Feedback

Feedback regarding the editorial content of this book or any of its essays should be directed toward the individual authors or the book's editors. They (authors and editors) are solely responsible for the substance of the text. Feedback regarding technical matters of formatting or accessibility of this text via the online environment of the Internet should be directed to the **Internet Editor**. If you have any complaints or difficulties in accessing these materials, be sure to provide as detailed a description of your problem(s) as you can; you should include information about the browser you are using and the type of computer you are using.

Copyright and Other Legal Notices

Suggested Reference Format

We suggest that the overall text be referenced in this fashion:
Holmes, K. Y., Duncan, E. A. W., & Zinn T. E. (2014). *Diverse perspectives in college teaching*. Retrieved from the Society for the Teaching of Psychology web site: **http://teachpsych.org/page-1862899**

Individual chapters may be referenced in this fashion:
Arroyo, A. T. (2014). White professors at HBCUs: On becoming equal contributors for black student success. In K. Y. Holmes, E. A. W. Duncan, & T. E. Zinn (Eds.) *Diverse Perspectives in College Teaching*. Retrieved from the Society for the Teaching of Psychology web site: **http://teachpsych.org/page-1862899**

Table of Contents

Introduction

Today, institutions of higher education face many pressing concerns—reduced state appropriations, declining enrollment, and concerns about retention and graduation rates; and these issues often impact Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) more significantly. Most historically Black institutions are small, have a relatively higher percentage of disadvantaged students, and lack resources. At these institutions, limitations in the use of technology, academic resources and research opportunities are challenges that both students and instructors face**.** In addition, social challenges, such as limited social, financial and familial support as well as academic under preparedness often undermines student success.

Instructors at ethnic minority serving institutions, in particular HBCUs, also encounter many challenges not faced by instructors at majority institutions of higher learning. There is an increased understanding of the factors that affect the academic performance of minority students, more specifically, institutional and social challenges that often work in concert to undermine the academic progress of these students. This e-book is the result of an initial grant proposal submitted to the Association for Psychological Sciences (APS) to develop the Southeastern Virginia Conference for the Teaching of Psychology. This conference provided psychology faculty at minority serving institutions of higher learning a forum to share common challenges and successes, exchange new ideas, analyze strategies, debate critical issues, and increase knowledge of available resources. This e-book compiles a series of empirically based articles by faculty members from HBCUs who have firsthand experiences of the strengths and challenges that are characteristic of these institutional settings. The unique contributions to this text address both faculty and student issues that are relevant to the retention and success of both groups.

Neely and Brakke explore the transition from high-school to college as a pivotal experience in a young person's life. This chapter examines the move to college within the context of emerging adulthood, framing the challenges as positive opportunities to take ownership of one's own learning and development. Frequently the nurturing that exists at HBCUs provides the climate for transitioning students. The authors liken the experience to Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development, where learning occurs by introducing subsequent skills just ahead of the student's current developmental progress in terms of decision making, setting priorities, etc. while maintaining high standards of rigor.

In their chapter, *The First Generation College Student: Overcoming Barriers to Success,* Duncan, Robertson and Yates discuss the many issues that are common to students who are the first members of their family to attend an institution of higher learning. While the need for support in achieving success appears to be even more critical for Black first generation college students, the role of HBCUs has been of significance in providing access to the growing young minority population. Measures of educational outcomes suggest that HBCUs continue to have a critical role as they are effective in increasing the number of minority graduates based on their tradition of providing a nurturing environment.

Miller's *Overcoming Competing Responsibilities that Impact Academic Performance: Teaching Non-Traditional Students in a Traditional College Setting*, examines the growth trend of non-traditional students with almost 40% of all college students over the age of 25 in U.S. colleges and universities. These college students approach college with different attitudes, expectations, and capabilities along with competing priorities. Modeling the nurturing community of the HBCU along with acknowledgement of the learning style differences, aptitudes and attitudes of non-traditional students can assist advisors and professor to support their retention, attrition, and persistence to graduation.

Holmes, White and Cooley-Doles in their chapter, *Rethinking Teaching and Advising: Strategies for Integrating the Principles of Student-Centered Teaching into the Advising Process at a Historically Black University* underscore the importance of academic advising while acknowledging the changing dynamics of the advising relationship between faculty member and student. They provide a blueprint for successful advising from the perspective that effective academic advising has at its core teaching. The authors outline several innovative activities that support a learning centered approach to advising. These activities support the notion of the supportive environments provided by HBCU campuses.

In considering factors related to faulty at HBCUs, Trotter's chapter, *Why I Chose to Teach at an HBCU*, provides insight regarding the characteristics that make for successful faculty members at HBCUs. The author suggests that persons interested in teaching at an HBCU should understand the common historical mission of HBCUs, their institutional and student characteristics, and the perception of the HBCU environment.

Arroyo's *White Professors at HBCUs: On Becoming Equal Contributors for Black Student Success* discusses how White professors at historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs) can contribute positively to Black student success as *equal contributors* alongside their Black colleagues. In a very candid discussion, this a Gen-X (39 years old), White, male, tenure-track assistant professor proposes philosophical and practical suggestions to aid White professors at HBCUs alongside their Black colleagues as equal contributors for Black student success in the context of academia.

As a comprehensive text designed to provide approaches for faculty and student success, two authors offer strategies for enhancing student learning experiences and outcomes at HBCUs. Edmonds discusses the use of experiential learning as a methods for enhancing academic learning through the use of hands-on experiences. The author, an attorney with 27 years' experience in private practice, requires students to go to court to observe judicial proceedings. Students are charged with determining how the concepts learned in class are manifested in the courtroom. This experience indicates that exposure to the hands-on experience of observing the courtroom experience appeals to those learners who learn best kinesthetically. Edmonds contends that establishing a voice of care for the community and an orientation to contribute back to the community is especially essential to students in attendance at HBCUs. The goal is to inspire and equip students to begin a revitalization in their communities and to serve as leaders.

Fife argues that for HBCUs, the goal of internationalizing campuses should be a top priority, given that internationalizing can assist these institutions in expanding their global philosophies and can teaching students the importance of being globally competitive. As a professor of Psychology, he explores the notion of internationalizing psychology. The use of linkages and international scholars, collaborative faculty development programs, and study abroad opportunities, represents attempts to change the perceptions of the three groups at HBCUs that are most resistant to international education; administrators, faculty and students.

Inevitably the challenges facing students at HBCUs also affect the faculty members who teach them. Organizations such as Society for the Teaching of Psychology (STP) are in an excellent position to provide resources for faculty members who teach at these institutions; however a review of various higher education websites reveal few resources specifically targeting instructors who teach at HBCUs. Although this text will provide a comprehensive examination of the common challenges facing teaching faculty at these institutions, this resource will emphasize– where relevant– the unique challenges and experiences of faculty at Historically Black Colleges and Universities.

Chapter 1
# White Professors at HBCUs: On Becoming Equal Contributors for Black Student Success

ANDREW ARROYO
NORFOLK STATE UNIVERSITY

In this chapter, I discuss how White professors at historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs) can contribute positively to Black[1] student success as *equal contributors* alongside their Black colleagues.

When the editors invited me—a Gen-X (39 years old), White, male, tenure-track assistant professor—to contribute this chapter, I was excited but reluctant. What if I am misunderstood? What if readers accuse me of crying wolf, manufacturing racial tensions, or reifying stereotypical caricatures? How will this potentially politically charged subject impact my collegial relationships? My upcoming bid for tenure? Despite these questions, I signed on for the project because I know it is important. The literature is full of firsthand accounts from non-White faculty at majority schools, but only scant research exists on this topic. Moreover, with successful experiences teaching at two HBCUs and nearly two decades of working as a White male in predominantly Black contexts, I trust that I have something beneficial to say.

With that in mind, I offer three caveats to my dear readers. First, although I intend to avoid stereotypes that brand people unfairly, the nature of this subject and brevity of this chapter require the use of examples that may feel too general or too specific. Second, although I do not wish to cry wolf by manufacturing racial tensions where none exist, an open mind is necessary because sentiments or situations one person finds foreign or untenable might resonate with the next person. Finally, to readers who might argue that we are in a post-racial society and that discussions related to color are irrelevant, I would offer this true vignette: On the eve this chapter was due to the editors, while I was in my office wrapping up my final revisions, down the hall I heard a student enter the departmental suite and ask to see "the *White* professor."

With those caveats made clear, I again offer this chapter's purpose: to articulate a set of philosophical and practical suggestions that will aid White professors toward creating a positive niche as equal contributors for Black student success in the context of HBCUs alongside their Black colleagues. Given that White professors are accustomed to occupying a majority status in our personal lives, working at an HBCU where we are "temporary minorities" can produce a set of distinctive challenges that may hinder our effectiveness for fostering Black student success, perhaps without even knowing it. Needed is a strong, proactive effort to aid White professors "to respond actively and authentically" to the "clarion call" of working effectively in the HBCU

---

[1] Black and African American are used interchangeably throughout this chapter.

context (Foster, 2001, p. 627). By attending to the creation of a positive framework, I hope to ameliorate some challenges while opening new possibilities for enhanced professional productivity and personal satisfaction.

Setting the Foil: Four Negative Conceptualizations

If the purpose of this chapter is to create a positive framework, there must be a negative framework to counter. In fact, nearly 40 years ago, Warnat (1976) offered four prime negative examples of White HBCU professors: morons, martyrs, messiahs, and marginal men. Even decades after publication, his categories remain salient—if unfortunate—descriptors of how *some* White HBCU faculty view themselves and/or are viewed by others both personally and professionally. Foster (2001) argues that "it is instructive to review how the archetypes suggested by Warnat (1976)…give credence to the continuing social distance from and perceptions of" Whites and Blacks toward each other at HBCUs (p. 624). I introduce each briefly below as a foil for the positive character I envision for all White HBCU professors, myself included.

The first category is the *moron*. Warnat (1976) states that most Whites who are unaffiliated with an HBCU judge fellow Whites who teach at HBCUs in this fashion. The underlying assumption is that only incompetent White professors would take a position in a Black college. Even Warnat himself appears to contend that the moron classification might be justified in certain cases. He states that the Black college allows some White professors to hide their inadequacies by blaming any professional failings on the HBCU that employs them. If a professor is a poor teacher or researcher, for example, he or she could fault the typical lack of institutional resources (compared to the average White institution) rather than taking personal responsibility.

The next two categories represent the most and least preferred White faculty members among Black HBCU colleagues, according to this framework. *Martyrs* are zealous missionary types who believe they deserve some level of punishment for racial injustices that others have perpetrated against the Black community. Martyrs may hold a private belief that they deserve greater status in higher education than the HBCU affords, but their racial guilt blocks them from pursuing it. They tend to take on above average amounts of grunt work, and Warnat (1976) argues Black faculty members prefer to "contend" with this type of White colleague above all others, although there is not room in this chapter to speculate why. Opposite the martyr is the *messiah.* This group of White professors earns the contempt of Black faculty by exuding an air of superiority. They view Blacks as inferior and in need of paternalistic direction, and they see themselves as specially equipped to provide it. It is obvious why self-styled White messiahs would fail to attract the liking of their Black colleagues.

Finally, Warnat (1976) devotes the greatest attention to the *marginal man*. One cannot help but think of W.E.B. Dubois' famous description of Black double-consciousness when reading about this group, although Warnat does not make this specific connection in his text. These faculty persons are depicted in a state of perpetual conflict inasmuch as they are both members and aliens with respect to the HBCU community. Although their alien (i.e., non-Black) status bars them from ever assimilating fully into the HBCU, they attempt to mitigate the tension with

a form of psychological passing that Warnat explains as "attempts to identify with and be sensitive to" (p. 337) the surrounding culture. It appears the marginal man lives an existence of deferral so that he never experiences a deep sense of career (or even personal) satisfaction that comes with an integrated racial self-concept. At the same time, however, satisfaction is obtained by serving as a cultural bridge. He enjoys "being a minority faculty member who is not only surviving in an unfamiliar cultural climate, but who is also a contributing and productive member of that community, a frequently hostile environment" (p. 338).

Clearly these categories are non-starters for truly productive relationships between Black professors, Black students, and the White professors who work with them in our modern HBCUs. It should be no mystery why I reject them as an anathema for myself as a professional who is serious about his vocation. Even Warnat (1976) called for a more productive category, but he himself offered no new framework. I hope to nudge the discussion forward in that direction with the recommendations below.

Recommendations for White Professors as Equal Contributors

Four recommendations are most critical for how White HBCU professors can overcome Warnat's (1976) negative archetypes in order to become equal contributors: (a) understand and engage the HBCU on its own terms, (b) re-locate to the proper center, (c) embrace—and create—tension, and (d) avoid positive bias feedback. The first two are more philosophical or conceptual in nature, whereas the final two are more practical.

Understand and Engage the HBCU on Its Own Terms

To begin, White professors should understand and engage their HBCUs on the right terms rather than superimposing their own ideas of what HBCUs are or should be. HBCUs differ from PWIs (predominantly White institutions) both historically and functionally, resulting in a certain "distinctiveness [which] refers to the special set of values, features, and outcomes that make traditional HBCUs more effective than PWIs not just in educating Black students but in (trans)forming them" (Arroyo, 2010a, p. 3). Mere employment in an HBCU is no guarantee of deep understanding or effective commitment to this distinctiveness. Any White professor who fails to appreciate this point is more likely to remain an outsider than to become an equal contributor.

For a helpful framework for learning about HBCUs on the right terms, we can turn to Arroyo and Gasman's (in press) HBCU-based approach for Black college student success. Figure 1 depicts this model. Although faculty of every racial-ethnic demographic could benefit from studying and applying Figure 1 and the associated literature that grounds it, the model serves as a particularly useful primer for White faculty who have little to no prior understanding of HBCUs at all.

3
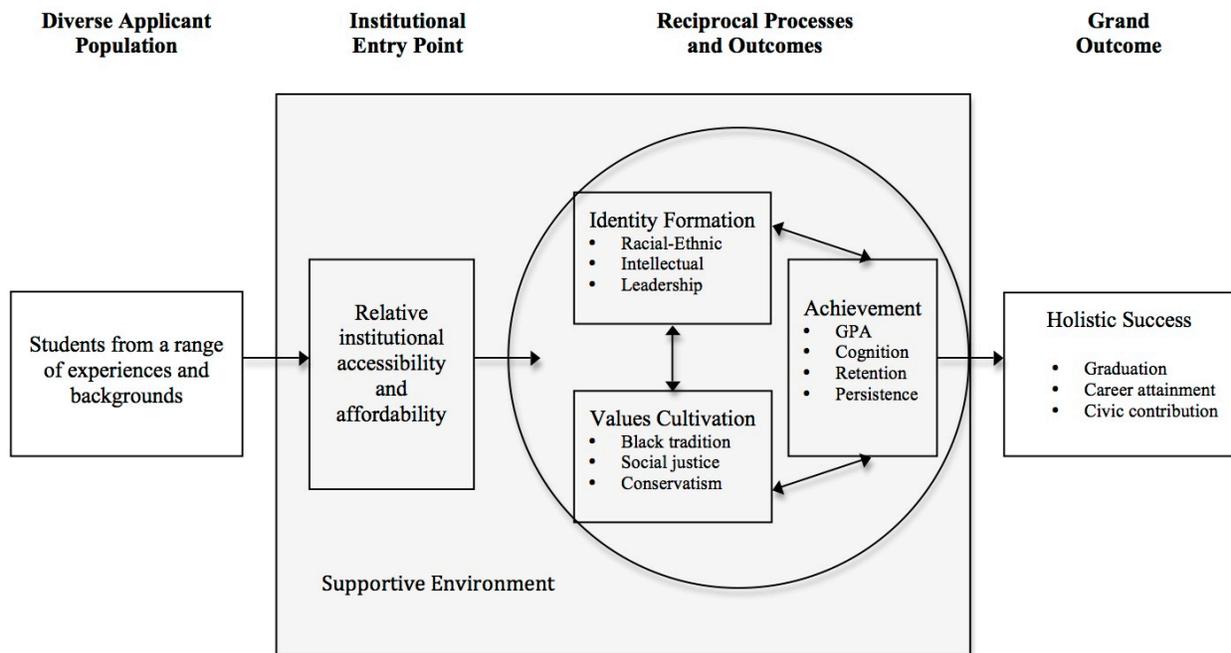
Figure 1. Framework of an HBCU-Based Educational Approach for Black Student Success

According to Figure 1, a diverse applicant demographic gains entrance into HBCUs through admissions policies that are economically and academically accessible *relative* to many mainstream PWIs (Clark, 2009; Kim, 2002). This does not mean all HBCUs are substandard; to the contrary, some are highly ranked. However, even the highly ranked HBCUs are accessible compared to the most highly ranked PWIs. White HBCU professors should expect a greater mixture of students in terms of qualifications and natural aptitude than they might find at comparably ranked majority or mainstream schools. They should also expect more students with real world extracurricular responsibilities and life complications compared to non-HBCUs (Ashley, Gasman, Mason, Sias, & Wright, 2009; Gasman & McMickens, 2010). Such is the nature of the HBCU student profile.

The specialness of HBCUs overall is that admitted students receive a holistic education that combines three foci under the influence of a *supportive environment* (Fleming, 1984): improved academic achievement, identity formation, and values cultivation. *Achievement* represents traditional cognitive measures associated with a higher education (Flowers, 2002); *identity* signifies areas of formation of self-concept related to race, intellect, and leadership (Jean-Marie, 2008; Palmer & Gasman, 2008; Perna et al., 2009); and *values* connects to the unique blend of conservatism and progressivism that defines the traditional African American ethic (Harper & Gasman, 2008; Snydor, Hawkins, & Edwards, 2010; see also Dogbe, 2006 and Yancy, 2011). Students enjoy this totalistic approach as a function of an organic culture where these processes and outcomes take place more naturally than programmatically, with the grand outcome being student success. On account of the elements that comprise Figure 1, scholars have expressed the potential of HBCUs to lead the way as exemplars for PWIs (Kim, 2011), community colleges (Hughes, 2012), and even other HBCUs (Walker, 2011) as they seek to educate students more effectively, especially Blacks.

As Figure 1 relates to faculty, it is difficult to imagine any HBCU delivering on its ideals apart from faculty engagement. To be fair, faculty engagement might be the greatest predictor of student success regardless of institutional type (Cokley, 2000, 2002; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996; Wood & Turner, 2011), and the classroom—i.e., a domain of faculty—might be the central venue where students will fail or succeed, irrespective of other support services the school may offer (Tinto, 2012). But HBCUs are *known* for the high engagement of faculty. They provide students with a supportive environment while facilitating their gains in achievement, formation of identity, and cultivation of values in holistic fashion in no small part because of extraordinary, if not heroic, efforts of their dedicated faculty (Arroyo & Gasman, in press; Arroyo, Palmer, Maramba, & Hays, 2014).

White professors are either working in sync with their Black colleagues toward this end, or they are failing in their role. Only those who care enough to understand and engage their HBCU on the grounds of Figure 1—what Foster (2001) calls the HBCU "ethos" (p. 626)—will emerge as equal contributors in the outcome of Black student success. Of course, this vision may not be without difficulty because it requires working outside the typical White psycho-social comfort zone. The average White professor may not know how to contribute to the formation of a Black student's racial identity or what it means to cultivate traditional African American values in the context of a higher education. Although going into detail concerning the nuances and complexities of these and other elements in Figure 1 is beyond the scope of a single book chapter, I suggest the place to begin is by re-locating ourselves to the proper center. This recommendation is discussed next.

