American colleges and universities, in part because the expectations with regard to student learning outcomes may be quite different from what they have previously experienced. Some students may find the competitive nature of higher education in the United States to be at odds with their cultural orientation (Charles & Stewart, 1991). Students whose educational system provided a knowledge-based curriculum may find our focus on critical thinking, synthesis and application to be unfamiliar. Advisors can assist international students in adjusting to these differences by explaining the purpose of our approach and how these unfamiliar techniques can help them reach their academic goals. In the beginning, advisors will
probably need to be fairly directive since international students may not be accustomed to as many choices as those provided by US higher education. Since admission and registration is often accompanied with time constraints, students should be given clear, concise and specific advice. As international students progress through the American educational system and become used to the local campus procedures, the advisor should move towards a more developmental model of advising.

**Credit Hours**

Once students meet the institution’s English language requirements, they can be admitted to take classes, and in order to maintain their visa status, undergraduate students are generally required to maintain a 12 hour load and graduate students are required to maintain a 9 hour load. Often this requirement is the focus of international students who worry about maintaining visa status since violation of this rule can result in deportation. Because of the 12-hour rule, it often helps if the student enrolls in 15 or 16 credit hours. The student then has the option to drop a course that is proving to be too difficult. In addition, an exception to the number of credit hours can be granted once with the approval of an advisor.

**Choosing Courses**

When helping students select courses, it is important to assess the student’s language skills along with their interests. International students are likely to be unfamiliar with certain aspects of the U.S. higher education system, such as electives or a core curriculum. Advisors should take time to explain these concepts to the student and illustrate how these components fit together in a degree. For example, general education is relatively unique to the American system so advisors may need to explain why this is important and what it provides to the student.

**Choosing a major**

International students may be sponsored by government agencies in their home country. Often students are selected for support based on their intention to pursue a specific academic program. Unlike domestic students, these students may not have another option for a major. Discussion with students about options such as comprehensive majors, majors with minors, and double majors should also be made to ensure their understanding.

**Academic Integrity**

The definitions of cheating and plagiarism are culturally dependent. International students may struggle with why sharing work or copying an expert’s work is considered dishonest. Juwah, Lal and Belouci (2008), found that in Confucian based societies in Asia individual analysis of work is considered egoistical and impolite. Similarly, in some African and Arabian cultures, teaching is done primarily through memorization, so that paraphrasing would be seen as a sign of disrespect for their teachers.
Grades. It is also important to discuss the U.S. grading system as grades, grading, and grade point averages may not be familiar to international students and can lead to confusion if an international student is placed on academic probation. For example, Stürzl-Forrest (2012) provides the following illustration comparing the grading standards of Nepal to that of the United States.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage earned</th>
<th>Nepal description</th>
<th>U.S. Grades</th>
<th>U.S. grade description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marks</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Marks</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-100%</td>
<td>Distinction</td>
<td>A-C+</td>
<td>Excellent to Adequate Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-74%</td>
<td>First Division</td>
<td>C-D-</td>
<td>Adequate to Marginal Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-59%</td>
<td>Second Division</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Unacceptable Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-44%</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Unacceptable Performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Advice to Advisors
The purpose of advising is to assist the student in developing their abilities to create and complete a challenging and meaningful academic curriculum; help them clarify their academic and professional goals; and learn strategies for succeeding in a U.S. classroom. When a student arrives to meet with their advisor for the first time, often the student is nervous and has scripted what they wish to say to the advisor. Furthermore, the student often has a clear goal in meeting with the advisor. It is important to listen to the whole monologue before offering help. When meeting with an international student, it is important to choose words carefully and speak as clearly as possible. Avoid jargon, colloquialisms, and analogies. For example, a student’s schedule might be “in good shape” but it will be clearer to the student if the schedule is said to be “very appropriate”. Abbreviations and acronyms, including those for a college or a department, will also likely confuse international students or be meaningless to them.

Take a few minutes with an international student to get to know them. Learn to pronounce their name correctly as this shows respect. Also take a few minutes to learn a little about where specifically they are from; often opening a map on Google to have the student show you their city is a good icebreaker. In addition it is good to ask questions about their culture and customs, favorite food, and family. Avoid generalizations in your own mind because there are as many differences in Japan, China, Brazil, and India as there are among the states, races, and religions of the United States.

Throughout the meeting with a student, check for their understanding of what you are telling them. This is especially true with students from most Asian cultures where nodding or bowing is done as a sign of respect (but not necessarily for showing understanding). It is often helpful to have a student repeat back what you have told them in their own words. Avoid asking a student if he or she understands, as this may cause the student to feel that they must answer
affirmatively either to avoid showing their failure to understand or out of respect to not question your authority (or your failure to communicate clearly).

A key finding of Rice et al. (2009) is that advisees who differ culturally from their adviser often do not form close emotional bonds and the authors suggest that advisers should be sensitive to these cultural differences. Advising international graduate students also creates challenges because the students are typically older, have previously completed a degree, and are now focused on specific goals associated with obtaining a U.S. advanced degree, and possibly immigrating to the United States (Rice et al. 2009). To aid international graduate student advisees, it is often important to assess not only the student’s English language skills, but also their undergraduate core classwork. Some departments have standardized exams that aid in identifying deficiencies. If deficiencies are identified, the student is allowed to take undergraduate courses prior to enrolling in classes to obtain advanced degrees.

Because of possible communication difficulties along with cultural challenges, advising new international students can be a challenge. Creating an advising syllabus can be very beneficial (Trabant, 2006). An advising syllabus sets forth the roles of advisor and advisee. The advising syllabus as a document can become a point of reference that highlights key policies and department and campus rules, including number of credit hours and suggested course sequence. The academic syllabus can be discussed with the international student and then can be given to the student for later reference.

Appreciative Advising

Appreciative Advising is an approach, based on the theory of appreciative inquiry (AI) that can be used to assist international students adjusting to university life (Palmer, 2009). AI focuses on helping individuals realize their potential as opposed to solving their problems (Bloom & Martin, 2002). In Appreciative Advising, the advisor asks positive, open-ended questions that help students make the most of their educational experiences (Bloom, Hutson, & He, 2008). The six phases of Appreciative Advising are disarm, discover, dream, design, deliver, and don’t settle (Bloom et al., 2008).

Disarm refers to techniques used to make a positive first impression on the international student by creating a safe and welcoming environment that suggests an awareness of cultural diversity. This can be accomplished by wall decorations, souvenirs from trips abroad, etc. the purpose of this stage is to demonstrate interest in the student and their cultural identity and to break the ice prior to actual advising.

In the Discover phase, advisors should ask open-ended questions about the student’s non-academic interests such as hobbies, home-country experiences, or long-term goals (Bloom et al., 2008). According to Palmer (2009) some sample Discover questions are, “Tell me about your journey to America,” “What challenges did you overcome to study in the U.S.?” and “Tell me
about a time you felt most proud to be from your home country.” In addition to breaking the 
ice, these questions can help advisors gain trust and respect from the student.

The **Dream** phase occurs when advisors help students set their long-term life and career goals. For international students, this includes what they hope to accomplish during their sojourn in the United States and how their international experiences will assist them in meeting career and life goals when their formal education is completed. According to Palmer (2009), some sample Dream questions are “What are your biggest hopes and dreams for your future?” and “Do you plan on moving back to your home country once you complete your education? Why or why not?”

In the **Design** phase, advisors assist students to adopt achievable goals and to make concrete plans for achieving those goals. Sometimes, international students are operating with limited information and thus it may be up to the advisor to provide information that will expand the student’s horizons as to what is possible. This may include referring the student to campus offices or community centers that can provide the student with needed resources.

In the **Deliver** phase, advisors help the student follow through with their plans. This may require multiple sessions to track the student’s progress and students should be encouraged to come back for advising as often as needed.

The final phase of Appreciative Advising is **Don't Settle**. In this stage, advisors assess the student’s potential and ensure that their goals are commensurate with their abilities. This may require advisors to proactively raise students' expectations (Bloom et al., 2008). Advisers can provide positive feedback and encourage students to use the progress they have achieved to accomplish even more. According to Palmer (2009), advisers can help students set new goals by asking, “What is one thing that you can do even better?”

**References**


**Additional Resources**

Association of International Educators. NAFSA. [http://www.nafsa.org/](http://www.nafsa.org/) Has many resources and links to studies examining strategies for success of international students.


Academic Advising for Online Students

TED CROSS, B. JEAN MANDERNACH, AND SHANNA HUSLIG
GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY

As society fully embraces the knowledge economy, higher education has become increasingly important (Tough, 2012; Walton, 2011). From a macro perspective, higher education is often seen as an economic driver that provides capable and trained workers, however from the micro perspective, more and more individuals seek higher education as a means to bettering their lives financially (Tough, 2012; BLS, 2012). Certainly, a large portion of the demand for higher education is a result of greater access to colleges and universities for traditional undergraduates, but the increased demand is also fueled by the growth of students attending college online (Allen & Seaman, 2011; Walton, 2011). Enrollments in online degree programs increased 335% from 2002 to 2009 with more than 2.1 million people attending school solely online (Garrett, 2009). In addition, Allen and Seaman (2011) estimate that more than 30% of all college students are taking at least one online class. Indeed, online education has become a mainstream mode of obtaining higher education for a growing number of people.

As online education grows, new opportunities and challenges exist to ensure effective academic advising for online students. There are two primary factors that must be taken into consideration when advising online students: 1) student characteristics; and 2) mode of instruction. Online students are more likely than their campus-based counterparts to be nontraditional students. Nontraditional students are often older, working part-time or full-time, juggling familial responsibilities, and going to school on a part-time basis (Mandernach, Cross, & Huslig, 2013; Carr, 2000; Lim, 2001; Walton, 2011). Walton (2011) found that students enrolled in online courses are more likely to be over 30-years-old, married, and/or have dependents. These added factors while not unique to the online student, can present greater challenges when coupled with asynchronous learning formats and the physical distance between the student, instructors, campus, and, often times, academic advising opportunities. The unique challenges of providing academic advising to nontraditional students, irrespective of the mode of instruction, is discussed in another chapter, Academic advising for nontraditional students by Mandernach, Cross, & Huslig. As such, the current chapter focuses exclusively on academic advising strategies to accommodate the online mode of instructional delivery.

Academic advising for online students is particularly important due to the high attrition rate associated with distance education. While student attrition is a concern across all aspects of higher education (Tinto & Cullen, 1973; Tough, 2012), critics of online education highlight that attrition is higher for those in online programs (Carr, 2000; Chyung, 2001). For example, Carr (2000) notes that online attrition rates can be 10 to 20% higher than those of traditional brick-
and-mortar students. Recognizing that extensive research documents that online learning outcomes are similar to those found in traditional brick-and-mortar settings (see www.nosignificantdifferences.org for an overview of this comparison), the increased attrition rate for online students cannot be explained as a function of academic challenge, but rather rests in other factors (such as student isolation, time management, personal problems, and technical difficulties) associated with the online learning experience (Aragon & Johnson, 2008; Rovai, 2002). Academic advisors can help online students overcome these common barriers to academic success by building solid relationships of trust and by providing support to help students manage their time, personal problems, and technical difficulties. Ironically, academic advising is one of the least offered services to online learners, but may be even more important to this group of students (Klukas, 2006).

**Build Relationships**
A good working relationship is the basis of effective academic advising. Without this strong foundation any other techniques or tactics are likely to fail. For example, Tinto (1987) found that the most common reasons for students dropping from degree programs included feelings of isolation due to a lack of communication from the university and/or academic advisors, which can cause students to feel disconnected from the academic community of the university. For many students, feeling alone in their pursuit of a degree program can cause them to give up when they encounter barriers or need help. For online students the need to connect to others, especially their academic counselors, cannot be overestimated. Lorenzetti (2004) notes, “Nearly every college student can benefit from a good relationship with an academic advisor. This relationship is even more critical, however, for the distance student” (p. 1).

The key to creating relationships with online students is frequent communication. Contact from academic advisors is imperative in building relationships as advisors provide one-on-one mentoring and serve as a resource for help in overcoming obstacles (Harrison, 2009; Waters, 2003). Frequent communications between students and advisors creates opportunities for students to express themselves and develop a personalized relationship in the academic community. Nadler and Simerly (2006) found a significant correlation between the perception of being listened to and the development of trust between students and their academic advisors. In addition, a student’s perception of being listened to by an academic advisor was strongly correlated with their view of the advisor as competent, benevolent dependable, and likable.

The need for frequent communication is not unique to online students; all students need, desire and seek on-going support through social interaction. For campus students, this need is fulfilled not only by formal advising appointments, but also via informal opportunities for interaction facilitated in the physically-connected campus environment. Recognizing that online students do not have spontaneous communications as a result of the natural interactions that
occur in a campus environment, it is imperative that advisors of online students proactively reach out to foster frequent and consistent interactions (LaPadula, 2003; Rovai, 2002). These interactions need to go beyond a purely academic scope to foster a supportive relationship that breaks down the isolated nature of online learning.

**Provide Comprehensive Support**

In addition to providing a supportive relationship to encourage and motivate online students, online students need a more comprehensive support system that addresses the unique needs of those pursuing their education from a distance. While there is considerable research examining effective academic advising on campus, less is known about the specific barriers that online students face and how academic advisors can help them overcome these challenges; Curry and Barham (2007) note that there are large voids in the research centered on academic advising for online students. As such it is important to glean insights not just from the literature but also from pragmatic experience.

Online students are not only working to master the academic content, but they are simultaneously struggling with time management and technical/computer skills (Aaragon & Johnson, 2008). Because online courses do not typically have scheduled meeting times, it can be particularly challenging for students to develop effective time management strategies to meet course demands. This issue is compounded by the fact that online students are often engaged in distance learning to accommodate other lifestyle factors such as work and home life. Academic advisors for online students can facilitate student success by proactively addressing time management issues as a portion of a comprehensive advising program. The following academic advising strategies are useful in helping online students manage their time:

- Engaging students early on in the enrollment process about the time commitment of going back to school and have them look at their current situation to see how they will be able to find time for their studies
- Review the course syllabi with the student and plot out due dates and readings on a calendar
- Hold conversations with students on when and where they will complete their studying and get them to commit to studying
- Periodic “check in” phone calls from advisors can also help students stay accountable to their class deadlines

Beyond time management, many students encounter difficulties with the technical aspects of the online learning environment (i.e., navigating online learning management systems, downloading supplements, using communicative technology, etc.); advisors should not assume that simply because someone elects to enroll in an online program that they possess the necessary computer literacy to be successful (Aaragon & Johnson, 2008). A comprehensive
academic advising program should highlight the necessary technical and computer knowledge that online students must possess to be successful in their courses. For instance, to assess whether or not an online student will have technical difficulties in the virtual classroom it may be helpful to ask students to send a basic writing sample in response to a predetermined prompt that requires the student to find information on the Internet. In this way, the academic advisor will be able to understand if the student is proficient in word processing, e-mail, and the Internet. Other strategies for helping students overcome technical difficulties include:

- Being aware of technical support services that are available at your institution and having their contact information readily available
- Being well-versed in the learning management system as well as common word processing programs and Internet browsers
- Creating video or written tutorials on common technical difficulties and sharing them with your students
- Using voice over IP and video conferencing as ways to show students how to overcome technical difficulties

Effective academic advising for online students must go beyond being reactive to student inquiries (although this is also important) to proactively provide information and resources to support student success. Because the online learning environment is a novel experience for many students, they may simply be unaware of what is needed for success. Our experience in working with online students indicates that students often need the most help in their blind spots. Whether this is developing good study skills, time management, technical/computer skills, or the ability to persevere through personal problems, academic advisors should not wait until online students are struggling to provide additional support. Rather, comprehensive advising for this population should provide increased up-front assistance to prevent issues that arise as a function of learning from a distance (LaPadula, 2003).

As mentioned previously, online students often elect to take online courses due to work and family obligations that prevent them from attending class on campus. The interaction between these increased obligations and the isolated nature of online learning results in a number of personal challenges that contribute to the higher rates of attrition in the online environment. Academic advisors serve a vital role in helping students overcome personal problems that arise during their online coursework. Advisors can assist online students in creating a proactive plan to accommodate challenges and help students feel less isolated when issues occur. The following are suggestions to help aid students dealing with personal problems:

- Before problems arise discuss and connect life goals with academic goals. Remind students of these when things are tough.
- Remind students that many people face these types of problems during their schooling
• Provide examples of how other students have overcome similar problems
• Refer students to the appropriate college or university services if needed
• Instruct students to remain in contact with their academic advisor more frequently during tough times
• Encourage the student to communicate with their instructor about the situation and facilitate this if possible
• Create a follow up plan to contact the student regularly until personal issues are resolved or managed

As online students embark on their academic career they will face many obstacles and challenges to their success. Academic advisors can help students overcome the common obstacles of time management, technical barriers, and personal problems by recognizing the unique needs of online students and providing comprehensive support that goes beyond traditional advising models.

**Strategies for Advising Online Students**

In many campus-based programs, faculty members in the department are responsible for students’ academic advising. This structure is generally effective as the confines of a campus environment dictate that the number of faculty available for advising is a proportionate ratio to the number of students on campus. In contrast, the number of students in an online program is not limited by geographic proximity, classroom space, or availability of fulltime faculty. The removal of these practical barriers provides online programs with greater potential for scalability; this often results in more students and a higher number of courses taught by adjunct faculty (who typically do not perform advising duties) (Allen & Seaman, 2008; Lyons, 2007). As a function of this, departments with growing online programs may need to examine alternate strategies for structuring advising for online students in which advising is moved outside the faculty role to dedicated online academic advisors.

Larger online programs are moving toward models of advising that are comprised of dedicated advisors rather than utilizing the dual role model where faculty double as student advisors (Capella, 2001). These models are based on the notion that higher volumes of students and thus increased teaching loads for faculty create strain on academic advising effectiveness. In reaction, these new models employ academic advisors whose sole duty is to work with an assigned caseload of students. While this model may create disconnect between the subject matter expertise of the traditional faculty advisor, it allows for a scalable process in which students can receive frequent contact and comprehensive advising support. Institutions that are experiencing rapid online student growth may want to consider models that use non-faculty academic advisors or a hybrid version that combines faculty as principle advisors with support staff acting as the main source of non-programmatic advising.
Advising from a Distance
For departments in which the number of online students has not exceeded the scope of the fulltime faculty, faculty advisors must incorporate strategies that allow effective interaction with online students. Because online students often enroll in this mode due to geographic separation and/or scheduling limitations, advisors need to be flexible in both the timing and the mode of advising interactions. Advising should include both synchronous and asynchronous opportunities for interaction to maximize relationship-building and information-transmission while accommodating various schedules (and time zones).

Synchronous interactions are valuable for building rapport, trust, and establishing working relationships. There are a number of options to accommodate synchronous advising appointments: telephone, web-conference (i.e., GoToMeeting, Blackboard, Wimba, etc.), video-conference (i.e., Skype, facetime), or screen-sharing (i.e., join.me). The value of synchronous communications lies in the natural, spontaneous interaction format; as such, synchronous meetings are ideal for topics that require extensive dialogue or require frequent, ongoing contributions by both parties. When determining the use of synchronous communications for online advising, the benefits of this interaction format must be balanced with the increased challenges associated with coordinating, scheduling and implementing synchronous meetings. In addition, the integration of synchronous interactions must consider the technical capabilities and expertise of both the student and the advisor.

Asynchronous interactions are uniquely suited for imparting time sensitive information and responding to student voice mail or email questions. Asynchronous communications are often facilitated via email or as a function of the threaded discussion feature of a course management system (i.e., Blackboard, Angel, DesireToLearn, eCollege, etc.). For asynchronous advising to be effective, it is important that there are opportunities for one-on-one private interactions and that the advisor is timely in their responses to students. Asynchronous communication allows advisors to be efficient and effective in meeting students’ needs by aggregating answers to frequently asked questions and then providing written, audio, or video messages to students via email or online posting mechanisms. As academic advisors develop their personal toolbox to respond to routine requests in asynchronous ways, time spent on repetitive advising tasks can be moved to a one-on-many format so that increased time is available to devote to other aspects of the advising process.

Conclusion
While online students face many challenges shared with other nontraditional students, these challenges may be exacerbated by the isolation, asynchronous nature, and technology-centered medium of the online classroom. Academic advising for online students presents a myriad of advising challenges that are unique to the virtual academy and, as such, advising must be uniquely tailored to meet these needs. Effective academic advising for online students must
incorporate individualized one-on-one contact (Gravel, 2012) with a focus on relationship-building to provide comprehensive support for time, technical, and personal challenges. In addition, advising must incorporate frequent, flexible interactions that are adapted to meet the unique needs, demands and characteristics of online students.

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Crossing the Bridge: Guiding Transfer Students to Success at Four-Year Institutions

KRISTA D. FORREST
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT KEARNEY

Every semester transfer students come to my office. Sometimes eager, sometimes weary, these advisees are looking for someone who can help them navigate this new transition from one college to another. Although transfer students were once the exception to my advising load, more students are transitioning from community colleges or baccalaureate programs to new institutions than ever before. The National Student Clearinghouse Research Center (Shapiro et al., 2013) reported that of those students enrolled in community colleges during 2003-2004, 62% earned a bachelor’s degree or higher within six years of transferring¹. Of those who had not graduated, 8% were still enrolled in a bachelor’s program. These numbers suggest that 70% of community college students either received a bachelor’s degree or somehow continued their education at a four-year institution. Clearly this influx of transfer students on college campuses is changing the landscape of the baccalaureate university.

Who are our transfer students?
One of the worst mistakes we can make as advisors is to assume transfer students are a homogeneous population. First, students entering a four-year institution from a community college are different from native ² students in many ways Hoover, 2010). The community college population is more likely to reflect a diverse minority population, a lower socioeconomic status (Hoover, 2010), a higher concentration of full-time workers (Cox, 2012), veterans (Wallace & Wallace, 2012), and on average, older students (Koskowski, 2012). It follows that those of us who advise transfer students should not use a one size fits all approach that disregards many of these student differences.

In addition to differences in student’s demographic characteristics, it is important to note that not all transfer students begin their academic training at the same starting line (Borst, Jones & Cohen, 2012). Some begin their education at the community college and then transfer to the baccalaureate institution (2+2). Others transfer from one community college to another or one four-year school to another (lateral transfer). It is also possible for students to change from a baccalaureate program to a two-year program (reverse transfer). Students even transfer back and forth among a variety of schools (swirling transfer). Many students who have earned hours

¹ These students transferred to other institutions during the 2005-2006 academic year.
² Native students have attended the same institution since their freshman year.
at specialty institutions such as some for-profit schools and the military do not earn comparable credit in their new school (thwarted transfer). Some experts in the field of transfer advising have even suggested that high school students earning simultaneous credit for courses such as chemistry or psychology should be considered as students who “transfer up” (Borst, et al., 2012 p. 40).

Clearly this diverse transfer population can benefit from advising that goes beyond which courses they have had and which ones should be taken in the future. Rather, in addition to course information advising should consider students’ individual needs and situations. Providing such services can range from a comprehensive program involving resources from multiple constituencies across campus to a one-on-one meeting between major advisor and student.

The university-wide transfer student orientation

Many institutions combine transfer student orientation with their traditional first year orientation. These campus wide orientation programs incorporate support from the departments of career services, financial aid, and academic advising. The benefit of having transfer students attend orientation with native students is that transfer students often need to know the same information as new freshman. However, combining the events may lead the transfer student to believe that much of the experience he or she brings to the campus is not valued (Cuseo, 2012). Also, if the transferring students differ from the freshman class in the qualities previously mentioned (e.g., ethnicity, family, full-time employment, and socioeconomic status) it follows that participating in a traditional orientation program may not meet the immediate or long-term needs of the transferring student. Some universities have developed separate, transfer specific orientation programs that involve one-day workshops that include registering for classes. Others allow transfer students to gain the necessary information through an online site dedicated to transfer students prior to coming to campus to enroll (Hoover, 2010).

The campus culture

Regardless of when students are oriented to their new academic setting, one of the more important introductions they will have is to the campus’s culture. Students need to know the location of the major hubs such as financial aid, the library, and the computer lab. But they also need to know what the expectations for students will be. Grites (2004) indicates universities often overlook transfer students in this process. For example, does the college have the expectation that students will use a course management platform such as Blackboard to complete assignments? The platform may have been different or nonexistent at their previous institution. Do faculty at the new institution handle absences the same way as faculty at the old one? How do students access the resources they need such as dorm information, meal plans, and support services (Passow, 2010). Because transfer students enter their new institutions
with some experience, they often expect that all schools are the same and therefore approach their new academic lives with the same strategies as their old ones. When transfer students are not aware of the differences, their first semesters at their new schools can end with lower than average grades.

**Transfer shock**

One example of an issue transfer students often experience is transfer shock. This occurs when a student’s grades drop during the first semester of his or her new academic program. Transfer shock is not attributed to a single cause. Rather, students can experience a variety of problems contributing to an abrupt change in GPA. Examples include more difficult work at the new institution or not understanding that the teacher expectations are different at the new school (Hoover, 2010). Fortunately transfer shock appears to be a temporary phenomenon in that most students’ grade point averages recover after students continue their coursework (Dennis, Calvillo, & Gonzalez, 2008). An orientation designed specifically for transfer students should address the likelihood that students may experience transfer shock as well as offer solutions for students and their families on how to approach the problem.

**Educating families**

Because transfer students are more likely to be (a) first generation college students and (b) financially responsible for their education, their family members may be unfamiliar with the college experience and the kind of support a college student needs (Hoover, 2010). There is often the assumption that transfer students should already know the requirements and therefore have less need for an orientation component related to family expectations. However, much of the literature related to transfer student success discusses the benefits of having sessions for family members (Cuseo, 2012). Sessions could include information concerning financial aid as well as paying for college and the processes for registration and career preparation (Hoover, 2010). These family oriented sessions may be especially important for those students transitioning from a 2-year school to a 4-year school.

**Peer mentors**

One way that transfer students can continue to gain information about the transfer process as well as the new college setting is by working with a previous transfer student who has now become a peer leader or mentor (Hoover, 2010). Transfer students who have successfully acclimated to the new educational environment can offer academic advice from the student’s perspective. These peer mentors can also assist in the development and maintenance of social relationships. One of the best predictors of transfer students’ success in their new academic environment is the degree to which they feel engaged (Kuh, 2009). Peer mentors can introduce new transfer students to faculty-student research opportunities, service, and social organizations.
The major-specific transition program
The university wide program cannot be the only venue for transfer student support. Most students, transfer or native are going to spend the majority of their time within the department of their academic majors. Depending on the size of the college or university, the faculty and advisors within the major may be the only consistent contact students have with the institution. Also for many students understanding the transfer process within the framework of the major can assist them with decisions related to course content, career planning and graduate school preparation that a university-wide process may not provide.

Departmental advising
Better departmental advising for transfer students begins as students come to campus to register for classes. Many students have already verified with the registrar’s office the classes that will transfer, whereas others bring transcripts in hand. By having designated advisors within the department who are familiar with the transfer process students can quickly register for the classes they need. However these transfer sessions should not have a 5:1 transfer student to advisor ratio. Transfer students should have the same attention and assistance as our existing students. They often have many of the same questions as the native students: Whose class should I take? Where is the class located? Should I take 12 or 15 hours? What do I do if a class is full? These issues are more difficult to address when one faculty member is trying to work with several transfer students at the same time.

During this process, many students learn that courses taken at their previous institution either will only count toward overall numbers for graduation or will not count at all. Student responses to this news ranges from disappointment to anger. Faculty advisors can reassure students that although previous course work may not count toward their current major, completing those courses has led to a greater knowledge in the field or assisted in understanding information in a subsequent class. This may also be the time that students learn it will take longer for them to graduate than originally thought. This increase in time to graduation could be due to the aforementioned classes not counting or it could be due to an increase in the number of classes required for the major at the new institution compared to the previous one. Regardless of the reason, transfer students often take longer to graduate than they expected and may need sympathetic support as well as creative solutions from their advisor.

Advising beyond the class schedule
Although transfer students need much of the same information as native students, sometimes it is not clear where to find the information. One concern that a transfer student expressed is the frustration of “getting passed around” from one campus office to another. He stated that there were several occasions where he would ask a question and get the response, “That’s not us, that's them (Passow, 2010, p. 53)” By assisting transfer students in navigating the
institutional system, we can minimize the time they spend searching for these types of answers. This frees up more time for them to become “socially” acclimated to their new schools. Students also indicate the appreciation they feel for faculty advisors who take the time to ask how they are doing or to offer assistance (Passow, 2010).

Another key responsibility for advising transfer students involves career exploration. Although most campuses have career services, advisors are often the first person students ask about opportunities for employment in their field of study. For psychology majors this may also include pursuing admission to graduate schools. Because most graduate schools require three letters of recommendation, transfer students may be at a disadvantage. Instead of a four-year window for meeting and working with faculty, they may only have two years. It is important for advisors to encourage transfer students to meet other departmental faculty as soon as they begin classes on campus. By forming these relationships earlier, students and faculty members can work together longer and students will have the necessary references and recommendations they need to pursue employment or graduate school.

Finally, departmental faculty advisors can assist those students who may be experiencing transfer shock. Perhaps the classes are harder or larger at the new institution compared to the old one. Students might benefit from suggestions concerning time management and study skills.

Peer mentoring within the academic major
Similar to peer mentoring at the university level, transfer students can benefit from student centered relationships within the major. We can introduce transfer students to fellow students who transferred into the program earlier or even encourage our new students to join existing groups such as the Psychology Club and PSI CHI. Students often give their institutions high marks for their academic assistance when transferring but feel lost when it comes to meeting other students and becoming involved (Cuseo, 2012; Passow, 2010). Traditionally universities have open houses where new students can visit with members of student organizations on campus, however this usually happens during the beginning of the fall semester. Although many transfer students believe that getting connected to other students at their new campus is primarily their responsibility, others reported that they often did not know where to start (Passow, 2010). Student organizations within the major could assemble brochures for their groups and this resource could be available during the first advising appointment to make the transfer student feel more welcome.

Preferential enrollment
Another way to smooth the transition process is to reserve seats in prerequisite core classes for transfer students. In our psychology major at UNK there are three classes that students have to take in a sequence: General Psychology, Behavioral Statistics and Experimental Psychology.
Whereas most of our transfer students enter the program already having General Psychology, very few of them have Behavioral Statistics or the subsequent class Experimental Psychology. If transfer students are not able to begin taking those classes as soon as they begin our program, they can be as much as a year behind their fellow students. Traditionally, when our classes are full, we have students take their general studies courses. However most of our transfer students from community colleges have already completed those requirements. As a result, they could enter our program with their previously taken classes and immediately fall behind. Reserving a few seats for these required classes in case transfer students do join the program addresses this issue. If no transfer students enroll, these seats can then be made available to other students a few days before the semester starts (Cuseo, 2012).

**Discipline specific transfer seminar or workshops**

Another way for transfer students to learn departmental and university expectations as well as meet other transfer students is to provide discipline specific transfer seminars or workshops (Hoover, 2010). Kirchhof (2012) described a transfer seminar designed for engineering students. Over the course of nine weeks (18 meetings) students attended faculty taught sessions about (a) why a transfer seminar can be helpful, (b) the Co-op program, (c) working with faculty, and (d) academic integrity. At the same time a peer advisor presented sections on (a) becoming familiar with the university, (b) time management and study skills, (c) understanding academic resources, and (d) communicating with faculty. The seminar assisted the students in several measurable ways. First, attendees reported that the seminar helped their adjustment to the university. Second, students who had taken the course had higher overall GPAs than did students who did not take the class. Finally, students participating in the seminar were more likely to stay in the major (2012). These topics as well as these outcomes could easily be applied to psychology majors. Additional topics that could be built into a program such as this include a session on transfer shock, building healthy support systems among friends and family, and preparing for future transitions such as the job force or graduate school.

**Conclusion**

Regardless of the size of the campus or the classes, transfer students need assistance adjusting to the next phase of their academic career. This assistance should be at the institution and department levels. Faculty and staff need to be prepared to work with a diverse transfer student population and avoid the temptation to create a one-size-fits-all formula for transition programs. Instead we need to be able to consider the multifaceted experiences these students bring with them as well as their distinct concerns related to transferring. Within the department, the best transitions involve continued personal communication between advisor and student as well as connections between transfer students and their peers. As faculty advisors we have the ability to be the bridge between institutions.
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Advising the Senior Year: A Practical Guide

JEANNETTA G. WILLIAMS
ST. EDWARD’S UNIVERSITY

Your advisees are approaching their final year of undergraduate study. It can be an exciting, yet anxious time. As an academic advisor, you have undoubtedly worn many “hats”—from cheerleader to conflict resolution specialist. Prepare to make room for even more hats as you work with your senior advisees. As a background note, my home institution is a liberal arts university in which faculty members are assigned advisees in their discipline at the start of students’ second year of study. During the first year of study, all students are advised through an academic success office. My typical advising load hovers around 25 students per year. In this article, I will share what I have learned from eight years of formal academic advising and from current literature on advising upper-level undergraduates. The focus of this chapter is primarily on working with students during their final year of study.

Advising your senior students will stretch your advising skills in new ways. The senior year typically includes the most challenging courses in the students’ academic majors—in addition to double majors, minors, and specialized honors courses. Many students also juggle numerous obligations outside of the classroom, including athletics, student clubs, jobs, and families. The negative impact of these obligations on academic persistence may be exaggerated among “at-risk” students. In a study of undergraduates who withdrew during the senior year, Hunt, Boyd, Gast, Mitchell, and Wilson (2012) identified key differences between first-generation—and non-first-generation students. Specifically, first-generation seniors were less engaged socially on campus, perceived less family support of their studies, and cited more financial and mental health issues (i.e., stress, burnout) compared to their peers. Despite being so close to graduation, nearly half of the students in the study did not re-enroll. Current demographic trends in higher education suggest that by 2050, Hispanics and African Americans will comprise half of the U.S. population, but are among the populations least likely to persist to graduation (Habley, Bloom, Robbins, & Robbins, 2012). As advisors, we want to encourage our students to be challenged and inspired by their coursework, while being mindful of the stressors and risk factors that our students may face. It is about finding a balance between encouraging academic success and minimizing stressors.

In my work, there are three broad phases to the senior year of study, which may overlap a bit throughout the year. These phases are: Status Check, Decide and Apply, and the Closing Process. The first phase is to complete a Status Check on remaining course work and other requirements to help to ensure a timely graduation. It may be difficult for students to thrive academically if the “end date” is unclear. In other words, does the graduation date that your
student has in mind match his/her academic record? This first phase may seem obvious, but delaying graduation due to an oversight or misperception is not pleasant for students, their families, or advisors. The final year of study presents enough stressors for your students—worrying about graduation eligibility need not be one of them. Determine the anticipated graduation date and also a back-up date, if necessary. This first stage involves identifying exactly the number of remaining credit hours and any other related policies for graduation (e.g., grade point average minimum in the major, required course sequences). It is the time to get any requirements done that have been postponed or overlooked. For example, your advisee may have forgotten to submit transcripts for courses taken off-campus or abroad. Then, you can work back from the graduation date to plan for a successful year.

During the **Status Check** phase, the academic advisor may have to play devil’s advocate regarding advisees’ graduation dates. Students can become shortsighted and take on more than they can successfully manage. I warn my own advisees not to “fall in love” with their graduation dates. If it is feasible, it may be to their advantage to register for an additional semester if it means they will perform better and learn more in their courses. For other students, it may be advantageous to forego elective courses that are unrelated to their interests in lieu of courses that relate directly to their career plans. Explore creative ways to reduce the weight of the senior year course load as you plan courses. At my university, a typical semester course load includes five courses. Also, once junior year standing is attained, some courses may be taken as pass/no pass rather than for a letter grade. If students have previously taken courses off-campus or during summer terms, it is often possible for them to enroll in four courses later on. I suggest that students save their “lighter” semesters for the senior year. If they are concerned about maintaining a high grade point average, the student may be interested in taking an elective course on a pass/no pass basis. These kinds of options give students a little breathing room in their schedules for other responsibilities.

Beyond planning courses, collaborate with your advisees to identify strategies to make the final year manageable and enjoyable. Many universities and colleges have programs aimed to improve transition to college experiences for first-year and transfer students, such as Bridge programs and peer mentoring. Your senior students may think that academic support programs are not aimed at them. This is where your campus connections and knowledge are critical. Hunt and colleagues (2012) recommend that advisors learn about campus programs that focus on family issues, off-campus employment, and mental health counseling and then encourage students to attend. Your campus may have programs that are aimed for specific subgroups of students—particularly those at-risk for withdrawal (See Clark & Kalionzes, 2008, for a review).
The next phase, *Decide and Apply*, includes setting goals and taking action. In this phase, advisees will need to make firm decisions about his/her academic and professional goals upon graduation. Advisors should be aware that not all who enroll in college plan on obtaining a degree—some may be seeking specific work skills or to transfer to another school after completing a few courses (Habley et al., 2012). For those who do aim to earn a degree from your institution, there may be variability in the extent to which they have considered their post-graduation plans. For example, in a qualitative study of undergraduate women in the senior year, participants differed by how much they had explored (both actively and introspectively) and committed to their academic studies and careers (Allen & Taylor, 2006). Whereas students with clarity and agency regarding their goals (identified as “naturalists” and “finders”) may seek out career development resources, such as building a resume and may research graduate school programs on their own, others may need your encouragement in order to explore their interests and talents (Allen & Taylor, 2006).

Bloom (2008) provides a seven-step model to assist students as they transition out of college. The initial steps in the model include exercises for students to clarify their interests, skills, and values. Grounded in the Appreciative Advising framework (Bloom, 2002), advisors support students as they map out their career “vision” and implement post-graduation plans. Advisors can identify appropriate resources and services based on students’ self-authored plans. Rather than simply providing information, academic advisors are allies, along with other faculty and staff members, in the career development process (Kuh, 2008).

If you have a career services office on your campus, this is a fantastic resource for your students. Career Services staff members can assist students no matter where they are in their planning—from gaining more information about different types of careers to registering for the Graduate Record Exam. For example, the Career Services Office on my campus maintains an online, searchable employment and internship database for current students and alumni. They also use social media sites to post information about internships and career events, such as job fairs and resume building workshops, so it is possible to stay current on available opportunities. Other offices on campus may have information about competitive fellowships and research opportunities, such as the Fulbright Scholarship and the Rhodes Scholarship. Academic advising is a team effort so reach out to these offices early and often.

The major in psychology provides training for such a broad array of careers that students may feel overwhelmed by the options. Experiential learning opportunities (e.g., internships, volunteer experiences, research assistantships, teaching assistantships, etc.) are invaluable in that they help students build their skills in a professional setting. Extracurricular activities provide skills that help make the student more competitive when applying to graduate schools and potential employers (Bloom, 2008). Students and advisors can work together to match
strengths and interests to specific careers, and determine whether post-baccalaureate training will be required (See Part II of this publication for information about making decisions in the graduate school application process). For example, a student may indicate an interest in “counseling children and their families”, but not know whether graduate study would be required and if so, which types of programs and degrees would be appropriate. Because this is a very common advising question at my university, two of my colleagues, who teach in psychology and in social work, devised an engaging way to share information with our students. They host monthly discussion forums to share information about the variety of graduate training and licensure requirements for counseling, clinical psychology, and social work careers. Other students may be interested in studying particular topics in graduate school, such as gender identity or PTSD, but are unsure which types of graduate programs would be best. To address these questions, I frequently bring colleagues, whose academic training differs from my own, into advising meetings. Students appreciate the variety of perspectives that faculty members in different psychology sub-disciplines bring to the discussion.

If your advisee has decided to apply to graduate school, encourage the student to apply to a spectrum of schools. In my experience, there have been stellar students who feared applying to top programs in their field; others were reluctant to apply to anywhere but the most selective of programs. It is wonderful when students are accepted into all of the preferred programs. More commonly, however, students are accepted into only some programs and sometimes none of their top choices. This can be quite discouraging to students, but this is a teaching opportunity for advisors. No paths toward goals are free from obstacles and setbacks. Bloom (2008) recommends that advisors affirm that they care for their students and they will be supportive if problems do emerge. Further, advisors can take specific actions, such as writing letters of recommendation or reviewing students’ personal statements, as they apply for post-graduation jobs and graduate study (Bloom, 2008). Prepare a back-up plan with your advisees in the event that they do not gain acceptance or cannot afford to enroll in their preferred programs. It may be that an additional year of training (e.g., research assistantship, internship) or retaking the Graduate Record Exam would help the student to become a more competitive applicant.

The final phase of the senior year is the Closing Process. The senior year can be a rollercoaster of emotions for your students—stress and exhaustion from their challenging coursework, excitement about graduate school acceptances, and relief that graduation will soon occur.

However, some students also experience fear and sadness about their impending graduation. They may start to struggle in their courses or second-guess their post-baccalaureate plans. This is an expected part of the psychological transition from their undergraduate programs (Bloom, 2008). I have had students accepted into top doctoral programs with attractive funding
packages, who start wondering whether to take a year off to travel or work before starting graduate school. Upon further discussion, these questions seem to come from fear about leaving what is familiar. Prompt your advisee to reflect on his/her fears about going off to college and subsequent accomplishments. Your reassurance is important, as are the “breakthrough strategies” (Tichy, 2002, as cited in Bloom, 2008), such as seeking input from mentors who push students to make incremental progress toward their post-graduation goals.

It is important to discuss the changes, both professionally and personally, that will occur upon graduation. Encourage your students to utilize services that your campus provides to alumni. Also ask your advisee about the support system (e.g., family, friends, mentors, etc.) that will be in place during the transition. It is important for your advisees to be aware of and to make use of the personal and professional resources at their disposal. Finally, share your excitement about your students’ successes and their future achievements. Make your confidence about their bright futures contagious!

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General Education for Psychology Majors Through a Metacognitive Lens

HEATHER H. MITCHELL AND KIM KLEINMAN
WEBSTER UNIVERSITY

Metacognition remains an important and timely area of research more than 30 years after the topic was first introduced by Flavell, (1976, 1979) and/or Brown (1980). Although one could argue over who coined the term metacognition, the metacognitive applications to education continue to grow substantially. Specifically, *Metacognition in Educational Theory and Practice* (Hacker, Dunlosky, & Graesser, 1998), the first edited volume on the topic of metacognition contains six major research areas while the second edited volume on the topic, *Handbook of Metacognition in Education* (Hacker, Dunlosky, & Graesser, 2009) contains 16 major research areas. Research areas investigating metacognition have more than doubled over the last decade, and metacognitive applications to education are viewed as vital in helping students successfully navigate through a general education curriculum.

Flavell (1976) defines metacognition as “one’s knowledge concerning one’s own cognitive processes or anything related to them” (p. 232). Thus, metacognition can be thought of as “thinking about thinking.” Still another, particularly concise, yet illustrative definition of metacognition asks two simple questions: (1) What am I doing? and (2) Why am I doing it? (Kohutek, 2012).

Most metacognitive definitions have focused on two separate but related aspects: (1) knowledge and/or awareness of cognition and (2) control or monitoring of cognitive processes (Williams & Atkins, 2009; Lai, 2011). Both of these aspects are highly related to many of the academic challenges students face when moving from high school to college learning environments. In addition to remembering information, college students must be able to use or monitor that new knowledge. College courses by nature require metacognitive skills and understanding and successful college students are more likely to possess such metacognitive skills (McCormick, Dimmitt, & Sullivan, 2013). Thankfully, these metacognitive skills can be taught as part of the coursework (Serra & Metcalfe, 2009; Goedereis & Mitchell, 2013).

**Metacognition in General Education**

Research illustrates ways metacognitive applications have benefitted students in reading, writing, math, and science. For information on all these topics, see the references listed in our suggested readings list. For the purposes of the current chapter, we will solely discuss reading research and the benefits of metacognition related to this area.
Even high-level college learners can misjudge the demands of a learning situation (Carroll, 2008; Kruger & Dunning, 1999) and proficient college readers can benefit from explicit reading instruction regarding comprehension (McNamara & Magliano, 2009). With college students, rereading text information improves accurate comprehension (Rawson, Dunlosky, & Thiede, 2000) and immediate recall (Roediger & Karpicke, 2005). Further, the metacognitive strategies of summarization during reading and generating key terms that are representative of the text while reading also increase the accuracy of college students’ understanding a text (Thiede, Dunlosky, Griffin, & Wiley, 2005; Thiede, Griffin, Wiley, & Redford, 2009). Lastly, other effective metacognitive practices for increasing one’s ability to monitor and retain information from a text include responding to questions within the text (Pressley & Ghatala, 1990), self-testing, and commenting on the content just read (Roediger & Karpicke, 2005).

**Psychology in General Education**

Reading as well as mathematical and scientific reasoning and writing are all key components of a general education curriculum. We now discuss unique contributions that psychology offers within general education. Historical roots of our discipline suggest the importance of both metacognition as well as general education. In 1947, a commission was formed at Harvard University to advise on the future of psychology, (Harvard Commission, 1947). The commission stated a psychology department’s first obligation is to contribute to the general education of college students (Wolfle, 1948). The commission further stated, “It [general psychology] need not be a required course, but it must be a well-taught course,” and more attention must be given to the teaching of elementary psychology” (Wolfle, 1948, p.61). In fact, the introductory course was to be where “the department must make its primary contribution to general education” (p. 62). Additionally, Thorndike (1910) suggested psychology contributes to a better understanding of educational goals by (a) clearly defining the goals, (b) appropriately limiting the goals, and (c) suggesting new aspects that should be part of the educational goals. Further, psychology has been investigating and contributing to these components for over 60 years. Specifically, research investigating metacognition and education is one way psychologists have been helping clarify the goals of education for us as professors and especially for our students. Educational goals of students, professors, and advisors can all become clearer by adopting metacognitive approaches to understanding, approaching, and achieving those goals.

In fact, psychology majors may increasingly view their general education requirements as more meaningful and beneficial as more advisors and professors explicitly model and teach various metacognitive tools for general education. For example, participants in a collegium on Student Learning through the Associated Colleges of the Midwest (ACM) participated in a 30- month project to improve student learning and focus on the importance of metacognition (Ottenhoff, 2011). Faculty members of this collegium reported the focus on metacognition not only had good effects on student learning but it often had profound effects on the teachers. The
collegium members noted they became significantly more thoughtful about their teaching practices as they created scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL) projects that documented their investigations into metacognitive applications in the classroom. Throughout the project, the group discovered that metacognition was certainly not a “silver bullet” for improving student learning; however, the metacognitive tools did help students focus attention more on their learning and ultimately on the larger purpose of their education.

We have been conducting our own investigations based on the principles of metacognition (Goedereis & Mitchell, 2013) using purposeful assignments and activities to help students perform better in introduction to psychology courses. Specifically, in one assignment we asked students to read the brief “Six Hour D” article (Dewey, 1997), which clearly (and humorously) discusses the concept of a Six Hour D (i.e., “I studied for six hours and can’t believe I still got a D!”) in order to get students to think about their own study habits.

We also asked students to complete knowledge surveys (Nuhfer, 1993; 1996) in an effort to promote metacognitive awareness. A typical knowledge survey includes a series of questions that cover the content of a course. Students are presented with detailed learning outcomes based on that content and are asked to rate their perceived understanding of each outcome. Students rate how confident they are in their understanding of a learning outcome: (1) I cannot confidently answer this question at all without more review, (2) I can partially answer this question after I review a bit more, and (3) I can confidently answer this question. Knowledge surveys are intended to improve student’s ability to self-assess knowledge (Clauss & Geedey, 2010) and the pedagogical benefit of knowledge surveys within a course has been supported (e.g., Wirth & Perkins, 2005). The knowledge survey can serve many purposes for students (Nuhfer, 1993; Nuhfer, 1996) by: (1) providing all of the course content, (2) serving as a learning guide through the course, (3) making the student learning more “visible” through the course, (4) serving as a tool for developing self-assessment skills. Thus, knowledge surveys promote metacognition by causing students to reflect on their own understanding while also clarifying the course learning outcomes for students.

**Why Psychology Majors Need General Education**

Students may inevitably ask, “Why do I have to take math, Spanish, philosophy, and history?”. Through discussions with faculty, instructors, and advisors, students will learn many answers to such posed questions. General education does generally educate as it provides students with much exposure to many disciplines and helps them to develop essential intellectual, civic, and practical abilities (American Association of Colleges and Universities, 2013b). A well-organized general education program offers 21st century learners skills they will need to excel in whatever discipline they choose, including psychology. Organizations are also looking for employees who have more than discipline specific knowledge; they are seeking out individuals who can communicate effectively, solve problems efficiently, and work effectively with others.
General education is crucial for many diverse reasons. Students ultimately become better citizens, consumers, and employees because they have been exposed to many different disciplines. Through a general education program, students are exposed to the questions or problems shared by the various disciplines as well as the problem solving strategies each discipline utilizes. Being able to evaluate a problem based on multiple perspectives is crucial for students as they navigate and succeed in our global world (American Association of Colleges and Universities, 2013a).

Psychology students may find some other intellectual interest before they graduate. Yet, what they have learned in Psychology will deepen their appreciation of Communications, Management, or whatever new area they pursue. A liberal arts degree will primarily provide broadly transferable skills in written and oral communications, critical thinking, problem solving, and teamwork.

Such a robust approach to general education can enhance the contribution psychology majors make toward tackling the "wicked problems" that challenge us today. “Wicked problems” are "problems worth solving," as Jon Kolko aptly stated (Kolko, 2012) to describe problems that involve multiple perspectives because they are complicated, in flux, and even contradictory. Wicked problems arose in the field of social planning to capture the complex interplay of economics, politics, technology, history, and science that must be synthesized in order to grapple with such social issues. Psychology majors with an understanding of general education, including its broad background of knowledge and skills, will be able to make major contributions toward resolving these "wicked problems."

**Current Directions of General Education**

This view of liberal arts and general education has strong expression in the Association of American Colleges and University’s Liberal Education and America’s Promise initiative. LEAP’s Essential Learning Outcomes call for 1) Knowledge of Human Cultures and the Physical and Natural World; 2) Intellectual and Practical Skill including inquiry and analysis, critical and creative thinking, quantitative and information literacy, teamwork and problem solving; 3) Personal and Social Responsibility; and 4) Integrative and Applied Learning (AAC&U LEAP). [Additional information is provided on page 82 under “Suggested Resources and/or Readings.”]

It is this framework that has guided us at Webster University as we have created a program for general education called Global Citizenship. Its mission is “to ensure all undergraduates emerge from Webster University with the core competencies required for responsible global citizenship in the 21st Century” (Webster University, 2013).

Rather than a check list of courses, students are asked to obtain broad knowledge in Roots of Cultures, Social Systems and Human Behavior, Global Understanding, Physical and Natural World, Arts Appreciation, and Quantitative Literacy. Each course in our curriculum in these
knowledge areas is also coded for one of these skills: written communication, oral communication, critical thinking, intercultural competence, and ethical reasoning. Knowledge and skills are integrated and developed over the course of the program. With an introductory First Year Seminar, the program culminates with a Global Keystone Seminar in which students learn needed content knowledge while also developing the skills they need for 21st century success. Psychology majors as well as all our students will benefit from this modern, integrative, developmental approach to general education.

As part of this problem solving approach to general education, we can help students to think about their thinking about their educations, specifically to be intentional and purposeful and to see their educations as organic, integrated wholes. We want our students to be mindful when encountering their general education, specific major, and their everyday life. Through the metacognitive skills of (1) being aware and (2) being able to monitor that awareness, students will not only successfully navigate general education, but they will also successfully navigate many things in life.

This approach to general education is consistent with the insights from research into metacognition. With LEAP values as a strategy and academic planners and syllabi as tactical tools, students and their advisors can make intentional, reflective choices about their entire educations, both for general education and the psychology major. The resulting choices can aid psychology majors to be better able to advance in the field of psychology and as liberally educated citizens with the skills and competencies to contribute to our field as well as to the wider community.

References


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Suggested Resources

- [http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/Clearinghouse/View-Articles/Advising-Syllabi-Resource-Links.aspx](http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/Clearinghouse/View-Articles/Advising-Syllabi-Resource-Links.aspx) - link to existing advising syllabi
- [http://www.aacu.org/](http://www.aacu.org/) - AAC&U is the leading national association committed to advancing and improving liberal education for all students.
- [http://www.aacu.org/leap/](http://www.aacu.org/leap/) - Liberal Education and America’s Promise (LEAP) is a national advocacy, campus action, and research initiative that champions the importance of a twenty-first century liberal education.
- [http://www.apa.org/about/students.aspx](http://www.apa.org/about/students.aspx) - The American Psychological Association has many resources for psychology students as they navigate their undergraduate education experience.

Metacognitive Research Resources


Choosing a Minor: Why, What and When

RICHARD L. MILLER
TEXAS A&M UNIVERSITY – KINGSVILLE

Choosing a college minor can be a major decision. Minors matter and can provide future career options, strengthen one’s understanding of the major, and sometimes give the student the edge in seeking a job or gaining entry into a graduate program. There are several advantages to choosing the right college minor.

**Why Should Students Take a Minor?**

One of the best reasons for selecting a particular minor is that it allows the student to pursue a second area of interest in a relatively intense manner. This second area could be something for which the student has a real passion, for example music or art. It could be that the second interest allows the student to focus on a particular population, for example the elderly or the disabled. For whatever reason, the minor allows the student to gain knowledge and skill in the secondary area. One of the advantages about the undergraduate experience is that it allows the student to pursue interests that don’t fall directly in line with the major so that a student could use the minor to help develop avocational interests as well as interests that may make them more attractive to an employer or graduate program.

Another good reason for selecting a minor is that it can give the student a competitive advantage in the job market or as a candidate for graduate school. For example, if you plan on using your psychology major as an entry into the helping professions, a minor in a foreign language that enhances your speaking and writing proficiency can make you very attractive to agencies that serve immigrant communities. A student who plans on entering a graduate program in health psychology may find that a minor in public health, which increases his/her knowledge of the concerns of various populations that are affected and served by the medical field, provides a competitive advantage.

A minor can also be a cost effective means for gaining additional knowledge and skills, especially in comparison to a double major. Thus, a minor can provide a credential that is cost efficient in terms of the time the student needs to complete his/her degree program.

Finally, the student may be required to take a minor as a part of their degree program. Many schools require that the student formally declare a minor. At some schools, the student may be required to declare a minor in an area of emphasis directly related to the major, for example: Psychology major, gerontology minor. Not all colleges and universities handle these focus areas in the same way. At some institutions, the minor may be an area of concentration within the major. Where a minor is required, the number of credit hours will be specified and usually some specific courses must be taken. If the student is not required to declare a minor as a focus
area within their major, they are free to choose a minor that can be complementary or completely unrelated to the major. In that case, the student should be guided to explore a minor that (a) is intrinsically interesting to them, (b) is something about which they are passionate, (c) can add depth to their major, (d) can add breadth to their major (e) will help them prepare for future study, (f) provides useful skills, or (g) focuses on a particular population of interest (University of Southern California, 2013).

On What Basis Should the Student Choose a Minor?
As noted by APS President John Cacioppo (2007), psychology is a hub science, which means that psychology intersects closely with many other scientific fields. Because of this degree of integration, a well-planned academic minor can complement and strengthen the major, which can make a significant difference in the student's graduate school application or employment opportunities.

Interest in the Field
Some minors fit naturally with the psychology student’s interest in the mind and behavior. Psychologists are curious about such diverse topics as how the brain functions to how culture affects cognition.

Biology (and other Life Sciences): If the student is interested in neuropsychology, biopsychology, physiological psychology, a minor in biology can be a great choice. This minor, will provide a better understanding of the physiological underpinnings of psychology and can be a valuable asset when applying to any of the experimental psychology graduate programs. Similarly, pharmacology, the study of drug composition and properties as well as synthesis and drug design can be a good choice for the student preparing for a career in medicine. For more information about this minor, see Vallance and Smart (2006).

Anthropology: Anthropologists examine cultural variation to determine human universals, on the one hand, and the uniqueness of individual cultures, on the other. Anthropologists are particularly interested in topics related to sex, race, ethnicity, human evolution and social change. For the student interested in social psychology, cultural psychology or evolutionary psychology, this minor should be of interest. For more about this minor, go to: www.aaanet.org/about/whatisanthropology.cfm.