Re-Locate to the Proper Center

Renowned Afrocentrist scholar Molefi Kete Asante (1993) once asked the question, "Where is the White professor located?" Asante's concern was not biological in nature, but rather psychological and cultural. If a White professor—or any professor—is willing to teach Black history (for example) from a place that is faithfully centered in an Afrocentrist milieu, then that professor has as much authority as any other. The challenge is in re-locating oneself to that rightly centered place.

For the White professor, this often requires a conscious movement away from a Eurocentric standpoint/approach and toward a non-Eurocentric one. The trouble with maintaining a Eurocentric standpoint/approach is that everything and everyone is objectified as a means-to-an-end in the European metanarrative. Rather than appreciating people and subjects of non-European descent ethically as ends-in-themselves with their own equally valid cultural traditions and norms, a Eurocentric location views them as being in need of correction and conformity to the "White way," whether consciously or subconsciously. However, when a professor engages in effective re-location, she is said to be centered properly and can then not only teach non-White students and subjects effectively, but also she can engage in the intangibles of identity formation and values cultivation that so define HBCU distinctiveness.

In my anecdotal experience among Whites, the greatest barrier to relocation is not an inability to make the shift. Theoretically, anyone should be able to re-locate. The greatest barriers are (a) ignorance that a shift is necessary because White people often claim not to see race

(Ropers-Huilman, Winters, & Enke, 2013), (b) a natural tendency of White instructors to be Eurocentric in their teaching (Higgins, Madden, & Korteweg, 2013; Picower, 2009; Shockley & Banks, 2011), and/or (c) a lack of knowledge about how to break free from their Eurocentricity even if they know it is there.

Indeed, re-location will not come naturally for the average Westernized White professor who is used to occupying a place carrying both explicit and latent societal dominance and privilege. Some White professors hardly see the real cultural differences that rest just beneath the surface in their interactions with students, differences that are of profound consequence for teaching and learning in accordance with Figure 1. Each White professor must unpack his own Eurocentric leanings, become a student of Black cultures and subcultures especially as they relate to the notion of oppression and liberation through education (e.g., Cone, 1970/1990; Dogbe, 2006; hooks, 1994; West, 2000; Woodson, 1933/2005), and develop his own philosophical and practical approach to achieving the proper center. Although an extended and involved process that perhaps none of us ever perfect, acknowledging that it *is* necessary is an important first step. Elsewhere I have written in greater depth on this subject, including offering practical suggestions for navigating it, particularly in the challenging context of the online distance education environment (see Arroyo, 2010b, 2013).

One final note is in order before moving to the next recommendation. In the process of dismantling Eurocentrism, the White professor must take great care to avoid becoming a self-loathing martyr (Warnat, 1976). There can be a fine line between re-locating to become a positive equal contributor and losing oneself along the way. White professors should not mask, malign, apologize for, or otherwise eschew the positive qualities of their Whiteness. (Note: I leave "Whiteness" purposefully vague here, but we can understand it to mean a way of knowing and being that is different than Afrocentric ideals. See Ropers-Huilman et al. [2013] for a fuller discussion on White identity.) Celebrating Blackness should not mean muting ourselves, for that would be oppression in reverse. We White professors *are* White, which translates into a different life experience in many cases. The equal contributor understands that real differences exist, and, due to that understanding, is thus free to embrace and celebrate Whiteness without fear of repeating White domination even in the process of embracing and celebrating Blackness. The two should not be viewed as mutually exclusive, but rather as different and complimentary representations of life. Thus, the charge is simple but complex: We White HBCU professors must re-locate ourselves to the proper non-Western center so we might make equally beneficial contributions to our students, while at the same time exploring and becoming more comfortable with what it means to be a socially and globally responsible White person in a diverse world today. We have an ongoing and equally valid role to play in the world as anyone else, but we now must understand what that is.

Embrace—and Create—Tension

Having started our re-location process (it is a lifelong journey with no definite end!), the practical work of Figure 1 can begin with confidence that we are moving in the right direction toward becoming equal contributors. This leads to the next recommendation: to use our classrooms as spaces for embracing and creating healthy tension. If we are worried that tension might lead to trouble, we should remind ourselves that engineers also use tension when

building bridges. Tension also is required for coaxing melodious sounds from stringed instruments. Learning to experiment with tension as White professors in predominantly Black classrooms carries far more reward and less risk than we might think. Most Black people I have encountered in my lifetime have been far more open, disarming, and forgiving in the context of honest dialogue than White people expect. A little courage and experience built from trial and error during our re-location are the only requirements.

In my experience, the most productive classroom connections I have made with my Black students have been the direct result of our willingness to embrace and create tension around the subject of race as we cover course material and veer off on the occasional opportune rabbit trail. I speak boldly and directly to my students on the first day of class about my high expectations for them *as Black people* who hold enormous potential but still face challenging odds. I tell them how fortunate they are to be another generation in the chain of the HBCU tradition. I explain that they are a vital culture with much to offer America at-large, especially with respect to determination and hope through even the darkest valleys and shadows. I remind them that traditional African American values of *community* (it is rare to see a White person wearing a family reunion t-shirt or referring to a close friend as a cousin) and *justice* (few Whites are naturally as in touch with social injustices as are the majority of Blacks) are precisely what America needs them to showcase brighter than ever during our present age.

At the same time, I speak with sometimes startling directness about ailments in the Black community. We know what some of these are: absentee fathers, Black-on-Black crime, high prevalence of HIV/AIDS, and high dropout rates to name a handful. There are times my words create tension because no one expects it to come from the mouth of such an innocuous looking White guy. I do this not to reinforce a deficit worldview toward African Americans so my students feel badly about themselves, but to display the contrasting life choices that lie so starkly before them.

Then, with the stage set, I am relentless throughout the semester to repeat the initial positive challenge of uplift both through the course content and my own sidebars. I teach upper-level philosophy and research methods courses, and over the years I have found many ways to use these courses in support of the ideals that embody HBCU distinctiveness and Figure 1. Any attentive professor who is teaching from a centered position should be able to find connections to her own course content also, whether she teaches political science, mathematics, psychology, or chemistry. The goal is the same as with physical exercise: Create tension so growth occurs. Part of the growth I am responsible to deliver is racial uplift and a measure of values education that students would not get at a PWI, and it is up to me as an equal contributor to make my classroom a construction zone for that work to unfold. Creating opportunities for critical conversations to unfold that allow us to discuss troubles in the Black community as well as solutions that the Black community has to fix both itself and its oppressors (Freire, 1993) allows this racial uplift and values education to take place.

Another way it takes place is through humor. I consider humor a vital tool for those experimenting with tension. Although all of this is serious business for sure, the greatest impacts are possible when no one is taking their "self" too seriously. Professional comedians

capitalize on this truth; few issues are out of bounds when good humor is involved. Whether direct and obvious, dry and sarcastic, witty and smart, or a combination, a comedic turn allows us to push the boundaries of tension. For example, I often tell students that I am not the fabled "Man"—only in the next sentence to mumble with dry comedic timing, "or maybe I am." Then, once they are laughing, I will say in the next breath, "But seriously, if you find him, let me know. Someone has been sticking it to me for the longest time too, and I'd like to join up with you and return the favor." Whether the hilarity of this exchange conveys through this printed page I strongly doubt, but I can attest to what it does in the classroom: It acknowledges tacitly the generations-old power structures that exist between Whites and Blacks, it tells students that I already know how some of them feel about me stereotypically (a fact that is proved through their honest laughter!), and it places us on equal footing by showing me as a real person who is capable of exposing a truth and who himself feels, at times, like he receives the raw end of a deal. Space does not allow me to share every instance of humor that takes place during a semester, but they are frequent and never without the intent of creating and embracing a level of tension that is growth-producing in us all.

As a bonus, exchanges like these also break the monotony of otherwise dry course material. Learning takes place because students are awake. They enjoy coming to class because they never know what their professor might say next. I love my students (can an academic admit that?), and the relationships we develop over the course of our semesters together show that these are not superficial gimmicks. They are techniques for connecting on a level even deeper than race-ethnicity: the human level.

Avoid Positive Bias Feedback

The final recommendation for White HBCU professors might be the most challenging to admit as an issue, but it impacts the academic success of our Black students most directly and cannot be ignored. In order to be equal contributors, we White professors must do away with what is known as positive bias feedback in our scoring of student work.

Despite the evidence of history that Blacks and Whites are cognitive equals, American society has perpetuated the myth of Blacks as inferior. This belief can influence even the most well intentioned White professor, to the point where those who strongly desire to see full equality for Blacks might give unduly positive feedback on substandard work. Data suggests this is not a manufactured problem. Studies have found that White instructors may in fact tend to exhibit positive bias feedback when grading Black students' work compared to how they approach the assignments of White students (Harber, 1998, 2004; Harber, Stafford, & Kennedy, 2010; Harber et al., 2012). It is suggested that White instructors may feel the need to appear egalitarian in the face of explicit or implicit charges of academic prejudice against Blacks, thereby giving better feedback in order to make themselves feel better (Harber et al., 2010).

To integrate these findings with Warnat's (1976) terminology, such professors are the worst combination martyr-messiah; they confuse their valid job as instructors who, sometimes, must point out flaws in Black students and/or their work with invalid White domination, and/or they feel somehow superior to their Black students such that they feel it is their right or duty to bestow grace where none is warranted because Black students are incapable of rising to a

challenge. Positive bias feedback harms Black students who receive it because they move forward with an unrealistic impression about the quality of their work. Thus, their education and potential for true achievement through making the necessary improvements suffers. The lesson is simple if uncomfortable: For White HBCU professors to be equal contributors, we must take extra care to give feedback that is appropriate to work quality—whether high, average, or substandard—without regard to skin color. To grade differently is racist.

Candidly, I wrestled with something similar to this phenomenon long before becoming an HBCU professor. In my former professional context, which happened to be primarily African American, I found myself feeling impressed when Black subordinates met certain standards that I expected automatically of Whites. Admitting this publicly here may seem like academic and social suicide, but it is necessary. Fortunately I worked my way through this flawed philosophy before entering university life, but that is not to say I am immune. On a regular basis I must check myself to make sure I am upholding a single standard. When I do feel impressed by a student's work, two introspective questions serve as a check and balance to help me avoid positive bias feedback. If I had turned in identical work to my own undergraduate professors for the same level and type of course, what would have been their response? Secondly, if one of my White students had turned in identical work for the same type and level of course, would I be as impressed? If I cannot satisfy these questions, then I must attribute the fact that I am impressed to a subtle racism of sorts.

Finally, it is important that I punctuate this recommendation with a definitive statement that connects feedback to the purpose of HBCUs to engender Black student success (along with all non-Black students who enroll). Avoiding positive bias feedback does not mean withholding *constructive* feedback. As an equal contributor in alignment with Figure 1, my task is to facilitate the uplift of my students. All feedback should be laden with hope and a way forward to a better product. Bias hinders student progress to be sure, but so does hyper-critical feedback that is dispensed outside the bounds of dedicated nurture and support. In other words, even when work is very poor, I can dispense critical comments without being "mean."

Conclusion

This chapter has focused on recommendations for how White HBCU professors can become equal contributors for Black student success alongside their Black colleagues. The very term *equal contributor* is loaded in that it presupposes the presence of *unequal contributors* and intimates the notion that a measure of *inequality* might exist among faculty members with ostensibly the same goal. Although I am a firm believer that we sometimes make too much of race to the point where we do manufacture problems, learning how to manage the interface between White professors and their chosen HBCUs is a valuable pursuit because it is an interface that may not produce success automatically. And lest we forget: At the heart of this topic is not actually race, but professional and personal fulfillment for the White professor so we might facilitate ably the accomplishment of our students. As an educator, there can be no greater prize than the success of a pupil.

References

Arroyo, A.T. (2010a). Toward a theory of historically Black college and university (HBCU) distinctiveness: A case study of Norfolk State University (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest. (3420451)

Arroyo, A.T. (2010b). It's not a colorless classroom: Teaching religion online to Black college students using transformative, postmodern pedagogy. *Teaching Theology & Religion*, *13*, 35-50.

Arroyo, A.T. (2013). Diversity in online education. *American Academy of Religion, Spotlight on Teaching*, Retrieved from http://www.rsnonline.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1514&Itemid=1675

Arroyo, A.T., & Gasman, M. (in press). An HBCU-based educational approach for Black college student success: Toward a framework with implications for all institutions. *American Journal of Education*.

Arroyo, A.T., Palmer, R.T., Maramba, D.C., & Hays, D.G. (2014, April). Is it a different world? Toward a conceptual model of the experiences and perceptions of non-Black graduates from three historically Black colleges and universities. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Asante, M.K. (1993, September). Where is the White professor located? *Perspectives Online*, *31*(6). Retrieved from http://www.historians.org/perspectives/issues/1993/9309/index.cfm

Ashley, D., Gasman, M., Mason, R., Sias, M., & Wright, G. (2009). *Making the grade: Improving degree attainment at historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs).* Retrieved from http://www.thurgoodmarshallfund.net/v1/images/pdf/whitepaper09.pdf

Clark, K. (2009, February 9). Why black colleges might be the best bargains. *U. S. News and World Report*. Retrieved from http://www.usnews.com/education/articles/2009/02/09/why-black-colleges-might-be-the-best-bargains

Cokley, K. (2000). An investigation of academic self-concept and its relationship to academic achievement in African American college students. *Journal of Black Psychology, 26*, 148-164. doi: 10.1177/0095798400026002002

Cokley, K. (2002). The impact of college racial composition on African American students' academic self-concept: A replication and extension. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *71*, 288-296.

Cone, J. (1990). *A Black theology of liberation.* Maryknoll, NY: Orbis Books. (Original work published 1970)

Dogbe, K. (2006). Social forces in developing Africanist and non-Africanist social science paradigms. In G.T. Emeagwali (Ed.), *Africa and the academy: Challenging hegemonic discourses on Africa* (pp. 115-148). Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press.

Fleming, J. (1984). Blacks in college: A comparative study of students' success in Black and in White institutions. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Flowers, L. A. (2002). The impact of college racial composition on African American students' academic and social gains: Additional evidence. *Journal of College Student Development, 43*, 403-410.

Foster, L. (2001). The not-so-invisible professors. *Urban Education*, *36*(5), 611-629.

Freire, P. (1993). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (M. B. Ramos, Trans.). New York, NY: Continuum. (Original work published 1970).

Gasman, M., & McMickens, T. L. (2010). Liberal or professional education?: The missions of public Black colleges and universities and their impact on the future of African Americans. *Souls: A Critical Journal of Black Politics, Culture, and Society*, *12*, 286-305. doi: 10.1080/10999949.2010.499800

Harber, K.D. (1998). Feedback to minorities: Evidence of a positive bias. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*, 622-628. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.74.3.622

Harber, K.D. (2004). The positive feedback bias as a response to out-group unfriendliness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *34*, 2272-2297. doi: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.2004.tb01977.x

Harber, K.D., Stafford, R., & Kennedy, K.A. (2010). The positive feedback bias as a response to self-image threat. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *49*, 207-218.

Harber, K.D., Gorman, J.L., Gengaro, F.P., Butisingh, S., Tsang, W., & Ouellette, R. (2012). Students' race and teachers' social support affect the positive feedback bias in public schools. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1037/a0028110

Harper, S. R., & Gasman, M. (2008). Consequences of conservatism: Black male undergraduates and the politics of historically Black colleges and universities. *The Journal of Negro Education, 77*, 336-351.

Higgins, M., Madden, B., & Korteweg, L. (2013). Witnessing (halted) deconstruction: White teachers' 'perfect stranger' position within urban indigenous education. *Race Ethnicity and Education.* doi: 10.1080/13613324.2012.759932

Hooks, B. (1994). *Teaching to transgress.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Hughes, B. (2012). Complementarity between the transfer goals of community colleges and historically Black colleges and universities: Learning from history. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, *36*, 81-92. doi: 10.1080/10668920802466525

Jean-Marie, G. (2008). Social justice, visionary, and career project: The discourses of Black women leaders at Black colleges. In M. Gasman, & C. L. Tudico (Eds.), *Historically Black colleges and universities: Triumphs, troubles, and taboos* (pp. 53-74). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Jett, C. C. (2011). HBCUs propel African American male mathematics majors. *Journal of African American Studies*. Advance online publication. 1-17. doi: 10.1007/s12111-011-9194-x

Kim, M. M. (2002). Historically Black vs. White institutions: Academic development among Black students. *The Review of Higher Education, 25*, 385-407. doi: 10.1353/rhe.2002.0019

Kim, M. M. (2011). Early career earnings of African American students: The impact of attendance at historically Black versus White colleges and universities. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *80*, 505-520.

Palmer, R. T, & Gasman, M. (2008). "It takes a village to raise a child": The role of social capital in promoting academic success for African American men at a Black college. *Journal of College Student Development, 49*, 52-70. doi: 10.1353/csd.2008.0002

Perna, L., Lundy-Wagner, V., Drezner, N. D., Gasman, M., Yoon, S., Bose, E., & Gary, S. (2009). The contribution of HBCUs to the preparation of African American women for stem careers: A case study. *Research in Higher Education, 50*, 1-23. doi: 10.1007/s11162-008-9110-y

Picower, B. (2009). The unexamined Whiteness of teaching: How White teachers maintain and enact dominant racial ideologies. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *12*(2), 197-215.

Ropers-Huilman, R., Winters, K.T., & Enke, K.A.E. (2013). Discourses of Whiteness: White students at Catholic women's colleges (dis)engaging race. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *84*, 28-55.

Shockley, G., & Banks, J. (2011). Perceptions of teacher transformation on issues of racial and cultural bias. *Journal of Transformative Education*, *9*(4), 222-241.

Snydor, K. D., Hawkins, A. S., & Edwards, L. V. (2010). Expanding research opportunities: Making the argument for the fit between HBCUs and community-based participatory research. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *79*, 79-86.

Terenzini, P. T., Pascarella, E. T., & Blimling, G. S. (1996). Students' out-of-class experiences and their influence on learning and cognitive development: A literature review. *Journal of College Student Development*, *37*, 149-162.

Tinto, V. (2012). *Completing college: Rethinking institutional action.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Walker, E. N. (2011). Supporting giftedness: Historical and contemporary contexts for mentoring within Black mathematicians' academic communities. *Canadian Journal of Science, Mathematics and Technology Education*, *11*, 19-28. doi: 10.1080/14926156.2011.548899.

Warnat, W.I. (1976). The role of White faculty on the Black college campus. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *45*, 334-338.

West, C. (1999). *The Cornel West reader.* New York: Civitas Books.

Wood, J. L., & Turner, C. S. (2010). Black males and the community college: Student perspective on faculty and academic success. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, *35*, 135-151. doi: 10.1080/10668926.2010.526052

Woodson, C. (2005). *The mis-education of the Negro*. Mineola, NY: Dover Publications. (Original work published 1933)

Yancy, G. (2011). African-American philosophy: Through the lens of socio-existential struggle. *Philosophy & Social Criticism, 37*, 551-574. doi: 10.1177/0191453711399252

Chapter 2
The First Generation College Student: Overcoming Barriers to Success

ERNESTINE A.W. DUNCAN, PH.D.
KATIE ROBERTSON, B.A.
SHAMIER YATES, B.S.

First generation college students are those whose parents have not attended college (Billson & Terry, 1982). Ishitani (2003) found that first-generation students had particular family and background characteristics that are associated with attrition. Compared with their peers whose parents were college graduates, first-generation students were more likely to be Black or Hispanic and to come from low-income families (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2000). They were less prepared academically for college as demonstrated by their lower rates of taking higher-level mathematics courses in high school, their lower senior achievement test scores. Additionally, first generation college students are more likely to delay postsecondary entry, begin at a 2- year institution, and attend part time and discontinuously (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2000). These characteristics, as shown in earlier research, put them at potential risk for not persisting in their postsecondary studies and completing a degree (Nuñez & Cuccaro-Alamin, 1998).

Issues Faced by First Generation College Students

There are many issues that are common to students who are the first members of their family to attend an institution of higher learning. Some of these issues include financial difficulties, lack of academic preparedness, work-life balance, and minimal peer/familial support. Research shows that first-generation college students worry more about finances while in college (Bui, 2002). Two-year colleges are typically commuter colleges, thereby allowing students to hold a job and live at home while attending. These factors assist the first-generation student financially, and it is possible for this to be the appeal of community colleges for some. However, even though two-year colleges are more affordable, there are drawbacks to attending these types of schools. For example, researchers have found that living on campus has a positive effect on learning outcomes (Pike & Kuh, 2005), but community colleges do not offer dorm rooms. Living on campus provides many opportunities for students to engage themselves in college life. There are many extracurricular activities in which students can take part; however, if the student does not live on campus they may not be as inclined to participate (reference?). By living off campus the student may not form as many social and academic ties as other students. Research has shown that students with more social and academic ties to their school are less likely to leave (Fischer, 2007). Gibson and Slate (2010) conducted a study to specifically look at two- year institutions. They found that in 2004, first- generation college students spent less time doing activities on campus than their non-first generation counterparts (Gibson & Slate, 2010). These data suggest that two- year institutions may be beneficial to some students,

however there are some experiences that will benefit first-generation students such as living on campus.

Research has shown that first-generation students are more successful and more likely to graduate if they begin college at a four-year institution (Bui, 2002). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2011) 26 % of males and 30 % of females who started matriculation in 2004 completed their associate's degree or certificate at a 2-year institution within 3 years, compared with 54 % of males and 60 % of females who started in 2001 at 4-year institutions. Clearly there are many reasons a student may not finish their degree in the allotted time, but it seems that first-generation students have more vulnerabilities than other students.

Issues Faced by African American First Generation College Students

As stated earlier, first generation college students are more likely to be African American or Hispanic. African Americans who are first-generation college students are also confounded with a subset of challenges along with those that are common with other first-generation students. First-generation college students who are African American may typically experience   racism, negative stereotypes regarding their intellectual capabilities, and peer pressure concerning not "acting white," and remaining true to their identity. Colleges and universities are often? a melting pot of people from various cultures. At times an African American student may struggle to find their place within such a diverse environment.

Fordham and Ogbu (1986) contend that education is one institution that African Americans may reject. Fordham and Ogbu (1988) expounded on their research and asserted "that African American youth who seek to be high achievers must minimize their connection to their ethnic identity in order to embrace values that are consistent with mainstream academic success" (Fordham & Ogbu, 1988, p. # for a quote). Such a decision may prove to be challenging to some African Americans students, primarily those at majority institutions. Many may struggle with the idea of being rejected by the social support. Fordham and Ogbu (1986) claimed that the choice between representing an authentic "black" self and striving for academic success creates a "burden of acting white" and contributes to relatively low academic performance. London (1989) suggested that culturally these students also find themselves in a process of identity renegotiation as they journey a world that in unfamiliar to their own culture.   This could prove to be one of the biggest hurdles for African American first-generation students to overcome.

The Role of Historically Black Colleges/Universities and First Generation Students

Given the unique characteristics of African American Students, it is suggested that Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) emerged in part to address their specific needs. A HBCU is a college or university that existed before 1964 that has a historic and contemporary mission of educating African-Americans while being open to all students. There are currently 103 HBCUs in the United States. Forty are public four-year colleges and universities, and 49 are private. The

remaining 14 are two-year colleges, 11 of which are public and three private (http://www.usccr.gov/pubs/HBCU_webversion2.pdf).

It may be that psychologically, first-generation students are more apt to judge their own abilities and potential as inferior to others, making it more difficult for them to be successful (Hellman & Harbeck 1997; Ramos-Sanchez & Nichols, 2007). It appears this group of college students lack self-efficacy, which could be the result of various unresolved issues. They may not believe in their own ability to attain a postsecondary degree. This pervasive lack of self-efficacy has the potential to lower retention rates of first-generation college students. Fife, Bond, and Winston (2011) conducted a study in which they examined academic self-efficacy among African American students. "The notion of academic efficacy refers to belief that one can and will meet the demands of one's academic achievement" (Fife, date, pg. #). Chemers et al. (2001) reported that academic self-efficacy was directly related to academic performance of 1st year college students, the year in which students encountered the most difficult issues. The need to increase the morale and efficacy of first-generation African Americans is imperative. If one is able to believe in their own abilities it may become possible for them to overcome the barriers and pursue their education. By acknowledging such concerns within African American first-generation college students one may then develop strategies to combat these issues.

One reason that HBCUs are effective in increasing the number of minority graduates is their tradition of providing a nurturing environment. These campuses always have had to educate many students who are not as well prepared for college. For different reasons than in the past, there remains a large pool of under-prepared minority students of college age. A support system that is part of the campus culture, rather than a programmatic appendage, is a real advantage in addressing student academic needs, particularly when relatively large numbers may be in need of extra assistance. (http://www.usccr.gov/pubs/HBCU_webversion2.pdf).

According to survey data collected by the National Study for Student Engagement (NSSE), students at historically black colleges and universities ("HBCUs") report higher levels of engagement on some survey dimensions than do their counterparts at non-HBCUs. For example, according to 2004 and 2005 NSSE data from 37 HBCUs, African-American students report more contact with faculty than African-American students at non-HBCUs. Other studies also show that African-American students at HBCUs are more likely to be involved in faculty research projects than are African-American students at non-HBCUs (http://www.usccr.gov/pubs/HBCU_webversion2.pdf).

Implications

Like other underserved populations, first-generation students may need support to start and keep them on their path to success. The need for this support appears to be even more critical for African American first generation college students. To address these factors, the characteristics of the HBCU campus have been investigated. Here, a number of academic and social supports have proven helpful in cultivating student success, including summer bridge programs, financial literacy seminars, and freshmen orientations. However, these supports are not always sufficient. Institutional policies and practices that include faculty-driven, classroom-based approaches can have a significant effect on retention and graduation rates. Emerging

research indicates that high-impact practices involving curricular change and faculty involvement can increase students' academic engagement, thus increasing their chances of staying in college (reference).

These authors have witnessed some of the many pitfalls a first-generation college student can face at both two-year and four-year institutions. It seems that as the research suggests (reference), finances are a big problem. Speaking from experience, the financial aid process can be confusing to a student fresh out of high school, especially if his/her parents never had to go through it. A close personal friend of one author spent six years trying to get her associates degree at a local community college. It is possible that educators need to look at making the transition to college easier.

Eventually, most colleges and universities in the United States will come face-to-face with the reality that the student population in higher education is continuing to change. These changes will impact the way university personnel teach, conduct research, develop programs, and deliver services. It is believed that educators, in higher education, need to do a better job of identifying and understanding this high-risk population. This group will encounter the normal developmental issues that all freshmen and transfer students face; however, their chances of successfully navigating through them without educators' support are slim. Educators must never lose sight of the fact that they have a basic ethic of care to all the students. Significantly increasing the number of students who earn postsecondary degrees and credentials is essential to the economic and social fabric of the United States. It is well known that college graduates have a wider range of career opportunities, earn higher salaries, and tend to live longer and healthier lives. However we also know that many students, including those who are first-generation, must contend with factors such as affordability and weak academic preparation that increase the likelihood they will drop out. It is not surprising that students who are successful during the first year of college are more likely to persist to graduation. Obtaining a college degree for most students may not be met with significant challenges; however, first generation students may encounter multiple challenges. Reference where possible.

Although the role of HBCUs has been of significance in providing access to the growing young minority population, measures of educational outcomes suggest a role of continuing importance. It is clear we have a long way to go and will probably have to change our priorities if we are to ever approach educational equity for Blacks and whites in our country. This goal is important not only from a social justice perspective but from the perspective of our global competitiveness. To a greater extent than at any time in our history, advanced education is important for our national well-being and we need to utilize the talents of as many of our citizens as possible in this environment.

References

Billson, J.M., & Terry, M.B. (1982). In search of the silken purse: Factors in attrition among first-generation students. *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY, 58*, 57–75.

Billson, J.M., & Terry, M.B. (1987). A student retention model for higher education. *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY, 62*, 290–305.

Bui, K. V. T. (2002). First-generation college students at a four-year university: Background characteristics, reasons for pursuing higher education, and first-year experiences. *College Student Journal, 36*(1), 3-11.

Fife J.E., Bond S., & Byars-Winston A. (2011). Correlates and predictors of academic self efficacy among African American students. Education (Chula Vista). Fall;132(1):141-148.

Fischer, M.J. (2007). Settling into campus life: Differences by race/ethnicity in college involvement and outcomes. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *78*(2), 125-161.

Fordham, S. and Ogbu, J. (1986). Black students' school success: coping with the burden of 'acting white'. Urban Review 18(3):176–206.

Gibson, A. M., & Slate, J. R. (2010). Student engagement at two-year institutions: Age and *generational status differences*. Community College Journal of Research and Practice, 34(5), 371-385.

Hellman, C., & Harbeck, D. (1997). Academic self-efficacy: Highlighting the first-generation student. *Journal of Applied Research in the Community College, 4*, 165-169.

Ishitani, T.T. (2003). A Longitudinal approach to assessing attrition behavior among first-generation students: time-varying effects of pre-college characteristics. *Research in Higher Education*, *44*(4), 433-449.

Ishitani, T.T. (2006). Studying attrition and degree completion behavior among first-generation college students in the United States. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *77*(5), 861-885.

London, Howard B. "Breaking Away: A Study of First-generation College Students and their Families." American Journal of Education, 1989.

Nunez, Anne-Marie, Stephanie Cuccaro-Alamin. 1998. *First Generation Students: Undergraduates Whose Parents Never Enrolled in Postsecondary Education.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES).

Pike, G. R. & Kuh, G. D. (2005) A typology of student engagement at American colleges and universities. Research in Higher Education, 46(2): 189–205.

Ramos-Sanchez, L., and Nichols, L. (2007). Self-efficacy of first-generation and non-first-generation college students: The relationship with academic performance and college adjustment. *Journal of College Counseling*, *10*, 6.

U.S. Commission of Civil Rights, The Educational Effectiveness of Historically Black Colleges and Universities, Retrieved from (http://www.usccr.gov/pubs/HBCU_webversion2.pdf).

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88/2000), "Fourth Follow-up, Postsecondary Education Transcript Study (PETS), 2000."

Chapter 3
Overcoming Competing Responsibilities that Impact Academic Performance: Teaching Non-Traditional Students in a Traditional College Setting

KHADIJAH O. MILLER

Abstract

Many students are faced with external challenges that often affect their academic performance. Specifically, many students in higher education face competing responsibilities such as work, family issues, and financial strains in addition to the ever-present cultural and racial concerns. In particular, non-traditional students—students with non-traditional age and circumstances—have to balance competing, equally important responsibilities that impact their academic performance and eventual persistence through higher education to successfully obtain a bachelor's degree (Yorke, 1999). Emphasis is given to how Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) address these issues, in particular with non-traditional students. Additionally, this chapter discusses effective strategies for advisors and professors to help non-traditional students achieve their academic goals without compromising standards.

Introduction

Today's collegiate non-traditional student is not only non-traditional in age (25 years and older), but in circumstance, situation, and predicament (Macari, D.P., Maples, M.F., & D'Andrea, L, 2006). The external challenges faced by the non-traditional student in college include family—children and parents; health and wellness concerns; financial stability; responsibilities, such as military obligations; along with learning capabilities, including emotional, mental, and physical challenges. Non-traditional students may be first-time college students at an older age (over 25), returning students, transferring students, part-time students, and/or distance education students. Non-traditional students choose to attend college for multiple reasons and pursue higher education for just as many distinct opportunities. As Matkin (2012) states, "Non-traditional students differ in life context, learning motivation, and learning goals from the population traditionally served by colleges and universities. They seek convenient, reasonably priced, high-quality degrees that provide career and job opportunities." (p. 8).

Over the last several years, the growth trend of non-traditional students has outnumbered traditional age students. According to the National Student Clearinghouse (2012), more than one-third almost 40% of all college students are over the age of 25. This changing and steadily growing group of college students should impact how college administrations as well as faculty prepare to meet their diverse needs. Adult students approach college with different attitudes, expectations, and capabilities—good and bad. They have competing priorities that extend beyond college and impact their school performance, persistence, retention, and graduation.

When a non-traditional aged student enters the halls of an institution of higher education what occurs may be very different from the traditional aged student.

The traditional aged student is typically one who enters college directly after high school, lives on campus, and attends school full-time as a result of financial aid and parental support. The traditional college student is aged 18-24, does not work full-time, is single, and has no children (Elson, 1992). Yet, the number of traditional college students is steadily decreasing. According to the U.S. Education Department (2012), less than half of all students are traditional, first-time college students. Being a first-time college student impacts the numbers of traditional and non-traditional college students. The common, typical college student is no longer a traditional student in circumstance nor age. There is a quickly growing population of non-traditional students. Approximately 66% of them attend public institutions, including Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) (2012).

HBCUs have a long-standing history of effectively serving the educational needs of an underrepresented population of traditional and non-traditional students (see Hamilton, E., 1977). HBCUs continue to support an approximate even mix of traditional and non-traditional students. They continue to do so, even more so today, with an ever-increasing number of non-traditional students attending, transferring, and returning to college for varying reasons and under multiple circumstances. HBCUs have tended to educate the "whole student" and to assist in the social, cultural, educational, economic, political and historical development of its students (Nuss, 1996; Rudolph 1991; Upcraft & Moore, 1990). Yet, only in more recent years has the development of the non-traditional student been closely examined (Lavelle & Rickford, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2001). There has been little attention to the combination of non-traditional students attending HBCUs. This article seeks to review the situation of the non-traditional student, particularly at HBCUs, and how they persist towards completion of their bachelor's degree.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities

Historically, HBCUs have had admissions policies that maintained high standards of academic integrity, yet many had open admissions policies (as a result of segregation, and later the Civil Rights Act of 1964), that allow for a consistent diverse student population in terms of academic ability, socioeconomic class (Allen & Jewell, 2002; Jewell 2002), and diversity with open doors for Whites, Hispanics, women, and Native Americans (Redd, 1998). Moreover, HBCUs welcomed the first set of non-traditional students as they functioned beyond the traditional scope of college in that they served as hands-on vocational training (i.e., Tuskegee Institute and Hampton University, then Institute, both incorporated the skills of students to construct buildings, and provide maintenance of facilities and the grounds on campus). HBCUs serve the broad educational needs of their students with an established cultural outlook that is reflective in their curricula of the past and present. Additionally the traditional cultural outlook of HBCUs as safe places against a systemic racist and prejudice society often serves as a safe space for students. W.E. B DuBois (1903) stated that the "Negro" college (aka HBCU) provided an environment that allowed for autonomy and self-reflexivity after centuries of oppression. This almost family-like atmosphere of the HBCU has benefited the (traditional and) non-traditional student we find today. Hence as a result HBCUs served as a major driving force to establish the

Black middle class (Exkano, J. 2013). Steadily their impact continues, as Brown and Davis (2001) note 28% of bachelor's degrees, 16% of first-professional degrees, 15% of master's degrees, and 9% of doctoral degrees come from HBCU's. Roebuck & Murty (1993) note that as of 1970, HBCU's graduated at the undergraduate level 75% of all Black American PhDs, 75% of all Black army officers, 80% of all Black federal judges, and 85% of all Black doctors (13).

HBCUs provide a unique learning space for the students they serve—traditional and non-traditional. Their historical uniqueness in creating an educational platform for students who otherwise would be denied college admission, makes HBCUs significant in the contemporary role of non-traditional students in higher education. Studies have shown that HBCUs provide intellectually challenging and stimulating environments—on campus and in their surrounding communities. Examples of this is evident in the students from HBCUs who actively participated in the Civil Rights movement, civil disobedience, marches, and sit-ins. This is also evident in the large number of HBCU students who were members of the Student Non-violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). Today, HBCUs continue to provide increased faculty-student contact and greater peer interaction (Seifert, Drummond, & Pascarella 2006). Hence, HBCUs can provide effective strategies to assist non-traditional students as they persist in higher education.

Non-traditional Students

The United States Department of Education studies reveal that, by various measures, a growing number—almost half of all college students today are "non-traditional." Non-traditional does not merely mean students who are not in the 18-22 age range and enter college immediately after its graduation, but includes those who progress through their college education with courses/credits from multiple universities and colleges. Non-traditional includes those who attend full-time and part-time, those who are military, married, with workforce experience (Rendon, 1998). A commonly researched group of non-traditional students are adult learners, who often share four characteristics:

1. They are self-directed.
2. They have an extensive depth of experience/or experiential learners.
3. They are eager to learn.
4. They are task motivated (Knowles, 1984).

The skillsets of these adult non-traditional students include higher maturity levels and established worldviews than traditional students (Byman, 2007). As a result, they often desire a greater sense of cooperation between themselves and teachers (Zymeyov, 1998). The Adult Learning Theory as developed by Knowles, provides a guide in how to teach, advise, mentor and support non-traditional students while in college. Their experience impacts how they view academic assignments, readings, the relevance of a course and their overall reasons for attending college. If an advisor or college professor can incorporate this awareness in the development of their course and the curriculum the non-traditional student engages in, success may increase.

Within the adult non-traditional student group are active and retired military. With the recent wars and fight against terrorism in the U.S. since September 2011, military veterans make up

4% of all undergraduate and 4% of all graduate students (Radford, 2011). Hence, their adjustment and response to the academic setting's responsibilities and expectations varies according to their experience (e.g., deployment, military culture, and length of service in the military). Military non-traditional students (to be differentiated from ROTC, traditional students) bring experiential learning and knowledge, as well as workplace backgrounds and broad exposure. David Kolb's experiential learning theory (1984) is applicable to military non-traditional students. The experiential learning cycle consists of a four-stage learning cycle that includes: (a) concrete experience; (b) reflective observation; (c) abstract conceptualization; and (d) active experimentation. Inclusion of these aspects as professors, advisors, counselors and others in higher education interact with non-traditional students could prove beneficial; more study is necessary. As a result particular strategies, theories, and models are required to meet the varied unique needs of the adult, military, non-traditional student. This will be addressed later in the paper.