Sociology: The field of sociology explores how social structures intersect with individual lives. Sociology is interested in social action and social change and in how social determinants shape our lives. In sociology, the level of analysis ranges from the group to organizations, institutions and societies. Students interested in social psychology, industrial psychology, and social issues should find this minor interesting. For more information about sociology as a minor, see Giddens, Duneier, & Applebaum (2007).
Passion

Students may want to choose to minor in a subject that is not directly related to the major but is an area about which they are passionate. For example, students may want to continue to develop their skills in music or art or they may be passionate about a global cause, such as sustainability, or a media form, such as cinema.

For the student interested in sustainability, a minor in Environmental Studies could be recommended. Environmental studies examine the interaction between people and the environment in order to solve complex problems. It encompasses a broad range of issues that require students to think across and beyond existing disciplinary boundaries. This area provides students with an understanding of how humans experience, investigate and interact with both the natural and built environment.

For the student with a background in Music or Art, a minor in one of these areas could lead to a career in music or art therapy or just provide additional skills to enjoy a rewarding avocation.

Media Studies. Most media studies programs are interdisciplinary and include coursework in anthropology, communications, history, and literature, among others. This minor will introduce students to the wide range of methodologies used to study film and media. Most programs provide the student with the ability to think critically and express complex ideas well, both orally and in writing; understand both historical as well as contemporary media practices; and make informed judgments on the aesthetic value of a cinematic productions. Most minors also provide the student with the opportunity to do some screenwriting and production work. For more about this minor, see Grant (1983).

Adding Depth to the Study of Psychology

There are several areas that can complement the psychology major that will deepen the students understanding of human behavior.

Philosophy allows the student to engage in careful, in-depth study of humanity’s most basic ideas and beliefs. Many of the topics covered in a philosophy minor are similar to those addressed in the psychology major but from a different point of view. Among the topics of interest to both psychologists and philosophers are the nature of morality, the working of the mind, the social construction of gender, the understanding of the self, the nature of evidence, an understanding of language and the nature of emotion.

Political Science. A minor in political science allows the student to gain a more in-depth understanding of issues addressed in forensic psychology as well as such socio-psychological topics as race, class, gender, and ethnicity as they are expressed in political life.
Adding Breadth to the Study of Psychology

Students might want to choose a minor that, combined with their psychology major, gives them insight into an area they would like to explore further in their career or in graduate or professional school.

Business Administration and Marketing are minors that provide the psychology student with the credentials to apply their psychological knowledge in a particular setting. For students interested in continuing their education in Industrial/Organizational psychology, these minors would be useful.

Another minor that could add breadth to the psychology major is Computer Science, which provides the student with the skills to understand the feasibility, structure, expression, and mechanization of the processes that underlie the acquisition, representation, processing, storage, communication of, and access to information. For students interested in jobs that involve research, this minor can be valuable. In addition, psychology majors who are interested in pursuing graduate study in human factors will profit from the courses that examine the challenges in making computers and computations useful, usable, and accessible. For more information about the minor, see Denning, et al. (1989).

The study of History can also add breadth to the psychology major. The study of history teaches an appreciation of both change and continuity and allows the psychology major to examine patterns of human behavior that are recurring. The patterns provide context, perspective, and clarity in a diverse and changing world. In studying the past, students gain a better understanding of the present and are able to make more informed choices for the future.

Preparing for Future Study

Depending on the graduate program of study the student wishes to pursue, a minor can help prepare the student for entry into a particular field. Since psychology is the scientific study of animal and human behavior & cognitive processes, minors that strengthen the student’s scientific credentials can help prepare them for graduate study.

Science. Since all behavior and cognitive processes have a biological component, a minor in Biology can strengthen the students CV and help them prepare for graduate study. For students interested in forensic science or psychology and law, a minor in Chemistry may provide them with useful skills.

Social Work. For students who plan on a career in the helping professions, counseling or clinical psychology courses that prepare the student to assist in improving the quality of life and subjective well being of others can supplement the training they will receive in the psychology major. Social Work helps students develop the skills needed for crisis intervention, community
organizing and direct practice with individuals in need. To learn more about social work, see Agnew (2004).

**Family Studies** courses focus on the health and well-being of individuals and families over the lifespan, including family relationships within the family as well as with broader social institutions. A wide range of jobs is available to those who pursue family studies, including case management, research, community organization, recreation director, grant writer, and many more. Some of the agencies that employ individuals with a background in family studies are governmental, non-profit and for-profit agencies that serve children, youth, families, seniors and communities, including those that focus on child welfare, foster care and adoption, maternal health, substance abuse, and vocational rehabilitation.

**Developing Marketable Skills**

In a competitive job market, who is hired may depend not on what the candidate knows but what the potential employer is looking for. An agency engaged in clinical practice in a minority area, may be looking for someone with particular foreign language skills. The FBI may want a psychologist who is also good with numbers and can investigate financial crimes such as embezzlement or insider trading so that a minor in math or accounting could be useful. There are several minors that can provide marketable skills that will give the job applicant an edge, including the following.

**English.** Strong writing skills can be helpful to the psychology students regardless of their long-term goals. From grant-writing and journal articles, research proposals and a dissertation to client case studies, psychologists have to write a lot. Thus, having a minor that requires a lot of writing can be beneficial, especially if the student plans on going on to graduate school, where one must be proficient in scientific writing. In fact, to be successful as a research or applied psychologist requires one to be able to clearly communicate in many realms, from clients to editors of journals. In addition to English, the student could investigate other departments that require a significant amount of writing. For example, many colleges and universities offer a minor in technical communication, which could also be helpful in honing one’s writing skills.

**Math and Statistics.** In both research and practice, quantitative skills can be quite valuable. As a graduate student, regardless of your area of study, you will have to take quantitative statistics. A minor in one of these subjects can make the most challenging of the graduate school tasks less burdensome.

**Early Childhood Education programs** prepare students to work with children from pre-kindergarten through third grade. Courses tend to focus on teaching practices that promote emotional, social, physical and intellectual development. Students who minor in early childhood education will be involved in reflective practice and inquiry as well as observation of children in early childhood settings. For more about this area, see Bruce (2011).
Studying a Particular Population of Interest. For some students, their interest in psychology is focused on understanding and working with a particular set of people. There are several minors that allow students to study particular groups.

Gerontology is the study of the social, psychology and biological aspects of aging. Gerontologists engage in research and/or practice in the fields of medicine, therapy, social work, urban planning, public health and many more. With an aging population, there are likely to be many jobs working with older adults in a variety of settings. For more about this area, see Hooyman & Kiyak (2011).

Women’s and Gender Studies. This minor is designed to enable a student to recognize, analyze, and transform gender relations as they appear in everyday life. For the psychology major interested in gender differences, courses in this area explore women and gender relations in cultural, historical, and material contexts, encouraging the use of cross-cultural, multi-racial feminist perspectives. Related to social psychology, women’s and gender studies courses enhance the student’s ability to understand social roles assigned to individuals, the inequitable distribution of resources, and larger systems of privilege and oppression. For more about this field of study, see Berkin, Pinch & Appel, 2005).

Criminology examines the causes, nature, control and prevention of criminal behavior. For some psychology majors, this can be a population of interest. Criminology tends to be interdisciplinary and students in the minor will explore the incidence, forms, causes and consequences of crime, as well as social and governmental regulations, and human reactions to crime. For more about this discipline, see Siegel (2003).

When Should the Student Choose a Minor?
It is never a good idea to tack on a minor in the student’s senior year. Ideally, students should be encouraged to think seriously about choosing a minor during their Freshman year. However, since most college students change their major at least once, it is not unusual for students to delay the choice of a minor for quite some time (Harden, 2008). To assist students in selecting a minor, an advisor can suggest several strategies. First, students should be encouraged to explore what is available by searching the university’s website. If the student has trouble finding a suitable minor, they could explore other university websites to see if there is an area of interest. This can sometimes be used to create an individual minor at some institutions.

At the point that the student has a potential list of minors, they should do some research to better determine their interest in a particular field, To do this, they can take an introductory level class, use the internet to explore different options, or leaf through a textbook in a particular field. The student should think about the advantages of each potential minor and how the knowledge and skills gained from that minor will help them in the future. With all of this information in mind, the advisor is then in a much better position to assist the student in
narrowing the field and choosing what is right for them. The advisor is also then able to help the student plan out their schedule so that they will be able to fulfill requirements for both their major and their minor on time.

For many students, choosing a minor is just as hard as choosing the major. Advisors are there to help the student in making this, sometimes difficult, choice. Students who avail themselves of the service provided by an advisor are more likely to graduate on time and obtain the knowledge and experience needed to succeed in life.

References


A Skills-Based Academic Advising Strategy for Job-Seeking Psychology Majors

DREW C. APPLEBY
INDIANA UNIVERSITY-PURDUE UNIVERSITY INDIANAPOLIS

According to (Halonen, 2013, para. 6), “Students who complete a baccalaureate degree in psychology will have completed an almost ideal workforce preparation.” However, many psychology faculty who serve as academic advisors to their job-seeking majors abdicate their advising duties to professional advisors or career center personnel because they lack the confidence to successfully advise students who will not follow their professional path (i.e., graduate school). Halonen (para. 7) labels the students who are negatively affected by this unfortunate situation as “The Great Unwashed.” She uses the term “The Worthies” to describe those whose professional aspirations more closely parallel the trajectory of their faculty advisors and, therefore, receive more confident and beneficial academic advising.

This article provides an alternative strategy to psychology faculty who may have inadvertently perpetuated this unfortunate dichotomy in the past. This strategy provides them with data-based information that can increase their confidence in their ability to help their advisees develop not only the constellation of skills that employers value during the hiring process, but also the skill set that will help them survive and thrive in the jobs they can obtain with a bachelor’s degree in psychology.

More than 100,000 psychology majors graduate each year with a bachelor’s degree (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012), but only about 20-25% of these continue their education by enrolling in a graduate program (Hettich & Landrum, 2014). The remaining 75-80% enter the job market, and fewer than 25% of these will work in a field directly related to psychology (Halonen, 2011). Because the baccalaureate degree in psychology does not qualify a student to enter a specific profession like some other majors (e.g., nursing, education, engineering, and accounting), academic advisors should make psychology majors aware of the broad range of occupations they can enter (Appleby, Millspaugh, & Hammersley, 2011; Rajecki, 2009) and the types of transferable skills they must develop during their undergraduate education so they can gain meaningful employment in today’s challenging job market (Shaffer, 1997). If psychology majors lack this knowledge and these skills, they risk job dissatisfaction (Light, 2010), the disturbing belief that their jobs are not related to their major (Borden & Rajecki, 2000), and the very real possibility of having to accept a job that does not require a bachelor’s degree (Rajecki & Borden, 2009).

Professional development is one of the five basic learning goals contained in the most recent version of the APA Guidelines for the Undergraduate Psychology Major (American Psychological
Association, 2013). Academic advisors can help students achieve this goal by providing them with strategies to “apply psychological content and skills to career goals” (p. 33). More specifically, the “skills in this goal at the baccalaureate level refer to abilities that sharpen student readiness for postbaccalaureate employment” (p. 33). One strategy to facilitate the actualization of APA’s professional development goal is to introduce both advisors and their advisees to the concept of the covert curriculum.

Students must master two very different curricula during their undergraduate experience (Appleby, 2001; Hettich, 1992). All academic advisors are aware of the overt curriculum, which consists of the courses students must take to graduate and the knowledge learned in these courses. However, many advisors are less aware of the covert curriculum, which refers to the life-long learning skills and work habits that students can develop as they complete the overt curriculum. Unfortunately, many advisors spend so much time emphasizing the overt curriculum that they neglect to stress the importance of the covert curriculum during advising sessions.

This chapter has two purposes. The first is to increase academic advisors’ awareness of the value of the covert curriculum in the job-preparation process by familiarizing them with the results of two studies. The first study is a meta-analytic review (Appleby, 2009) of 31 publications that addressed the skills employers value in college graduates who apply for jobs. A content analysis of the 341 skills identified in these publications yielded the seven following skill sets, which are arranged in descending order of the total number of times their component skills appeared in the literature sample: communication (85), critical thinking and research (78), collaboration (74), self-management (53), professional (24), technological (18), and ethical (9). The second study is a survey whose results yielded the categories of behaviors whose presence or absence leads employers to promote, reprimand, discipline, or fire new college hires (Gardner, 2007). The second purpose of this chapter is to provide advisors with advice based on the data from these two studies that can enable them to help their job-seeking advisees select a constellation of curricular and extracurricular undergraduate experiences whose successful completion will prepare them to obtain a challenging, rewarding, and meaningful job, and then to survive and thrive in that job.

The next portion of this article contains seven sections, each of which addresses one of the seven skill sets produced by the author’s content analysis. Each of these sections contains two major parts. The first major part (Results), contains (a) brief summaries of Appleby’s (2008) findings for the seven skill categories, including specific behavioral examples of each category (During the Hiring Process) and (b) Gardner’s (2007) reasons why new college hires are promoted, reprimanded, disciplined, or fired (On-the-Job). The second major part (Advice to Advisors), provides information academic advisors can use to enable their advisees to make the
wise educational decisions they will need to develop the skill set that is the topic of each section.

**Communication Skills**

**Results**
During the Hiring Process. Communication skills (i.e., the ability to write, speak, read, and listen) were reported more often than any of the other employer-valued skills.

On-the-Job. Presenting ideas persuasively in written and oral forms is 1 of the 13 top reasons why new hires are promoted or given new assignments. Ineffective verbal communication, ineffective written communication, and the failure to follow written and spoken directions are 3 of the top 10 reasons why supervisors reprimand or discipline new college hires. Failure to follow directions is one of the six top reasons why new college hires are fired.

**Advice to Advisors**

It is crucially important for advisees to understand that people employed in the management positions to which most college graduates aspire must not only write and speak in a clear, coherent, and persuasive manner, but must also attend to, remember, understand, and act upon the information they read and hear. Unless they are aware of these crucial job-related requirements, they often avoid classes that require extensive reading assignments, information-rich lectures, demanding writing assignments, and formal oral presentations. Effective advisors can use their knowledge of the covert curriculum to encourage advisees to enroll in these types of classes and to view them as valuable learning opportunities. All students are required to take basic communication courses such as English Composition and Speech. Unfortunately, most students take these courses simply to “get them out of the way” rather than to learn from them. Advisors can encourage students to take more advanced courses in these areas (e.g., Technical Writing and Interpersonal Communication) and seek out experiences that will require them to polish their ability to communicate because they understand that strong communication skills will help students distinguish themselves from others during the hiring process (i.e., cover-letter writing, resume production, and interviewing) and enable them to avoid being reprimanded, disciplined, or fired after they are hired.

**Critical Thinking and Research Skills**

**Results**
During the Hiring Process. The combination of research and critical thinking skills was the second-most-often reported skill valued by employers. Employers appear to be particularly eager to hire college graduates who can apply information to solve organizational problems; use statistical and quantitative skills to summarize, organize, and analyze data; find, gather, and organize information from a variety of sources; and create new knowledge by integrating existing information.
On-the-Job. Critical thinking skills such as thinking analytically, evaluating data, remaining open-minded, and being creative are 1 of the top 13 reasons why new hires are promoted or given new assignments.

Advice to Advisors
One of the most effective ways to develop the six critical thinking skills described in *Teaching, Learning, and Assessing in a Developmentally Coherent Curriculum* (APA, 2008) is to engage in research. During the research process, students must retain and comprehend information about the subject of their research, analyze and evaluate the research that has preceded theirs, create and test hypotheses, and suggest ways to apply their findings to promote human welfare. Once advisors are aware of how the research process fosters critical thinking, it should become natural for them to encourage their advisees to excel in courses that will teach them research skills (e.g., Research Methods, Statistics, and Tests and Measurements) and then seek out opportunities to engage in research by volunteering as research assistants in faculty labs and enrolling in credit-bearing research experiences such as independent studies and research-based capstone classes that culminate in a senior thesis. It is also vitally important for students to acquire a fundamental working knowledge of statistical methods because, on-the-job, those who do not possess this knowledge are at the mercy of those who do.

Collaboration Skills

Results
During the Hiring Process. Collaboration skills such as working effectively in groups, dealing sensitively and effectively with diverse populations, and various forms of leadership (e.g., supervising, influencing, and motivating others) were the third most-often-reported employer-valued skills.

On-the-Job. Leadership (e.g., management skills, employee development, consensus building, and goal accomplishment); organizational savvy (e.g., navigating competing interests in an organization, working well with others, and fitting into an organization); and followership (i.e., helping leaders to accomplish their goals) were 3 of the 13 top reasons why new hires are promoted or given new assignments. Being ineffective in teams is 1 of the top 10 reasons why supervisors reprimand or discipline new college hires and also 1 of the 10 top reasons why new hires are fired.

Advice to Advisors
Advisors should stress that employers require employees to perform complex tasks that require teamwork. No one works alone, and almost all teams are composed of different types of people. The skills necessary to be a productive member of a diverse team must be acquired through practice, and what better place to practice these skills than in course-based group projects or extracurricular activities (see Stewart, Appleby & Ferrari, 2013 for an extracurricular
example and a method to communicate these skills in a resume) where mistakes are far less costly than in the work place. Many students avoid projects in which they must collaborate with their peers because they fear their grades will suffer. What they do not realize is that even if their grades are high, their inability to provide employers with evidence of collaboration skills during the hiring process and their lack of teamwork skills on-the-job may have very negative consequences. Advisors should also stress that the working world is becoming increasingly diverse. Successful employees are those who can interact in a civil and productive manner with a wide variety of people (e.g., a supervisor who is older, a client of a different race, or a coworker with a different sexual orientation). Some people are naturally comfortable with diversity, but for those who are not, the university setting is the perfect place to develop this crucial characteristic. The best way for students to become more comfortable with people who are different from themselves is to take advantage of curricular and extracurricular activities that bring them in contact with diverse people. The worst thing they can do is to isolate themselves from diversity by deciding to live, work, and spend their leisure time with only those people who are like themselves.

**Self-Management Skills**

*Results*

During the Hiring Process. Self-management skills such as adapting to new situations; learning new skills and information; and managing time, stress, and conflict were the fourth most-often-reported employer-valued skill.

On-the-Job. Displaying strong self-management skills (e.g., regulating work by setting priorities, understanding quality indicators of work, managing stress successfully, behaving in an accountable manner, and completing work in a timely manner) is 1 of the top 13 reasons why new hires are promoted or given new assignments. Missing assignments or deadlines and being late for work were 2 of the top 10 reasons why supervisors reprimand or discipline new college hires. Being late and missing assignments or deadlines were also two of the top six reasons why new hires are fired.

*Advice to Advisors*

The best advice advisors can provide about this skill is one that many advisees, especially those whose self-management skills are weak, will not want to hear. The advice is this: intentionally seek out challenging courses whose instructors expect students to perform in the same responsible ways that their future employers will demand. Students should avoid classes taught by instructors (a) whose classes are perceived as non-stressful because their subject matter is easy or they do not require students to learn new skills (e.g., writing in APA style), (b) who reinforce procrastination and irresponsible behavior by accepting late assignments or allowing students to “make up” missed tests, and (c) who do not seem to care if their students
come to class late, leave class early, or miss class entirely. The lessons students learn from these instructors produce the types of on-the-job behaviors that lead to reprimands from their supervisors or, worse yet, termination from the jobs they believe they were preparing for during their undergraduate education.

Caveat: Advisors should be warned that the advice provided in the previous paragraph may not be received positively—or perhaps even understood—by their “Generation Me” advisees who were born between 1970 and 1990 (Twenge, 2006), who often exhibit an attitude of entitlement characterized by “the pervasive belief that one deserves special treatment, success, and more material things” (Twenge & Campbell, 2009, p. 230). According to Hettich (2013), this belief often produces workers who feel they are entitled to come to work late, leave work early, and place a higher priority on their own personal concerns than on the requirements of their jobs. Advisors will find that this deeply engrained mind set (produced by parental leniency, lowered social standards, and a pervasive emphasis on self-esteem) is highly resistant to change, but without at least bringing it to the attention of their advisees, advisors will be placing them at risk during the hiring process and on-the-job.

**Professional Skills**

**Results**

During the Hiring Process. Professional skills such as organizing, planning, and carrying out projects; managing resources; and acting and dressing in a professional manner were the fifth most-often-reported employer-valued skills.

On-the-Job. Taking initiative (e.g., being self-motivated, volunteering for additional activities, and being a self-starter); displaying commitment and passion for the job; demonstrating competence acquired during internships and co-ops; and displaying desirable professional attributes (e.g., being dependable, patient, flexible, reliable, and friendly) were 4 of the top 13 reasons why new hires are promoted or given new assignments. Lack of motivation or work ethic and failure to take initiative were 2 of the top 10 reasons why new hires are disciplined or reprimanded and lack of motivation or work ethic was one of the six top reasons why they are fired.

**Advice to Advisors**

The advice advisors can provide about developing professional skills is similar to that presented in the previous section. Students most in need of this advice are those who have chosen to take the path of least resistance during their undergraduate education by deliberately seeking out easy classes taught by undemanding professors. These students should be made acutely aware of the negative consequences of the lack of professional skills in the work place and should be advised to seek out challenging courses whose instructors set the bar high by expecting students to demonstrate the same type of professional skills that will be required for
success—and to avoid failure—in the workplace. Students should enroll in classes taught by instructors (a) who help their students develop a strong work ethic by providing them with opportunities to work hard and receive high grades only for excellent work; (b) who do not allow students to make up for low performance on assignments or tests with extra credit; (c) who require students to create, plan, organize, and carry out complex projects; (d) who promote professional behavior and appearance by modeling it themselves; and (e) who do not tolerate the kinds of behaviors in their classrooms that are unacceptable on-the-job (e.g., texting, surfing the Web, or receiving cell phone calls; coming to class unprepared to participate; sleeping, or behaving and dressing in a distracting manner that disrupts the learning process).

Another very important piece of advice advisors can provide is to get a job. Employment will provide the opportunity to develop professional skills, to explore an occupational area, and to gain a credible letter of recommendation. An added advantage of work experience according to Job Outlook 2013 (National Association of Colleges and Employers) is that 91% of employers prefer to hire candidates with work experience.

**Technological Skills**

**Results**

During the Hiring Process. Technological skills such as computer literacy, word processing, and email were the seventh most-often-reported employer-valued skills.

On-the-Job. Technological competence is 1 of the 13 top reasons why new hires are promoted or given new assignments. Inappropriate use of technology was 1 of the 10 top reasons why supervisors reprimand or discipline new college hires and one of the six top reasons why new hires are fired.

**Advice to Advisors**

Although undergraduates often appear to be technologically savvy, advisors must make them aware that texting their friends, checking their Facebook page, and shopping online are not skills valued by employers. In fact, the presence of these types of actions on-the-job can lead to highly undesirable outcomes. Employers expect their employees to choose and use appropriate technological tools to identify, locate, acquire, store, organize, display, analyze, and evaluate verbal, numerical, and visual information. Therefore, advisors should advise their advisees to enroll in classes that require (a) papers written with word-processing programs, (b) the organization of information with databases, (c) the manipulation of numbers with spreadsheets, (d) the analysis of data with statistical programs, (e) the location of information with search engines, (f) the enhancement of speeches with presentation software, and (g) communication with their instructors and fellow students via the Internet. Advisors should
stress that savvy students master these computer skills in college so they do not have to learn them on-the-job.

**Ethical Skills**

**Results**

During the Hiring Process. Ethical skills—based on appropriate ethical knowledge, the ability to make ethical decisions based on this knowledge, and the willingness to act on these decisions—were the seventh most-often-reported employer-valued skills.

On-the-Job. Unethical behaviors were listed as 1 of the 10 top reasons why new hires are reprimanded and as the top reason why they are fired.

**Advice to Advisors**

Although this was the least-often-mentioned skill by employers during the hiring process, it is an extremely important skill to emphasize during advising sessions because of the dire consequences for new hires who fail to demonstrate it on-the-job. Advisors should make advisees aware that job interviews can include questions designed to evaluate their ability to think and act in an ethical manner, such as “Tell me about a project you worked on that required you to be aware of and behave in accordance with a set of ethical principles.” The only way to answer this type of question in a credible manner is to have actually participated in such a project. Advisors can recommend engaging in research projects that require the creation of IRB protocols, writing assignments that must conform to APA-style guidelines that prohibit plagiarism (see Appleby, 2010), or an internship that involves the solicitation of informed consent from clients who may be exposed to potentially risky treatments. It is also absolutely essential for psychology faculty who serve as advisors to model ethical behavior for their advisees by being fair, honest, and professional with their students both in and out of the classroom.

**Conclusions**

There is a perfectly acceptable ethical explanation for why psychology faculty may be hesitant to offer advice to job-seeking psychology majors. Section 2.01 of APA’s (2010, para.1) *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* states, “Psychologists provide services, teach, and conduct research with populations and in areas only within the boundaries of their competence, based on their education, training, supervised experience, consultation, study or professional experience.” This chapter was created to provide psychology faculty with a document that offers them data-based information they can use to expand the boundaries of the services they deliver in their role of academic advisors in a more confident and ethical manner. APA’s *Guidelines for the Undergraduate Psychology Major* (2013) provides further incentive for psychology faculty to advise their job-seeking advisees by stating that two of the most crucial learning outcomes of the psychology major can be assessed by the degree to
which students are able to “articulate the skill sets desired by employers who hire or select people with psychology backgrounds” (p. 33) and “develop evidence of attaining skill sets desired by psychology-related employers” (p. 33).

On an individual advisor level, the combination of these guidelines and the information in this chapter could persuade psychology faculty who advise job-seeking psychology majors to change their perception of these students from “The Great Unwashed” to “The Worthies” (Halonen, 2013, para. 7). On a more global level, this combination can also help American colleges and universities become more like high-performing American high schools that, “like their counterparts in many high-performing countries...are data-driven and transparent not only around learning outcomes [the overt curriculum], but also around soft skills like completing work on time, resilience, perseverance and punctuality [the covert curriculum]” (America Achieves, 2013, p. 10).

References
References marked with an asterisk indicate studies included in the meta-analysis.


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**Author Note**

I would like to thank Paul Hettich for introducing me to the concept of the covert curriculum and Eric Landrum for providing me with the incentive to gather the data upon which this chapter is based. I have created two sets of documents that psychology faculty can use to enable their advisees to benefit from the information in this chapter. The first set is a...
PowerPoint presentation and its accompanying handout that can be used during group-advising sessions. The second set consists of a cover letter and a skills-based (i.e., functional) resume that provide advisees with examples of how they can bring the skills they develop to the attention of potential employers during the hiring process. Contact me via E-mail to receive these documents as attachments. Correspondence to this chapter should be addressed to Drew Appleby, 107 Glentown Way NE, Atlanta, GA 32308. E-mail: dappleby@iupui.edu
The purpose of this chapter is to help advisors promote student engagement outside the classroom through service-learning. Because service-learning intertwines academic course content with critical reflection, it clarifies values and provides insight into students’ strengths and weaknesses (Bowen, 2007). Indeed, Astin (1985) emphasized that students learn and develop valuable career skills when they become active in the collegiate experience. Building on Astin’s proposition, Upcraft (1995) noted that students would be more likely to succeed in their college careers as the quantity and quality of their involvement increases. Thus, service-learning experiences contribute to career development when students systematically examine career options and gauge their readiness for the workplace (Bloch, 2005). Additionally, because service-learning clarifies values and provides insight into strengths and weaknesses, it can transform students’ conception of self and their world views (Baxter, 1999). Before illustrating how advisors can promote engagement outside the classroom through service-learning, it is important to define it.

**Service-Learning**

Although there are many definitions of service-learning (Sigmon, 1994) and the language used to convey the idea of service-learning (Kendall, 1990), typically it provides students with activities that address a real-world problem combined with instruction specifically designed to promote learning (Jacoby, 1996). Often service-learning experiences embody seven principles of improvement for undergraduate education (Chickering and Gamson, 1987). Specifically, service-learning encourages student-faculty contact, enhances cooperation among students, promotes active learning, provides prompt feedback, stresses time on task, conveys high expectations, and engenders respect for others’ talents and ways of learning. Students engaged in service-learning are required to reflect on their service activities. Reflection can include discussions, writings (e.g., journals, blogs, or essays), and presentations (for an example of how discussions can be used, see Casteel & Bridges, 2007; for an example of how blogs can be used, see Bridges, Harnish, & Sillman, 2012). Examples of service-learning include but are not limited to applying skills and knowledge to solve academic issues (e.g., teaching elementary school children to read, conducting peer tutoring of math) and community problems (e.g., building houses for the homeless, conducting community improvement surveys).
Career Development

Few students take advantage of the career planning and professional development service-learning affords (Webster, 2004). This is unfortunate because as Bowen (2007) suggested, students are not only able to gain and sharpen critical thinking and problem solving skills that will be valuable in the student’s future career, a well-conceived service-learning project also promotes the development of productive work habits and attitudes. A well planned service-learning experience therefore facilitates career decisions and enhances professional development. It provides students with real world skills and experiences that the traditional classroom setting cannot.