Many non-traditional students approach education differently than traditional, first-time college students. It is less of an exploratory period in their lives, and instead a highly desired commitment to advance, improve and enhance their personal, social, economic and professional lives. They approach their higher education experience as a task to complete, along with many just as important obligations, responsibilities, and priorities. This attitude often places education within the top tier of responsibilities in their lives, but it is often not the most important. Hence, some of these students do not manage time well, or complete assignments as required. They often require explicit instructions and directions for assignments and continual immediate feedback in the classroom. Here the inclusion of a theory such as the Kolb model of learning may be useful (Steltenpohl, E. & Shipton, J., 1986) to assist in their persistence while in college.

Teaching Non-traditional Students at an HBCU

While teaching at an HBCU for more than a decade, I have experienced first-hand the challenges that non-traditional students face in effectively juggling the many demands within their lives. For those who have been the most successful, they had several common traits: (a) familial support, (b) an educational financial plan (support), and (c) a determined focus to be successful in school. When the non-traditional student—military, adult learner, and/or non-traditional circumstance—had these three characteristics in place, s/he were successful in school. Although a seemingly composite list with brief requirements, it is difficult for most students to effectively meet them all.

Given the U.S. economy's recent condition over the past few years (circa 2008 – 2013), with unemployment at its highest and the market at its lowest, many recently unemployed, retired and/or working persons have decided to return to school to 'retool.' In this effort to better prepare themselves by developing additional skills and credentials to gain employment, students approach school with a mindset as a task to move through quickly. This often does not happen. If their previous and/or current position does not require them to meet deadlines, to work independently and within groups, and to write well and read often, then these students will not fare well. Yet, if they were determined, organized, and managed their time well, along with making the connection between the abstract assignments and their overall goal also aids

in persistence. Interestingly enough, like traditional aged students, the same skills are required for success. A key challenge for non-traditional students is the high-demand of life responsibilities.

In addition to pressing and often critical competing responsibilities, non-traditional students also have to deal with the cultural change in higher education where the majority of the students on a campus, or within the traditional face-to-face classroom, are 17-22, single, child-less, and seemingly care-free. Another adjustment is learning from a younger academic professoriate, as many of the older professors are retiring. This sometimes means that they are taught by professors the same age, or even younger than they. This shouldn't be seen as a challenge, but for some returning and adult students, it may be a negative as they need to shift their idea of a college professor from the traditional older white male to the diverse pool of college professors today. Moreover, the culture of higher education is technology driven. Between the use of electronic devices in classes, as well as online education—course management systems, electronic books, computer-based registration and advisement, some non-traditional students are lost in the mix and require a hands-on approach.

Many HBCUs still provide the hands-on approach within higher education. Staying true to the HBCU culture of family-style advising, teaching, and learning, there is a nurturing environment for students that allow them to feel safe which encourages them to be successful—persisting to graduation. One specific strategy employed is Proactive Advising, formerly known as intrusive advising (NACADA 2014). Proactive advising builds structures that incorporate intervention strategies, mandating advising contacts for students who otherwise might not seek advising. It is a concept that attempts to meet the needs of the whole student by aggressively advising without intruding (NACADA 2011). The intrusion is not a negative, but is a vested interest in the whole person of the student; it is often recorded as an effective strategy with first year students, as it helps students become resilient and assertive in their educational experience. Proactive advising lends itself to an increase in student engagement. Studies note that student engagement can impact student success and attrition in college (Astin, 1984; Hu & Kuh, 2002; Gordon, Ludlum, & Hoey, 2008). For the purposes of this chapter, proactive advising that incorporates a facilitation of student engagement works well with non-traditional/adult students to increase their attrition and eventual success. Academic advising that incorporates some 'hand-holding' to maneuver the fast-paced, technology-dominated, highly social collegiate atmosphere helps to combat the competing responsibilities that impact their academic performance. It helps them to prioritize college in their multi-tasked lives and the advisor serves as a mentor, which studies deem a critical component of student persistence in college (Healy, 1997; Colwell, 1998; Daloz, 1999. Vivian (2005) highlights aspects of good mentoring for at-risk college students, whose characteristics are apropos for non-traditional students.

Another specific strategy in working with teaching and advising non-traditional/adult students is to pro-actively offer them assistance in their information-seeking efforts. Snowden-Langley (2011) found that adult students do not eagerly seek information from others. Given their older age, they self-pressure to attempt to solve on their own and not seek the advice from professors, professional staff (i.e., librarians, technical support staff), and

advisors/administrators. By the time they do seek assistance, they have exhausted all of the options they are aware of—and seek professional assistance as a last resort. Hence, when possible options and areas of assistance are provided to them early on, they tend to be more successful.

As an HBCU, we have a traditionally and historically nurturing environment that seeks to assist students holistically—culturally, socially, politically, intellectually, and economically—thus, ameliorating the problem non-traditional students might have when they avoid seeking assistance. This tradition though has been focused on the traditional student; with the adult/non-traditional student, we have to be mindful of the growing returning, commuting, and non-traditional/adult student who may still require that nurturing but in a different manner. Support through an open-door, non-judgmental policy is one of the most effective ways to assist these students. Once they are comfortable in realizing that the professor/advisor is not judging but rather offering options to tackle an issue, address an assignment, or research a topic that they may not have thought of before, the student relaxes and is much more receptive. When the professor is able to provide them with a pro-active list of resources (e.g., library hours, help desk hours and contact, possible tutors, and/or credible online resources that are not time-restricted), the students perform better in class and approach it with less stress (not eliminated but there is a reduction).

Lastly, in the classroom (whether virtual/online or face-to-face), non-traditional students want their voice to matter (similar to traditional/all students). Creating a learning environment that is unbiased and not totally catered to traditional student in terms of topics and approach, assists the adult/non-traditional student to (re)adjust to college. One aspect that works very well for non-traditional students is when the professor is organized and well prepared with a calendar of class events, assignment due dates, and instructions. This often allows the student to plan their external responsibilities (which are priorities) along with their academic requirements.

Conclusion

The research has shown that the common age and circumstance of today's college student is steadily shifting. The varying dynamics of age, responsibility, finance, family, and work will be a part of the academic setting and impact students' performance and persistence. It is becoming a part of the higher education community's responsibility to address and support this growing number of non-traditional student including adult, military, returning, first time adult, and transfer students. Modeling the nurturing community of the HBCU along with consistent cognizance of the learning style differences, aptitudes and attitudes of non-traditional students can assist advisors and professor to support their retention, attrition, and persistence to graduation. A review of the nurturing, community-structure of the traditional HBCU can lead to paradigms for success for this growing population of student at Universities across the world Pre-planning, preparation, organization, effective time management and seeking information are all key to the success of this student in today's college setting. With multiple obstacles, challenges, distractions and competing responsibilities, the non-traditional student is in need of support from the administration, staff, and faculty. Specifically, the professors' role is changing to provide even additional support outside of the classroom—virtual and physical—and this will

assist in the persistence of the non-traditional student without compromising standards, and expanding the role of educators in higher education.

References

Abelman, R. & Dalessandro, A. (2009). The Institutional Vision of Historically Black Colleges and Universities. *Journal of Black Studies*, 40 (2), 105-134

Allen, W.R. & Jewell, J.O. (2002). A Backward glance forward: Past, present, and future perspectives on historically Black colleges and universities. *Review of Higher Education*, 25, 241-261.

Allen, W.R., Jewell, J.O., Griffin, K.A., & Wolf, D.S. (2007). Historically Black Colleges and Universities: Honoring the Past, Engaging the Present, Touching the Future. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 76 (3), 263-280.

Brown, M.C. II, & Davis, J.E. (2001). The historically Black college as social contract, social Capital, and social equalizer. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 76, 31-49.

Byman, D. (2007). Veterans and colleges have a lot to offer each other. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 54*(16), B5.

Colwell, S. (1998). Mentoring, socialization, and the mentor/protégé relationship. *Teaching in Higher Education* 3(3): 313-25.

Daloz, L.A. (1999). *Mentor: Guiding the journey of adult learners*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

DuBois, W.E.B. (1903). *The souls of Black folk*. Chicago, IL: A.C. McClurg.

Exkano, J. (2012). Toward an African Cosmology: Reframing How We Think About Historically Black Colleges and Universities*. Journal of Black Studies*, 44 (1), 63-80.

Gilardi, S. & Guglielmetti, C. (2011). University Life of Non-Traditional Students: Engagement Styles and Impact on Attrition. *The Journal of Higher Education*. 82(1), 33-53.

Hamilton, E., (1977). Black Colleges: Opportunity for Non-Traditional Study. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 46, 3 (summer), 254-263.

Healy, C.C. (1997). Networking mentoring as a preferred model for guiding programs for underrepresented students. *Mentoring and diversity in higher education*, vol. 1, ed. H. T. Frierson, Jr., Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 63-76.

Jewell, J.O. (2002). To set an example: The tradition of diversity at Historically Black colleges and universities. Urban Education, 37, 7-21.

Lavelle, E., & Richford, B. (1999). A factor analytic model of college student development. *NASPA Journal*, 36(4), 301-313.

Macari, D.P., Maples, M.F., & D'Andrea, L. (2006) *A Comparative Study of Psychosocial Development in Nontraditional and Traditional College Students*. In J. College Student Retention, vol7 (3-4) 283-302, 2005-2006.

Markin, G.W. (2012) The Opening of Higher Education, *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 44:3, 6-13

McGuire, P.A. (2010). Measuring success for the real majority in higher education today. Trusteeship, 18(1), 19-23. Retrieved from http://0-search.proquest.com.library.nsu.edu/docview/742878900?accountid+28204 April 22, 2013.

Nuss, E.M.l (1996) The development of student affairs. In U. Delworth & G.R. Hanson (eds.), *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (pp. 22-42). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Pascarella, E.T. & Terenzini, P.T. (2001). *How college affects students*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Perna, L.W. (2010). Understanding the working college student: New research and its implications for policy and practice. Stylus Publishing, LLc.P.O. Box 6505, Herndon, VA 20172-0605. Retrieved from http://0-search.proquest.com.library.nsu.edu/docview/854554769?accountid+28204. April 22, 2013.

Radford, A (2011). Military Service Members and Veterans: A Profile of Those Enrolled in Undergraduate and Graduate Education in 2007-08. *Stats in Brief*, U.S. Department of Education, NCES 2011-163, September 2011, 1-19.

Redd, K.E. (1998). Historically Black colleges and universities: Making a comeback. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 102, 33-43

Rendon, L.I. (1998). Helping Nontraditional Students Be Successful in College. About Campus

Roebuck, J.B., & Murty, K.S. (1993). *Historically Black colleges and universities: Their place in American higher education*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Rudolph, F. (1991). *The American college and university*. Athens, Georgia: University of Georgia Press.

Snowden-Langley, D.A. (2011) *Information seeking behavior of the non-traditional student: An exploratory study.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Argosy University: Chicago, IL.

Seifert, T. A., Drummond, J., & Pascarella, E.T. (2006). African-American students' experiences of good practices: A comparison of institutional type. *Journal of College Student Development*, 47, 185-205.

Steltenpohl, E. & Shipton, J. (1986). Facilitating a Successful Transition to College for Adults. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 57 (6), 637-658.

Upcraft, M.L. & Moore, L.V. (1990). Evolving theoretical perspectives of student development. In M. Barr & L. Upcraft (eds.) *New futures for student affairs* (pp. 41-61). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Vivian, C. (2005). Advising the At-Risk College Student. *The Educational Forum*, 69 (summer), 336-351.

Yorke, M. (1999). Leaving early: Undergraduates non-completion. *Higher Education*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Zymeyov, S.I. (1998). Adragogy: Origins, developments and trends. *International Review of Education/Internationale Zeitschrift Fur Erziehungswissenschaft/Revue Internationale De l/Education, 44*(1), pp.103-108.

Chapter 4
Beyond our Borders: Internationalizing the Teaching of Psychology

JOHN FIFE, VIRGINIA STATE UNIVERSITY

The United States needs to continue to produce citizens that are capable of contributing to civic life both locally and globally. More informed and knowledge citizens are needed as there continues to be an increase in the ethnic and cultural diversity in our world. In universities throughout the world, internationalization has become a common goal. A frequently-cited definition of internationalization is "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education" (Knight, 2004, p. 9). The definition implies that the opportunity to support students in developing an 'international outlook' (Montgomery, 2010) through 'internationalization at home' is readily available to any university with a diverse student body. In fact, there are significant barriers to internationalizing higher education. Each institution, to varying degrees, is investing its time, effort and financial resources into internationalizing its campus. Most of the institutions that have begun this focus, define internationalization in three primary ways: (a) the recruitment and enrolment of more international students, (b) the increasing of opportunities for students to participate in study abroad experiences, and (c) the diversification of the curriculum to represent international perspectives.

For Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), the goal of internationalizing their campuses should be a top priority, because internationalizing can assist these institutions in expanding their global philosophies and teaching their students the importance of being globally competitive. For any university to successfully implement any or all of three components requires a commitment from the administration, faculty, and students. At each level, various strategies can be adopted to achieve part of the overall goal of internationalization. At the university level, there is need for an institutional frame-work, as well as policy formulation and implementation, specifically designed to actualize the goal of internationalizing campus programs and activities. An example of this would be instituting both program (by college or department) and organizational (governance) strategies, as a way of indicating the level of dedication to internationalization. On the faculty level, professors should be willing to develop the international dimension of their teaching, research, and service activities. Faculty can do this by promoting the revision and expansion of their undergraduate/graduate curricula to reflect a global perspective. On the student level, college students should capitalize on the opportunities prepared by the administration and be willing to serve as liaisons between international opportunities and reluctant students. My experiences at an HBCU have taught me that stimulating student interest is far easier than addressing the administrative and faculty issues associated with internationalizing psychology. This is the case because student interest is often associated with knowledge and opportunity for education travel, while administrative and faculty issues often focus on available resources and finances.

International Awareness among American students

The United States plays a dominant role internationally and this dominance can be seen politically, militarily, economically and educationally. Despite this role, some studies have indicated that U.S citizens and students tend to display low level knowledge and understanding of international events and practices. (Barrows, 1981; Brink, Lund, & Salovarra-Moring, 2009; Zhoa, Lin, & Hoge, 2007). In a ground-breaking study, Barrow (1981) found that only a very small proportion of the students have the level of knowledge necessary for an adequate understanding of global situations and issues. A 1981 survey of 3,000 U.S.A. undergraduate students on 13 global issues found that seniors correctly answered only 51% of the 113 multiple-choice items pertaining to international events and conditions. Woyach (1988) replicated this survey at a large public university and found similar results. In 2002 and 2006 National Geographic assessed international knowledge among approximately 500 18-24 year olds and found that American adults displayed a limited awareness of the world beyond their country. Furthermore, Roper (2002) found that young adults in other industrialized nations performed higher than those in the US.

The United States has also played a critical role in the spread of psychology as a discipline throughout the world, but our diversity as a nation is not on display when international knowledge and involvement in study abroad programs are examined. Barrows (1981) found that students who were male, older, from higher SES families and who travelled internationally tended to display higher levels of international knowledge, than other groups in the U.S, but even these students had lower levels of international knowledge that their peers from other industrialized nations. The above profile does not fit the average African American student who attends an HBCU; therefore, it is likely that HBCU students are in need of international awareness and knowledge even more so that other students.

There is a relative absence of participation and opportunities for minority students (African American, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American) in international activities and this continues to go unnoticed and unaddressed in academia. Most colleges and universities in the United States continue to seek ways to internationalize their campuses; however there is little emphasis placed on who is to benefit from the internationalization. The majority of students who receive opportunities to internationalize their experience are not ethnic minority students. In the 2002-2003 academic year, 83.2% of all students who studied abroad were White, 6.0% were Asian American, 5.1% Hispanic American, and 3.4% were Black. The rates for Whites and Asian Americans increased over the previous year, while the rates for Blacks decreased. (IIE, 2004)

Barriers to internationalizing the teaching of psychology

Here, I focus on a few of the barriers specific to psychology. Although multiculturalism and internationalizations have common elements and goals, the two concepts are different. Multicultural education focuses largely on domestic diversity, whereas internationalization focuses on knowledge of cultures outside the United States, on relationships between nation-states, and on global trends and systems. One of the barriers in internationalizing the teaching of psychology is a tendency for faculty to teach as though these concepts as the same. Some faculty may teach that domestic diversity automatically includes knowledge of cultures outside

the United States. The problem with this assumption is that many multicultural courses tend to look only at issues of race, gender, and similar categories, as they are manifested within the United States. Cornwell and Stoddard (1984) found that most multicultural educators are people of color (or else are drawn from the margins of academe), whereas internationalization "has until very recently been the study of 'others' by white Americans operating within mainstream academia. This fact has shaped the way that faculty and students at HBCU's approach and respond to the internationalization of psychology. Because multiculturalism has been considered as the "fourth force" in psychology (Tart, 1975) and concerns itself with issues of domestic diversity, there has been a tendency, particularly among faculty, to believe that the pursuit of the internationalization of psychology is unnecessary. For some faculty, the pursuit of the internationalization of psychology takes valuable time and effort away from issues of domestic diversity, many of which have not been adequately addressed. This attitude was apparent to me when I decided to invite a Fulbright Fellow from Africa to our University and when I designed my first study abroad course. There were some who encouraged my efforts, but others questioned the necessity and value of having a psychology Professor from Africa come to the United States to assist in our department. Some faculty members believed that administrative resources should be spent on anything other than internationalizing psychology. Questioning the value of the internationalization of psychology by faculty is one of the greatest barriers to the growth of international psychology because it represents a philosophy that implicitly teaches students that only domestic diversity is important. The above barrier to internationalizing the teaching of psychology leads to the second barrier and that is providing resources to internationalize psychology for students and faculty at HBCU's. At HBCU's one of the primary problems is that the institution is often working with far fewer resources to sustain study abroad programs and other efforts that can encourage the internationalization of the discipline of psychology Walker, Bukenya & Thomas (2011). For minority students, particularly African American students, financial constraints may create insurmountable barriers. Creative strategies to address this issue are listed later.

Yet another barrier to internationalizing the teaching of psychology at an HBCU, is the lack of time that faculty members have. At many HBCU's faculty members teach at least four courses each semester, and many may view internationalizing their courses as a luxury rather than a necessity. Just as students may feel as though they cannot afford to study abroad, faculty may feel as though they cannot afford the time to focus on internationalization their psychology courses. In addition to these barriers, African American students are often constrained by family and community misconceptions about international experiences in student education. Parents of minority students may hold the opinion that international travel is not discipline focused but is rather a vacation and not serious education. Some families are also concerned that their children may face the same racial prejudice and discrimination experienced in this country. These ideas create a situation where this method of internationalizing psychology difficult.