Advising

Cuseo (n.d.) suggests that an academic advisor: “helps students become more self-aware of their distinctive interests, talents, values, and priorities; enables students to see the ‘connection’ between their present academic experience and their future life plans; helps students discover their potential, purpose, and passion; broadens students’ perspectives with respect to their personal life choices, and sharpens their cognitive skills for making these choices, such as effective problem-solving, critical thinking, and reflective decision-making.” (p. 15)

Thus, advising should not only be concerned with a student’s vocational decision, but also “with facilitating the student’s rational processes, environmental and interpersonal interactions, behavioral awareness and problem-solving, decision-making and evaluation skills” (Crookston, 1994, p. 5). Because of the reflective nature of service-learning, it addresses the challenges of advising identified by Cuseo (n.d.) and Crookston (1994). It aids students in understanding the connections between their academic experiences and future life plans.

Students, faculty, the academy, and community witness the impact of service-learning. For students, service-learning has been shown to have a positive effect across multiple aspects of their lives. For example, Conway, Amel, & Gerwien (2009) found students who participated in service-learning had positive changes (assessed through pre-test/post-test measures) in academic outcomes (GPA, motivation to learn) as well as social outcomes (beliefs, knowledge, or attitudes towards those served). For faculty, service-learning can improve the teaching experience. As an example, Pribbenow (2005) found that faculty members reported a more meaningful engagement in, and commitment to teaching because working closely with students allows for a better opportunity to form tighter bonds and to gain a deeper understanding of students as both individuals and learners. For the academy, service-learning can help improve retention among first and second year students (Gallini & Moely, 2003). Beyond retention, students who participate in service-learning are more likely to graduate than those who do not (Astin & Sax, 1998). Furthermore, service-learning may facilitate better understanding of college students and dispel negative stereotypes that they are uninterested,
unsympathetic, or unresponsive to the needs of others (Blouin & Perry, 2009). For community partners, service-learning brings engaged students’ energy, skills and talents, as well as their creative ideas to bear on a real-world issue (Blouin & Perry, 2009).

Despite the benefits afforded by service-learning, McErlean (2009) cautions advisors not to pressure students to engage in service-learning opportunities if they are not interested. This may be especially difficult if the advisor is supportive of a community partner who might offer an engagement opportunity or appreciates the benefits derived from service-learning. Additionally, some students who are involved in other extracurricular activities may not be ideal candidates for service-learning opportunities because of the time required for a service-learning experience. Such students can become easily overextended and feel overwhelmed with their extracurricular, service-learning, and classroom activities. Advisors of such students may have to help students modify extracurricular activities so that these interests are blended with the service-learning experience (Andring, 2002).

**Best Practices**

How service-learning is integrated into the academy is as varied as service-learning opportunities themselves. Some universities centralize service-learning opportunities while other universities rely on faculty who are intrinsically motivated to engage students in service-learning without the assistance of a centralized structure. Typically, larger universities have the resources to develop and implement a centralized structure, while smaller universities rely upon faculty to organically develop such programs. We provide two brief examples to illustrate how service-learning has been integrated at a large and small campus (i.e., the University Park and New Kensington campuses of Penn State University). By doing so, we hope to illustrate that service-learning can be integrated into the academy regardless of scale.

At the University Park campus (with approximately 35,000 students), service-learning is integrated into advising at the Center for Student Engagement. Sponsored and supported by the College of Undergraduate Education, the Office of Student Affairs, and Outreach, the Center supports student involvement by serving as a clearinghouse for students to become engaged in service-learning activities as well as other forms of student engagement including community service, and volunteer opportunities. (It bears repeating that service-learning differs from community service and volunteerism because it is tied to a credit-bearing course.) As faculty do not formally advise students at University Park, the Center works closely with all academic advising departments ensuring that students are aware of service-learning opportunities that are in the local community, or are across the state, country or abroad. Some recent examples include: students working in local school districts helping young children develop problem-solving skills to improve academic and mental health outcomes; students rethinking urban poverty in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh; students acting to reclaim or repurpose blighted neighborhoods throughout the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania; students advocating for
children’s rights; students working at the Cooperative Wetlands Center to assist conservationists and developers manage wetlands; students investigating methods to address fresh water pollution in China; and students conducting fieldwork in Africa on HIV/AIDS prevention and treatment programs.

Given the centralized nature of advising departments at large universities, communication between such entities and faculty may be limited. Thus, many faculty may not be aware of service-learning opportunities at their universities. In such cases, faculty have a special responsibility to direct students who are interested or could benefit from service-learning opportunities to the appropriate department, office, or center. Additionally, faculty should take advantage of programs sponsored by service-learning centers to familiarize themselves with the services and opportunities they provide. Perhaps one way that universities could help faculty identify service-learning courses is for departments to designate such courses with an "S" suffix, in the same way that universities require a minimum number of courses with a major writing component, designated with a "W" suffix.

At the New Kensington campus (with approximately 900 students), service-learning is organically supported through a faculty member’s research interests. Specifically, students are encouraged to enroll in courses that employ service-learning. For example, in our Applied Social Psychology course, students have collected and analyzed data for comprehensive plans for the city of Lower Burrell and the Borough of Plum (for a detailed review of one of these projects, see Harnish & Bridges, 2004); identified stakeholders’ needs for the cities of New Kensington and Arnold’s Weed and Seed program; conducted a feasibility study for building a minor league baseball park in the city of New Kensington; performed an economic indicators survey of the region, surveyed local businesses to identify gaps in skills among graduates of the university, and coordinated and hosted regional economic development planning which brought together all of the campus’ surrounding communities (for a discussion of the benefits of service-learning, see Harnish & Bridges, 2012).

In our Introduction to Well-Being and Positive Psychology course, we incorporated the approach of Martin Seligman, whose ideas led to the creation of positive psychology (Compton & Hoffman, 2013; Seligman, 2011). Seligman argued that flourishing and well-being rests on five pillars, one of which is the meaningful life, defined as using individual signature strengths in the service of something larger and more significant than one’s self. This suggests that doing positive things for others is necessary to achieve a sense of well-being. As humans need a cause that helps humanity in some way, we believe that an assignment that includes service-learning would not only include the benefits detailed earlier, but would provide an opportunity for students to develop a meaningful life as well. Students are asked to complete the signature strengths test (http://www.authentichappiness.org), and then choose a service-learning assignment.
that uses one of their top strengths. Thus far students have investigated projects at a variety of organizations, such as Habitat for Humanity, a local center for domestic violence, area garden clubs (to beautify the nearby community), animal shelters, senior centers, and the Ronald McDonald House. In this way, we were able to formalize the psychological benefits of service-learning.

Finally, students are advised to conduct an internship with a community partner. Students have found internships to be invaluable as it provided them with an opportunity to build professional networks, gain real-world understanding of academic learning, and document their experience on their resumes. A sizeable number of interns have been hired by their internship site upon completion of the internship. Students have conducted streetscape projects, STEM-related initiatives, and marketing activities for Westmoreland Economic Development and Initiative for Growth (WEDIG) during their internships (for a description of our participation in WEDIG, see Harnish & Snider, 2013).

Resources
For faculty advisors who are interested in learning more about service-learning, the following websites may be consulted for additional information:

- National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (http://www.servicelearning.org/) is dedicated to improving the ties between schools and communities through the use of service-learning.
- Corporation for National and Community Service (http://www.nationalservice.gov/about/overview/index.asp) is a federal agency that provides grants, training and technical assistance to developing and expanding volunteer organizations.
- Campus Compact (http://www.compact.org/) supports community engagement by integrating community-based learning into the curriculum.

Conclusion
Service-learning is a valuable advising tool that can be used to help students clarify their values and identify their strengths and weaknesses so that informed career decisions can be made. We trust that this chapter will help faculty promote service-learning through their advising efforts.
References


A paramount responsibility of advisors is informing advisees of student services available on their campus. These crucial connections can mean the difference between student success (Kuh, 2008) and student drop out, particularly for at-risk student populations. Identifying appropriate and timely referrals for individual student needs can provide a much-needed connection to campus support services, and information sources for individual students.

Student services vary by institution, but often include the following (this is not intended to be an inclusive list, but a sampling of available services):

**Student involvement:**
- Intramurals
- Leadership and mentoring
- Recreation
- Student activities, clubs, and organizations
- Student government
- Student life
- Study abroad

**Career development:**
- Career assessment and evaluation
- Career coaching and counseling
- Internship services

**Academic resources**
- Academic advising (general/major-specific)
- Accessibility services / accommodations
- Tutoring programs
- Library and research services

**General resources**
- Academic standards/integrity
- Child care
- International center
- Medical services
- Mental health services
In a digital age (Leonard, 2008) it is important to ensure that each area of student services has an online presence, preferably something that is accessible on mobile devices (Johnson, Larsen, Pasquini, & Steele, 2012). Both a digital and physical presence is valuable to ensure the maximum number of students is aware of the services available to them. Unfortunately, many students graduate from an institution not having used services that could have significantly improved their overall experience, satisfaction, and success as a college student (Self, 2008). Efforts should be made to market available resources benefitting both the student and institution. Students can gain much needed support and the institution can prevent the waste of money spent on unused programs.

Appropriate referrals require understanding individual student needs (Harding, 2008). Open-ended questions, empathic listening, reflective language, and other counseling skills (Young, 2013) can help students open up to discuss what is happening in their lives. To illustrate the unique nature of students’ circumstances and how student services referrals may be employed successfully, several case studies encountered by advisors are included below.

Case Study 1
Mara, a 27 year-old, female student is returning to college after dropping out of her first and only semester at age 18. She is recently divorced and has been told to get a degree to improve job prospects so she can support her family. She has spent her last 9 years raising children (ages 8, 5, 2, and 3 months) and has not worked since she was in high school. She’s overwhelmed at the thought of going to college when she has so much on her plate. Her first experience was a negative one and she’s not sure she’s “smart enough” to succeed in college.

As Mara’s advisor there are dozens of potential referrals to be made. Primary issues include:
Women’s support center – Providing support to Mara during this significant time of transition can be a huge mental health advantage. Group support services and life skills courses may be available to help her with some of the challenges she is facing. In addition, there are private scholarships that may be available through an organization like this which are not available through standard higher education financial aid offices.

Child care – On-campus child care services may make attending classes more feasible. Often student prices for on-campus care are lower than community prices, which could relieve some financial strain as well.

Financial aid & scholarships – Paying for school is likely to be a paramount concern for Mara. Identifying grants and scholarships available to her as a non-traditional, returning student, with a recent family status change could qualify her for more funds than previously thought. This may be supplemented by student loans as necessary.

Student success courses – With significant concerns about her ability to succeed in college, it may be beneficial for Mara to start with some basic student skills courses like: study skills, reading strategies, learning strategies, learning modalities, time management, and stress management. Developing these fundamental skills can set Mara on a path to succeed academically.

Tutoring labs – Noting areas of concern like math or writing can initiate a discussion about campus lab and tutoring services. Attending workshops or engaging in one-on-one tutoring may provide significant support to succeed in specific courses.

Career Development Center – Mara may need some career exploration, then career planning (Gore & Metz, 2008, Gordon, 2006). With employment as a primary goal, it is important that she takes steps to become a qualified candidate. This will likely include on or off-campus employment while a student, developing a resume, and sharpening interview skills.

Case Study 2

Bronson, a 17 year-old incoming freshman is coming to meet with his advisor for the first time. He hopes to start college next fall. He did very well in math and science in high school, but struggled in English, literature, and other non-science courses. Bronson expresses his frustration with his parents “babying” him and talks about how great it will be to live on his own. Parents are expressing hesitation at Bronson living on his own and mention his learning disability has made school a challenge in the past. They worry that without supervision Bronson won’t study for classes and will flunk out of school.

Student service referrals to help Bronson include:

- Accessibility services for accommodations regarding his learning disability would be a primary referral. Explaining how accommodations differ from high school to college would be important for both Bronson and his family to understand.
• Enrolling in student success courses regarding time and stress management may be helpful steps as Bronson learns to live on his own and navigates new challenges.
• Student health services for ongoing assistance with any medications or therapeutic treatments Bronson may be receiving is important.
• First Year Experience groups may provide significant support to Bronson as a new freshman and provide an opportunity to network and gain friendships with other students.
• Writing lab and other tutoring services may be helpful for Bronson’s less-favorite courses. Utilizing available resources to succeed in previously challenging areas can empower him and encourage his future success.

Case Study 3
Taylor, a current sophomore, comes to your office frustrated with his courses and does not feel he will pass anything this semester. Taylor completed his general education requirements his freshman year with a cumulative GPA of 3.1. This is his first semester in the engineering program. He is complaining of headaches and exhaustion. Taylor mentions recently breaking up with his girlfriend because his family didn’t approve of him dating someone who was not Latino like him. He’s considering dropping out of school.

Student service referrals to support Taylor include:
• Student Health Services – Referral to a licensed therapist could provide some insight and support dealing with the possibility of depression.
• Multicultural Center – Connecting with other students and mentors at the multicultural center could provide support (Cuyjet, 2011) to Taylor while navigating the challenging circumstances he’s facing. Finding friends to connect to on campus could help Taylor persist (Heisserer, 2002).
• Career Development Center – Taylor is likely a minority student in the engineering program and may feel out of place. Networking with other Latino professionals in the engineering field may provide support and connection to increase his likelihood of persistence in the field.
• Tutoring – Any labs or personal tutors that may assist with Taylor’s progress in his engineering coursework would be helpful.
• Service Center/Clubs – If the Engineering Club is collaborating with the institution’s Service Center to raise funds to build water wells in an underdeveloped community, perhaps Taylor could find more purpose to his studies. Hopefully service to others will also help him find more commitment day to day.
Case Study 4
Simone is a 43-year old female in her senior year. She is meeting with you to discuss her Academic Probation after failing several courses last semester. She mentions the return of significant depression and a previous hospitalization for threatening suicide. During discussions she mentions her 5 year-old and feeling overwhelmed at raising him alone. Simone lost her job and is concerned about losing her apartment this month.

This is a situation where appropriate and timely referrals could save lives. Assessing a student’s suicidality is a serious and important skill in this position, as advisors are often on the front lines of student interaction. I encourage all advisors to complete suicide prevention training like QPR.

- Potential student services referrals for Simone include:
- Walking this student to Student Health Services for an immediate counseling intervention is the first priority if the student displays signs of suicidality. If immediate intervention is not necessary, a referral for counseling services in an on-going fashion may be more appropriate. If the advisor feels there is imminent danger of the student harming themselves or others, police should be notified immediately.
- Child care may be helpful for Simone to find some support raising her 5 year-old. A single parent group may also provide some connection and social support.
- Academic Standards – support from staff who frequently work with students on academic probation could be useful to help Simone persist and succeed in school.
- Community – in addition to on-campus resources, it may be helpful to put Simone in touch with community housing authorities and resources. Low-cost apartment information and shelter resources can be helpful for students in challenging circumstances.
- Smothers’ Visual Model of Academic Advising can be a useful tool to review areas of advising responsibility and opportunity, as well as specifically identifying areas of student referrals. Fundamental examples include:
- Student Activities may address campus involvement, student fellowship, and social connectivity.
- Career Services may address job exploration, career research and opportunities, and application preparation.
- Health Services may support the physical and mental health needs of the student population.
- On most campuses the problem is not a lack of available resources for student use, instead there may be a lack of awareness of these resources. As advisors it is imperative to maintain current knowledge of resources available to our students. Maintaining positive relationships with staff in those areas can also help facilitate successful personal referrals.
References & Suggested Readings


After graduating from college, Sana took a position as a university lab manager for a social psychology research group studying social cognition, eating disorders, and health behaviors. The experience inspired her decision to pursue a career as a community relations director of a leading fashion company where she develops self-esteem programs for adolescent girls from inner-city New York. The year after he graduated, Kevin studied non-conscious influences on choice and behavior in an international visiting scholars program. He now sits as a creative strategist at a digital marketing and public relations firm where he designs social media advertising campaigns. Before she headed to graduate school, Molly participated in a two-year AmeriCorps program where she engaged in community-based research, developing assessment tools for nonprofit organizations. These psychology majors found unique opportunities to gain basic and applied research experiences after graduating—experiences that spearheaded their diverse careers.

For many of the career goals that psychology undergraduates hold, research experience is critical. However, opportunities for research can be difficult to identify and obtain during traditional undergraduate education. In fact, 76% of students earn their Bachelor’s degrees without gaining research experience (NSSE, 2011). In this article, we offer suggestions for how students can gain critical research experiences after graduation. Furthermore, we focus our suggestions on those experiences that take the form of learning communities, as these experiences offer some of the best opportunities for personal and professional growth.

**What is a learning community?**

Learning communities are unique educational opportunities. In contrast to traditional lecture classes or business settings, learning communities employ a team-based approach to learning. Students participate in collaborative, hands-on experiences in communal contexts. Learning communities promote complementary involvement in a variety of both academic and social activities. Depending on how learning communities are structured, students may enroll in courses, participate in research meetings or develop collaborative research projects with other group members while learning to hone, implement, and teach their newly found skills. Learning communities often supplement and enhance the experiences students have available to them through more traditional educational routes.

There are two key features of learning communities that contribute to their effectiveness in preparing members for future endeavors. The first is their collaborative training environment.
Rather than a top-down structure, where a professor, director, or executive trains interns or employees, members of a learning community are all responsible for teaching and learning from one another. Much like a ‘jigsaw’ classroom, learning communities empower members to share their unique knowledge with others, which improves both learning and social relations (Aronson & Yates, 1983). The second key feature is their scaffolded social structure. Members of learning communities hold diverse responsibilities and have varied levels of experience. Members work together to engage in team-teaching and integrative training, and they pass knowledge from one generation to the next. Members learn from relatively senior peers, and later participate in training newer members.

Learning communities and the roles available within them are numerous. For example, post-baccalaureate students may serve as laboratory coordinators where they gain research experience, develop leadership skills, and learn administrative practices. They may intern at mental health facilities where they lead group therapy sessions and design interventions for at-risk populations. They may participate in community-based programs that involve working collaboratively with nonprofit organizations to help develop program outcome assessments. The experiences and roles available within learning communities are variable, but consistent across them is the integration of members of varied levels of experience, in hands-on ways, in multiple aspects of project goals.

Benefits of learning communities

Global benefits. Learning communities foster feelings of value and worth, as students are likely to feel that their opinions and actions influence the group process. Because of their unique team-based structure, learning communities strengthen the social and intellectual connections between participants, which, in turn builds a sense of community among them (Gabelnick, MacGregor, Matthews, & Smith, 1990). Indeed, members experience a sense of belonging and loyalty, intellectual fulfillment, and emotional connection (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Roth & Lee, 2006). Further, members develop stronger critical thinking skills and perform better on objective tests of skill and knowledge development (Carmichael, 2009). Learning communities increase both feelings of personal value within a particular field and the potential for intellectual contributions to that field.

Benefits to members of underrepresented populations. Learning communities are particularly beneficial for members of underrepresented groups. For instance, women and racial minorities are drastically underrepresented in careers related to science, technology, engineering, and math, known as STEM fields. Indeed, although women hold close to half of all jobs in the U.S. economy, they hold less than 25% of jobs in STEM fields (ESA, 2011a). Moreover, although STEM fields are projected to grow at about twice the rate of any other occupational sector (ESA, 2011b), women and racial minorities are especially likely to drop out of science and math fields at various points during their career. Indeed, only 30% of Hispanic, Black, and Native
American students who receive degrees in STEM go on to hold occupations in these fields. In other words, 70% of minority individuals trained in these areas abandon them after graduation (ESA, 2011b). Finding ways to retain underrepresented groups in science and math, especially during vulnerable transition times, is critical.

Learning communities effectively combat attrition. The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) surveyed over 2 million college students from over 1400 colleges and universities. They found that one of the most effective ways to increase students’ engagement in and commitment to higher education is through the learning community (NSSE, 2007). Further, learning communities are repeatedly recommended in national policy reports, like the 2002 National Panel Report from the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU National Panel, 2002), as a key intervention to improve retention in higher education. Many colleges and universities across the country tout the benefits of learning communities for increasing retention rates and keeping students committed to the educational process.

A primary way that learning communities increase retention rates among minorities is by increasing exposure to role models. Because of the scaffolded approach of learning communities, participants interact with peers and in-group experts to achieve common goals. These types of role models can act as a “social vaccine,” inoculating individuals against damaging stereotypes. In other words, role models can protect against the harmful effects of participating in fields in which groups, of which one is a part, may be associated with negative stereotypes, including expectations of poor performance (Dasgupta, 2011). Moreover, exposure to successful peer role models in a high-achievement context enhances the positive attitudes, perceived self-efficacy, and motivation of aspiring individuals. For instance, women who are exposed to successful women in positions of leadership, who they identify with, experience reduced self-stereotyping (Asgari, Dasgupta, & Stout, 2012). Moreover, exposure to female leaders who were deserving of their successes improved young women’s performance on qualitative reasoning sections of the GRE (Taylor, Lord, McIntyre, & Paulson, 2011). In learning communities, such exposure to exemplary members of one’s social group can provide a sense of belongingness, connection, and identification, in addition to increasing skill sets, especially among members of groups associated with negative stereotypes in those performance domains.

Opportunities for Participation in Learning Communities

Students completing their undergraduate degrees in psychology often face the difficult task of deciding what comes next. Some may not be ready to enter the workforce. Others may not yet be ready to apply to graduate school. Some may still be deciding how or in what area to apply their degree. We suggest that participating in learning communities after graduation may serve as an intermediary step in career development and self-discovery. The post-baccalaureate time is a chance for students to explore their interests in more hands-on capacities and in more
specialized sub-fields than they may have had the opportunity to do thus far. The following section will focus on four major fields psychology majors often delve into and will provide suggestions for how to pursue learning community opportunities within each.

**Clinical Psychology**
Students seeking exposure to clinical experiences involving direct patient contact have several opportunities available to them. For example, many undergraduate institutions offer opportunities for fieldwork in clinical settings, often through career development offices, child and adolescent studies centers, or volunteer centers. For example, students often benefit by working in or volunteering for on-site university preschools, local city chapters of Big Brother Big Sister, or suicide, rape, and crisis hotlines and organizations. While not all of these opportunities offer direct experience with research, the team-based nature of the programs may assist other aspects of career development and provide insights that could serve as the basis for future research. In addition, psychology graduates should consult the employment pages of hospitals and community health centers. Such organizations often offer positions as mental health specialists or clinical counselors to individuals with a B.A. in psychology. Work in these non-academic settings offers the opportunities of a learning community including clinical supervision, where novice clinicians can debrief about their experiences and learn from trained psychologists and social workers.

Graduates with clinical aspirations may also be interested in research experience, especially if they intend to pursue a clinical graduate program. Hospitals and clinics may offer opportunities for graduates to participate in research by assisting in the implementation and evaluation of clinical interventions, often in group-therapy settings. Such opportunities for participation in research may be more rare given the ethical restrictions on interacting with at-risk populations, but any research-like experience is invaluable. Indeed, one study of graduate admissions directors of clinical psychology doctoral programs across the country found that research experience and commitment were the most important factors in decisions to admit graduate applicants (Munoz-Dunbar & Stanton, 1999). Students can find opportunities for clinical research experience within university research laboratories and national research foundations (see Table 1).

**Social Psychology**
For students interested in pursuing social psychology careers, research experience is a necessity. One opportunity for research experience available to recent graduates is to serve as a university laboratory coordinator. Laboratory coordinators schedule participants, design study materials, analyze data, and present research findings. In learning community style, they work collaboratively with undergraduate research assistants, graduate students, post-doctoral fellows, and professors on active research projects. In some positions, coordinators may
participate in the process of manuscript writing, alongside more seasoned team members. To pursue these opportunities, students can directly contact professors whose work interests them to inquire about laboratory positions or they may subscribe to social psychology employment forums to learn about openings (see Table 1).

**Industrial-Organizational Psychology**

The learning communities available to aspiring industrial-organizational psychologists include university lab settings as well as positions in consulting and consumer research firms. Such organizations offer positions as research analysts or consulting associates to recent graduates; they involve conducting market research, reaching out to clients, and strategizing business initiatives (Yale College, 2013). Given the rise of social media, recent graduates interested in creative online strategizing are often ideal interns or employees within public relations and marketing firms. Students interested in these opportunities should consult their university's career development office, which often has direct alumni connections to many such firms.

**Medicine**

Many students major in psychology while pursuing a pre-med track. Indeed, knowledge of psychology and health psychology can add much to a physician’s toolkit. To find learning community opportunities, students may conduct internet searches of local health volunteer positions. In addition, working through a university fieldwork office can allow students an opportunity to work directly with doctors, nurses and medical students to get a better sense of the role health workers play. Neuroscience professors and institutes also offer research assistant, internship, and paid employment opportunities that bridge psychology and medicine. Additionally, students who are interested in medicine but cannot fulfill the required coursework as an undergraduate are encouraged to consider post-baccalaureate pre-med programs. Such programs are usually one to two years long, and provide academic support for students to strengthen areas of their pre-medical repertoire.
### Resources

Table 1. Resources for Undergraduate and Post-Baccalaureate Research Experience in Psychology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Organizations, Website URLs, and Position Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clinical Psychology: American Psychological Association</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of Positions Available:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Summer Research Assistant (e.g. John’s Hopkins University Laboratory for Child Development Summer Internship program, the UCLA Summer Programs for Undergraduate Research).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Intern at a Research Foundation (e.g. Oakridge National Laboratory Science Education programs, National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke internship).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Psychology: Society for Personality and Social Psychology</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of Positions Available:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Laboratory Manager (e.g. UNC Chapel Hill Mind Perception and Morality Lab, UCLA Anderson Behavioral Lab).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Full-time Research Assistant (e.g. Stanford University, University of Virginia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Intern (e.g. In-Mind magazine, summer university research internships).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Industrial Organizational Psychology: Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link: <a href="http://www.siop.org/jobnet/">http://www.siop.org/jobnet/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of Positions Available:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Project Coordinator/Survey Developer (e.g. at business psychology consulting firm YSC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Diversity and Talent manager (e.g. at global investment management firm AllianceBernstein)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Senior Organizational Effectiveness Professional (e.g. Aerospace Corporation, helping to improve effectiveness and leadership within national space programs).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Research assistant in university business schools’ management or marketing departments (e.g. Stanford Graduate School of Business Behavioral Lab, conducting research on behavioral marketing and organizational behavior research while supporting the work of 45 professors).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Medical: National Institutes of Health</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

The career paths available to students graduating with degrees in psychology are diverse. Indeed, comedian Jon Stewart, self-help guru Dr. Phil, and venture capitalist and entrepreneur Guy Kawasaki all graduated with degrees in psychology. But not all graduating students are ready to immediately plunge into the comedy circuit, graduate school in clinical psychology, or the open market. Learning communities may assist in the process of discovery during critical transition times following the undergraduate years, when many students are not quite sure where their paths may lead them.

Moreover, students who believe their paths might ultimately lead to graduate school especially benefit from participation in learning communities, particularly those in which research experiences are prioritized. Over 30 years ago, Hines (1986) asked professors in psychology graduate programs to indicate what made applicants most qualified. Consistently, research experience, along with recommendations from research advisors, were among the most frequently mentioned aspects of students’ applications. The importance of research experience in graduate applications remains decades later. We conducted an informal poll of 41 psychology professors from top graduate programs in psychology, marketing, sociology, and management in America. They ranked the relative importance of research experience, GPA, GRE scores, and undergraduate major. Of these professors, 71% listed research experience as the most important criterion by which they evaluate students. Good grades and strong test
scores are, of course, important. But after applicants meet minimum thresholds on standardized assessments they are distinguished by their research experience. Throughout the decades, research experience, and participation in learning communities, consistently distinguishes those students who see doors open from those that stand outside waiting for an opportunity.

References


Yale College (2013). Consulting. *Yale Undergraduate Career Services*. Retrieved from [http://ucs.yalecollege.yale.edu/content/consulting](http://ucs.yalecollege.yale.edu/content/consulting)
Section 4: Advising Issues

21. Advising as Teaching
   Alan Hughes

22. Student Perspectives on Advising
   Jeanne M. Butler, Rebecca Lamers, Kristen Morgan, Katie Remington, Ashley Shipman,
   Robyn Wallin, & Blaine F. Peden

23. What to Talk About in an Advising Session
   Tara S. Ivie & Jeanne M. Butler

24. Academic Advising: Considering Ethics and Using the Ethical Acculturation Lens
   Sharon K. Anderson & Jackie J. Peila-Shuster

25. Assessment of Academic Advising
   Eleni Pinnow

26. Everything You Want to Know About Advising: A Resource Guide
   Richard L. Miller
Given the variety of college and university settings found in the United States, it is not surprising that faculty members’ roles as advisors at these institutions are equally as varied. In research universities and many larger comprehensive universities, advising may be the responsibility of an academic support office or a departmental advisor. In other cases, students are assigned an advisor but only meet with the advisor briefly once or twice a year. At smaller colleges and universities, faculty may actively participate in advising and mentoring students, often beginning with the first year students when they arrive on campus. Regardless of institutional type, faculty do the majority of student advising (National Survey of Academic Advising, 2011), so the skills and knowledge sets faculty use in the classroom may prove useful in their work as academic advisors. Over the last few decades numerous authors have argued that advising shares much in common with teaching (e.g., Appleby, 2001; 2002; 2008; Crooksten, 1972; Hart, 1989; Kramer 1983; Knowles, 1980: Weimer, 1990). In drawing connections between advising and teaching researchers have shown that when done effectively, advising, like teaching, can facilitate student success (O’Banion, 1994; Crooksten, 1972; Ryan 1992; Titley & Titley, 1982).

Much like teaching, advising students offers them unique opportunities to learn and to be held accountable for their choices (Hardee, 1970; Shaffer, 1997; Ware, 1993). Advising connects formal learning with individual experiences in ways that allow the advisor and student to work together to develop a plan tailored to a student’s personal goals. Acting as a foundation to students’ experiences, advising may contribute greatly to a college’s educational mission by bridging academics with other areas of students’ lives; advising offers students unique opportunities to identify important learning events beyond the classroom that can be found through applied experiences in laboratories, studios, simulations and internships, or through independent or mentored student research projects. By helping students to identify these experiences, advisors encourage students to seek new opportunities, to develop new skills, to test their knowledge and abilities and to find ways to demonstrate leadership, integrity and diligence (Rosenstock, 1991).

### Developmental Advising versus Prescriptive Advising

Crooksten (1972) distinguishes between prescriptive advising and what he terms developmental advising. Prescriptive advising defines the advisor-student relationship as one where the advisor is an authority on all matters pertaining to coursework and successful completion of degree requirements; the student, presumed to know less than the advisor, has a passive role
and is expected to follow the advisor’s suggestions in order to successfully graduate. This model focuses solely on identifying the prescribed courses needed to earn a particular degree. Developmental advising is more growth-oriented in its approach (Gorden, 1988; 1992; Laff, 1994; Miller & Alberts, 1994). According to Crooksten (1972), developmental advising (or counseling as he called it) is “concerned not only with a specific personal or vocational decision but also with facilitating the student’s rational processes, environmental and interpersonal interactions, behavioral awareness, and problem-solving, decision-making, and evaluation skills” (p.5). By using developmental advising good advisors, much like good teachers, foster autonomy in their advisees by gradually helping them to take ownership and responsibility for their decisions (Appleby, 2001). More specifically, the advisor, instead of telling students what to do, helps to bolster their problem solving and decision-making skills so as to better equip them to reason through the choices they have and the implications of their decisions. If done effectively, the nature of the advisor-student relationship leads to students improving their higher-order thinking skills, which in turn helps students to clarify their own academic and career goals.

It is worth noting that Crooksten (1972) never outlined how developmental advising paralleled teaching. Some authors such as Laft (1994) criticize developmental advising as not actually being grounded in developmental theory. Despite a number of legitimate problems that have been raised about Crooksten’s distinctions between prescriptive and developmental advising, my intention is to highlight that despite these shortcomings, developmental advising offers advantages over prescriptive advising, particularly in helping students confront the attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions they hold about their educational goals (Perry, 1970).

Crooksten (1972) compared developmental and prescriptive advising along numerous dimensions such as students’ ability, motivation, responsibility, control, and their relationship with the advisor (see Table 1; also see Appleby, 2001). For instance, prescriptive advising asserts that faculty offer advice about course work and in return, students are expected to follow their advisor’s recommendations. Prescriptive advising tends to emphasize students’ limitations in terms of their abilities; developmental advising focuses on helping students to recognize their potential to succeed and finding ways to help them to do so. And finally as a last example, prescriptive advising holds that the reward metrics are external—grades, income, parental approval, etc. Developmental advising emphasizes helping students to become motivated by more intrinsic rewards such as mastery, recognition, and self-fulfillment.

Appleby (2001) offers 19 additional dimensions along which prescriptive and developmental advising can be distinguished. For instance, the ultimate goal in prescriptive advising is to help students graduate on time and earn their degree; the ultimate goal of developmental advising is helping students to clarify their future goals and discover opportunities through coursework,
research, internships, or other experiences to accomplish their goals. As a second example, in prescriptive advising advisors focus on the next semester whereas in developmental advising, there is a clear emphasis on helping students make choices that will impact them beyond college. And finally, Appleby makes an important distinction regarding the sorts of questions asked during advisement. In prescriptive advising students ask ‘fishing’ questions about the difficulty of courses, characteristics of the instructor, expectations and assignments, etc. Even when meeting with the most well-intentioned advisor, students may resort to these types of questions. In developmental advising, advisors help students to ask more thoughtful questions, especially those that encourage them to connect the importance of how particular classes or experiences help them to achieve their long-term goals.

Some interesting parallels exist among developmental advising, teaching, and parenting styles (Baumrind, 1971). In their roles as teachers and advisors, faculty encourage, support, and motivate students to bring out their very best, which is the recommended approach for parents to use with their children. Developmental advising as a form of teaching mimics child-rearing practices known to differentiate effective from ineffective parenting: (1) acceptance and involvement; (2) control; and (3) autonomy granting. Crooksten’s (1972) developmental advising mirrors the practices common to authoritative parenting, which involves high acceptance and involvement, adaptive control techniques, and autonomy granting.

**Faculty Perceptions of Advising**

Unfortunately many faculty view their roles as teachers and advisors differently. Teaching is perceived as what is done in the classroom and is primarily seen as the delivery of information. As scholars, faculty are very knowledgeable about their fields of study and have much to offer students through lectures and class discussions. Advising is perceived as a burdensome task that detracts faculty from the time needed to prepare lectures or to do research and to write scholarly papers. Though faculty may be knowledgeable about degree requirements, they may not feel confident to advise students in any way other than simple prescriptive advising. Knowing about student development and how to best advise the diverse population of students who enroll in American colleges and universities poses a real challenge for faculty. Graduate programs generally provide little preparation to new faculty about advising, much less how to counsel students in ways that facilitate their problem-solving skills and autonomy (Carberry, Baker, & Prescott, 1986). Furthermore, many faculty do not see any incentives for advising; advising students is not factored into faculty reward systems nor in promotion and tenure decisions. Advising is perceived as extra work and faculty may not see it as having the same importance to their professional lives (Hardee, 1970; Larsen & Brown, 1986; Ryan, 1992).

**When is Advising Like Teaching?**

When institutions value and encourage developmental advising and in turn educate faculty about its value for student development, then it is much easier to show that the role as an
advisor is an extension of the role as a teacher (Fretz, 1993). Ryan (1992) in her presidential address to the National Academic Advising Association drew many parallels between teaching and advising and argued that faculty should view advising as an integral part of their roles as teachers. The major outcome for both teaching and advising is learning. In courses students are expected to learn content as well as particular skill sets that are fostered in a course (e.g., statistical reasoning). During advising, students should work through problems and reason through solutions in order to identify how best to reach both their short- and long-term goals (Appleby, 2002; 2008; Crooksten, 1972; Kramer 1983; Ryan 1992). Crooksten (1972) further implies that the advisor-student relationship seamlessly fits with the myriad of other learning opportunities found on college and university campuses. The university is a vibrant learning community and is therefore obligated to offer students multiple opportunities for personal growth. As advisors, faculty challenge students to defend their choices, encourage them to explore new opportunities and to take risks, and help them to find ways to capitalize on their strengths. In this way, advising is very similar to what faculty do as teachers (Kramer, 1983).

**What Do Effective Teachers and Effective Advisors Have in Common?**

The knowledge, skills, and characteristics that make faculty effective teachers can help them to be effective at advising students as well (Appleby, 2001; Hart, 1989; Knowles, 1980; Roueche, 1982: Ryan, 1992; Weimer, 1990). Ryan (1992) probably gives the most comprehensive survey of the literature comparing effective teaching and advising. She classified the 20 most common characteristics of good teachers into one of three categories: Teaching, communication, and attitudes towards students. Those characteristics of good teaching that logically map to effective advising include (a) providing expertise in the subject matter, (b) actively involving students in the learning process, (c) providing consistent feedback to students, (d) creating an environment conducive to learning, and (e) helping students to become effective problem-solvers and supporting them to take ownership over their own learning. Good teachers also possess effective communication skills that enable them to share information in a clear and concise manner; having good listening skills is equally important. Finally, how faculty perceive students, and the rapport they establish with them, is critical to their success in the classroom (Mckeachie & Svinicki, 2006; Palmer, 1998).

Bridging the characteristics that define effective teaching with effective advising illuminates some obvious connections between how faculty as teachers approach their work in the classroom and how as advisors, they should approach their work during advisement: (a) As advisors, faculty must be knowledgeable about the academic policies of their institution, such as general education and major program requirements; it is equally important that faculty communicate clearly with students and provide them with timely feedback on questions that they have about curricular options or other policy matters; (b) Effective advisers must be good listeners. This is important not just for helping students in selecting courses, but to be sensitive
to whatever problems they are having in their classes, work, or personal lives that affect their well-being; (c) Consistent with the developmental model of advising, faculty must help students take an active role in selecting courses and planning for their futures and thus take responsibility for their choices. In doing so, faculty help to promote higher-order thinking skills and foster students’ problem-solving skills; (d) And probably more important than anything else is for faculty to provide an environment that is nurturing and one where students feel at-ease talking about their goals, problems, and other issues.

Making Advising a Part of Teaching: Advising in Promotion and Tenure Decisions

If advising really is a form of teaching, then maybe its importance to promotion and tenure decisions should be reconsidered. The weight given to advising in promotion and tenure decisions varies a great deal from institution to institution. Research universities place much less emphasis on it, if any at all; liberal-arts colleges and regional universities place a greater importance on advising though this too varies considerably across institutions (Diamond & Adams, 1995). As part of their promotion and tenure dossiers, faculty must describe themselves as teachers, which might include their teaching philosophy, specific practices they use in the classroom, and a summative evaluation of their performance and growth as teacher-scholars. And faculty may describe their support of students through mentoring, writing letters of reference, workshops about graduate school, etc. These activities are generally found in sections of the dossier outlining the faculty member’s service contributions; advising students and doing it well is a service to a faculty member’s department. For many colleges and universities, advising and mentoring students is integral to the institutional mission. From the time new students arrive on campus, first-year experience programs help to ensure that new students successfully transition to college-life and a great deal of their success depends upon having an advisor who works closely alongside them (Kramer, Tanner, & Peterson, 1995).

For institutions placing a heavy emphasis on academic advising and its role in student development, changing faculty attitudes to view advising and teaching on the same plane will only benefit students if institutions are committed to holding faculty accountable. Conducting research; publication; securing grants; presenting papers at conferences; preparing lectures and discussions; grading exams and papers; and serving the department, college, and profession represent the work of the professoriate and are used to evaluate faculty for promotion and tenure. Advising students in most, if not all, institutions plays only a minor role in the summative assessment of faculty work. Teaching-centered institutions have even a greater responsibility to help faculty see how teaching and advising have much in common and to expect their faculty to strive for excellence as advisors. Some institutions go so far as to treat advising as a fourth category along with teaching, service, and scholarship for promotion and tenure review.
Expecting faculty to be excellent teachers and at the same time not holding faculty to the same expectations in their roles as advisors seems disingenuous to the very work that faculty do: Help students to grow intellectually, to become independent learners, to take responsibility for their actions, and to be prepared for whatever paths they follow in life (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). As faculty we are interested in and concerned about the student as a whole individual. If colleges and universities advertise that faculty at their institution care deeply about students and their development as young adults (as many do say), then it seems that some formal evaluation of faculty as advisors is justified.

**Conclusion**

Celebrating good advising and rewarding faculty for their work with students is one mechanism to bring more attention to how critical advising is to the intellectual growth and maturation of students. Finding ways to help faculty to see these similarities is central to changing faculty perceptions about advising. More importantly, changing these perceptions may lead to faculty viewing their work as advisors to be as important as their work as teachers. Despite the diversity of institutional missions, surely all colleges and universities purport that their students leave with the knowledge and skills needed to be active and engaged citizens who will make a difference in the places they live, work and serve. Advisors have a unique teaching opportunity to serve as models and to challenge students to structure their time in college with an eye to future responsibilities and opportunities.

Table 1. Prescriptive and Developmental Approaches to Advising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Prescriptive</th>
<th>Developmental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abilities</td>
<td>Focus on limitations</td>
<td>Focus on potentialities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Students are lazy, need prodding</td>
<td>Students are active, striving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>Grades, credit, income</td>
<td>Achievement, mastery, acceptance, status, recognition, fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td>Immature, irresponsible; must be closely supervised and carefully checked</td>
<td>Growing, maturing, responsible, capable of self-direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Advisor takes initiative on fulfilling requirements; rest up to student</td>
<td>Either or both may take initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>By advisor</td>
<td>Negotiated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>By advisor or advise By student to act</td>
<td>Negotiated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning output</td>
<td>Primarily in student</td>
<td>Shared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>By advisor to student</td>
<td>Collaborative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Based on status, strategies, games, low trust</td>
<td>Based on nature of task, competencies, situation, high trust</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


The impact of academic advising on student engagement and success is widely recognized in academia. Hunter and White (2004) indicated that better academic advising is essential to improving higher education. Institutions that value and promote orientation and advising programs have higher graduation rates (Dunphy, Miller, Woodruff, & Nelson, 1987; Fidler & Hunter, 1989; Forrest, 1985). Academic advising is the best predictor of students’ satisfaction with their campus environment at four-year schools (NSSE, 2005). Students who met with their advisor more frequently reported gains in personal and social development, practical competence, general education, and in the use of deep approaches to learning (NSSE, 2007). The approach used by institutions to deliver advising and the relationship between advisors and advisees that lead to a student-centered culture within the organization both contribute to student success (Kuh, 2008).

Given the importance of academic advising in promoting student success, students’ perceptions of the value and quality of their own advising experiences can be critical in identifying and developing exemplary advising practices at an institution. The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) collects data from first-year students and graduating seniors at institutions of higher education in the U.S. and Canada related to their participation in high impact learning activities offered at their college or university. The survey includes a variety of questions related to their academic advising experiences.

Based on the NSSE data collected from thousands of students at hundreds of academic institutions, most first-year students participated in academic advising with only one in ten not meeting with an advisor during the year. About half of the students indicated that their main source for academic advising was their advisor, but about a quarter of the first-year students relied on family or friends for advice about their schooling (NSSE, 2005). Students were more satisfied with their advising experience and with the institution if they met with an advisor more frequently. Students who met with an advisor at least twice during the year were more engaged in the high impact learning activities measured by the five benchmarks used by the National Survey of Student Engagement (2007).
Most students were satisfied with the quality of their advising and a majority indicated that they felt they received accurate information from their advisor (NSSE, 2005). Of the students expressing dissatisfaction, fewer first-year students and full-time students were dissatisfied with their advising compared to seniors and part-time students (NSSE 2005). Based on students’ input, areas for improvement of services included advisors providing more information about academic support services, availability of educational opportunities like study abroad or exchange programs, and increased focus on career opportunities for upper division students (NSSE, 2007).

Since the quality of academic advising can vary greatly from one university or college to another and from one department to another within the same organization, it is important to gather student input on whether the advising process is working and what changes might be needed to increase student success. The University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire and the University of Nebraska at Kearney collected data on student perceptions of the current advising process at each institution to determine the effectiveness of academic advising and to identify areas for improvement.

**Study 1**

At the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire the student led research study focused on advising practices, the advisee/advisor relationship, student’s advising experiences, and differences between formal and informal advisors. The research team collected data from 112 students who had responded to either a faculty email or an invitation on Facebook. The students were predominately female, juniors and seniors, and with a mean age of 20.9.

Eight survey items focused on students’ views about the advising practices of colleges and universities with respondents indicating what institutions should do in their advising process. Students uniformly indicated that colleges and universities should provide ways to evaluate advisors. Students also endorsed establishing a code of advising techniques that would be distributed to faculty and students to establish standards which could be used to reward outstanding advisors who practiced exemplary advising techniques and to punish advisors who violated the code. Students agreed that a process should be in place for students to submit complaints about violations of the advising code and for those complaints to be evaluated and acted upon.

Respondents were asked to indicate which non-traditional advising methods they would prefer or not prefer as part of the advising process. The students endorsed the use of email for advising and peer advising groups, but did not prefer the use of advising via chat sessions, phone calls, Facebook or Skype. When asked what knowledge and skills an advisor should have, students indicated that advisors should have relevant and current knowledge of their subject and expertise in methods of advising appropriate to their subject. Advisors should inform
advisees about opportunities and requirements, encourage students to examine facts and draw their own conclusions in selecting courses, respect advisees’ rights to privacy, help distraught advisees find appropriate counseling, and avoid sexual involvement with advisees. Participants in the study differentiated between formal advisors (assigned) and informal advisors (other faculty not assigned as advisor) and rated informal advisors more favorably than formal advisors.

Participants identified positive traits of advisors. The positive traits included being respectful, polite, personable, thoughtful, good communicators, prepared, prompt, responsive to emails, calls, etc., and organized. Respondents indicated that their advisors, for the most part, demonstrated these traits.

**Study 2**

In a second study on academic advising, the psychology department at the University of Nebraska at Kearney (UNK) developed and distributed an advising questionnaire and analyzed the results to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the advising process and of individual advisors in the department. The department then planned to use the results to improve their advising process and the skills of the faculty advisors.

The survey was distributed to psychology majors at the end of their spring advising session. Fifty-five surveys were returned. Based on the responses, over 80% of psychology respondents had attended two or more advising sessions during the academic year (two advising sessions a year are required for students to enroll in classes). The survey contained questions related to characteristics of a good advisor/advising session. Students were asked to indicate whether their advising experiences included these characteristics. The characteristics that students indicated occurred most frequently in the advising sessions they experienced included: accurate information provided about courses, programs and requirements; advisor was easy to contact to make appointments and was accessible when needed; and sufficient time was available for the scheduled advising sessions. Advisors showed concern for students’ academic needs and demonstrated a personal interest in advising the students. Respondents also indicated that they sought academic advice from other sources besides their formal advisor. These informal advisors included peers, other faculty in the department, faculty outside the department and the department chair.

**Study 3**

In the third study, the Student Assessment Committee at the University of Nebraska at Kearney (UNK) developed a survey to collect data on students’ perceptions of the advising process and of advisors at the university. In conducting this assessment of advising at UNK, the committee members hoped to identify strengths, weaknesses and areas for improvement. In response to a university-wide email, 774 UNK students completed the online survey. 70% of the respondents
were female, 80% were between the ages of 19-25, and students classified as freshman through senior were evenly represented.

Over 90% of the respondents’ advising sessions were one-on-one with an assigned faculty member. When seeking academic advice from someone other than their formal advisor, participants indicated they most frequently talked with peers or less frequently with other faculty (informal advisor). When asked which had been the most effective advisor, a majority of participants indicated that the assigned (formal) advisor had been the most effective. Over 80% of the students had participated in two (required) or more advising sessions during the academic year. 60% of the students were satisfied with the advising they had received and would recommend their advisor to others. A majority of students felt they had received accurate information about courses, programs, and academic requirements. 74% of the students indicated that their advisors were accessible and provided sufficient time during the advising session. A majority of students found their advisors to be easy to contact and had no problem making appointments for advising sessions. Over 70% of the students felt their advisor was a good listener who was concerned about their academic needs. A majority of participants also felt that their advisor had a positive attitude toward the academic advising process.

**Conclusion**

Differences exist in the quality of academic advising programs across academic institutions. Given the impact of advising on student success, it is valuable for colleges and universities to evaluate their advising processes by obtaining the perceptions of students about their academic advising experiences. Two universities, the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire and the University of Nebraska at Kearney collected data from students related to their perceptions of advising practices, characteristics of effective advisors/advising sessions, advising experiences, and formal vs. informal advisors. Participants in the studies were interested in having input to the advising process including the procedures used and evaluation of advisors and the advising process. Students were open to new approaches to advising including advising by email and through peer advising groups. Overall students provided high ratings for the advising procedures and advisors at their institutions. Respondents sought advice from both formal and informal advisors and also sought advice from peers. Participants indicated that they valued advisors who were good communicators/listeners, respectful, personable, accessible, and accurate in the information provided and prepared for the advising sessions. Overall the results of the three studies were surprisingly positive, since academic advising is frequently thought to be problematic at many institutions. The data provided by students also confirmed areas that are important to them in their academic advising experiences and indicated areas that may need improvement. The emphasis on certain advisor characteristics provides insights into what
students consider appropriate and useful in helping them be successful in academia. These characteristics can be used to develop guidelines for faculty in their duties as advisors.

**References**


In an era of increasing budgetary costs and decreased funding, it is important for advisors to fulfill their role efficiently and expediently while maintaining the best interest of the student. “Indeed, the quality of academic advising is the single most powerful predictor of satisfaction with the campus environment for students at four-year schools” (Kuh, 2008, pg. 73). Of even greater import is the impact of advising on student retention. Alexander Astin (1977, 1993) indicated that the amount and quality of students’ interactions with their peers, faculty and staff on campus contributes to student retention rates. In addition, academic institutions that provide first year orientation sessions and a comprehensive advising program have higher graduation rates (Dunphy, Miller, Woodruff, & Nelson, 1987; Fidler & Hunter, 1989; Forrest, 1985). Rendon (1995) indicated that student connections with college personnel through orientation and advising influenced their decisions to remain enrolled during and after their first year and aided them in attaining their academic goals.

Wes Habley (1994) suggested that academic advising is the 'hub of the wheel' and not just an isolated service provided to students. Advisors can provide students with connections to the various campus services and identify the connection between these services and student success. Habley (1994) also maintained that advising is the only structured activity in which all students interact one-on-one with a representative of the institution who is concerned about their goals and can provide the personal connection to the institution that is critical to retention and academic success.

In order to provide the most effective academic advising, it is important to know the best approach to use and the content to include in the sessions with students. The approaches discussed most frequently in the advising literature include prescriptive, developmental, and advising as teaching (Crookston, 1972). Most academic advising sessions will likely include prescriptive issues such as explaining graduation requirements, discussing course selection, planning a course of study, discussing educational goals, exploring career options, and explaining registration procedures (Fielstein, 1989). Prescriptive advising is less personal and focuses on answering specific questions with little or no emphasis on individual development so new advisors may rely more on a prescriptive advising style (Jordan, 2000). Since students may expect this style of advising, advisors may not feel the need to move to a more developmental advising style (Crookston, 1972). Prescriptive advising may be a more efficient way of
scheduling student courses and providing information, however prescriptive advisors aren’t as effective in encouraging students' academic and social integration (Hale & Graham, 2009).

Developmental advising focuses on the positive strengths, abilities, and skills of students. It encourages self-reliance in students by assisting them in setting goals and making informed decisions (Jordan, 2000). Hale & Graham (2009) found that students prefer developmental advising and those who perceived their advisor as prescriptive, rather than developmental, identified the advisor as authoritarian and impersonal. To begin structuring developmental advising it is imperative that advisors assess where the student is at in order to best customize the advising experience. Identifying risk factors in the initial advising session ensures greater personalization of the process. Risk factors to identify include: Not being prepared for college-level work; delaying entry into college after high school graduation; being a part-time student; being a single parent; relying on their own income or savings rather than parents providing funding for college costs; being responsible for child care at home; working more than thirty hours per week; and being a first-generation college student (Kuh, 2008). Having this type of information allows the advisor to assist students in identifying services that best support their individual needs to help mitigate the impact of these risk factors.

An experienced advisor will take the time in an early advising session to fully explain the advisor-advisee relationship. This clarification of roles and responsibilities can align perceptions and provide a framework to begin the development of the advising relationship. One tool that may be useful in this process is an advising syllabus (Appleby, 2008). First year students will also benefit from information on fundamentals of being a student. This may include providing the advisees with common terms and their definitions that are used in an academic setting that will assist the student in navigating the college system more easily. In addition, students need to know the requirements and how things are done at the university they are attending. Identifying the procedures and policies that impact the student will prevent future confusion and help educate the student in how to be more successful. Each student has different needs and goals, so identifying those needs that can be supported by campus resources can be a critical step forward for many students. These might include accessibility services, tutoring, and math or writing labs that can support students in challenging courses and improve their overall academic performance. Students new to the institution will need to know what things are done at the beginning of the semester. They will want to know how to register for classes, attend orientation, meet with resources on campus, buy textbooks, pay tuition, apply for financial aid and scholarships, find housing, etc. These immediate concerns tend to be prescriptive in nature. Once these initial issues are covered, advisors may move on to discuss developmental issues.

Educational planning is a primary concern for first year students but will continue throughout their academic career. Issues to be addressed in planning include guiding the student in their
exploration and selection of a major in order to identify a path of study. Students who have selected their major may need more support on development within their program. Course planning, identifying courses to gain exposure to specialty areas, using opportunities to expand the basis of knowledge during the undergraduate experience may also be covered in the advising sessions. In addition to a major, students will want to explore ancillary programs like minors, honors, leadership, and service experiences to expand their academic experience. As part of the planning process, students should be encouraged to identify what they want to accomplish while in college both personally, academically, and professionally? Documenting these goals with the student during the advising session helps them commit to a pathway and may promote success. Using a student tracking method provides an opportunity to review past goals and set new goals in each advising session. Working with a student over several semesters or through a program, advisors may see significant change within the goals established. This is a sign of student growth and reviewing the progress made with a student can be very rewarding and encouraging when the student is facing a challenge. It also provides an objective method of measuring specific progress beyond simple tracking of grades and course completion.

Throughout a student’s time at the university, career exploration should be a part of the advising process. This may include career assessments like the Myers-Briggs Strong Interest Inventory or other tools. Once career assessment and interpretation is completed, the next step is identifying specific career goals for further exploration. Career exploration may include course selection and on-campus activities as well as informational interviewing or job shadowing with employers to further clarify career options. Students can be encouraged to volunteer or seek part-time employment with agencies in their areas of interest. This practical experience typically solidifies or eliminates a career option from their portfolio. It also provides concrete experience with which students may build their resume and/or curriculum vitae.

In determining what to talk about in an advising session, both students and faculty have clear ideas on what topics should be discussed and which are most important to the student to ensure academic success. Unfortunately faculty and students don’t always agree on what these topics are. The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) collects data from first-year students and graduating seniors at academic institutions in both the U.S. and Canada related to students’ participation in high impact educational activities and includes a variety of questions related to students’ academic advising experiences. NSSE results, that included data from thousands of students at hundreds of colleges and universities, indicate that students identified areas for improvement in what is discussed during the advising session. These included advisors providing more information about academic support services, availability of educational opportunities like study abroad or exchange programs, and increased focus on career opportunities for upper division students (NSSE, 2007). NSSE also collects data from faculty members (Faculty Survey of Student Engagement, FSSE) related to their perceptions of
students’ involvement in high impact educational experiences and includes questions about the advising process at their university or college. In the 2013 FSSE over 5,600 faculty at 47 institutions identified topics that they felt were “very important” to discuss in an advising session. The topics with the percentage of faculty rating them very important include (Ribera & Peck, 2013):

Discussing advisees’ career interests and post-graduation plans (63%); helping advisees when they had academic difficulties (53%); providing useful information about courses (47%); helping advisees understand academic rules and policies (47%); informing advisees of academic support options (tutoring, study groups, help with writing, etc.) (43%); informing advisees of important deadlines (43%); helping advisees get information on special opportunities (38%).