Strategies to internationalize the teaching of Psychology

In this section, I give a few suggestions on internationalizing the teaching of Psychology. The first strategy is to internationalizing the teaching of psychology through Faculty Development

Programs. As mentioned above, faculty members can be apprehensive about spending their time internationalizing their psychology curriculums. One strategy that can motivate faculty members to internationalize their courses is to provide opportunities for faculty development abroad. Last summer, I received the opportunity to participate in a Faculty Summer Development Program in Morocco, Africa. The international Office at our university organized and advertised this opportunity. Often, due to a lack of resources HBCUs may not have the opportunities for many Faculty Development Programs. However, it is possible with an active International Office at your university that partnering with other universities can create these Faculty Seminars. This was the case in the program in which I participated; our university was invited to participate with another Southern university, who were already collaborating with another university in Morocco. The 10-day seminar in Morocco featured both educational and cultural immersion events and provided the opportunity for those selected to explore the role of Islam in Moroccan history and education. The opportunity to attend this seminar facilitated a collaborative relationship between the author and faculty members at a prominent Moroccan university. The semester after the experience I redesigned my Abnormal Psychology course to provide students with the opportunity to examine and understand the scientific and theoretical basis of psychological disorders from an Islamic Moroccan perspective. Students investigated the differences in symptom expression and rate of recovery in the several prominent disorders, and we used empirical cross-cultural research to examine culture bound syndromes. I introduced a Moroccan biography to the course in which the author spoke of the pathology of his life. The book increased my psychology students' awareness of the global nature of human psychopathology and the specific challenges of addressing these issues within an Islamic culture. The use of this book also allowed students to examine the role of culture on the behavioral manifestations of psychological disorders, and students were challenged to develop critical thinking skills to understand the social, cultural, and environmental dimensions associated with abnormal behavior in Islamic societies. Students were required to write a term paper indicating that they were capable of integrating the author's life and pathology into the theoretical broadening students' perspectives across national and cultural boundaries. In ensuing semesters the goal is to connect my students with Moroccan students via interactive communication devices such as Skype and Microsoft Messenger to increase students' direct communication with psychology students from Morocco.

There are other ways that a faculty member can internationalize the teaching of psychology. Discussions or lectures that identify the knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) of students can be an effective way for students to develop an understanding of the global nature of human triumph as well as psychopathology. These discussions can lead students to write papers to express their understanding of the process of the course. Faculty can also create blogs, Blackboard discussion boards, or other forms of technology strategies to build their understanding of the role of culture in international psychology. Inviting guest speakers into class can also facilitate learning among psychology students.

The second way that we can internationalize the Teaching of Psychology is through Exchange and/or Linkage Programs. As mentioned above, costs and resources tend to be a barrier to internationalizing HBCU campuses in any disciple. There are programs that will assist universities in bringing international scholars to their campus to assist universities in the

internationalization process. One of the foremost opportunities is the Scholar-in-Residence Program, which brings scholars and professionals from abroad to U.S. colleges and universities that infrequently or never host visiting scholars. HBCUs are a major target of the US Department of States' Scholar-in-Residence (SIR) program and are encouraged to utilize the opportunity in internationalizing their campus.

During the summer of 2009, with the support of the International Education Office at my university, I applied to the Scholar in Residence Program, with the specific request that the scholar be selected from the continent of Africa. The application was successful, and we hosted a Fulbright scholar from Nigeria, who in conjunction with the author infused an international component into courses in Abnormal Psychology, and Spirituality and Health. During the classes, students were exposed to diverse cultural variations and experiences, embedded in the conception of the causes, diagnosis, and treatment of various behavioral disorders. We employed several strategies in our classrooms activities to enhance the internationalization of psychology, strategies focused primarily on increasing awareness of the cultural determinants of the classification and assessment of mental disorders, and teaching students to understand multiple worldviews by challenging them to articulate the basis for their own knowledge and beliefs.

In our graduate level course, Spirituality and Health, our Fulbright introduced spirituality as an important component in understanding how people of the African Diaspora approach the diagnosis and treatment of physical and mental health. In both courses students were exposed to multimedia presentations brought by the Fulbright Fellow. These films or clips facilitated rich discussions concerning the similarities and differences between African and African American culture in various aspects of psychology.

More important than any of the above strategies was the transformation that I observed in both faculty members and students. Faculty members who questioned the viability of inviting a Fulbright to the university and department were open to having the scholar lecture in their classes on his arrival, particularly after hearing students describe their positive experiences with the scholar. The scholar's expression of his limited understanding of American culture encouraged students to share their experiences and understanding with the Scholar and this exchange empowered students and allowed them to see themselves and cultural agents of change.

Beyond student and faculty interactions, the scholar will participate in many other community and academic activities in collaboration with four other universities. The SIR Program can assist HBCUs in leveraging its financial, campus, and community assets in a collaborative manner. The hosting of the scholar also benefited the department from the perspective of research. The author and the Fulbright scholar were able to published five papers together due to his presence in the United States. The presence of the scholar also allowed the department to: (a) increase our understanding of the goals of psychology teaching, (b) improve in the teaching of psychology from an international perspective, and (c) gain new ideas and demonstrations for the teaching of psychology. As a department we broadened our global knowledge base for teaching and learning psychology.

Third, we can internationalize the teaching of Psychology through the study abroad

experience. Psychology takes place within a cultural context; therefore, students can derive a great deal of understanding about cultures outside of their culture or place or origin. Study abroad is one of the most unique ways of building professional skills and becoming culturally and internationally competent. Over the past decade, the number of U.S. students studying abroad has increased by over 150 percent. In academic year 2007/2008, 262,416 U.S. students studied abroad, showing an increase of 8.5 percent from the previous year (IIE, 2009). According to the U.S. Department of Education, African-Americans are more than 12 percent of U.S. higher education enrollment but represent only 3.5 percent of all American college students who studied abroad in 2006. This number increased to 4.8 percent in the 2010-11 academic year; however, despite this increase, African American are still underrepresented in the area of study abroad. One reason for this disparity is the cost of study abroad. African American students are more than three times as likely as white students (38 percent vs. 13 percent) to come from families with incomes below $20,000. Some of these students may struggle on an annual basis to piece together financial aid packages and part-time employment to cover college tuition and living expenses. This issue of financial lack needs to be addressed if the true spirit of study abroad is to be fulfilled. Study abroad program benefit both the students who travel and the host country. Carter (1991) stressed that if a goal of international education is to foster better cultural understanding, it will never be met if cultural diversity within the programs themselves is ignored. One way of addressing the issue of costs is to educate students at HBCUs about the fact that Stafford loans, and other scholarships and grants can be used for study abroad. In my recent study abroad experience to Trinidad and Tobago, all of my students receive support from a student loan. Quite often, African American students remain ignorant concerning international education opportunities on their campuses because of a presumed lack of interest or perceived inability to afford the experience.

In the summer of 2011, I planned and implemented my first study abroad program to Trinidad and Tobago. There are very few international study abroad service provider serving Trinidad and Tobago, therefore, I constructed the program with the help of a colleague who had already established a relationship with the University of the West Indies. This idea assisted us in creating our own relationship with UWI, and benefited our program in that we were able to negotiate room and board, program and transportation prices. The three-week program was open to non-freshmen health and social sciences majors. Students participated in lectures and workshops that described Trinidadian culture and its relationship to the health of its citizens. Students were divided into three health related groups (HIV/AIDS, mental health, substance abuse) and received lectures and presentations from national organizations who focused on these issues. They were required to write research papers on the issue that were assigned to them, and were also required to maintain a journal that discussed how they believed they were changing based on the experience. A major component of our program was the academic, cultural, and experiential design of the program. During our stay in Trinidad, students spent several days in a home for children who were born with HIV/AIDS. According to student self-awareness papers, this was one of the most memorable and transformative experiences. We offered six elective credit hours for participation in the course, which was name "The Role of

Culture in Health in Trinidad and Tobago." The program was a success and we are currently expanding the program for its second year.

Internationalizing psychology has its challenges and HBCUs tend to experience many of those challenges but as mentioned above there are strategies that can be implemented to ensure that ethnic minority students are exposed to the manner in which psychology influences the lives of those in the international community. The use of linkages and international scholars, collaborative faculty development programs, and study abroad opportunities, represents attempts to change the perceptions of the three groups at HBCUs that are most resistant to international education; administrators, faculty and students.

References

Banks, J. A. (2004). Multicultural education: Historical development, dimensions, and practice. In J. A. Banks & C. A. McGee Banks (eds.), *Handbook of research on multicultural education* (2nd Edition). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, p. 5.

Barrows, T.S., Bennett, M.F., Braun, H.I., Clark, J.L.D., Harris, L.G., & Klein, S. F. (1981). *College students' knowledge and beliefs: A survey of global understanding the final report of the Global Understanding Project*. New Rochelle, NY: Change Magazine Press.

Carter, R.T. (1991) Cultural values: A review of empirical research and implications for counseling. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 70, 164–173.

Cornwell, G. H. & Stoddard, E.W. (1994). Things fall together: A critique of multicultural reform. *Liberal Education, 80(4),* 40-51.

Knight, J. (2004) Internationalization remodeled: definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education* 8(1), 5–31.

Montgomery, C. (2010) *Understanding the international student experience.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Curran , J. Iyengar , S. Brink Lund , A. Salovaara-Moring , I. (2009). Media system, public knowledge and democracy. *European Journal of Communication*, 24, 5-26.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization Remodeled: Definition, Approaches, and Rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), 5-31. doi: 10.1177/1028315303260832

Montgomery, C. (2010). *Understanding the international student experience*. Houndmills, Basingstoke, Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Roper, ASW. 2002. *National Geographic–Roper 2002 global geographic literacy survey*, Washington, DC: National Geographic Education Foundation.

Tart, C. T. (1975). Some assumptions of orthodox, Western psychology. In C. T. Tart (Ed.), *Transpersonal psychologies* (pp. 59–112). New York: Harper & Row.

Walker, S., Bukenya, J.O., Thomas, T. (2011). Examining Students' Perceptions of Globalization and Study Abroad Programs at HBCUs. *US-China Education Review*. B 1, 77-88.

Woyach, R. B. (1988). *Understanding the global arena: A report on the Ohio State University global awareness survey*. Columbus: Ohio State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED296943)

Zhao, Y., Lin, L., & Hoge, J. (2007). Establishing the need for cross-cultural and global issues research. *International Education Journal*, 8(1), 139-150.

Chapter 5
From The Courtroom to the Classroom: The Value of Service Learning to Encourage a Voice of Care in Criminal Justice Students

DORIS L. EDMONDS, J.D.

One of the first proponents of the value of experiential learning was John Dewey, who maintained that there is an intimate but necessary relationship between actual experience and education (Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984). He developed the concept of "learning by doing," which emphasizes the interactive and complementary nature of out of classroom experiences with in-class learning that allows students to test the theories and symbols learned in actual real-life experiences. Experiential learning in higher education involves an integration of classroom work with out-of-classroom live experiences. It manifests itself in such educational experiences as field studies, laboratory work, work-study programs, work-co-op programs, internships and service learning programs. Each of these learning experiences involves direct encounters with the thing being studied rather than just studying it or thinking about it (DeGiacomo, 2002).   In experiential learning experiences, students learn by hands-on experiences rather than through "book learning," alone.

Current literature suggests that experiential learning is increasingly becoming a necessary component of higher education for several reasons: first, faculty are concerned about preparing their students to be competitive in the challenging job market and to meet their desired goals upon graduation (CAEL, 1990; Gettys 1990; Cantor, October, 1995); second, the current college student has become more complex, especially the non-traditional student, who requires more varied modes of learning (Kerka, 1989); and thirdly, student retention and completion rates are a major concern for college faculty and administrations (Cantor, October, 1995). Seibert, Hart and Sypher (1989) maintain that experiential learning aids in student development and enhances student career development. In fact, O'Neill (1992) and Gregory (1990) document that participation in experiential learning at the undergraduate level increases the rate at which students continue their education into graduate schools. Thus, there are many collateral benefits to experiential learning.

One type of experiential learning, service learning, in addition to aiding the academic process has the additional benefit of helping to produce civic minded students who become life-long learners who make community service a way of life. According to Bringle and Hatcher in their 2000 article on "Institutionalization of Service Learning in Higher Education," on page 274, "[s]ervice learning is defined as a 'course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility' (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995, p. 112). It is compatible with the renewed interest in developing the scholarship of engagement through collaborative work that is consistent with the mission of

institutions (Boyer, 1997; Holland, 1997, 1999; Rice, 1996; Zlotkowski, 1999). Service learning engages students in active, relevant, and collaborative learning and is an effective way to enhance student learning, student development, and commitment to future civic involvement (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993; Sax & Astin, 1997.)" Further, research confirms that service learning enhances academic learning by helping students to learn more effectively through the application of what they have learned in the classroom to the real world or by comparing literature and theory with their real-life observations (Philipsen, 2003).

In addition to enhancement of their learning experience, service learning can also have the impact of enhancing students' "values education" by increasing their commitment to civic responsibility and the development of citizen skills. This is consistent with the teachings of Benjamin Barber who maintains that the idea of "democratic citizenship" is at the heart of successful service learning and that people's desire for community is a central need of the heart that can be met through meaningful community service (Barber, 1992; Philipsen, 2003). Later research on the impact of service learning on the enhancement of values education has been confirmed by Boss in 1994 in his study of how community service work helps students' moral development (Boss, 1994) and by Giles and Eyler's 1994 research on the impact of service learning on the development of college students as community service participants (Giles and Eyler, 1994). This research was further enhanced by findings by Eyler, Giles and Grey in 1999 who found that students who engage in community service benefit from enhanced personal efficacy, improved interpersonal skills and improved academic learning (Eyler, Giles and Grey, 1999). In applying the research of Boss, Eyler, Giles and Grey to her Social Foundations class on race at a large urban state university, Philipsen found that because of the requirement in her service learning class that students interact with individuals who were different from themselves, the real life experiences of her students served as launching pads for reflections on the role of race in school and were more meaningful to students, having a much greater impact than any theoretical discussion they could have ever had (Philipsen, 2003). As a holistic adaptive experience, learning by doing has the impact of establishing "conceptual bridges" across situations such as school and work, portraying learning as a continuous lifelong process (Kolb, 1984; DeGiacomo, 2002). In essence, like the adage which maintains that a picture is worth a thousand words, a real-life experience is worth all the knowledge contained in a treatise.

As an educator, I attempt to combine in-class learning with hands-on experience at every opportunity because in my experience this method of teaching was most impactful upon me as a student and as a live-long learner. I engaged in a diverse practice of law for 27 years until I decided to change professions and become an educator by educating college students in classes related to criminal justice at a historically black college in the south. In my practice, I served as a prosecutor, a defense attorney, a managing attorney and the teacher of a clinical law course which focused on providing legal services to the elderly in an eight-city area. Practicing law was very exciting with no two days being alike. On the same day, I could be in court on a criminal matter in the morning and preside over several real estate closings or will executions in the afternoon, or I could appear before several different judges on the same day in several different cities on different issues in the law from criminal matters to civil matters. Over the course of my practice, I also taught as an adjunct professor at the same institution at

which I am presently employed. In my experience as an adjunct professor, I discovered that I enjoyed greatly the interaction with students, particularly watching them grasp a topic and adopt it as their on by researching it and advocating positions consistent with what we had discussed in class discussions. It was very fulfilling to observe them grow and become advocates for causes we had discussed in the classroom. I found that it was very satisfying to have input in helping the students to have a transformative experience that would help to shape them into individuals who could be knowledgeable, active, long-term participants in the world and who possess insightful critical thinking skills and an inner voice of care for the community which inspires them to serve the community.

Just as the practice law was intriguing because of its diversity, my favorite class in law school was a clinical practice class where I as a student had the opportunity to work on real cases for real people and advocate for the client's position. Consistent with the academic literature on the value of experiential learning, it seemed that the hands on experience enhanced my ability to grasp concepts that we had discussed in class, facilitated my learning experience and inspired me to want to provide consistent quality services to clients. It was because of my experience in this class that I worked for many years as an attorney who provided legal services to the poor.

Using the concept of enhancing academic learning through the use of hands-on experiences, in each of my classes related to the courts and the criminal justice system, I require students to go to court to observe the proceedings in court, note how the concepts they learned in class are manifested in the courtroom and assess what actions could be taken to improve the plight of the litigants or improve the operations of the courtroom proceedings based on the concepts that they learned in the classroom. Exposure to the hands-on experience of observing the courtroom experience appeals to those learners who learn best from tactile sensations. Their actual observation and their participation via being a passive participant in the courtroom process helps to imprint in their psyche the concepts that we have discussed in the classroom.

Congruently, I use the concept of experiential learning most particularly in the Sociology department internship program for which I am the academic coordinator. This class, the Sociology Department Internship Program, SOC 393, requires each third-year sociology student to obtain an internship related to criminal justice or some aspect of sociology and to perform 240 hours of service at the internship site. (A copy of the syllabus is available upon request to dedmonds@nsu.edu)

In this service learning course, in order to ensure that the student has an authentic experience with obtaining an internship to enhance the student's job-seeking skills, each student is required to find his/her own internship. While I provide a list of potential internship sites, each student is still required to locate an internship for himself/herself and to apply for it as any job seeker would have to apply for a job. The student's first assignment of the class is to reflect on the personal, professional and civic goals which guide his/her desire for a particular internship experience. The purpose of this reflection is to require the student to think about what role he/she wants to play in society upon completion of his/her education and to reflect upon the impact of that particular career on society in general. This required guided reflection will

enhance the student's learning experience and his/her perception of the importance of that particular career on the well-being of the entire community. The goal of this exercise is to enhance the likelihood that upon completion of the course, the student will have developed an enhanced commitment to serve the community and that this commitment will continue upon the student's completion of his/her educational curriculum into the student's career life.

The student taking the course must also engage in reflective journaling as he engages in the internship by monthly progress reports which require him to reflect upon how many hours he contributed to the internship site during the month, what he/she did during the month, whom he worked with during the month, whether the fellow employees of the agency or the clientele of the agency and the impact of the work of the agency on the service provided to the community. The purpose of the journaling is to encourage the student to pay attention to what he/she is doing during the month and the impact of his work on the internship site and on the larger community so as to enhance the student's appreciation of his duties to the community. In addition to the monthly progress reports, at mid-semester, the student must write an essay which analyzes the community services the agency he is interning for provides to the community, how the agency provides the services to the community and whether the student has observed any substandard or unethical conduct at the agency, and if so, how the student proposes to raise this issue with the internship site to help find a remedy to the problem. This exercise also enhances the student's appreciation of the role of the agency in the community and requires the student to analyze critically the quality of the services being provided by the agency to which he is assigned.

In order to enhance the student's personal growth and development, at the conclusion of the internship, the student must reflect upon how the internship experience has met his self-growth and civic orientation goals identified in the first assignment and share this experience with other students enrolled in the class. The student response to this inquiry is varied, with most students having found their internship positive and life-enhancing. One of the students commented: "I believe that my internship was very valuable to me. It is something that will stick with me while going through my journey in life. It gave me not only an outlook on the department I interned for, but also in life to know that things happen. But when they do, how will I go about getting things right, and what will I sacrifice." Another student commented, "I was able to practice interpersonal skills and had a lot of hands-on experience." On the other hand, there have been a few students who concluded that their internship experience revealed to them that the type of work they had done at the internship site is not the type of work that they want to commit themselves to as a career. While it is hoped that each student has a positive internship experience, this conclusion by a student that this particular career experience is not the career choice for him is transformative in that the student has learned about his inner focus and motivation and has reached a conclusion that will spare the student the experience of embarking upon an unfulfilling career experience.

At the conclusion of each internship class, I review the comments of the students and the internship site coordinators to determine what changes would enhance the internship process and make changes as needed. I have discovered that for most students, the internship experience is a transformative experience which has allowed them to learn about themselves

and the career they are interested in pursuing in life. In their article, "Institutionalization of Service Learning in Higher Education,," Bringle and Hatcher argue that service learning is a good choice for institutions of higher education because it enhances student achievement of core educational outcomes, enhances faculty satisfaction with teaching, increases the role of community service as a means for civic education and is socially and morally responsible (Bringle and Hatcher, 2000). In my seven years as coordinator of the internship program for my institution of higher education, I have found all of these attributes of service learning to be true. Most importantly to me, however, is that the internship program has established a platform to help develop students who have a voice of care for the community and who appreciate their ongoing roles to provide needed service to the community.

The university at which I teach is a Historically College/University (HBCU). As such , it has a responsibility to the community to produce graduates who are bright, knowledgeable, and instilled with a work ethic and work acumen to be productive. Graduates from HBCU's must also have a commitment to contribute back to the communities from which they originated. Service learning helps to prepare them to do this by providing them with real-life work skills and exposing them to the fact that as a citizen of the world, they have a civic responsibility to exercise an ethics of care and to perform their civic duty to work for or within the community.

Establishing a voice of care for the community and an orientation to contribute back to the community is especially essential to students in attendance at HBCU's because it helps to inspire and equip them to begin a renaissance in the communities from whence they have come and to serve as leaders who can make the changes which may be necessary to transform their communities into attractive and welcoming communities which can attract other like-minded community builders.

References

Barber, B. (1992). An aristocracy of everyone: the politics of education and the future of America. New York: Oxford University.

Boss, J. A. (1994). The effect of community service work on the moral development of college ethics student. *Journal of Moral Education*, 23(2), 183-198.

Boyer, E. L. (1994, March 4). Creating the new American college. *Chronicle of Higher Education,* p. A48.

Bringle, R.G., & Hatcher, J.A (1995). A service-learning curriculum for faculty. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning,* 2, 112-122.

Cantor, J.A. (October, 1995), Experiential learning in higher education: Linking classroom and community. *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report Series* 95-7, (Volume 24-7)

CAEL (Council for Adult and Experimental Learning), (1990).

DeGiacomo, J. A. (2002). Experiential learning in higher education. *The Forestry Chronicle,* 78(2) 245-247.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and education. New York: McMillan.

Eyler, J., Giles, D. E., Jr., & Gray, C.J. (1999). Research at a glance: The effect of service-learning on students, faculty, institutions and communities, 1993-1999. In campus Compact (Eds.; 2000), *Introduction to service-learning toolkit: Readings and resources for faculty* (pp. 21-21). Providence, RI: Brown University.

Giles, D. E., & Eyler, J. (1994). The impact of college community service laboratory on students' personal, social, and cognitive outcomes. *Journal of Adolescence*, 17, 327-339.

Holland, B. A. (1997). Analyzing institutional commitment to service: A model of key organizational factors. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 4, 30-41.

Holland, B. A. (1999). From murky to meaningful: The role of mission institutional change. In R. G. Bringle, R. Games, & E. A. Malloy (Eds.), *Colleges and universities as citizens* (pp. 48-73). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Kerka, S. (1989). Characteristics and effectiveness. ERIC. Retrieved October 10, 2008: http://www.ericdigests.org/pre-9213/education.htm

Kolb, D. A. (1984). Experiential Learning: Experience as the source of learning and development. Englewood Cliffs. NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Markus, G. B., Howard, J. P. F., & King, D. C. (1993). Integrating community service and classroom instruction enhances learning: Results from an experiment. *Educational Evaluation and Police Analysis*, 15, 410-419.

O'Neill, M.S. (1992) Undergraduate internships: Oxymoron or necessity? Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) ED354456.

Philipsen, D. (2003). Investment, obsession, and denial: The ideology of race in the American mind. *Journal of Negro Education*, 72(2), 193-207.

Rice, R. E. (January, 1996) Making a place for the new American scholar. Paper presented at the AAHE Conference on Faculty Roles and Rewards, Atlanta, GA.

Sax, L. J., & Astin, A. W. (1997). The benefits of service: Evidence from undergraduates. *Educational Record*, 78(3/4), 25-32.

Seibert, J. J. & Syper, B. D. The importance of internship experiences to undergraduate communication students. Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), ED315826.

Zlotkowski, E. (1999). Pedagogy and engagement. In R. G. Bringle, R. Games, & E. A. Malloy (Eds.), *Colleges and universities as citizens* (pp. 96-120). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Chapter 6
Making the Transition to College within the Context of Emerging Adulthood

DEKIMBERLEN J. NEELY AND KAREN BRAKKE
SPELMAN COLLEGE

The beginning of college or university study represents an important intellectual and personal transition for many individuals in our society, especially those who are considered 'traditional' college students and move into higher education directly from high school around 18 years of age. These young people often simultaneously face the challenges of greater independence and more rigorous intellectual pursuits at a time when the neural circuitry that supports higher-order thinking and judgment skills is still developing (Blakemore, den Ouden, Choudbury, & Frith, 2007; Rubia, Overmeier, Taylor, et al., 2000; Sowell, Thompson, Holmes, Jernigan, & Toga, 1999). Thus, the transition to college life is often a key milestone on the path to successful adulthood.

Making the transition from the high-school to college environment can be challenging for any student, given the substantially different cultural norms found at each level of education. In general, high school is highly structured. State-mandated high school curricula are designed to instruct students on a set of core competencies. The curriculum is often scripted and designed to prepare students for high school exit exams. Students are required to attend classes, submit assignments, complete exams, and pass state assessments in order to graduate. As students transition to college, they are expected to adapt to a new environment that emphasizes higher academic standards and a greater level of independence. They now enroll in courses designed to further develop critical thinking skills, engage in intellectual debates, learn new concepts, and formulate their own views. Entering students who understand the importance of knowing how to analyze, interpret, synthesize, and engage in higher level thinking have the potential to thrive as they adjust to and complete their college years.

As a result of the common challenges accompanying the move from secondary to higher education, this transition has received considerable attention in the developmental and educational literature (Tobolowsky, Marmrick, & Cox, 2005; Braxton & Mundy, 2001). Investigations have focused on the stress of being on one's own or loneliness/homesickness (Davila, Burge, & Hammen, 1997; Lopez & Gormley, 2002), problems with academic adjustment (Bahrassa, Syed, Su, & Lee, 2011), health problems such as weight gain and substance abuse (Fromme, Corbin, & Kruse, 2008; Pharo, Sim, Graham, Gross, & Hayne, 2011), sexual risk-taking (Fromme, et al., 2008), and other problematic behaviors. Here, however, rather than casting the adjustment in a negative light and focusing on the problems that often occur with the transition, we examine here the move to college within the context of emerging adulthood, framing the challenges as positive opportunities to take ownership of one's own learning and development, which in turn allows students to develop the identity and agency that will help them thrive as adults.

Emerging Adulthood

The concept of 'emerging adulthood' as a developmental phase of life was first proposed by Jeffrey Arnett at the beginning of the last decade (Arnett, 2000; 2007). Arnett's argument for the inclusion of this new socio-ontogenetic stage within developed cultures was based on the extended road to adulthood that many youth experience in modernized cultures with information-based economies based on widespread higher education. These cultures provide a "prolonged period of independent role exploration" (Arnett, 2000, p. 469) that results in what Arnett claims to be a distinct period of development that is experienced subjectively differently than either adolescence or adulthood. According to Arnett, many individuals in industrialized societies between the ages of 18 and 25 (or even 30) are no longer 'adolescent', but neither are they yet fully independent adults. They are often still reliant on their parents for financial support, subsistence, housing, or other forms of care. Indeed, a recent report (Parker, 2012) found that 53% of young adults aged 18 to 24 (and 41% of those 25-29 years of age) have lived with their parents during recent years, with little variation across gender or race; 60% of 18- 24-year-olds and 44% of 25- 29-year-olds reported being financially tied to their parents. Although not considered a universal phenomenon, the use of 'emerging adulthood' as a construct for describing the socially-constructed experiences of college students in some societies has gained acceptance in the literature (e.g. Murphy, Blustein, Bohlig, & Platt, 2010; Nelson, Padilla-Walker, Carroll et al., 2007; Pharo et al., 2011) and appears to serve a functional role in explaining their behaviors and approach to their academic and professional lives (Murphy et al., 2010).

The validity of emerging adulthood as a construct is supported by data concerning the development of the human prefrontal cortex (PFC). This anterior region of the frontal lobe is critical for higher-order cognitive skills involved in executive function such as planning, decision-making, judgment, and emotional regulation (Kuhn, 2006; Sowell et al, 1999). A variety of imaging and other evidence suggests that this area of the cerebral cortex, and its connectivity to other brain regions, continue to develop through adolescence and into early adulthood, with both structural (Giedd et al., 1999; Sowell et al., 1999) and functional (Rubia et al., 2000) changes being apparent. These changes, furthermore, correlate to cognitive (Kuhn, 2006) and behavioral (Pharo et al., 2011) shifts during ages corresponding to traditional college years and late adolescence or emerging adulthood. Such changes include improvements in executive functions such as inhibition, self-regulation, management of processing, and self-directed inquiry (see Kuhn, 2006, for an overview). Since there are wide individual differences in neuropsychological development during this period (Pharo, et al., 2011) it is to be expected that some college students will still be developing emergent skills that require strong executive function and independent life experience.

Making the Transition to College: Academic Ethic, Self-Regulation, and Agency

Jensen (2000) notes that, across several studies, the two characteristics associated with considering oneself 'adult' are making independent decisions and taking responsibility for one's life. Certainly, these dispositions are an important part of adjusting to college life, and lack of

these abilities can be implicated in many of the challenges that young people encounter when they enter the world of higher education. We believe that developing these characteristics can be supported when students develop self-regulatory skills through an appropriate sense of agency combined with a strong academic ethic.

Clearly, a successful transition to college is dependent on the individual possessing the intellectual capacity to do well. Entering students who understand the importance of knowing how to analyze, interpret, synthesize, and engage in higher-level thinking have the potential to transition to and complete college with relatively little difficulty. However, the transition is also contingent on capable entering students employing appropriate self-regulatory behaviors to succeed in the new environment. Practicing good time management, establishing goals, persevering during challenging times, and reflecting on performance are self-regulating behaviors that positively impact academic success (Ramdass & Zimmerman, 2011). These behaviors all reflect the maturity that accompanies emerging adulthood and the development of strong executive function skills. Time management behaviors, for example, include developing intentional professional goals, prioritizing and planning, being efficient, and managing distractions and interruptions (Kearns and Gardiner, 2007). Several studies suggest that use of time management behaviors provide a good predictor of such success (George, Dixon, Stansal, Gelb, and Pheri, 2008; Kaminski, Turnock, Rosén, & Laster, 2006; Britton & Tesser, 1991).

The concept of 'academic ethic' (Rau & Durand, 2000; Shils, 1997) is useful in this discussion as well. This ethic is defined as a learned behavior in which students commit to studying every day or nearly every day, concentrating primarily on their studies rather than leisure activities. Academic ethic is further defined by the notion that these students are clear-headed; for example, they avoid frequent and heavy consumption of alcohol (Rau & Durand, 2000; Shils, 1997). The literature indicates that students who possess an academic ethic are less likely to violate integrity policies (Pino & Smith, 2003) and earn higher grades (Smith & Zhang, 2009; Pino & Smith, 2003; Rau & Durand, 2000) than those who do not demonstrate such an academic ethic. Smith and Zhang (2009) found that students who demonstrated an academic ethic in high school earned higher grades during their first term in college. As such, their transition to college was smoother than those who did not possess an academic ethic in high school (Smith & Zhang, 2009).

In addition to focus on academics, students who develop a strong sense of agency, or belief in one's ability to execute control over one's life are more persistent than others, a trait that is linked to college success. Mbajekwe (2012) argues that college success depends on what the student wants for him or herself. The student's ability to leverage his or her strengths and maximize campus resources in order to support his or her academic efforts is crucial in developing the independence and responsibility associated with adulthood.

The Importance of Social Connections While Developing Independence

During the college years, the emerging adult is not only expected to do well in classes, she or he is also expected to make good decisions independently of caregivers and assume a higher level of responsibility in doing so. As many adults know, however, the independence and self-determination of adulthood does not mean that one operates in isolation (Nelson et al., 2007). The decreasing influence of parents and other familiar authority figures requires the intentional establishment of new meaningful relationships with peers, faculty, and other members of the college community (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). In making the transition to college, those students who learn how to develop healthy relationships – or friendships -- with peers have an easier adjustment than those who remain isolated (Swenson, Nordstrom, & Hiester, 2008). Students who struggle to develop meaningful connections with their peers may feel disconnected from their collegiate community, while first year students who connect with faculty tend to have higher grades than those who do not (Fischer, 2007).

Faculty contact is not only crucial for making the transition in the first year but also increasing academic success during the second year of college (Graunke & Woosley, 2005) and beyond. Students who learn how to communicate effectively, ask for help, and seek mentoring relationships with faculty increase their chances of academic success along a number of measures (Cuseo, 2003). Furthermore, the academic advising relationship is important and should be developed as quickly as possible after a student arrives on campus. Developing such supportive relationships facilitates - rather than undermines - mature, independent decision-making as the student learns to take ownership of his or her experiences and learning.

The importance of good decision-making for emerging adults in college cannot be overstated. As students approach the end of their first year, they begin to integrate and apply new information and make sense of their experiences (Bridges, 1980). Helping entering students to understand how their decision- making process will change and impact others is a crucial role for family and advisers alike. For example, students are often assigned a classroom task that requires them to work in a team. A seemingly minor decision to skip meetings could potentially impact how the entire group performs and is evaluated. Or, the belief that one must be heavily involved in extracurricular activities, reinforced in high school, can sometimes carry over to college with negative results on academic performance. We believe that it is important for more experienced adults to convey to entering students that doing a few things well is better than being over-committed to co-curricular activities at the expense of academic success.

Similarly, we believe that students must engage effective communication skills with administrators, staff, faculty, and family members for a smooth transition to college.   The most successful students communicate their needs when they need help inside and outside the classroom. Students pressured to meet high familial expectations must be supported by family and given the emotional resources needed to succeed. Students who can openly discuss their new ideas, express confusion about choosing a major, or share their changing self-narrative, for example, will have a smoother transition to college compared to those who must hide their

evolving identity or poor academic performance from their families or other important people in their lives.

Exploring Identity in College

Students use college as an opportunity to explore different aspects of life (Arnett, 2000). Thus, students in this phase may begin to define themselves differently and consequently embrace new aspects of identity. This opportunity for identity exploration and development is arguably as important as the practice of academic and self-management skills that occurs during the college years. The acknowledgement of adolescence and young adulthood –now thought to include emerging adulthood -- as a period important to the development of one's identity, or sense of self within a social and personal narrative context, dates back at least to Erikson's (1968) theory of lifespan socioemotional development, and has been explored along several dimensions (Murphy et al., 2010; Pharo et al., 2011; Syed & Azmitia, 2008, 2010). As college exposes students to new ideas and perspectives at the same time that they are gaining increasing capacity to construct a meaningful life narrative (Syed & Azmitia, 2008), this provides fertile ground for developing new aspects of one's vision of self within a variety of communities. Thus, according to Arnett (2000), identity development is a critical aspect of emerging adulthood.

It is often tempting to think of identity development in terms of racial or ethnic identity, which is clearly important to the development of self and has been salient in the literature (Syed & Azmitia, 2008, 2010). Ethnic minority students, for example, may develop a different sense of their racial or ethnic identity (Syed & Azmitia, 2010), although the demographic composition of the student body may not be as important as other factors in facilitating the process of ethnic identity exploration (Tsai & Fuligni, 2012). However, identity is not limited to a single dimension. It encompasses a broad swath of characteristics used to define 'self', including academic interests or major, non-academic pursuits, belief systems, sexual orientation, and family roles. Successfully navigating the development of a healthy, multifaceted, identity can help support the transition to college (Zubernis & Snyder, 2007). As emerging adults explore different conceptions of self and belongingness while managing the other pressures accompanying college, family and friend support are especially critical. This is especially important during the transition to college as students often engage in self-doubt during this phase of development (Zubernis & Snyder, 2007).

For example, students may question or choose to reveal their sexual orientation during college. While coming out for some students may be accepted by family and friends, it may be a painful experience for others (Schaller, 2010). Given the complexities of how our society views sexual orientation, these kinds of revelations could make the transition to college challenging. Students who have the opportunity to comfortably live out their sexual orientation are more likely to develop a positive self-image and authentic identity (Zubernis & Snyder, 2007). Students who are forced to hide their sexual orientation are more likely to struggle with developing a positive identity (Zubernis & Snyder, 2007) which could impact their performance and make the transition to college more challenging. This scenario becomes more complicated when a parent or other significant figure verbalizes negative views regarding same-sex orientation (Zubernis & Snyder, 2007). Clearly, issues such as this can weigh heavily on a young

person who is navigating all of the other challenges of college life, and can influence adjustment to college life in personal and academic spheres alike.

Preparing for the College Transition: Support from Family and Schools

Support from parents, teachers, mentors, and peers, and the level of engagement in and quality of high school preparatory courses (Smith & Zhang, 2009) are key factors in making the transition to college through development of agency and academic ethic. The value of maintaining a rigorous curriculum, including advanced mathematics, throughout high school is apparent (Engle, 2007). However, there are other skills with which students find themselves under-prepared. For example, understanding how to appropriately articulate oneself via email and face-to-face is imperative for students who must negotiate coursework assignments, grade disputes, collaborations, and other activities within the collegiate environment. In their efforts to prepare entering students for a smooth transition, parents and teachers are encouraged to help students learn how to address their concerns verbally and in writing.

Additionally, families and school personnel can support entering students by validating their intellectual capacity and helping them to acknowledge that they belong at the college or university that they've chosen to attend. Many institutions sponsor bridge programs and early orientations. Participating in and/or attending these kinds of programs, and using other campus resources that connect students to the institution, can positively impact the transition to college. Nora (2001) recommends that parents also participate in Parents Weekend, join the parent association, and be engaged through reading school-sponsored literature. Overall, parents and other significant figures who stay connected while allowing the student to mature and further develop their independence can contribute to the success of entering students.

Family and school support is especially important for first-generation college students, children of parents who did not attend or complete college. In 2001, Choy reported that nearly 50% of college students were first-generation students, but their completion rate is lower than students whose parent(s) earned a baccalaureate degree (Ishitani, 2006; Chen & Carroll, 2005). This may be partially due to the special circumstances that first-generation students experience, which can impact their transition to and completion of college. Research shows that first-generation students are more likely to be employed and work longer hours than are other students (Choy, 2001; Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, & Terenzini, 2005). Consequently, first-generation college students are less likely to engage in a diverse set of academic and co-curricular activities that are linked to academic success (Pike and Kuh, 2005). Some first-generation students are academically less prepared that other students (Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, & Terenzii, 2004) and may present with lower academic objectives (Pike and Kuh, 2005). While all entering students need support, guidance, and encouragement, first-generation students may require more of these to equalize the playing field with their peers.