In an additional study related to academic advising, the University of Nebraska at Kearney (UNK) Student Assessment Committee collected data on student and faculty perceptions of the current advising process at UNK, including identification of important topics to be covered in advising sessions. The studies were conducted in an effort to determine the effectiveness of academic advising, to identify areas for improvement and to identify discrepancies between perceptions of faculty and their students related to advising. In response to a university-wide email, 774 UNK students completed the online survey. 70% of the respondents were female, 80% were between the ages of 19-25, and students classified as freshman through senior were evenly represented. 132 faculty representing all four colleges and 28 majors completed the online faculty academic advising survey. Over half of the respondents had been at UNK for 10+ years and had been advising for that length of time. A majority of the respondents had received some type of advising training and were satisfied with the academic advising process at UNK.

Students rated the level of importance of discussing specific topics during the advising session. The topics rated as important to extremely important by 75% or more of the students included discussing: their schedule for the term (98%); content of selected courses (97%); degree requirements (97%); academic progress (93%); job placement opportunities (91%); internship or cooperative education opportunities (89%); career alternatives (89%); transfer credit policies (88%); declaring or changing a major (86%); advanced placement (84%); campus resources (83%); setting personal goals (82%); experiences in class (78%); and personal concerns or problems (78%).

Faculty members rated the same topics as the students as to their level of importance in discussions during an advising session from not important (1) to extremely important (5). Faculty ratings were not always consistent with those of the students. The following topics were rated as important to extremely important by over 75% of the faculty: Degree requirements (100%); academic progress (99%); schedule for the term (98%); career
alternatives (97%); campus resources (97%); transfer credit policies (96%); content of courses (96%); declaring or changing a major (94%); job placement opportunities (91%); internships and cooperative education opportunities (91%); getting to know each other (91%); setting personal goals (87%); purpose of a college education (80%); personal concerns or problems (78%); experiences in class (77%); and advanced placement (77%).

Research has shown that academic advising impacts student success, retention, and satisfaction with the academic experience. It has also shown that when every interaction with a student is intentionally designed to be meaningful the quality of advising increases. Given the importance of academic advising, it is important for faculty to prepare for their advising sessions by reviewing information about each advisee and information about campus policies and procedures, resources, and programs to match student needs with available sources of information and support. Developing the content for each advising session based on student needs and interests can increase the effectiveness of each interaction. Since the advisor may have different ideas than the advisee about what is important to include in the session, it is useful to ask students what they want to know and what is important to them. This can be done on an individual basis, or a campus can conduct a study of advising practices similar to the one done at UNK to identify differences in emphasis between faculty and students at their institution. Providing the information and support that students value will make advising more relevant to them and will contribute more to their academic success.

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Academic Advising: Considering Ethics and Using the Ethical Acculturation Lens

SHARON K. ANDERSON AND JACKIE J. PEILA-SHUSTER
COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY

Students often assume that becoming a part of the professional culture is an automatic process. They attend classes, learn about theories, read about the American Psychological Association code of ethics and standards of practice, engage in a practice or internship experience, receive supervision along the way; and at graduation, they are fully part of the profession. On the superficial level, this assumption is accurate. On a deeper level, more must occur for students to acculturate to the profession in an integrated way. They need to develop an understanding of and successfully navigate the process of acculturating to the profession. We as advisors can facilitate this understanding by providing opportunities for them to purposefully explore the inside (the self) and the outside (the profession).

The goals of this chapter are as follows. First, we highlight from the current literature some of the ethical practices and considerations in academic advising. Second, we introduce the ethical acculturation model and its utility in expanding academic advising to go beyond the usual discussion of courses, schedules, and instructor-student compatibility. Third, we discuss and promote the notion of professional ethical identity as an end target of academic advising. We conclude the chapter with a case study to demonstrate how the advisor can use the ethical acculturation model to enhance the advising process and interaction, and ultimately to address and promote the idea of professional ethical identity.

Ethical Practices and Considerations in Academic Advising
To accurately highlight best practice in academic advising, one might begin by translating “best practice” into “ethical practice.” Another way to say this is “How does one do academic advising using an ethical lens?” To add to the current understanding about ethics in academic advising, we propose that professionals can enhance the ethical practice of academic advising by addressing or drawing attention to the ethical acculturation journey the student is experiencing.

The Ethical Acculturation Model
Some have suggested that each profession has its own, and in some ways unique, culture (Anderson, Wagoner, & Moore, 2006). Psychology is no exception (Handelsman, Gottlieb, & Knapp, 2005). The psychology culture comprises several factors: a common language, the values of the profession, the profession’s history and traditions, a written code of ethics, and the collective influence of the membership. Because entering a discipline is in many aspects
like coming to a new country, the psychology student experiences an acculturation process (Handelsman et al., 2005).

In the cross-cultural psychology literature, Berry (1980) and Berry and Sam (1997) discussed the acculturation experience of individuals entering a new ethnic culture. As refugees and immigrants interact with the new social landscape, they face the task of adjusting or adapting to new social mores, languages, and value systems. When adapting to the new culture, immigrants are faced with two tasks: “cultural maintenance” and “contact and participation.”

In the first task, cultural maintenance, newcomers are asking if it is important to preserve those pieces of their culture with which they identify (Berry & Sam, 1997). As they assess what to keep of their culture of origin, they also evaluate the new culture and determine what to accept or embrace as their own. This is the “contact and participation” task and is signified by individuals asking themselves if it is important to establish and foster a relationship with the dominant culture (Berry & Sam, 1997).

Drawing from Berry and Sam’s (1997) work on acculturation, Handelsman et al., (2005) conceived the notion of ethical acculturation. Berry and Sam (1997) identified outcomes of acculturation as a solid mental picture of who they are, both as an individual and cultural being; a healthy sense of self; and feeling good about their ability to live and enjoy the new culture. Handelsman and his colleagues suggested that Berry and Sam’s definition of acculturation could be slightly modified to clarify what happens to students as they enter a new profession and go through the adaptation process to build a new professional identity. In this modification, Handelsman et al. proposed to substitute the word ethical for cultural. Based on this exchange of words, ethical acculturation results in a solid mental picture of who one is both as an individual and professional being, a healthy sense of self, and feeling good about one’s ability to live within and enjoy the new professional culture.

As psychology students employ the first task of cultural maintenance to ethical acculturation, they may become aware of differences between their personal ethics and values and those of the professional culture. Consequently, they may ask what they will keep of themselves, their personal ethics and values, as well as what they will discard as they enter their new profession (Kitchener & Anderson, 2011). Their personal ethics and morals may be based on parental upbringing, ethnic or religious background, or a previous career. While students are considering what to keep of their culture of origin, they are also evaluating the professional culture and assessing what they see as having value. This second task of contact and participation is just as important as the first one of cultural maintenance. With the second task, students are asking what they see in the professional culture as being honorable and worth embracing (Kitchener & Anderson, 2011).
It is important to note that these two tasks are not sequential, nor are they necessarily done consciously. According to Handelsman et al. (2005), the tension for students is between their own values and personal ethics and the ethics of the professional culture. The attitudes and behaviors that result from these two tasks suggest the person living in the new culture will then use one of four acculturation strategies. These acculturation strategies are integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization (Berry & Sam, 1997). The resolution of this tension suggests not only the acculturation strategy but also the development of the professional’s ethical identity (Anderson & Handelsman, 2010; Handelsman et al., 2005). As advisors speak with advisees, they can move the conversation to who the students see themselves becoming in the new culture. How is their personhood and professional identity coming together to form a coherent, professional ethical identity? (Anderson, 2012; Anderson & Handelsman, 2010).

In the following section, we briefly describe the acculturation strategies, which we then highlight in the case study. (For a more in-depth discussion of these ethical acculturation strategies see Anderson & Handelsman, 2010; Handelsman et al., 2005; Kitchener & Anderson, 2011.)

**Ethical Acculturation Strategies**

The integration strategy occurs when students see a great amount of overlap between core personal ethics and values and the ethics of the professional culture. Students can maintain their personal ethics and value set while simultaneously adopting those of the profession. An assimilation strategy occurs when students, for various reasons, embrace the ethics of the professional culture and reject their personal ethics. Students choose a separation strategy when they decide they prefer their personal ethics or ethics of origin to the ethics of the psychology profession. As a result, students choose their personal value set over the values of the profession. When students have neither a foundation of personal ethics nor adopt the ethics of the profession, they assume the marginalization strategy.

Figure 1 shows these strategies in one of four quadrants (Berry & Sam, 1997; Handelsman, et al. 2005).
Assimilation
(student leaves behind his ethics of origin, and solely embraces the ethics of the profession)

Integration
(student sees a lot of overlap between personal values and ethics and those of the profession)

Marginalization
(student does not have a foundation of personal ethics (or chooses not to maintain his personal ethics) nor commit to the ethics of the profession)

Separation
(student chooses to place his personal values and ethics over those of the profession)

Figure 1. Strategies of ethical acculturation (adapted from Anderson, 2011; Anderson and Handelsman, 2010)

The process of ethical acculturation—in this case, adapting to the psychology profession—is a task for every student in the field. As academic advisors, we can take a proactive approach to assist students in this task, which begins with their exploration of the personal values they bring with them (Anderson, 2011, 2009; Anderson & Handelsman, 2010; Handelsman, Gottlieb, & Knapp, 2005). This person-centered exploration includes the advisor discussing with advisees their motivations for pursuing a degree in psychology, the values and personal ethics they bring with them, and their match or mismatch with the culture of the profession. As they take time to address this area together, students will better understand their fit and adaptation, or ethical acculturation, to psychology. Exploration of the intersection between students’ personal ethics, values, and motivations, and that of the professional culture is the other part of the ethical acculturation journey and the development of a professional ethical identity (Anderson, 2009; Anderson & Handelsman, 2010; Bashe, Anderson, Handelsman, & Klevansky, 2007; Kitchener & Anderson, 2011).

Case Study
Albert is a 20-year-old Latino male currently majoring in construction management who wants to switch to psychology. He has arrived at the advisor’s door to discuss his dilemma. He indicates that he is expected to take over his father’s construction business in the future, but he
feels like psychology is a better match. More specifically, he really wants to have a career in psychology in which he could study human behavior and cognitive problems that people experience with aging. Albert is not enjoying his coursework in his major and is failing one course. When asked what courses he does like, Albert states that he enjoys the courses he is taking in the social sciences, such as personality psychology and psychological testing and measurement. Last month he took his grandfather to an appointment with a neuropsychologist. Albert said he was very intrigued by the questions the psychologist asked, but he wondered about the assessment that his grandfather was to take. He tried to ask the psychologist some questions about the process, about his grandfather, and possible results; but the psychologist seemed more interested in getting confidentiality outlined and forms signed. To Albert, this part of the experience did not seem like good customer service and he indicated that it involved a lot of time-consuming paperwork. However, he also stated that the psychologist is the professional, so he must know best.

In this case, the academic advisor can be proactive by exploring two areas with Albert: a) Reasons for pursuing a career in an area of psychology; and b) his values and personal ethics that seem to fit or not fit with what he know about psychology thus far. Albert’s dilemma is one of competing values. He values his father’s desires for him to be successful and honor the family, but he also recognizes his enjoyment of working with older adults around cognitive processes. An advisor can help Albert explore his motivations and values for each career path.

In discussing Albert’s reasons for pursuing psychology, the academic advisor can listen for Albert’s personal ethics, morals, and values as well as ask open-ended questions to further define these. For example, if Albert first responds that he wants to help people, the advisor can dig further to find out the “whys” behind this and what helping means to Albert. The academic advisor could also explore with Albert his ethics and values around family and his struggles with those in terms of not wanting to carry on the family business. Then, as the advisor and Albert explore how his personal ethics fit, or do not fit, with the psychology profession, an indication of ethical acculturation match or mismatch can come to the fore.

The advisor can explore what Albert’s concerns are with the paperwork and procedures his grandfather went through with the psychologist they visited. It might be that Albert carries with him a lens that says, I am a ‘doer’ that does not have time for paperwork, and the belief that those processes were inconsequential (separation strategy). This type of response could suggest that Albert would struggle with some of the codes of ethics and standards of practice, or perhaps just needs more understanding about confidentiality, informed consent, and other ethical decision-making processes as well as the foundational purposes of professional ethics (Anderson & Handelsman, 2010; Kitchener & Anderson, 2011).
The advisor can point out a perceived overlap between personal values (serving others) and the ethical responsibilities of a neuropsychologist (serving others with professional competence). Should Albert pursue a career in psychology he would likely experience a good match between his personal ethics of care for others and the professional ethics of care by “doing good” (integration strategy).

Another area to be explored arises from Albert’s statement that the psychologist was the professional, and thus must know best. Simple acceptance of this on Albert’s part might suggest an assimilation strategy in which Albert relinquishes his personal values and ethics in accepting the ethics of the profession. It would behoove the advisor to discuss this in more depth to gain a greater understanding of Albert and to encourage him to further explore ways in which other psychologists might go about ethically working with clientele.

Another point of tension for Albert, and possibly the advisor, is what to do about valuing a father’s wishes. As an advisor, we might be tempted to encourage Albert, who we see to have great potential in the field, to loosen or disconnect from some of his personal ethics around honoring parents to pursue individuation from the family. In doing so, we might be encouraging him to adopt an assimilation strategy. From our lens, we would see this as problematic and unethical. If advisors are working with advisees of color using a “colorblind lens” they will not see the factors that are outside the individual; the political historical, and sociocultural dynamics that have influenced the student’s career development and experience (Anderson, Peila-Shuster, & Aragon, 2012). Becoming an ethical professional founded on a solid ethical identity calls for purposeful reflection on the intersection between one’s personal values and ethics, motivations, and needs, and the values and ethical perspective of the profession—in other words, the integration of the personal and the professional (Anderson & Handelsman, 2010).

**Conclusion**

As individuals resolve the tension between who they are upon entering the profession and the ethical landscape of the profession, they are building their professional ethical identity. This is not to say that the process of ethical acculturation is tension free. It is likely that individuals will at times feel some acculturation stress between their personal and professional ethics (Handelsman et al. 2005). However, as students with the help of their advisors resolve the tension in a way that fosters even more integration between self and the profession, they are building a solid professional ethical identity.

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Most colleges and universities stress the importance of high quality academic advising to student success—an assertion that is supported by a growing body of research. Academic advising has been positively associated with multiple desirable student outcomes including higher retention and graduation rates (Kramer & Associates, 2003). Similarly, high quality advising seems most important to students who have multiple risk factors for lower retention and graduation rates such as academic under-preparedness, working more than 30 hours a week, being a single parent and being a first generation college student (Kuh, 2011). Despite a widespread belief in the importance of academic advisement to higher education, a nationwide survey found that only 29% of higher education institutions formally assess academic advisement (Habley & Morales, 1998). As a consequence, there is a dearth of literature on how to successfully and meaningfully assess academic advisement. (For example, a search through all volumes of *Teaching of Psychology* revealed no articles on the assessment of academic advisement, and only a few articles surrounding best practices on advisement.)

Perhaps the general lack of published research and standards in regards to the assessment of academic advising is related to the relative difficulty of assessing advisement. The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) suggests that successful assessment of advising requires an institution to develop and implement a cycle of assessment. To begin, an advising program must clearly identify its goals and mission, these goals must be operationalized, instruments must be developed, data collected and the data must be shared within the university (Robbins & Zarges, 2011). Crucially, the data must be used in a meaningful way to inform growth and change within the advising program. Each step in this assessment cycle will be briefly discussed here within the context of assessing academic advisement. The goal of the current chapter is to examine the assessment of academic advisement through three distinct lenses: assessment of individual advisors, assessment of advising programs and assessment of student learning.

**Assessment of Advisors**

Academic advisement is a common part of a faculty workload. Much like teaching efficacy, it could be professionally advantageous for faculty members to demonstrate their advising effectiveness. Additionally, assessing an advisor’s skills may serve as an important predictor of student success. Prior to beginning an assessment of advisors, the goals, mission, and student outcomes related to academic advisement should be identified and operationalized. Research into characteristics that can typically be found in advisors of high quality may also be helpful in
supplementing the institution specific goals. For example, research on academic advisement finds that students view successful advisors as those who are interpersonally skilled, are knowledgeable about university policy and culture, and who provide mentoring (Winston, Ender, & Miller, 1982; Smith & Allen, 2006). By gaining a clear understanding of what students, faculty peers, and administrators expect from advisement, assessment tools can be chosen that will maximize the collection of relevant data.

Types of Assessment
Much like teaching evaluations, assessment of academic advising can benefit from collecting multiple types of data. Taken together quantitative and qualitative data can offer converging evidence of an advisor’s strengths, limitations, and use of best practices.

Quantitative
Quantitative methods of advisor assessment are often based on existing teaching evaluations. Thus, the drawback of the relatively limited number of existing advisement assessments is mitigated by the wide availability of teaching assessments. Student evaluations of teaching are widely used and accepted as a strategy for measuring the effectiveness of teaching (Seldin, 1993; Cashin, 1994). Many institutions view academic advising as a form of teaching and learning, making a natural connection between teaching and advising assessment (Lowenstein, 2005; Melander, 2005). Thus, teaching evaluations can inform the creation of advising assessments.

In general, successful advising assessment should focus on three classes of outcomes: Affective (perceived effectiveness of advisor), Behavioral (student’s knowledge and/or usage of campus resources), and Cognitive (knowledge about the content area and student self-knowledge) (Cuseo, 2008; for more comprehensive suggestions on compiling a quantitative assessment of academic advising see the Cuseo chapter). Together, these questions should be able to separate students’ like or dislike for their advisor while also measuring gains the student may have made as a result of advisement. To further distinguish between personal preference and advising skill, Cuseo (2008) recommends asking students to fill out two sets of questions: one about their own preferences in advising and a corresponding questionnaire about student satisfaction with advising.

Qualitative
Written comments about advising quality may be a fruitful avenue for assessment. This more extensive and specific feedback can provide more depth and insight than simple Likert-type ratings. Cuseo (2008) suggests having advisees write quick one-minute papers to provide in-the-moment assessment of advising. Similarly, he suggests that focus groups may be conducted with a number of advisees to provide a more thorough and rounded discussion about an advisor’s capabilities. When creating a summating document to analyze the feedback, focus on
common themes and the number of times similar themes are present (Mullendore & Abraham, 1992).

**External Assessment of Advising**

One potential venue for advisement assessment is to ask for others’ perceptions on an advisor’s effectiveness. Similar to teaching evaluations, a well-designed assessment can offer valid and useful insight into the advising process.

**Student assessment**

As previously mentioned, there are relatively few existing tools to specifically assess academic advising. The general lack of assessments allows programs great freedom to develop their own tools. When developing a student assessment of academic advising, several factors must be considered. First, the goals and objectives of the advising program should be central to the development of the assessment. Following identification and operationalization of these variables, quantitative and/or qualitative assessments can be designed and implemented.

The previously discussed quantitative and qualitative assessments of advising offer one route of assessment, though, they are not without pitfalls. Another student-based assessment of advisement could involve the analysis of students’ advisement-related behaviors. For example, how frequently advisees use campus support programs may speak to the advisor’s ability to connect students with campus resources. Similarly, enrollment patterns, frequency of late drops, adds or withdrawals, and frequency of contact between advisees/advisors may help identify strengths and weaknesses for individual advisors. The use of GPA, retention, and graduation rates, however, may not be an accurate reflection of advisor efficacy (Cuseo, 2008).

One potential pitfall associated with student assessment of advising is the perceived “likeability” of the advisor. In evaluating and choosing an advisor, students place high value on interpersonal skills, advisor warmth, and support (Mottarella, Fritzsche, & Cerabino, 2004). Thus, one potential downfall of relying solely on student assessment of advising may be related to relational variables more than advising ability. Since successful advising should be judged on factors other than interpersonal skills, it may be worthwhile to assess advisement using converging evidence from multiple sources instead of just relying on student-based assessment. An example of a student assessment of an academic advisor can be found in Appendix A.

**Peer assessment**

Assessment of advising from faculty peers can be a useful form of professional development. Peers that are well versed in the best practices of advising should be able to provide substantial, focused, and meaningful feedback for improvement. Similarly, feedback from peers may augment and support comments that appear on student assessments. If a faculty member’s institution has an office of academic advising, those staff members may be willing to provide feedback and assessment of advising.
Self-Assessment of Advising

In addition to external assessment, advisors can provide a critical self-reflection upon the advising process. This type of reflection and documentation may prove useful to faculty members, particularly for those whose tenure, promotion, and retention decisions may include advising responsibility. Self-assessment could be included in portfolios that often factor into personnel decisions (Seldin & Miller, 2008; Seldin, 2003). The advisement section of a portfolio should include a narrative explaining a philosophy of advising, reflection on external assessments of advising, any advising materials created for students (including advisement syllabi, course planning worksheets, etc), and a reflection on professional development opportunities related to advising (Cuseo, 2008).

For an assessment plan that explicitly links external assessment and self-assessment, Cuseo (2008) suggests that advisors evaluate their own performance on the assessment measures given to students and peers. This exercise allows advisors to directly compare their own perceptions of advisement with their students’.

Assessment of Advising Programs

Although the bulk of this chapter focuses on the assessment of individual advisors, assessment of academic advising programs within an institution may offer information about general trends and advisement needs. In turn, these findings can shape the professional development offerings for the institution’s advisors. Equally important, faculty members often feel that advising is an additional responsibility that is not respected or rewarded by their institution (Vowel & Farren, 2003; Dillon & Fisher, 2000). Undertaking a campus-wide (or department-wide) assessment of academic advising demonstrates a commitment to delivering high quality advisement while tacitly providing validation for the time and effort put into advisement. As in the assessment of individual advisors, operationally defining the goals, mission, and outcomes of the advising program is central to the success of the assessment process. Additionally, understanding a broader context of how advisement fits into the university’s overarching mission is critical. By linking assessment of academic advisement to the institution’s mission, it is possible to reaffirm that academic advisement is at the core of student learning.

One model of programmatic assessment of an advising program centers on capturing snapshots of students’ experiences with advising prior to declaration of a major (Smith, Szelfest, & Downey, 2004). First, student goals, expectations and readiness should be assessed pre-matriculation. Second, perceptions of advisement and their alignment with student expectations of advising should be compared to the program’s mission statement. Third, assessment should occur after the student has begun a major course of study (and exited the general advising structure). A potential modification of this assessment plan can be tailored to assessment of advising within the Psychology major/minor. An initial assessment of expectations can occur when a student is assigned a faculty advisor within the program. Next,
an assessment of advisement should occur as students complete any core sequences within the major (Introduction to Psychology, Statistics, Research Methods, Capstone). Finally, an exit survey should evaluate the overall efficacy of advisement during the students’ academic careers. (For a more general advising assessment plan see Troxel, 2008.)

Assessment of an advising program requires engagement from advisors within the program. It may be most comfortable to begin the assessment program with a small pilot assessment of a representative sample of volunteers. An example of an assessment tool for an academic advisement program can be found in Appendix B.

**Assessment of Student Learning**

In most current models of academic advisement student learning is at the center of advising (Lowenstein, 2005). If student learning and development is truly the most important goal of assessment, then assessing student learning outcomes could prove a useful venue for assessment. The specific student learning outcomes to be assessed should again be tied to the mission and stated goals of an advising program. Common learning outcomes related to advising include intellectual growth, realistic self-appraisal, career choices, independence, and effective communication (see Dean, 2006 for a more thorough list). Many of these outcomes are difficult to define, so operationalizing these terms is crucial for success of an assessment program. Depending on the student learning outcomes chosen for assessment, advisors may choose to use a quantitative or a qualitative approach.

An emerging trend in assessing student learning within an advisement framework is the student’s development of a portfolio. Portfolios should include both academic work and more general reflections on the educational process. While these portfolios will be useful to students as they move on to post-graduation plans (graduate school or employment), the primary goal is to promote student learning through self-reflection (Garis, 2007). Through the use of reflective assignments and developmentally appropriate questions, portfolios can provide useful formative assessment about student learning (Chen & Mazow, 2002). At the beginning of the advisement relationship, students should be given a list of student-learning outcomes related to advising. As students progress through their collegiate career, advisors can give mini-reflection assignments that will serve as a central narrative for the portfolio.

**Conclusion**

Assessment of academic advising is crucial both to ensure student success and to reinforce the general importance of advising to an increasingly overworked faculty. By nature, assessment is a consuming process that requires substantial time, revision, and set-up. Consequently, successful assessment of advisement will include a detailed assessment plan that breaks the mission and goals of the advising program into small (yet meaningful) pieces. First, identify where in the advising process assessment will be the most informative (individual advisor,
advising program, or student learning goals). Second, identify a few critical outcomes to assess; a comprehensive assessment plan for advisement may be a multi-phasic process that is rolled out in multiple stages. Third, include a time for critical reflection and analysis of the feedback gained through assessment. Thus, assessing advising necessitates a final step: providing support and development opportunities for advisors. Given the central role of academic advising in a student’s collegiate experience, continuous assessment and improvement is necessary for both advisors and advising programs.

References


Appendix A
Sample of student assessment of academic advising: Advisor Assessment Instrument. By Joseph Cuseo, Professor Emeritus, Marymount College

Student Information
Age: (1) <25 (2) 25 or older
Gender: (1) male (2) female
Major: (1) Decided (2) Undecided
Class: (1) 1st year (2) Sophomore (3) Junior (4) Senior

Please use the following scale to rate items:

1. Disagree strongly
2. Disagree moderately
3. Disagree slightly
4. Agree slightly
5. Agree moderately
6. Agree strongly

My advisor (all items should have a space below for written justification/explanation of the ratings)

1. Is hard to get in touch with.
2. Gives me as much time as I need when we meet
3. Encourages me to come by for help
4. Takes a personal interest in me
5. Encourages me to express my thoughts and feelings
6. Is a good listener
7. Gives me accurate information about course requirements
8. Helps me understand why required courses are important for my professional development and future plans
9. Considers my personal abilities, talents and interests when advising me about courses or programs of study
10. Has assisted me in developing a long-term education plan
11. Helps me to connect with campus resources (learning center, counseling services, etc)
12. Helps me make important educational decisions (selecting elective courses, exploring academic majors/minors/etc)

Student self-assessment

As an advisee, I (all items should have a space for written justification/explanation of the ratings)

1. made appointments to see my advisor
2. kept appointments I made with my advisor
3. was well prepared for my appointments

Open-ended questions

1. What are your advisor’s major strengths or best features?
2. What could your advisor do to improve the quality of his/her advising?
3. Would you recommend your advisor to other students?
Appendix B
Academic Advisement Program Evaluation (Advisor Survey). By Joseph Cuseo, Professor Emeritus of Psychology, Marymount College

Number you have been advising at University:

Number of students you presently advise:

1. Which one of the following best characterizes your attitude toward advising?
   ______ I find advising pleasant and rewarding.
   ______ I have neither very positive nor very negative feelings toward advising.
   ______ I find advising unpleasant.
   Reason/rationale for this response:

2. Which one of the following best captures your perception of student attitudes toward the advising process.
   ______ Students find the advising process pleasant and rewarding.
   ______ Students have neither very positive nor very negative feelings about the advising process.
   ______ Students find the advising process unpleasant and frustrating.
   Reason/rationale for this response:

3. My academic advising experience is best characterized by the following (check as many as apply):
   ______ Students often do not keep appointments.
   ______ Students often do not come with any pre-planned schedule.
   ______ I give accurate advice and answers on curricular requirements.
   ______ I give accurate advice and answers to student questions relating to their options after graduation.
   ______ I serve as a resource person to my advisees on matters relating to choice of college major.
   ______ I serve as a resource person to my advisees on matters relating to career choice.
   ______ I help my advisees to resolve their personal problems.
   ______ I refer my advisees to campus support services for assistance on matters that are beyond my expertise.
I encourage my advisees to become involved in campus life and off-campus community service.

4. Overall how would you rate the academic advisement system at our college?
   ______ Highly effective
   ______ Moderately effective
   ______ Slightly effective
   ______ Slightly ineffective
   ______ Moderately ineffective
   ______ Highly ineffective

Reason/rationale for this response:

5. What do you find to be the most rewarding aspect of academic advising?

6. What do you find to be the most frustrating or dissatisfying aspect of academic advising?

7. In what ways might our academic advisement system be improved?

8. What type(s) of additional personal or institutional support do you think would make the advising process more effective and/or satisfying for advisors?