Parents of first-generation students can alleviate some of the transitional issues by actively engaging in the college planning process, which includes gaining familiarity with entrance exams, attending college information sessions, and learning about the financial aid process

(Engle, 2007). Parents and high school counselors should encourage first-generation students to complete gateway courses to college (Engle, 2007). Entering students who participate in first-generation programs that promote access to and success in college are more likely to earn higher grade point averages and complete college compared to first generation-students who do not (Engle, 2007; Folger, Carter, and Chase, 2004).

Supporting the Transition at the College Level

Colleges themselves can help facilitate successful student adjustment through encouraging the dispositions and behaviors identified above. This can often be achieved through the intentional and integrated provision of campus-wide support services and programs.   As noted above, for example, effective academic advising can serve the student at many levels. Research indicates that the effect of academic advising on students transitioning to college positively influences retention and graduation (Tricoli, 2009). Retention is positively impacted by the institution's pledge to prepare students for success (Braxton and Mundy, 2001). Many institutions also include in their curriculum a first-year experience course that is specifically designed to promote student learning and success. These courses advance students' intellectual skills (Kuh, 2008), which also increases student commitment and retention. In fact, research indicates that first year experience courses have led to increased grade point averages, graduation rates, and satisfaction with collegiate experience. The National Resource Center for the First-Year Experience and Students in Transition (http://www.sc.edu/fye/index.html), provides a resource for the best practices for students transitioning to college.

Supporting Emerging Adults as an Instructor

Individual faculty members who view their students through the lens of emerging adulthood can also approach their interactions with students accordingly, guiding and providing examples of mature decision-making within the contexts of advising, teaching, and mentoring. Taking such a developmental approach to student learning does not mean that faculty should lower expectations or compromise academic standards; rather it entails setting the context for students to understand and meet those standards and expectations as they negotiate their transition to adulthood during their college years. If this transition is negotiated successfully, it can benefit the faculty and institution as well as the student by improving the 'return on investment' through improved student performance, retention, and transition to independent adulthood that occurs in the years after college.

Instructors can support emergent-adult students in a number of ways. First, a simple discussion of what emerging adulthood is, and the challenges and opportunities it brings, can sometimes help relieve young students' anxiety about their experiences and decisions, without relieving them of their responsibilities to their education.   Communicating classroom goals for developing mature, independent decision-making and behavior, and then scaffolding assignments accordingly, can help students experience the process and become progressively independent without being overwhelmed. This approach is reminiscent of Vygotsky's (19xx) Zone of Proximal Development, which stipulates that learning occurs best when it introduces skills that are just ahead of the student's current developmental progress – we believe that this can be true of life-skills as well as academic ones. Finally, it is important for instructors to

maintain high standards of rigor, but without judging students who fall short because of immature choices. Emerging adults often have to make decisions about competing priorities, and don't always understand that 'the right choice' may still have negative consequences. Helping them think through, rather than voiding, the consequences, will help the student find the better path in the long run.

Conclusion

College has the potential to serve as a pivotal experience in a young person's life. It presents emerging adults with the opportunity to develop independence and maturity in a relatively nurturing environment while also preparing them for their professional and personal lives as adults. First-year students who demonstrate academic ethic, approach studying methodically, with discipline, and prioritize studying over leisure activities, have positioned themselves for a smoother transition to college (Rau & Durand, 2000) than those who study at the last minute or engage in other activities that undermine their academic endeavors. The combination of possessing academic ethic, engaging in self-regulatory behaviors and developing meaningful relationships within the collegiate environment will help to prepare these emerging adults for the transition to college and beyond.

References

Arnett, J. J. (2000) Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist, 55,* 469-480.

Arnett, J. J. (2007) Emerging adulthood: What is it and what is it good for? *Child Development Perspectives, 1,* 68-74.

Bahrassa, N. F., Syed, M., Su, J., & Lee, R. M. (2011) Family conflict and academic performance of first-year Asian American undergraduates. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology, 17*, 415-426. DOI: 10.1037/a0024731

Blakemore, S. J., den Ouden, H., Choudbury, S., & Frith, C. (2007) Adolescent development of the neural circuitry for thinking about intentions. *Journal of Social Cognition & Affective Neuroscience, 2,* 130-139.

Braxton, J. M. and Mundy, M. E. (2001). Powerful institutional levers to reduce college student departure. *Journal of College Student Retention, 3*(1), 91-118. Retrieved from https://login.ezproxy.auctr.edu:2050/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/196737262?accountid=8422

Bridges, W. (1980) *Transitions.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Britton, B. K., & Tesser, A. (1991). Effects of time-management practices on college grades. *Journal Of Educational Psychology*, *83*, 405-410. DOI: 10.1037/0022-0663.83.3.405

Chen, X. & Carroll, (2005) First-Generation Students in Postsecondary Education: A Look at their College Transcripts. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Chickering, A. W, & Reisser, L. (1993). *Education and identity* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Choy, S. (2001). Students whose parents did not go to college: postsecondary access, persistence, and attainment. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Cuseo, J. (2003). Academic advisement and student retention: Empirical connections and systematic interventions. Retrieved from:

http://www.uwc.edu/sites/default/files/imce-uploads/employees/academic-resources/esfy/_files/academic_advisement_and_student_retention.pdf

Davila, J., Burge, D., & Hammen, C. (1997). Why does attachment style change? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73,* 826–838.

Engle, J. (2005). Postsecondary access and success for first-generation college students. American Academic, 3, 25-48.

Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis.* New York: Norton.

Fischer M. (2007) Settling into campus life: Differences by race/ethnicity in college involvement and outcomes. *Journal Of Higher Education* [serial online]. *78*, 125-161. Available from: ERIC, Ipswich, MA. Accessed August 15, 2012.

Folger, W., Carter, J. A., and Chase, P. B. (2004). Supporting first generation college freshmen with small group intervention.

Fromme, K., Corbin, W. R., & Kruse, M. L. (2008) Behavioral risks during the transition from high school to college. *Developmental Psychology, 44,* 1497-1504.

George, D., Dixon, S., Stansal, E., Gelb, S., & Pheri, T. (2008). Time diary and questionnaire assessment of factors associated with academic and personal success among university undergraduates. *Journal Of American College Health*, *56*, 706-715. DOI: 10.3200/JACH.56.6.706-715

Giedd, J. N., Blumenthal, J., Jeffries, N. O., Castellanos, F. X., Liu, H., Zijdenbos, A., . . . Rapoport, J. L. (1999). Brain development during childhood and adolescence: A longitudinal MRI study. *Nature Neuroscience, 2,* 861–863. DOI: 10.1038/13158

Graunke, S. S., & Woosley, S. A. (2005). An exploration of the factors that affect the academic success of college sophomores. *College Student Journal*, *39*, 367-376.

Ishitani, T.T. (2006). Studying attrition and degree completion behavior among first-generation college students in the United States. *Journal of Higher Education*, *77*, 861-865.

Kaminski, P. L., Turnock, P. M., Rosén, L. A., & Laster, S. A. (2006). Predictors of academic success among college students with attention disorders. *Journal Of College Counseling*, *9*, 60-71. DOI: 10.1002/j.2161-1882.2006.tb00093.x

Kearns, H., & Gardiner, M. (2007). Is it time well spent? The relationship between time mangament behaviours, perceived effectiveness and work-related morale and distress in a university context. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *26*, 235-247. DOI: 10.1080/07294360701310839

Kuh, G. (2008) High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter. Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Kuhn, D. (2006). Do cognitive changes accompany developments in the adolescent brain? *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 1,* 59–67. DOI: 10.1111/j.1745-6924.2006.t01–2-.x

Lopez, F. G. & Gormley, B. (2002) Stability and change in adult attachment style over the first-year college transition: Relations to self-confidence, coping, and distress patterns. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49,* 355-364. DOI: 10.1037//0022-0167.49.3.355

Mbajekwe, C. (2012). *Thriving in the HBCU.* Kendal Hunt Publishing.

Murphy, K. A., Blustein, D. L., Bohlig, A. J., & Platt, M. G. (2010) The college-to-career transition: An exploration of emerging adulthood. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 88,* 174-181.

Nelson, L. J., Padilla-Walker, L. M. , Carroll, J. S., Madsen, S. D., McNamara Barry, C., & Badger, S. (2007) "If you want me to treat you like an adult, start acting like one!" Comparing the criteria that emerging adults and their parents have for adulthood. *Journal of Family Psychology, 21,* 665-674. DOI: 10.1037/0893-3200.21.4.665

Nora, A. (2001). The depiction of significant others in tinto's "rites of passage": A reconceptualization of the influence of family and community in the persistence process. *Journal of College Student Retention, 3*, 41-56. Retrieved from https://login.ezproxy.auctr.edu:2050/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/196714814?accountid=8422

Nunez, A. M. (2009) A critical paradox? Predictors of Latino students' sense of belonging in college. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 2,* 46-61. DOI: 10.1037/a0014099

Oswalt, S. B., & Wyatt, T. J. (2011). Sexual orientation and differences in mental health, stress, and academic performance in a national sample of U.S. College students. *Journal Of Homosexuality*, *58*(9), 1255-1280. DOI: 10.1080/00918369.2011.605738

Parker, K. (2012) The boomerang generation: Feeling OK about living with mom and dad. Pew Research Center, http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2012/03/15/the-boomerang-generation/?src=prc-headline.

Pascarella, E. T., Pierson, C. T., Wolniak, G. C., & Terenzini, P. T. (2004). First-generation college students: additional evidence on college experiences and outcomes. *Journal Of Higher Education*, *75*, 249.

Pharo, H., Sim, C., Graham, M., Gross J. & Hayne, H. (2011) Risky business: Executive function, personality, and reckless behavior during adolescence and emerging adulthood. *Behavioral Neuroscience, 125*, 970-978. DOI: 10.1037/a0025768

Pike, G. R., & Kuh, G. D. (2005). First- and second-generation college students: A comparison of their engagement and intellectual development. *Journal Of Higher Education*, *76*, 276.

Pino, N. W., & Smith, W. L. (2003). College students and academic dishonesty. *College Student Journal, 37*: 4, 490-500.

Ramdass, D., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2011). Developing self-regulation skills: The important role of homework. *Journal Of Advanced Academics*, *22*, 194-218. DOI: 10.1177/1932202X1102200202

Rau, W., & Durand, A. (2000). The academic ethic and college grades: Does hard work help students to 'make the grade'?. *Sociology Of Education*, *73*, 19-38. DOI: 10.2307/2673197

Rubia, K., Overmeier, S., Taylor, E., Brammer, M., Williams, S. C., Simmons, A., Andrew, C., & Bullmore, E. T. (2000) Functional frontalisation with age: Mapping neurodevelopmental trajectories with fMRI. *Journal of Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Review, 24*, 13-19.

Schaller, M. (2010). Understanding the impact of the second year of college. In J. Gardner, M.S. Hunter, B. Tobolowsky, M. Schaller, S. Evenbeck, J. Pattengale (Eds.), *Helping sophomores succeed: Understanding and improving the second-year experience*, pp. 13-29. Jossey Bass.

Shils, E. (1997). The Calling of Education: The Academic Ethic and Other Essays on Higher Education.   Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Smith, W. L., & Zhang, P. (2009). Students' perceptions and experiences with key factors during the transition from high school to college. *College Student Journal*, *43*, 643-657.

Sowell, E. R., Thompson, P. M., Holmes, C. J., Jernigan, T. L., & Toga, A. W. (1999). *In vivo* evidence for post-adolescent brain maturation in frontal and striatal regions. *Nature Neuroscience, 2,* 859–861. DOI: 10.1038/13154

Swenson, L. M., Nordstrom, A., & Hiester, M. (2008). The role of peer relationships in adjustment to college. *Journal Of College Student Development*, *49*, 551-567. DOI: 10.1353/csd.0.0038

Syed, M. & Azmitia, M. (2008) A narrative approach to ethnic identity in emerging adulthood: Bringing life to the identity status model. *Developmental Psychology, 44,* 1012-1027. DOI: 10.1037/0012-1649.44.4.1012.

Syed, M. & Azmitia, M. (2010) Narrative and ethnic identity exploration: A longitudinal account of emerging adults' ethnicity-related experiences. *Developmental Psychology, 46,* 208-219. DOI: 10.1037/a0017825

Tobolowsky, B. F., Mamrick, M., & Cox, B. E. (2005). *The 2003 national survey of first-year seminars: Continuing innovations in the collegiate curriculum* (Monograph no. 41). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, National Resource Center for The First Year Experience and Students in Transition.

Tricoli, A. (2009). Reflections from a college president: When access is not enough, or the significance of academic advising. *Academic Advising Today, 32*(2), 1.

Tsai, K. M & Fuligni, A. J. (2012) Change in ethnic identity across the college transition. *Developmental Psychology, 48,* 56-64. DOI: 10.1037/a0025678

Zubernis, M. & Snyder, L. (2007) Considerations of additional stressors and developmental issues for gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender college students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 22,* 75-79. DOI: 10.1300/J035v22n01_06

Chapter 7
Why I Chose to Teach at an HBCU

PAMELA B. TROTTER, PH.D.
VIRGINIA STATE UNIVERSITY

This article will discuss the reasons two graduates from research–intensive universities decided to teach at an HBCU. Additionally, this article will provide insight regarding the characteristics that make for successful faculty members at these institutions.

Why I Chose to Teach at an HBCU

As I neared completion of my Ph.D. at Kent State University (KSU), a former professor requested that I come back to my undergraduate alma mater to teach while another faculty member went on sabbatical. It was a great opportunity for me. I would be finished with data collection for my dissertation by then, and I could finish data analyses and writing while teaching there without worrying about funding. My dissertation advisor was leaving the university I was attending for a position across the country so I had to finish my dissertation via e-mail and teleconference so there was no reason to stay at KSU while I finished. My undergraduate alma mater is a Historically Black College/University (HBCU).

It had been five and a half years since I had graduated. Many of the faculty who taught me were still there and now they were my colleagues. I was required to serve on university committees alongside them and I began to see how I could be instrumental in the decisions and policies that governed me as a student. I also served as the faculty advisor for the same student organization that I founded as a student. These duties were second of course to my teaching obligations.

I had already been teaching for a couple of years as a graduate student but I fell deeper in love with teaching while there. It was gratifying to see the students' interests in the topics that I highlighted in my courses but what was most surprising to me was that the questions that were asked by my students were not always simply focused on the course material. I was sought out for advice about various personal struggles with which the students were wrestling. After directing them to the appropriate resources it was heartwarming to hear the positive impact it made on their lives. I was also routinely asked about my path to attending graduate school and earning a Ph.D. while still in my twenties.

During my years in graduate school I saw the prevalence of students receiving terminal degrees in their twenties but I could also relate to my students in their perception that "twenty-something" was quite young to have earned doctorate. And many openly told me that I changed their perception of who a PhD could be just by simply telling them about my academic path. My HBCU Alma mater does not have many graduate programs; therefore, students do not often interact with graduate students or take classes with graduate student instructors. So they do not get a real example of their potential next step or realize that they can begin it immediately after completing their undergraduate degree.

What I discovered then was that many students were seeking mentoring. Most of my students were first generation college students (which is typical of students at an HBCU) and were only focused on completing the baccalaureate degree. They did not see an advanced degree in their future. As a faculty member in psychology I knew how valuable earning an advanced/terminal degree could be to having a productive career in psychology. I also knew without mentoring, supportive letters of recommendation, and opportunities to do research as an undergraduate, my students would not be as competitive for admission into graduate programs or receiving graduate funding even with a decent grade point average. I also knew that without the appropriate guidance and resources, decisions made about various aspects of their personal lives could become obstacles to completing their undergraduate education or pursuing a terminal degree.

My position at my alma mater was temporary; therefore, soon after attending my graduation ceremony I began searching for a tenure-track position. After my teaching experiences at my alma mater I decided to seek out a position at an HBCU in earnest. I knew that teaching at an HBCU would have its challenges (as I will discuss below) but I felt that the opportunity to mentor students and assist them in successfully reaching their professional and personal goals would have intrinsic benefits that would make it worthwhile.

Any person interested in teaching at an HBCU should understand the common historical mission of HBCUs, their institutional and student characteristics, and the perception of the HBCU environment. I believe that an understanding of these factors and considering them along with one's professional goals could help aspiring professors determine if teaching at an HBCU is the right choice for them.

The Mission of HBCUs.

The first HBCUs were founded near the end of slavery but most were founded after the Emancipation Proclamation of 1863. Cheney University of Pennsylvania was the first HBCU founded in 1837. All HBCUs had the common mission of educating African Americans at a time when African Americans were denied admission into state colleges and universities. At that time African American students were relegated to an underfunded public educational system therefore many HBCUs also provided secondary education in their early years (Allen & Jewell, 2002). Although these discriminatory admission practices have changed with end of legal racial segregation in public education due to the Brown V. Board of Education decision in 1954, racial disparities in educational attainment remain. Significantly fewer high school diplomas and college degrees were granted to African American students than White students in 2012 (USDE, 2013). These disparities are particularly important as they are linked to employment and annual earnings. There is a consistent pattern of higher rates of unemployment and lower annual earnings for those with lower levels of educational attainment (USDE, 2013).

HBCUs play an integral role in addressing these racial disparities in educational attainment as they have been successful in educating first generation, underprepared, low income students from various racial and cultural backgrounds who may have otherwise never received a college education (Allen, 1992). Although the 103 HBCUs in existence today represent only 3% of colleges and universities in the United States, approximately 30% of bachelor's degrees earned

by African American students were awarded at HBCUS and a large percentage of African American professionals and doctorate recipients were educated at HBCUs (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2010).

Student and Institutional Characteristics of HBCUs

The differences between African American students who attend HBCUs versus HWCUs (historically white colleges and universities) and the differences between these types of institutions have been well-documented (e.g., Allen, 1992, Freeman & Thomas, 2002; Kim & Conrad, 2006 U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2010). Research has shown that African American students attending HBCUs have lower high school grade point averages, lower standardized test scores, and are more likely to come from families of lower SES than African American Students who attend HWCUs (Allen, 1992, Freeman & Thomas, 2002; Kim & Conrad, 2006). Comparisons between institutions revealed more resources at HWCUs than HBCUs which include a higher percentage of faculty with terminal degrees, higher faculty salaries, higher instructional budgets, more modern facilities, and more graduate degree programs (Kim & Conrad, 2006; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2010). Although HBCUs have fewer resources, students have described them as having more supportive and engaging environments than HWCUs which includes a higher frequency of student-faculty contact and involvement in faculty research, lower student/faculty ratio, better student-student interactions, more student leadership opportunities, and a stronger sense of community and connectedness (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2002; Kim & Conrad, 2006; Outcalt & Skewes-Cox 2002).

Perceptions of HBCUs and the Faculty

When individuals choose to attend an HBCU they do so expecting a nurturing environment that will allow an underprepared student an opportunity to obtain a college education and an engaging environment that is equally appealing to a well-prepared student that will allow both types of students the opportunity to grow as leaders while developing a sense of their heritage and culture. There are many students who are admitted and would succeed at any university who choose to attend an HBCU because they desire the cultural experience it provides and/or to continue a family legacy of attendance. Frierson (1993) found that the African American educators in their study characterized HBCUs as nurturing, supportive environments that create a sense of belonging, ownership, and responsibility and provides African American students the opportunity to develop leadership skills and a positive self identity due to the African American faculty, staff, and administrators who serve as positive role models. Allen (1992) reported that African American students' likelihood of success in college is determined by the combination of individual factors (ability, academic preparation, and academic aspirations) and situational/interpersonal factors including the institution's academic environment and racial climate, positive student-faculty relationships, and student-student relationships. Therefore, the supportive environment of the HBCU is a clear choice for many African American students.