Final comments/suggestions/recommendation
Academic Advising is an on-going, intentional, educational partnership that can play a crucial role in students’ academic success. To accomplish this, advisors are required to provide students with information and resources that will facilitate their sense of direction in planning for and/or identifying academic careers and programs of study. Many advisors extend assistance to a diverse student population, including traditional and nontraditional students, first-generation students, students “at-risk”, honor’s students, international students, etc. This chapter is intended to assist advisors in obtaining the most useful information from books, journals and websites on a myriad of advising topics for various types of students, including career and graduate school advice for psychology majors.

Recommended Books

This book is an updated edition of the most comprehensive, classic reference on academic advising. Thirty experts in the field examine critical aspects of academic advising and provide insights for all who advise or oversee advising. This edition has a greater emphasis on teaching and learning, which reflects current thought that the advisor’s role is "teacher" as well as "advisor." The book also provides an expanded section on the changing college student and current research on the profile of today’s college students, including students with special needs. The book describes the newest, most effective ways to organize and deliver academic advising from a variety of perspectives, including how technology is changing support and delivery systems and offers the latest advisor training concepts and tools for enhancing advisor skills and knowledge as well as assessment techniques. The topics covered in this book are as follows:

FOUNDATIONS OF ACADEMIC ADVISING.

1. Historical Foundations of Academic Advising
2. Ethical Foundations of Academic Advising
3. Legal Foundations of Academic Advising
4. Advising for Student Success
5. Advising as Teaching and Learning
7. Advising for Career and Life Planning

STUDENT DIVERSITY AND STUDENT NEEDS

8. The Changing College Student

9. Moving into College

10. Moving through College

11. Moving on from College

12. Students with Specific Advising Needs

13. Advising Students of Color and Int’l Students

ORGANIZATION AND DELIVERY OF ADVISING SERVICES

14. Vision, Mission, Goals, and Program Objectives for Academic Advising Programs

15. Organization of Academic Advising Services

16. Advising Delivery: Faculty Advising

17. Advising Delivery: Professional Advisors, Counselors, and Other Staff

18. Advising Delivery: Group Strategies

19. Advising Delivery: Using Technology

TRAINING, ASSESSMENT, RECOGNITION, AND REWARD.

20. Critical Concepts in Advisor Training and Development

21. Tools and Resources for Advisors

22. Delivering One-to-One Advising: Skills and Competencies

23. Assessing Student Learning

24. Assessing Advisor Effectiveness

25. Assessing the Effectiveness of the Advising Program

26. Recognition and Reward for Academic Advising in Theory and in Practice

PERSPECTIVES ON ADVISING.

27. Campus Administrator Perspectives on Advising

28. Advising Administrator Perspectives on Advising

29. Perspectives on the Future of Academic Advising

EXEMPLARY PRACTICES IN ACADEMIC ADVISING

Appendix B. The Statement of Core Values of Academic Advising.

Appendix C. Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education Standards and Guidelines for Academic Advising.


*Academic Advising Approaches* outlines advising practices and strategies that help students master the necessary skills to achieve their academic and career goals. This book embeds theoretical bases within practical explanations and examples advisors can use in answering fundamental questions such as “What will make me a more effective advisor?” and “What can I do to enhance student success?” The book links theory with practice and should be useful to all who serve as advisors. The approaches covered include those incorporating developmental, learning-centered, appreciative, proactive, strengths-based, Socratic, and hermeneutic advising as well as those featuring advising as teaching, motivational interviewing, self-authorship, and advising as coaching. This book serves as the practice-based companion to *Academic Advising: A Comprehensive Handbook* (see above). The topics covered in this book are as follows:

Foundations of Academic Advising Practice

1: Advising Strategies to Support Student Learning Success

2: Advising as Teaching and the Advisor as Teacher in Theory and in Practice

3: Learning-Centered Advising

4: Developmental Academic Advising

A New Light: Viewing the Practice of Academic Advising from Different Perspectives

5: Motivational Interviewing

6: Appreciative Advising

7: Strengths-Based Advising

8: Academic Advising Informed by Self-authorship Theory

9: Proactive Advising

10: Advising as Coaching

A New Lens: Applying Theories From Other Disciplines to the Practice of Academic Advising

11: The Application of Constructivism and Systems Theory to Academic Advising

12: Socratic Advising

This book focuses on the unique needs of college students who are undecided regarding a field of study and/or career path, and the various approaches that advisors and counselors may take. The text draws on extensive research, both recent and historical, and explores what is most effective in successful universities today. The text explores the many and varied reasons that lead college students to be undecided, and the different solutions that will assist the student in coping with their circumstances and reaching a successful resolution. This updated version includes many ways in which the Internet serves as a useful tool for assisting gathering resources for the undecided college student. Advisors, counselors, and faculty will all glean useful theoretical and practical information from this text that can be applied in individual counseling, group settings, and workshops.


This book serves as a resource for academic advisors to assist college students with the educational choices that will lead them to career-related decisions. It shows how academic advisors, as well as non-teaching advisors, are in ideal positions to help students understand the relationships between their academic and career choices, and the effect these decisions have on students' future personal and work lives. The book identifies and describes the knowledge and skills that are required to be an effective career advisor for students including the 3-I Process, which clarifies the three interactive phases--Inquire, Inform, and Integrate--that can help students identify and explore academic- and career-related possibilities and make critical decisions.


Appreciative advising is a relatively new academic advising philosophy that calls on professional and faculty advisors to celebrate students' strengths as they help advisees achieve their life and academic goals. This is a user-friendly manual that captures and explains in detail the six phases of Appreciative advising (Disarm, Discover, Dream, Design, Deliver, and Don't Settle) as well as specific ways to intentionally incorporate them into advising sessions. In addition, descriptions of initiatives at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro highlight the successful
implementation of Appreciative advising into advising sessions and programs. Specific guidelines for implementing and assessing Appreciative advising are also provided.


This book will assist advisors in helping students evaluate the academic and occupational information they need to make timely career decisions. The Handbook of Career Advising integrates academic advising into career advising so advisors are better equipped to help students understand themselves, consider their life goals, and choose the appropriate academic course of action that will enable them to meet their professional aspirations.


Student Success in College describes policies, programs, and practices that a diverse set of institutions have used to enhance student achievement. This book demonstrates the benefits of student learning and educational effectiveness that can be realized when these conditions are present. Based on the Documenting Effective Educational Practice (DEEP) project from the Center for Postsecondary Research at Indiana University, this book provides concrete examples from twenty institutions that other colleges and universities can adapt to help create a success-oriented campus culture and learning environment.


Student Development in College will help student affairs practitioners understand the developmental challenges facing today's college students. It also provides scholars with a comprehensive and inclusive overview of the most important student development theories and related research, including new approaches related to social identity development. It will also assist student affairs professionals in designing individual, group, and institutional approaches to work more effectively with students at various developmental levels and to facilitate student growth.


This book provides valuable guidance on a wide range of topics of interest to academic advisors. It contains some 350 entries for books and articles on academic advising and closely related topics. Entries are grouped in topical chapters, and each includes a short annotation. Most of the works cited were published in the 1980s and 1990s or earlier which provides an historical perspective. The following are the topics covered:
1. Organizational and Delivery Systems
2. Developmental Advising
3. Special Populations, e.g., athletes, commuters, disabled, undecided
4. Culturally Diverse Students
5. Advisor Training
6. Career Advising
7. Retention
8. Legal Issues in Advising
9. Advising as a Profession
10. Evaluation and Assessment
11. Academic Advising Books


This guide, authored by and for faculty advisors, offers practical suggestions that will help faculty advisors create productive advising relationships. Included are proven strategies for creating effective advising sessions, 12 practical tips for good advising, and a discussion of advising and confidentiality laws.

**Journals**

*The Mentor: An Academic Advising Journal*

*The Mentor: An Academic Advising Journal* is a peer-reviewed scholarly publication about academic advising in higher education. The journal is free and published only online. The goal of the journal is to provide a mechanism for the rapid dissemination of new ideas about advising and for ongoing discourse about advising issues. Toward this goal, articles in the journal are published continuously. Each article is archived and is accessible online indefinitely. The journal publishes research-based articles, and also articles based on the theory and philosophy of academic advising, descriptions of exemplary practices in advising and innovative advising programs, summaries of conference presentations, personal perspectives and reflections, and other concise forms of writing related to advising. In addition, the journal invites responses to a bimonthly Advising Forum topic. Each topic and the responses submitted by readers are archived. Go to: [http://dus.psu.edu/mentor/about/#sthash.DI3JEIwb.dpuf](http://dus.psu.edu/mentor/about/#sthash.DI3JEIwb.dpuf)

*Academic Advising Today*

*Academic Advising Today* is the quarterly electronic publication of NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising. It provides a venue for sharing advising experiences and a forum for discussing ideas related to the theory and practice of academic advising in higher education. The content relates to the association's strategic goals, which are to (1) expand and communicate the scholarship of academic advising, (2) provide professional development
opportunities that are responsive to the needs of advisors and advising administrators, (3) promote the role of effective academic advising in student success to college and university decision makers (4) create an inclusive environment within the Association that promotes diversity, (5) develop and sustain effective Association leadership, (6) engage in ongoing assessment of all facets of the Association, and (7) pursue innovative technology tools and resources to support the Association

**NACADA Journal**

The *NACADA Journal* is a biannual journal published by the National Academic Advising Association. Its goal is to advance scholarly discourse about the research, theory and practice of academic advising in higher education. The journal publishes Research Articles that address the research, theory, or practice of academic advising. Research articles use one of the standard quantitative or qualitative research approaches such as descriptive, experimental, historical, or ethnographical. Theory articles tend to explain how something works by describing a theoretical framework, construct, paradigm, analogy, or story. Practice articles discuss a specific institutional practice or issue that can be generalized to academic advising at other institutions. Practice articles should relate to a body of research literature, demonstrate a theory in action, and/or contain an evaluation/assessment component. The journal also publishes Book Reviews of recent books in fields related to academic advising. Reviews provide brief content synopses, address implications for practice, and highlight how the book can increase advisors' knowledge and skills. The Annotated Bibliography of Recent Research Related to Academic Advising provides a synopsis of research related to academic advising that has been published in journals of related fields.

**Journal of College Student Development**

The *Journal of College Student Development* publishes articles about student development, professional development, professional issues, administrative concerns, and creative programs to improve student services. Articles include original research, replication of research, reviews of research, graduate education in student affairs, and essays on theoretical, organizational, and professional issues. Both quantitative and qualitative research manuscripts are published on topics that (1) support the extension of knowledge in the area of developmental theory; (2) support increasing sophistication in the assessment of developmental change and the factors contributing thereto; (3) support practitioner efforts to apply theoretical developmental constructs to programs in the field; and (4) support increasing our knowledge of organizational behaviors so that effective tactics and strategies might be applied to the implementation of developmentally focused programs on the campus. Some examples of recent articles on academic advising published in the *Journal of College Student Development* include:
Research in Higher Education

Research in Higher Education is directed to those concerned with the functioning of post-secondary education, including two-year and four-year colleges, universities, and graduate and professional schools. It is of primary interest to institutional researchers and planners, faculty, college and university administrators, student personnel specialists and behavioral scientists. Generally, empirical studies are published that contribute to an increased understanding of an institution or allow comparison between institutions, which aid faculty and administrators in making more informed decisions about current or future operations, and which improve the efficiency or effectiveness of the institution. Brief notes of a methodological nature are also published. Some examples of articles on academic advising published in Research in Higher Education include:

- Campbell, T. A., & Campbell, D. E. (1997). Faculty/student mentor program: Effects on academic performance and retention. Research in Higher Education, 38, 727-742. These researchers found that students who participated in a program where they received regular faculty mentoring had higher GPAs than students who did not receive faculty mentoring.

The Review of Higher Education

The Review of Higher Education provides a forum for the discussion of issues affecting higher education. The journal advances the study of college and university issues by publishing peer-reviewed articles, essays, reviews, and research findings. Its broad approach emphasizes systematic inquiry and practical implications. The Review of Higher Education is designed to keep scholars, academic leaders, and public policymakers abreast of critical issues facing higher education.
education today. Some examples of articles on academic advising published in the journal include:

- Kuh, G. D., & Hu, S. (2001). The effects of student-faculty interaction in the 1990s. *The Review of Higher Education, 24*, 309-332. The authors found that students who have frequent contact with faculty to discuss academic matters fare better academically than those students who do not interact with faculty. They also found that contacts of a purely social nature between faculty and students did not enhance student academic performance.


**American Educational Research Journal**

The *American Educational Research Journal* publishes empirical and theoretical studies and analyses in education that constitute significant contributions to the understanding and/or improvement of educational processes and outcomes. The Social and Institutional Analysis section focuses on significant political, cultural, social, economic, and organizational issues in education, and the Teaching, Learning, and Human Development section explores the processes and outcomes of teaching, learning, and human development at all educational levels and in both formal and informal settings. Both sections publish research representing a wide range of academic disciplines, using a wide range of research methods. Some examples of articles on academic advising published in the *American Educational Research Journal* include:


Web Sites

NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising

NACADA is an association that promotes the development and dissemination of innovative theory, research, and practice of academic advising in higher education. To realize this vision, the association aspires to achieve a number of goals, including the expansion and communication of the scholarship of academic advising.

Moving to the web in 2002, the NACADA Clearinghouse of Academic Advising Resources features member written articles addressing more than 250 topics applicable to academic advising. The Clearinghouse also includes over 100 'resource links' pages organized by topic. These pages are made up of member suggested web links that connect readers to more than 25,000 relevant resources. The topical organization of articles is as follows:

- Academic Support
- Administration
- Advising as a Profession
- Advising Students
- Advising Theory
- Approaches
- Assessment
- Campus Collaboration
- Career Advising
- Handbooks
- History and Philosophy
- Legal and Ethical Issues
- Organizational Structures
- Pillars of Academic Advising
- Professional Development
- Retention
- Student Populations
- Technology

To access the Clearing house on the NACADA website, go to their website at: http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/Clearinghouse.aspx#sthash.cXikudR8.dpuf

Some of the most popular articles are the ones that address the following topics:

- Becoming an Advisor
- FERPA overview
- Motivation
- Gamer Addiction
STP: Society for the Teaching of Psychology (Office of Teaching Resources in Psychology)

The Office of Teaching Resources in Psychology (OTRP) develops and distributes peer-reviewed teaching and advising materials and provides services to teachers of psychology at all levels on behalf of The Society for the Teaching of Psychology. Currently, the following articles on advising are at: http://teachpsych.org/otrp/resources/index.php

Elchert, D. M. (2013). Educating Prospective Students of Professional Psychology about the Supply-Demand Internship Crisis. This 29 page paper describes the potential causes of, consequences of, and solutions to the imbalance between the number of graduate students seeking clinical and counseling internships and the availability of accredited internship sites. Its aim is to help educate undergraduates before they commit to a graduate program. It can serve as an advising tool and as a basis for discussions in Introductory Psychology and Abnormal/ Clinical/Counseling courses.

Appleby, D. C., Millspaugh, B. S., & Hammersley, M. J. (2011). An Online Resource to Enable Undergraduate Psychology Majors to Identify and Investigate 172 Psychology and Psychology-Related Careers. This complete revision of Appleby’s (2006) resource provides a list of 172 occupations that psychology majors may pursue, together with the associated URLs to various online descriptions of the occupations, from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT), O*NET, the Occupational Outlook Handbook (OOH), and other reputable Web sites. Advisors can use this resource to assist psychology majors in identifying potential career paths.

Rajecki, D. W. (2009). A Job List of One's Own: Creating Customized Career Information for Psychology Majors. This paper identifies Internet resources that can enable users to easily obtain authoritative, detailed, and up-to-date information about the specifics of particular occupations, and conditions in the contemporary U.S. job market.
Daniel, J., Brynolf, A., & McConnell, S. C. (2007). Doctor of Psychology Programs Today: Location, Accreditation, Administration, Specialization. This Doctor of Psychology (Psy.D.) Program Guide is a quick reference for both prospective Psy.D. students and their professors or academic advisors. All Psy.D. programs are listed by location, administration, specialization, sub-specializations available, American Psychological Association accreditation status, program length, and dissertation/research project requirement. There are currently 117 Psy.D. programs listed, which is a 22% increase compared to 2004.

Finley, D. L. (2003). So Your Students Want to be Sport Psychologists! This 10-page document introduces the field of sport psychology, provides guidelines for advising students and suggestions for appropriate courses.

Helms, J. L., & Mayhew, L. L. (2006). Undergraduate Preparation For Graduate Training In Forensic Psychology. This resource describes the results of a survey of individuals involved in selecting students for graduate study in forensic psychology plus results from an investigation of forensic psychology programs provide this information. Descriptions of the results offer further guidance for advisors and students that will help students make wise use of their undergraduate time.


Keith-Spiegel, P. (1990). What Departments and Faculty Can Do To Assist Their Undergraduate Students with Their Graduate School Planning. Twenty-one suggestions for activities that advisors can use to assist undergraduate students planning on graduate school.
M. Robert Aman grew up in New York and came to Kansas to attend the College of Emporia where he earned a Bachelor of Music Education degree. After a five month teaching position in a small Kansas community, he returned to New York where he taught middle school music for four years. He returned to Emporia where he received his Masters of Science in Psychology with a concentration in special education at the Emporia State Teachers College. Bob then became the director for a private facility serving developmental disabilities from infancy through adulthood. In 1982 he was hired by Emporia U.S.D. 253 to teach special education at Emporia High School. He remained a teacher there until his retirement in 2006. During his tenure at Emporia High he worked with students in many categories of disabilities in addition to serving as department chairperson.

In 2006, he joined the faculty of Emporia State as a member of the Department of Psychology and Special Education where he has taught a number of graduate and undergraduate courses. In addition to teaching load, Mr. Aman served as the undergraduate Psychology advisor for two years and since 2013, he has served as an adjunct for the Psychology department’s undergraduate advisor. Mr. Aman is licensed by the Kansas State Department of Education as a K-12 teacher for Instrumental Music, Vocal Music, Fundamental Music, Educable Mentally Retarded and Trainable Mentally Retarded. In addition he is licensed 7-12 for Psychology and Behavior Disorders.

Sharon Anderson is Professor of Counseling and Career Development at Colorado State University. She received her Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology from University of Denver and is licensed psychologist. Dr. Anderson teaches ethics in counseling, counseling for social and cultural diversity, practicum, and brief counseling. Her research and writing interests include professional ethics in counseling, ethics in leadership, and issues of privilege and diversity of the professionals in the helping fields.
Drew Appleby received his BA from Simpson College in 1969 and his PhD from Iowa State University in 1972. During his 40-year career, he served as the Chair of the Marian University Psychology Department, the Director of Undergraduate Studies in the IUPUI Psychology Department, and the Associate Dean of the IUPUI Honors College. He investigated learning, teaching, advising, and mentoring processes and used the results of his research to create strategies designed to enable college students to adapt to the rigor of higher education; acquire academic competence; to identify, clarify, investigate, evaluate, and set goals; and to achieve their educational and career aspirations. He authored over 100 publications (including The Savvy Psychology Major) and made over 600 presentations (including 20 invited keynote addresses) to a variety of professional and nonprofessional audiences. He created the Society for the Teaching of Psychology’s (STP) Project Syllabus, transformed STP’s Mentoring Service into an online clearinghouse, and founded and served as the director of the Indiana High School Psychology Teachers Conference for 12 years. He was honored for his outstanding contributions to the science and profession of psychology by being named as a Fellow of the American Psychological Association’s Division One (General Psychology) and Division Two (STP), the Midwestern Psychological Association, and as the 30th distinguished member of Psi Chi (International Honor Society in Psychology). He received 44 international, national, regional, and institutional awards and recognitions for teaching, advising, mentoring, and service.

His work with IUPUI’s varsity athletes led him to be named “My Favorite Professor” by 71 student-athletes, and he was designated as a mentor by 777 IUPUI psychology majors, 222 of whom indicated he was their most influential mentor by selecting the following sentence to describe his impact: “This professor influenced the whole course of my life and his effect on me has been invaluable.” Dr. Appleby retired from IUPUI in 2011 with the rank of Professor Emeritus.

EMILY BALCETIS
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

Emily Balcetis received a BA in psychology and a BFA in music performance from the University of Nebraska, Kearney and her doctorate in social and personality psychology from Cornell University. She has taught at Ohio University and currently is an assistant professor of social psychology at New York University. Dr. Balcetis leads the NYU Faculty of Arts and Sciences
Diversity Initiative, where she and a working group intend to address issues of underrepresentation at NYU.

Her research interests fall at the intersection of social and cognitive psychology. Specifically, Dr. Balcetis investigates what and how motivations influence visual perception, social judgment, and decision-making. She authored papers in these areas for The Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Psychological Science, and the like, along with editing a volume entitled The Social Psychology of Visual Perception. For her research, Dr. Balcetis received the Society of Experimental Social Psychology 2006 Dissertation Award, the Sage Young Scholars Award from the Foundation for Personality and Social Psychology, the International Society for Self and Identity Paper of the Year Award.

She has served as an assistant editor for the e-book series published by the Society for the Teaching of Psychology on promoting undergraduate research experiences, and received the Clark Distinguished Teaching Award from Cornell University for her work with undergraduates on research and the development of critical thinking skills.

KENN BARRON
JAMES MADISON UNIVERSITY

Kenn Barron is a Professor of Psychology at James Madison University (JMU) and Co-Coordinator of the Motivation Research Institute. He received his PhD in social/personality psychology from the University of Wisconsin-Madison in 1999, and began working at JMU in 2000. His research focuses on motivation and achievement in academic, sport, and work settings, and has appeared in the Journal of Educational Psychology, Contemporary Educational Psychology, Educational Psychologist, Educational and Psychological Measurement, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, and the Journal of Applied Sport Psychology. He also regularly publishes and presents on topics related to the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) and research methodology.

Kenn regularly teaches coursework in research methods, statistics, and motivation. In addition, he coordinates JMU's Psychology Learning Community (PLC) where first year students take part in a unique introduction to the field of Psychology and jump start to the major through a series of curricular and co-curricular experiences designed specifically for them while living together in the same residence hall.

Kenn received his college's Outstanding Junior Faculty Award in 2004, and has been nominated multiple times for his college's Distinguished Teacher and Distinguished Researcher Awards. He also received the Provost's Award for Freshmen Advising in 2007, the National Academic Advising Association's Outstanding Faculty Award in 2008, and JMU’s All Together One Award in
2009. In 2012, he was named a fellow of the American Psychological Association and one of Princeton Review’s Top 300 professors in America.

K. ROBERT BRIDGES
PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY, NEW KENSINGTON

K. Robert Bridges is an Associate Professor of Psychology at Pennsylvania State University, New Kensington. He teaches Introductory Psychology, Developmental Psychology, Positive Psychology, and various senior seminars. He earned his M.A. in Experimental Psychology from Temple University, and his Ph.D. in Child Development from the University of Pittsburgh. In addition to his cross-cultural research, and his work on irrational beliefs, his current pedagogical research interests include creating new student-led seminar techniques, and the use of web 2.0 technology in the classroom. Dr. Bridges has published over 40 articles, reviews and chapters including *Role of irrational beliefs in depression and anxiety: A review* (with R. Harnish), and *Teaching undergraduate positive psychology: An active learning approach using student blogs* (with R. Harnish and D. Sillman). Dr. Bridges serves as the psychology program coordinator for the New Kensington campus. He is a Fellow of the Eastern Psychological Association. He has been the recipient of the Penn State New Kensington Excellence in Teaching Award, and was the 2005 recipient of the Penn State Milton S. Eisenhower Award for Distinguished Teaching.

MATT BRUSTER
AVITA COMMUNITY PARTNERS

Matt Bruster is a Developmental Disabilities Professional at AVITA Community Partners in Northeast Georgia where he works with developmentally disabled adults. He received his A.A in psychology from Gainesville State College, later he received his B.S. in Psychology from the University of North Georgia. While at the University of North Georgia, Matt’s research focused on examining the effectiveness of podcasts as an educational tool and the neurological and behavioral effects of methamphetamine. Matt also worked as a host and editor on PsychPodcast while at the University of North Georgia.
Jeanne Butler provides consulting services to academic institutions and corporations in the areas of assessment, performance improvement, team building and change management. Prior to becoming an independent consultant, Dr. Butler was Director of Assessment at University of Nebraska Kearney (UNK) from 2004-2013 and Director of the Center for Teaching Excellence (CTE) at UNK from 2004-2008.

As Director of Assessment, she oversaw the collection and reporting of all student assessment data for academic departments and programs on campus. At the University of Nebraska at Kearney, she was instrumental in implementing current practices in assessment including e-portfolios, curriculum mapping, and electronic reporting of assessment data. In her role as CTE Director she provided faculty development across campus in the AAC&U high impact learning practices including service learning, study abroad, undergraduate research, etc. She assisted in student-led research projects on campus including student and faculty surveys on advising, teaching practices and general education programs.

She earned her Ph.D. from the University of Southern California in Instructional Technology. She has taught graduate courses in evaluation and measurement for USC, Boston University, Western Governors University, and University of Colorado - Denver. She has developed and implemented assessment and performance improvement programs for University of Nebraska Kearney, Weaveonline, Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO), Ernst & Young, LLP, and United Airlines Services Corporation. She has presented on student advising, student engagement, faculty development, and evaluation/assessment at national and international conferences and has published articles and book chapters related to these and other topics.

Shana Cole received her PhD in social psychology from New York University in 2014 before joining the faculty as an assistant professor at Rutgers University, in New Brunswick, New Jersey. Her work explores the dynamic and reciprocal interplay between people’s active goals and their perceptual experiences of the world around them. Specifically, her central lines of research test the ways in which perceptual processes shape and filter the world to help enable people to mitigate threats, attain rewards, and resist
temptations. Shana has published on these topics at journals such as Psychological Science, Journal of Experimental Psychology, Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, Social Cognition, Self and Identity, and Motivation and Emotion.

Shana has received several awards and grants for her work, including the APA Dissertation Award, the SPSP Outstanding Research Award, the SPSP Poster Award, the SPSP Travel Award, the SocialSci Participant Pool Award, the NYU Friends of Katzell Summer Fellowship, and the Bernard Lander Award for outstanding graduate research.

Before NYU, Shana received an M.S. in experimental psychology from Ohio University, worked as a clinical research coordinator at the University of Pennsylvania, directed a community-based research program for AmeriCorps, and received a B.A. in psychology from The College of New Jersey.

TED CROSS
GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY

Ted Cross is the Program Chair for Dissertation Research at Grand Canyon University in Phoenix, Arizona. In this leadership capacity, Cross oversees several hundred faculty and over 1,300 students conducting various research projects in Psychology, Education, and Business. Previously, Cross was a Manager of Online Fulltime Faculty and a member of the inaugural group of GCU’s Fulltime Online Faculty teaching introductory classes to online freshman and first year MBA students. Dr. Cross teaches classes both online and in traditional settings in Leadership, Communications, Research Methods, and Business. Cross currently serves as the Editor for The Journal of Non-Significant Differences. Dr. Cross’s research interests are multidisciplinary and include: Online Learning, Doctoral and Graduate Education, Higher Education, Leadership, Purpose and Meaningful Work, Positive Psychology, Religion and Society, Persuasion, Visual Rhetoric, Design, and Communications. Dr. Cross holds a bachelor’s degree from Brigham Young University, an MA from Arizona State University, an MSed from The University of Pennsylvania, an EdD from Pepperdine University, and a Post Graduate Certificate from The Wharton School of Business.

BRYAN L. DAWSON
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH GEORGIA

Bryan L. Dawson is an assistant professor in the Department of Psychological Science at the University of North Georgia. He teaches, Introductory Psychology, Psychological Science, Quantitative Methods, and various leadership seminars. He received his Ph.D. in Industrial Organizational Psychology from the University of Georgia. Dr. Dawson’s
research focuses on discrimination, and the attitudinal and behavioral effects of positive and negative beliefs towards women, people of color and LGBT people. In addition, Dr. Dawson is currently investigating the potential antecedents and predictors of hostile discrimination in online environments and the effects on perceptions of women and people of color.

AMBER ESPING
TEXAS CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY

Amber Esping is an associate professor of educational psychology at Texas Christian University; she is also a first-generation college student. Her scholarship follows two strands: (1) the application of existential psychology (logo-therapy) to academic contexts, and (2) the history of intelligence theory and testing. Logotherapy is an existential psychotherapy that utilizes the human search for meaning as an avenue for mental health. Dr. Esping's logotherapy research explores the ways in which teachers, faculty, and students use learning and teaching to discover meaning in personal adversity. She is discovering that many educators view themselves as wounded healers, and both learning and teaching can be logotherapeutic. A representative publication is From “At-risk” Youth to Wounded Healer: A Longitudinal Study of two Preservice Teachers (2013).

Dr. Esping's human intelligence scholarship looks at the ways in which psychologists, educators, and others have approached the challenge of defining and measuring human intelligence. Far more than a psychometric puzzle, questions about human intelligence raise many philosophical, ethical, and sociological questions. This writing is usually done with Dr. Jonathan Plucker of the University of Connecticut. The most comprehensive of these publications is a book, Intelligence 101 (2014). Dr. Esping enjoys mentoring recipients of the Ronald E. McNair Post Baccalaureate Achievement Program, which offers a comprehensive system of academic, social, cultural, and financial supports for high-achieving college students from economically-disadvantaged backgrounds. Many of these students are the first in their families to attend college.

KRISTA D. FORREST
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT KEARNEY

Krista D. Forrest is a professor of psychology at the University of Nebraska at Kearney. Since 1999, Dr. Forrest, her colleagues, and students have been investigating the efficacy of police interrogation methods and mock jurors' perceptions of police interrogations. She has published related articles in the Journal of Witness Credibility and Assessment, Personality and Individual Differences, and Behavioral Sciences and the Law. In addition to her work on interrogations, Dr. Forrest has published
articles on teaching issues in such journals as *Teaching of Psychology, The Psychology Teachers Newsletter, the Journal of Online Teaching, and Education.*

JEFFREY A. GOODMAN
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN AT EAU CLAIRE

Jeffrey A. Goodman received his B.S. from the University of Pittsburgh-Bradford and his M.A. and Ph.D. from the University of Maine. He is currently an Associate Professor and Director of Undergraduate Studies in Psychology at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire. He teaches Introduction to Psychology, Social Psychology, and the Psychology of Stigma and Prejudice. Dr. Goodman’s research interests include interactions between stigmatized and non-stigmatized individuals, minority influence processes in small groups, and social cognitive aspects of religious and political beliefs. He maintains an active research lab with undergraduate research collaborators and serves as a campus-wide statistical and methodological consultant. Dr. Goodman is passionate about advising, graduation rates, and equity, diversity, and inclusivity on college campuses. Along with Dr. Catya von Károlyi, he offers evidence-based anti-bias workshops to faculty, staff and students. He is involved in a number of initiatives to enhance the quality of advising and increase graduation rates for all students.

YAEL GRANOT
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

Yael Granot received her BA in psychology from Vassar College and is currently pursuing her PhD in social psychology at New York University. Her research interests incorporate visual perception, attribution, and legal decision-making. Her work centers on why people make attributions of blame, and how social and visual factors interact to predict different legal decisions. For this work Yael received the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship, travel and presentation awards from the American Psychology and Law Society and Society for Personality and Social Psychology, as well as the Witmer award for outstanding forensic research. Before beginning her PhD at NYU, Yael worked as a mental health counselor at McLean Hospital in Belmont, MA, as a research fellow at Harvard University’s Berkman Center for Internet and Society, and as a volunteer in Israel through the Otzma Social Action Fellowship.
Richard J. Harnish is an Associate Professor of Psychology at The Pennsylvania State University, New Kensington. He teaches Social Psychology, Personality Psychology, Research Methods, Principles of Measurement, and various senior seminars. He earned his Ph.D. and M.A. in Social Psychology from Michigan State University, and holds a B.A. in Psychology from The Pennsylvania State University. His research interest focuses on the intersection between attitudes, the self and attributions, as well as pedagogical issues such as what information makes for an effective syllabus and how the information should be presented (i.e., syllabus tone). Dr. Harnish has published over 40 articles, reviews and chapters including *Perception of sexual intent: The role of gender, alcohol consumption, and rape supportive attitudes* (with A. Abbey), and *Development and psychometric evaluation of the sexual intent scale* (with K. Bridges, and K. Rottschaefer). Dr. Harnish serves as an associate editor for STP Project Syllabus and ad hoc editor for various STP, Society for Personality and Social Psychology, and scholarship of engagement journals. He is the recipient of several awards for the scholarship of engagement including the Arlene Hall Service Award in 2013, Smart Growth Partnership of Westmoreland County Award in 2008 and 2011.

**ESMERALDA HERNÁNDEZ-GÓMEZ**
**TEXAS CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY**

Esmeralda Hernández-Gómez is a college senior, a McNair scholar, and an aspiring bilingual educator. Initially from Guadalajara, Mexico, her parents made substantial sacrifices to ensure their three children would be the first in their family to receive university educations. Despite her family’s lack of knowledge about formal education, and with help from exceptional mentors and college of advisors, Esmeralda has been able to excel in her academics. Prior to graduating from an underserved high school, Esme earned a prestigious scholarship to attend Texas Christian University. She is considering a doctoral study in educational psychology.

**W. WYATT HOBACK**
**UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT KEARNEY**

William Wyatt Hoback is Professor of Biology at the University of Nebraska at Kearney. He teaches courses in Entomology, Introduction to Graduate Studies, Organic Evolution, Ecology, and Herpetology. He has served as graduate chair and director of the distance MS degree in Biology. Professor Hoback’s
scientific interests lie in understanding the community structure of closely related organisms as they relate to biotic and abiotic factors. He is also passionate about the conservation of invertebrate and vertebrate species. He has published more than 100 peer-reviewed papers on topics ranging from insect resistance to anoxia associated with flooding to physiology, behavior, and ecology or burying beetles. He has obtained more than $3 million in grant funding and has been awarded the Pratt-Heins Foundation Faculty Award for scholarship and research at the University of Nebraska at Kearney. He has also received the North Central Branch of the Entomological Society Award in Teaching and the University of Nebraska Young Alumni Achievement Award. He has travelled to Brazil, Peru, Russia, Bangladesh, and China and has hosted undergraduate and graduate students from Belgium, Brazil, and South Korea.

**ALAN HUGHES**
**BERRY COLLEGE**

Alan Hughes is Professor of Psychology at Berry College in Rome, Georgia. He teaches Introduction to Psychology, Statistics and Research Methods I & II, Sensory and Perceptual Processes, Behavioral Neuro-science, and History & Systems. He received his B.A. degree in psychology from Berea College, his M.A. in Applied Experimental Psychology from Western Kentucky University, and his Ph.D. in Experimental Psychology (Major area: perception and neural science) from the University of Louisville. Before joining the faculty at Berry College, Dr. Hughes worked at Nazareth College in Rochester, NY. A physiological psychologist, his research interests include neural mechanisms of light adaptation, color vision, and neurovisual disorders.

**SHANNA HUSLIG**
**GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY**

Shanna Huslig received her B.S. from New Mexico State University, M.B.A. from Grand Canyon University, and is currently working towards her Ph.D. also at Grand Canyon University. Shanna has worked at Grand Canyon University for many years as an Academic Advisor, Full-Time Online Faculty, and is currently a Research Specialist with the Center for Innovation in Research and Teaching (CIRT) as well as an Adjunct Instructor teaching Intro to Psychology. Shanna is the Managing Editor for the Journal of Non-Significant Differences published by Grand Canyon University and has been involved as a Subject Matter Expert (SME) for many Academic Advising projects during her time with the University. Shanna’s research interests include Positive Psychology and its impact on organizational effectiveness and employee well-being as well as effective strategies for teaching and advising online students.
TARA IVIE
UTAH VALLEY UNIVERSITY

Tara Ivie is an Academic and Career Counselor at Utah Valley University, where she began her career in 2006. Tara and has worked in both Student Affairs and Academic Affairs. She has taught as adjunct faculty for the Department of Behavioral Science, her favorite course to teach is Career and Graduate School Preparation for Behavioral Science Majors. Tara was awarded a MS in Administration of Academic Advising from Kansas State University and became the first UVU Academic Advisor to become a Certified Practitioner in MBTI and Strong II, as well as UVU’s first certified SafeZone trainer. Tara’s UVU accolades include Dean’s Achievement in Advising 2013-14, PACE Distinguished Employee of the Year 2013, Academic Advisor of the Year 2011-12, and Wolverine Awards Academic Advisor of the Year 2012-13. She considers helping students reach their academic, professional, and personal goals the best aspect of her work at UVU. Tara credits her personal and professional success to her incredible family.

JOSHUA L. KARELITZ
PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY AND UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

Joshua L. Karelitz is an Adjunct Instructor of Psychology at the Pennsylvania State University, New Kensington. He teaches Introductory Psychology, Introductory Research Methods, and Neurological Bases of Human Behavior. He earned his M.A. in Research Methodology from the University of Pittsburgh, and holds a B.A. in Applied Psychology from The Pennsylvania State University. Beyond his role with The Pennsylvania State University, Joshua is a Research Coordinator in the Nicotine Research Laboratory of University of Pittsburgh Medical Center. Joshua has published over 15 articles relating to his research area of interest, behavioral aspects of nicotine or tobacco smoking. He will be entering the Biological and Health Psychology Ph.D. program at the University of Pittsburgh in the Fall of 2014.

CATYA VON KÁROLYI
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN AT EAU CLAIRE

Catya von Károlyi received her self-designed B.P.S. in Educational Psychology from Granite State College and her Ph.D. in Psychology with a Developmental Focus from Boston College. She currently holds the title of Professor of Educational Psychology and Human Development at the University of Wisconsin, Eau Claire. There she serves as the chair of a number of committees, including the Department Personnel Committee and the ad hoc Online Advisor Committee. In
2006, she conceived of, and began the process of developing the Psychology Department’s online advisor website. She is interested in atypical development and has researched giftedness, visual spatial abilities associated with dyslexia, children's issue awareness, and the relationship between mental rotation abilities and performance in the STEM domains. She regularly collaborates with, and guides undergraduate student researchers. With Dr. Jeffrey A. Goodman, she has provided workshops and trainings to faculty, staff, and students on bias and effective bias-reduction techniques. She is a past president and board member of the Hollingworth Center for Highly Gifted Children, as well as the former associate editor of and contributor to their publication *Highly Gifted Children*. She currently serves on the Metrolina Regional Scholars’ Academy Advisory Board. She was a board member of the National Association for Gifted Children’s Global Awareness Division and editor of their publication: *Global Visions*, as well as serving on the editorial board of the Journal of Learning Disabilities. She has written numerous of articles and book chapters about giftedness, talent, and spatial abilities and was a guest editor of a Special Issue on Global Awareness for the Roeper Review: *A Journal on Gifted Education*.

**KIM KLEINMAN**
**WEBSTER UNIVERSITY**

Kim Kleinman is Assistant Director for Undergraduate Advising at Webster University. In that capacity, he has supported and promoted faculty advising both as a resource himself and as coordinator of a summer program where incoming students are welcomed to the University and its academic programs by faculty advisors. He has also been centrally involved in the development and implementation of Webster University’s Global Citizenship Program, which has reformed general education at the institution. With coauthor Heather Mitchell, he has presented on advising and metacognition at Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) and National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) conferences. He holds a Ph.D. in the History of Science from the Union Institute, working with Garland Allen of Washington University and Joseph Ewan of the Missouri Botanical Garden. He has taught courses for Webster University’s Philosophy, History, Biology, and Business Departments as well as in its General Studies and First Year Seminar Programs. Kleinman has published journal articles and book reviews, primarily on 20th Century Evolutionary Theory in the *Journal of the History of Biology, Archives of Natural History, Chance, Endeavour, and The Mendel Newsletter*. 
REBECCA J. LAMERS
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN – EAU CLAIRE

Rebecca J. Lamers is a student researcher and recent graduate from the University of Wisconsin- Eau Claire. Rebecca graduated with a bachelor’s degree in psychology and a minor in human wellness. Throughout her time at UW-Eau Claire, Rebecca was involved in student-professor collaborative research under the supervision of Dr. Blaine F. Peden, as well as participated as his teacher’s assistant for a research methods course. Rebecca has plans to further her education and attend graduate school at Loyola University Chicago, for training in School Psychology, fall semester of 2014.

PAMELYN M. MACDONALD
EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

Pam MacDonald is a Professor in the Psychology Department at Emporia State University. She served as the department advisor for four years. She teaches Lifespan Developmental Psychology, Social Psychology, Learning, Cognition, Advanced General Psychology, Psychology of Gender, Learning in Adulthood and Seminar in Human Growth and Development. She earned her Ph.D. in Developmental Psychology from the University of Houston and previously taught at Washburn University before joining Emporia State. Dr. MacDonald’s research interests are varied but center around at-risk youth and program evaluation. Dr. MacDonald has over 20 empirical publications and over 40 conference presentations. Of particular note is her research in the area of Equine Facilitated Therapy (EFT). She has conducted research reviewing EFT programs with at risk children, adolescents and veterans with Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder. Dr. MacDonald also currently serves as the Chair of the University’s Institutional Review Board.

B. JEAN MANDERNACH
GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY

B. Jean Mandernach is Research Professor and Director of the Center for Innovation in Research and Teaching at Grand Canyon University. Her research focuses on enhancing student learning through assessment and innovative online instructional strategies. In addition, she has interests in examining the perception of online degrees, the quality of online course offerings and the development of effective faculty evaluation models. Jean received her B.S. in comprehensive psychology from the University of Nebraska at Kearney, an
M.S. in experimental psychology from Western Illinois University and Ph.D. in social psychology from the University of Nebraska at Lincoln. Jean may be reached at jean.mandernach@gcu.edu.

ROBIN MELTON
TEXAS CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY

Robin Melton received her BA in English and MS in Personnel/Human Resource Management from the University of Texas at Arlington. She worked for many years at Student Outreach and Academic Retention (SOAR) at the University of Texas, Arlington as a tutor, learning specialist, assistant director and director. She implemented both a College Reading and Learning Association (CRLA) tutor certification program and a Supplemental Instruction (SI) program. In 2010 she began work as Director of the Ronald E. McNair Post Baccalaureate Achievement Program at Texas Christian University, which provides lesser income, first-generation and underrepresented students with GRE preparation, research with a faculty mentor, and graduate school search. Ms. Melton has been Co-Chair of the College Reading and Learning Association (CRLA) Tutor Certification Program, President of Texas Association of Developmental Education (TADE) and President of UTA’s TRIO Association. Currently, she belongs to the Texas Association of Student Support Services Programs (TASSSP) and the Southwest Area Association of Student Support Services Programs (SWASSAP). Robin received an Outstanding Employee Award in 2000 and a Certified Access Specialist Program (CASP) Lifetime Achievement Award in 2005. Robin is herself a first-generation college student.

RICHARD L. MILLER
TEXAS A&M UNIVERSITY-KINGSVILLE

Rick Miller received his B. S. from Weber State College and his M. A. and Ph. D. in social psychology from Northwestern University. He has taught at Georgetown University and the University of Cologne. He served as Director of the Community Learning Centre at the Colegio Internacional de Baleares in Spain, and for many years was the Director of applied behavioral science research projects for the Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO) in Heidelberg, Germany. From 1990-2010, he served as chair of the Psychology Department at the University of Nebraska at Kearney. In the Fall of 2014, he became the chair of the Department of Psychology and Sociology at Texas A&M University-Kingsville. Dr. Miller is the special topics editor for the Journal of Psychological Inquiry and the editor-in-chief of the e-book series published by the Society for the Teaching of Psychology (STP). He also serves STP as Director of Departmental Consulting Services. He is a
Fellow of the American Psychological Association (APA) and the Association for Psychological Science (APS). Currently, he serves as a regional coordinator for the society for STP (APA Division 2). He has been a member of the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association Executive Board since 1993, serving as archivist/historian. He was elected RMPA President in 2000, and received the RMPA Distinguished Service Award in 2003. Dr. Miller is the recipient of several awards for teaching excellence including the CASE US Professor of the Year Award in 2009, the Robert Daniel Award for Teaching Excellence from STP, and APA’s Charles Brewer Distinguished Teaching Award in 2012.

HEATHER MITCHELL
WEBSTER UNIVERSITY

Heather Mitchell is professor of psychology at Webster University in St. Louis, MO. Heather received her B.S. from Lambuth University and her M.S. and Ph.D. in cognitive psychology from the University of Memphis. Heather taught at the University of Memphis and Lebanon Valley College before joining the faculty of Webster University. Heather has served as the faculty director of the Daniel Fox Youth Scholars Institute at Lebanon Valley College and as a Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) faculty fellow at Webster University. Beginning in the Fall of 2014, Heather will become the chair of the Department of Psychology at Webster University. Dr. Mitchell’s research interests include academic disabilities, SOTL, and academic advising; and she has numerous publications in these areas. Dr. Mitchell has received several faculty research grants (with Gloria Grenwald) from Webster University to investigate the experiences of college students who have ADD or ADHD. She is a member of the Society for the Teaching of Psychology and received the Society for the Teaching of Psychology SoTL award (2012). Dr. Mitchell is also a member of the Society for Text and Discourse where she serves as a reviewer and received the 2006 Jason Albrecht Outstanding Young Scientist Award.

KRISTEN N. MORGAN
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN – EAU CLAIRE

Kristen N. Morgan is a researcher and recent graduate from University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire. May of last year she completed a bachelor degree in the field of Psychology and has continued research under the supervision of Dr. Blaine F. Peden. During her enrollment she participated in several research opportunities with Dr. Blaine F. Peden and Dr. Roberta Goodman. Research topics that she has conducted include College Advising, Suicide Counseling and Help, and Heterosexual Attraction.
CHRISTINE M. NOWIK  
HACC, CENTRAL PENNSYLVANIA’S COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Christine M. Nowik is the Dean of Student and Academic Success at HACC, Central Pennsylvania’s Community College. She received her M.A. from Rhode Island College. Prior to joining HACC, Ms. Nowik served as the Assistant Dean of Student Success & Retention at Cedar Crest College, where she oversaw academic advising for first-year and transfer students and was awarded the Outstanding First-Year Advocate Award from the National Resource Center for The First-Year Experience and Students in Transition. Ms. Nowik has presented nationally on advising and student success and recently co-authored an article on the perceptions of students with disabilities by faculty for the Journal of Postsecondary Education and Disability. Ms. Nowik has served as an adjunct faculty member in Writing for fifteen years.

BLAINE F. PEDEN  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-EAU CLAIRE

Blaine F. Peden is a professor in the Department of Psychology at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire. He completed a baccalaureate degree at Fresno State College and a doctoral degree at Indiana University. He has taught research methods since 1975 and currently teaches other courses such as Sensation and Perception and Ethics in Psychology. He performs collaborative research with undergraduates presented at professional conferences. Early interests and publications included topics in animal learning and behavior such as autoshaping, learned performance in open and closed economies, and foraging. Recent interests and publications include teaching and learning about research methods, critical thinking, group matching, virtual research ethics, web experiments, online courses, scientific writing, teaching with technology, and the scholarship of teaching and learning.

JACKIE J. PEILA-SHUSTER  
COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY

Jackie J. Peila-Shuster is an Assistant Professor in the Counseling and Career Development graduate program at Colorado State University in Fort Collins, Colorado. She teaches courses in career development, supervises counseling internship and practicum, and serves as the internship coordinator. Jackie also has a Master’s degree specializing in Counseling and Career Development, and a B.S. in Occupational Therapy. Her areas of interest include career counseling and development across the lifespan, counselor
education, retirement, and strengths-based approaches to career and life planning. Jackie’s publications include contributions to A Counselor’s Guide to Career Assessment Instruments, 5th & 6th editions; Career Counseling: Foundations, Perspectives, and Applications, 2nd ed.; Career Planning and Adult Development Journal (Summer 2012); and Explorations in Diversity, 2nd ed. She has served as guest editor and co-editor for various special issues of the Career Planning and Adult Development Journal and has also served on the board of the Colorado Career Development Association as the Newsletter Editor (2012-2013).

ELENI PINNOW
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-SUPERIOR

Eleni Pinnow joined the University of Wisconsin-Superior as an Assistant Professor in 2009. She teaches a variety of classes ranging from Introduction to Psychology to the Senior Research Capstone. In addition to these course classes, Dr. Pinnow teaches the biologically based Psychology classes and several Cognitive and Behavioral courses. In addition, she is the advisor to the Psychology clubs on campus. She received her Ph.D. in Cognitive Psychology from the Binghamton University. Dr. Pinnow’s research interests include the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning and issues surrounding spoken word recognition. Dr. Pinnow has received awards for Excellence in Teaching (2009), Outstanding Academic Advisor (2013) and Excellence in Academic Service-Learning (2012).

DARCEY N. POWELL
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY

Darcey Powell received her doctorate from the Psychology Department at West Virginia University with an emphasis on Life-Span Developmental Psychology. During her graduate training she served as a supervised instructor for Introductory Psychology and Developmental Psychology courses. She also served as an academic advisor to students majoring in Psychology, meeting with approximately 300 students each semester. She will be joining the Psychology Department at Roanoke College for the 2014-2015 academic year. Darcey’s research interests include individuals’ expectations and experiences related to parenting, as well as families’ adjustment and adaptation to the addition of a new baby into their family unit. She also has a secondary line of research comparing instructors’ subjective perceptions of their teaching to independent evaluations of their teaching. During her graduate training, Darcey earned a Certificate in University Teaching and a Departmental Specialization in College Teaching. She was also the recipient of departmental and college-level teaching awards,
as well as the recipient of a university-wide advising excellence award for graduate student advisors.

MIKELENE RAY
ALVERNO COLLEGE

Mikelene Ray is an Assistant Professor of the Psychology Department at Alverno College. She teaches Statistics and Probability, Research Methods, and Physiological Psychology at both the undergraduate and graduate level. She received her M.S. and Ph.D. in Experimental Psychology with a focus in Neuroscience from Virginia Commonwealth University. Dr. Ray’s research interests include understanding how individuals learn and use statistics, the physiological processes involved in traumatic brain injury and Parkinson’s disease, and developing community programs to help family caregivers of individuals diagnosed with Alzheimer’s disease. She is a member of the Society for the Teaching of Psychology (APA Division 2) and a reviewer for the STP program at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association, as well as for the Annual Scientific Meeting of The Gerontological Society of America. She also serves on the Public Policy Committee of the Southeastern Wisconsin Chapter of the Alzheimer’s Association. Dr. Ray has published on the behavioral and physiological effects of traumatic brain injury and dopamine receptor expression in the striatonigral neuron. Recently, she has presented on cognitive statistics, teaching techniques to help students write as behavioral scientists and designing activities to help students develop their professionalism in the field of psychology.

KATIE L. REMINGTON
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-EAU CLAIRE

Katie L. Remington is currently an undergraduate student at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire, where she majors in Psychology and minors in Japanese. Originally from Eau Claire, she is ready to move to the next part of her life and warmer weather. She will be graduating with honors as a Summa Cum Laude in May 2014. Current research interests include attraction, advising, history, and religion. After graduation, she hopes to take a leave of absence from school and teach English in Japan. In the future, Katie plans to attend graduate school and pursue a career in Youth Counseling. When not preoccupied, she can be found spending time with her friends or pets, reading, writing, traveling, or watching movies.
Chuck Robertson received his Ph.D in Experimental Psychology from the Georgia Institute of Technology where he specialized in Cognitive Aging and minored in Statistics. He is currently a Professor of Psychology in the Department of Psychological Science at the University of North Georgia. Additionally, he often teaches online courses in the Gerontology program. Dr. Robertson’s research interests are in the areas of Memory and Cognition, as well as, the Science of Teaching and Learning.

Ashley Shipman grew up in a military family and travelled all over the world, attending many schools and universities, before settling in at the University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire. She is a Psychology major and Criminal Justice minor and after nearly seven years in college is hoping to graduate in spring 2014. After graduation she hopes to join the ranks of her military family and join the Air Force. Deviating from her Psychology degree, she is hoping to enter the Air Force as a cardiopulmonary specialist. While a little intimidating, Ashley prefers to look at this as a great adventure! This is the first chapter Ashley has co-authored and is very excited to see the work her and her co-authors have done is paying off in a positive way. She would like to thank her professor and mentor, Dr. Blaine Peden for this opportunity, and her friends and co-authors, Becca Lamers, Robyn Wallin, Kristen Morgan, and Katie Remington for joining her in this endeavor.

Paul Smith has an M.S. from the Learning Sciences program in Ed. Psychology at the University of Wisconsin at Madison, as well as an M.A. in Philosophy and a Ph.D. in Educational Psychology (Urban Educ.) from the University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee. He has taught psychology at Alverno College since 1987. He served as the Psychology Department Chair from 2002 to 2007, and currently serves as the Chair of the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects. He is a member of the Society for the Teaching of Psychology (APA Division 2) and a reviewer for the STP program at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association, as well as for the Psi Chi Journal of Psychological Research. He serves on the Advisory Council for the
Wisconsin Space Grant Consortium. Dr. Smith has published on a variety of issues in teaching, learning and assessment in psychology, research methods, language study, and technology. His recent work includes *Foreign language learning: A different form of diversity*, *Teaching and assessing analytical thinking in psychology*, *Critical thinking activities for the teaching of psychology*, and *Teaching critical thinking about difficult topics* as well as presentations asking *Is SoTL a pseudoscience?* and *Can searching for evidence undermine critical thinking?* (both with Kris Vasquez). His current research interests center on how members of the public understand the relationship between evidence and belief.

ROBYN S. WALLIN
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-EAU CLAIRE

Robyn S. Wallinis is a student researcher and senior at the University of Wisconsin — Eau Claire. Robyn will graduate with a bachelor’s degree in psychology and a minor in creative writing after this spring, 2014. Throughout her time at UW-Eau Claire, Robyn has been involved in student-professor collaborative research under the supervision of Dr. Blaine F. Peden, as well as was as a student academic assistant for his research methods course. For the past four years, Robyn has been involved with AmeriCorps ECLIPSE, a literacy-based program for Head Start, preschool-aged children. Starting in the fall semester of 2014, Robyn has plans to further her education and attend graduate school at the University of Wisconsin – Milwaukee for training in Social Work.

JEANNETTA G. WILLIAMS
ST. EDWARD’S UNIVERSITY, AUSTIN

Jeannetta Williams is an Associate Professor of Psychology at St. Edward’s University. She completed her B.A. in Psychology at The University of Rochester, and received her M.A. and Ph.D. in Educational Psychology from The University of Texas at Austin. Since joining the St. Edward’s University faculty in 2005, Dr. Williams has taught an array of psychology courses, including *Theories of Personality*, *Social Psychology*, *Research Methods*, *Self and Identity*, and *Research and Field Experience*. In addition, she teaches *Capstone* and a diversity course in the University’s general education program. Her research interests focus on self-compassion, academic achievement and motivation, and stereotyping and discrimination. Dr. Williams has received a distinguished teaching award, a faculty research award, and an academic advising award at St. Edward’s.
Dr. Williams has been actively involved in faculty development initiatives on academic advising on her home campus and in professional organizations. Jeannetta was a former chair of the Early Career Scholars Committee for the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues and is actively involved in the Society for the Teaching of Psychology. In addition, she is currently a St. Edward’s University faculty representative for the New American Colleges and Universities Consortium.

WILLIAM J. WOZNIAK
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT KEARNEY

Dr. Bill Wozniak graduated from the University of Notre Dame in 1973 and received his M.A. and Ph.D. from Miami University (Ohio) in 1983. Since 1978, he has been and continues to be employed by the University of Nebraska at Kearney, where he is currently Professor of Psychology. He has served as Chair of the Psychology Department, faculty member of the Computer Science and Information Systems Department, Director of General Studies, and twice as Faculty Senate President. He teaches General Psychology; Death, Society, and Human Experience; Experimental Psychology; Sensation and Perception; Environmental Psychology; and Memory and Cognition. Dr. Wozniak’s research interests are largely determined by his students, but he has a special affinity for Embodied Cognition, Teaching Issues, Irrational Thinking, Pseudoscience, and Highway Safety. (No kidding). Dr. Wozniak has served as President of the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association in 2008. He is currently President of the University of Nebraska at Kearney Education Association.