Research by Guiffrida (2005) outlines the expectations African American students have of African American faculty, which I would assert is expected from all faculty, regardless of race at an HBCU. Guiffrida indicated that students expected faculty to go above and beyond course instruction by showing genuine concern about them and belief in their potential. This is done by

providing extensive academic and career advising and connections for graduate school admission or employment, as well as guidance on personal problems. In addition, students reported expectations of support in the forms of tutoring and advocacy within the university and with their families when necessary. Guiffrida (2005) described this extensive level of mentoring as "othermothering" in which faculty are expected to serve in more of a parental role. In my experience I have found that African American students highly favor faculty they perceive as a mother/father figure. HBCUs promote a nurturing familial environment. In fact, the HBCU where I work has "personalized attention in the delivery of instruction" and "providing a nurturing environment that supports the needs of students" (Virginia State University, 2004 p. 2) as two of our core values.

Challenges and Recommendations

Now that I have taught at 3 HBCUs and 2 HWCUs I have learned firsthand the challenges of teaching at an HBCU versus an HWCU. I found that the teaching and service demands were higher at the HBCUs were I worked than the HWCUs. Based on my experiences as a student and my teaching experiences while a graduate student I expected to serve as a mentor when I began my teaching career, however, I did not realize how time consuming it can be and how small of a role it plays in promotion and tenure decisions at many universities. There still must be adequate time dedicated to research and service obligations. I realized that time management is critical. One way professors remain productive in research is by scheduling a day during the week that is dedicated for research and writing and synchronizing office hours with departmental colleagues to make sure someone is available to meet with students who need assistance during the business day. Many professors also dedicate summer and holiday breaks to catch up on research and writing. In addition, collaborating with faculty with similar research interests also helps to stay focused and productive.

Another issue is the wide diversity in the academic preparation of students. Many HBCUs still have liberal admission policies so you will have students who are underprepared as well as those who are honor students all in one class. Teaching to such a diverse group of students in one class can be challenging. In addition, a higher percentage of students at HBCUs come from low income families and therefore spend an exorbitant amount of time working to support themselves and/or their families which hinders their study time. This is particularly troubling when the student is also academically underprepared for college. During the 2011-2012 academic year I surveyed 84 students in one of the required courses I teach to assess the time they spent studying, working, and participating in extra-curricular activities. I found that 67% of students in my class worked for an average of 23 hours a week (more than 40% of them reported working for 25 hours or more) while enrolled in 16 credit hours, participating in extracurricular activities for 6 to 7 hours per week, and studying for an average of 10.5 hours per week. When you consider common recommendations of studying 2 to 3 hours per week outside of class per credit 10.5 hours falls very short of the recommended study time. Seventy percent of all of the students I surveyed acknowledged that they did not spend an adequate amount of time studying (Trotter, 2012).

As a professor and academic advisor, I remind students that success requires time and effort and I pay close attention to the combination of courses they enroll in each semester and

recommend lighter course loads that they can effectively manage and maintain satisfactory grades. Both the institution and the students expect professors to serve as mentors; therefore, professors must find creative, time efficient ways to meet this priority. It can be overwhelming to meet individually with every student so I take time in class to discuss effective study strategies specific to the courses I teach. This is helpful to all students no matter their level of preparation. I do not wait for students to request help. Sending email communication to low performing students while there is still time to improve grades or withdraw from the class, or communicating with them in other ways, is essential. Many students will struggle in silence way too long and allow their pride to keep them from seeking help (Palmer, Davis, & Hilton, 2009). Also, I keep abreast of university support services (tutoring, writing labs, etc) available to students and share these resources with students. It may also be appropriate for professors to require the use of these services particularly for courses with writing assignments. Professors cannot assume that students are aware of them. I have found that many students miss the orientation meetings designed to provide information about university resources. I also keep copies of the textbooks I use for students who may struggle to purchase their textbooks for students to read during my office hours. University libraries also allow professors to keep the book on reserve for student use in the library.

 In addition, I communicate opportunities for student internships or student research positions via announcements in class and emails. Providing information to students and directing them to appropriate resources communicates to them that their professors want them to succeed and are concerned about their success. Professors can also connect with students by periodically attending student events (games, recitals, and concerts). Students need and appreciate the support.

Conclusion

HBCUs continue to serve a noble mission and their professors are integral in accomplishing it. Many students who attend HBCUs arrive underprepared but they leave equal to other college graduates (Kim & Conrad, 2006). HBCU professors must offer appropriate assistance and guidance but maintain high standards. This communicates a belief in their students' abilities and in my experience has shown students that they are more capable than they realize.

Teaching at an HBCU has its share of challenges but I have been overwhelmed at times with testimonies from students who have reached their professional and personal goals despite devastating challenges. It is heartwarming to hear that they attribute their success partly to the instruction, research experiences, and mentoring they received from me and my colleagues. The nurturing and familial environment of the HBCU truly allows these students to succeed against all odds.

References

Allen, W.R. (1992). The color of success: African-American college student outcomes at predominantly white and historically black public colleges and universities. *The Harvard Educational Review, 62,* 26-44.

Allen, W. & Jewell, (2002). A backward glance forward: Past, present and future perspectives on historically Black colleges and universities. *Review of Higher Education,* 25, 241-261.

Allen, W., Jewell, J., Griffin, K., & Wolf, D. (2007). Historically black colleges and universities: Honoring the past, engaging the present, and touching the future. *The Journal of Negro Education, 76,* 263-280.

Freeman, K. & Thomas, G. (2002). Black colleges and college choice: Characteristics of students who choose HBCUs. *The Review of Higher Education*, 25(3), 349-358.

Frierson, C. (1993). Perceptions of African American educators toward historically Black colleges and universities (ED375193). U.S. Department of Education: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. Retrieved from Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC database).

Fries-Britt, S. & Turner, B. (2002). Uneven Stories: Successful Black collegians at a Black and a White campus. *The Review of Higher Education,* 25, 315-330.

Guiffrida, D. (2005). Othermothering as a framework for understanding African American students' definitions of student-centered faculty. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 76(6), 701-723.

Kim, M. & Conrad, C. (2006). The impact of historically black colleges and universities on the academic success of African American students. *Research in Higher Education, 47,* 399-427.

Outcalt, C. & Skewes-Cox, T. (2002). Involvement, interaction, and satisfaction: The human environment at HBCUs. *The Review of Higher Education*, 25(3), 331-347.

Palmer, R.T., Davis, R.J., Hilton, A.A. (2009). Exploring challenges that threaten to impede the academic success of academically underprepared black males at an HBCU. *Journal of College Student Development, 50*(4), 429-445.

Trotter, P. (2012). *Time Allocation Study*. Unpublished raw data.

The United States Commission on Civil Rights (2010, November). *The Educational Effectiveness of Historically Black Colleges and Universities*. Washington, DC: Author.

Virginia State University (2004). *2020 Plan: The Long Range Plan for Virginia State University.* Retrieved from Virginia State University website: http://vsu.edu/files/docs/instit-planning-effectiveness%20/2020VisionPlan.pdf

U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics. (2013). *The Condition of Education 2013* (NCES 2013-037). Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2013/2013037.pdf

Chapter 8
Rethinking Teaching and Advising: Strategies for Integrating the Principles of Student-Centered Teaching into the Advising Process at a Historically Black University

KAREN Y. HOLMES, KAREN B. WHITE & JOY A. COOLEY-DOLES
NORFOLK STATE UNIVERSITY

When we joined the ranks of the professoriate, we could not have foreseen how our stance on academic advising and its place in our long-term career plans would undergo such a monumental shift. When thinking about what it meant to be a faculty member at a Historically Black institution, we envisioned a heavy teaching load, certainly research with students, and a great deal of service, especially, advising. We were keenly aware that advising would often consume a large part of our week as one of those required, but decidedly inconvenient, tasks that must be completed, but which demands a great deal of time and energy. Advising simply meant assisting students with the development of their course schedules. We followed the departmental curriculum guidelines to the letter, making sure not to deviate from the script. Rarely if ever did we allow for the development of relationships that would engender questions such as, "What are your career goals?", "What are your strengths and weaknesses?", "Why are you a psychology major"?, On the contrary, the rule of thumb in those days was simple and plain, if not linguistically refined: "get 'em in and get 'em out."

How dreadful these words sound many years later. Fortunately, through opportunity and experience, we have learned that advising—and more importantly, effective advising—was critical not only to the success of our students but for the efficiency and vitality of our academic institution as well. It became clear that academic advising would not impede our professional goals. In fact, if managed properly, advising could be a complement to the multiple hats worn as university professors. It is this expanded interpretation of advising that allows us to embrace advising as an extension of what we spend the largest part of our week doing. Simply put, advisors at their core are teachers. This chapter will discuss the importance of embracing the notion of advising as teaching and outline innovative strategies for the implementation of a "course" in advising.

Advising as Teaching and Learning

"An excellent advisor does for students' entire education what the excellent teacher does for a course." ~ Lowenstein (2006)

In recent years, higher education has begun rethinking the focus and purpose of academic advising. Prior to this, prescriptive and developmental approaches to advising monopolized the discourse and were the two dominant forms of advising (Crookston, 1972). The prescriptive approach to advising is based upon the premise that students are novices and must acquire information from a more experienced and knowledgeable individual, in this case their academic advisor. This advising style emphasizes advisor proficiency and de-emphasizes student

responsibility (Wood, 2002). Though the prescriptive model is effective in situations where immediate and accurate information is required, this approach fails to facilitate the development of an effective interpersonal relationship between the student and the advisor (Wood, 2002).

Developmental advising, which is grounded in the broad developmental theories, emphasizes student self-actualization and personal development (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005); and has as its hallmark the development and nurturing of the advisor-advisee relationship as the foundation for the personal and professional growth of the student. This "relational model" approach to advising necessitates an awareness of the changes that take place in the students' life and how each student responds differently to these changes and the subsequent impact on the students' learning experience (Wood, 2002). Developmental advising recognizes the importance of student engagement and active participation in the advising process.

A more recent view of advising considers the interplay among teaching, learning, and advising. This approach requires a shift in focus from teacher to student; underscoring student learning rather than instructor knowledge (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005). Advising as teaching and learning is grounded in the philosophy that effective teaching and advising necessitates similar skills. This philosophy also recognizes that advising is a developmental process and that students learn at different rates. Advising is also an active process that requires the knowledge and expertise of the student as well as the knowledge and expertise of the advisor. Finally, one of the unique aspects of the philosophy of advising as teaching and learning is that this approach emphasizes the incorporation of the institutions missions, goals and objectives into the learning process (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005).

The Advising Syllabus

It is the consensus of many scholars that there exists a synergy between teaching and advising reflecting the belief that an effective advisor possesses many of the same qualities as a quality teacher (Appleby, 2001).

In a classroom setting there are learning objectives, a curriculum, student learning outcomes, and a pedagogy, but how would these elements translate to an advising setting?

Nothing symbolizes the teaching process more than a course syllabus (D'Antonio, 2007).   The same can be accomplished with the advising process. The syllabus offers insight into the style, expectations, and philosophy of the course instructor. The instructor establishes the tone of the course by the timbre and tenor of the syllabus (D'Antonio, 2007).

We, like many instructors on the first session of a new course, present a syllabus that outlines student expectations, course policies, and a tentative course outcome. The same can be done on the first advising session with a student.   An advising syllabus, sets clear guidelines and expectations for each advising session. It outlines a curriculum and learning objectives and sends the message to the student that she should take the advising session seriously.

What do the Students Learn?

Course instructors often spend hours developing innovative content to assess specific learning objectives. Similarly, there are objectives to be achieved in the advising process and outcomes to assess. Some important outcomes from advising process include academic success, persistence, retention and eventual graduation within 4-6 years. According to Hemwell and Trachte (2008), the advising curriculum can be organized around three overarching principles:

1. Student understanding of the mission of the institution
2. The development of higher order thinking skills
3. The achievement of personal and institutional goals

Student Understanding of the Mission of the Institution. First, students must learn of the mission and goals of their college or university. It is here that students develop an understanding of the purpose of college and their place within the institution (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005). One of the first advising sessions should involve a review of your institutions' mission statement and a discussion of the purpose of college in a global and individual sense (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005). As faculty members at a Historically Black University (HBCU), there is a keen awareness of the historical legacy of HBCUs and their significance to the education of African American students (see Harper, 2007), as such we require students to consider the traditional and historical role of HBCU's in the African American community and how their academic achievement enhances this legacy.   First year students should also be able to draw parallels between their individual goals and the goals of their institution and how their success ultimately propels the success of the institution (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005; Appleby, 2001).

Questions that students could ponder are:

1. "How will your academic success enhance the success of the University?"
2. What can students do during their academic careers to uphold and advance the mission and goals of their college or university?

The Development of Higher Order Thinking Skills

In many ways, the advisor-advisee relationship is similar to the instructor-student relationship (Lowenstein, 2005); both can facilitate the development of their students' higher order thinking skills. The lead author's (Holmes) teaching philosophy encompasses the development of student critical thinking skills and this development is consistent with the ideas of Bloom (1956), Appleby (2001) and Hemwall and Trachte (2003).

Basic Knowledge

The first level of comprehension for advisors to impart to students is basic knowledge of their curriculum, and institutional resources. At this level, students may wonder why they must take a statistics course when their goal is to become a therapist. They might ponder the number of credits they need to graduate. They may inquire about whom they need to see to determine if their credits transferred from the community college that they attended the previous year. At this level of comprehension, advisors can require students to study their degree requirements to become familiar with the courses that they must take. Additionally, students should be able

to consider not only the description of the courses that make up their curriculum but the importance of each individual course to the students' career and occupational objectives.

A simple activity for advisors to implement is the "Advising Scavenger Hunt" worksheet. This worksheet requires students to be active participants in the advising process. Research that examines the factors that account for student persistence in college suggest that students who are actively engaged with their education are more likely to excel academically than students who are less engaged (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). On the first advising session with newly admitted students, advisors can require students to locate basic information regarding the University's resources, their curriculum and contact information for relevant departments on campus. An abridged example of the "Advising Scavenger Hunt" worksheet is below:

The Advising Scavenger Hunt

1. What is the phone number to the Psychology Department?
2. How many credit hours are needed to complete a degree in Psychology?
3. What is the prerequisite for PSY 360 (experimental Psychology)? Why are prerequisites important?
4. Why is a course in statistics important for a Psychology major?
5. What is the number to the Financial Aid office? Admissions Office?
6. Where is the Student Success Center located? What is the number to the Student Success Center?

Alternatively, this abridged worksheet can be adapted to fit the needs of individual instructors.

Application

At the application level of comprehension, students should be prepared to use the knowledge that they have gained through the scavenger hunt to engage in problem solving. For example, students should be able to consider questions such as, "How can I graduate in two semesters when I only have money to pay for one semester?" It is here that students should rely on their knowledge of the resource structure of their institution. The student and advisor should be able to discuss possible solutions to this challenge (e.g., petitioning for an increase in financial aid, applying for scholarship dollars and work study opportunities, etc.). Students could also consider the possibility of testing out of certain courses.

To facilitate the development of problem solving skills, students could complete an "Advisee Information Sheet," which requires them to provide details about their background, including enrollment at other universities, their status as a first generation college student, and financial aid status. Additionally, students are asked to provide any constraints that will impede degree completion, such as their work schedule, child care challenges, or transportation issues. Finally, students are asked to consider the strategies that they will incorporate to progress personally and academically.

An alternative to the information sheet is a brainstorming session in which the advisor encourages the student to consider any barriers to degree completion and assist with the development of strategies to mitigate the challenges that they face.

Analysis

Students at the analysis level of critical thinking are able to contemplate questions such as, "How do all of the general education requirements fit together and benefit me as a Psychology major?" Here students should be able to understand and articulate how a combination of general education courses will benefit them as a psychology major. An activity to introduce here requires students to examine the general education requirements and demonstrate how those requirements complement their career goals and objectives. A second activity, requires students to evaluate the psychology curriculum and revise it to complement their academic goals. For example, the general education requirement at our institution requires a course in Contemporary Mathematics, which includes topics such as statistics and probability and geometry. A student who is considering medical school after graduation will require a higher level math, possibly a course in Calculus. This exercise will require the student to revise the basic curriculum to align it with their goals.

Synthesis

Synthesis involves the integration of diverse elements to make a coherent whole. In advising terms, students should be about to answer questions such as "What courses should I take to work with special-needs children?" Here students should be able to develop an academic plan that includes all of the courses needed to complete their degree requirements. Students should also be able to defend the veracity of their academic plan. The "Academic Plan" that we propose is based upon a document developed by Indiana University. This academic plan requires students to consider each course they are contemplating and how these courses will enhance their knowledge base and skill set. When a student is unsure about a future career, we discuss their interests and abilities and encourage them to utilize career services before beginning the academic plan. An abridged academic plan is below:

The Academic Plan Work Sheet

Course	Term	Why is this course necessary?	What skills will I gain that will benefit me in my future career?	
Statistics	Fall 2013			

Evaluation

Evaluation requires students to reflect upon their strengths and weaknesses to determine if they have the appropriate skills to fulfill their goals (e.g., graduate school). It is here that advisors can have students assess their personal and academic strengths and weaknesses and develop an action plan to counter the weaknesses and enhance the strengths. For example, if a student has weak interpersonal skills (e.g., speaking, listening, self-disclosure, etc.) students at this level should be able to consider the steps needed to improve upon these weaknesses; such as, enrolling in additional courses to assist with developing these attributes, or seeking counseling. On the other hand, if the student has excellent writing skills, the question should consider strategies to enhance these skills such as taking additional writing courses, joining the campus newspaper etc. A sample activity for the evaluation level of comprehension is the

"Academic Advising Evaluation and Reflection Worksheet." An abridged version of this worksheet is below:

Academic Advising Evaluation and Reflection Worksheet

1. What are my strengths academically?
2. What four strategies will I implement to enhance my academic strengths?
3. What are my weaknesses academically?
4. What four strategies will I implement to improve upon my academic weaknesses?

The Achievement of Personal and Institutional Goals

Advisors should encourage students to use their developing critical thinking skills to self-reflect and consider how their decisions affect their personal and academic goals (Hemwell & Trachte, 2005). According to Light (2001), a first session with and advisee might include the following questions: Why are you in college? What are your goals for college? How does the study of Psychology fit within your goals? This lesson should require students to consider the strategies they will undertake to achieve their goals. How will the student combine work, family, extracurricular activities and their academic schedule? Students can develop a "Daily Action Plan" where they can outline their academic responsibilities, their work schedule, and study time for each day. An effective activity would be to encourage students to provide written responses to these questions. Advisors can use these responses to examine the growth of the student.

In addition to the student's personal and academic goals, it is also important for advisors to encourage students to consider how their personal and academic goals are in line with the broad goals and objectives of their institution. For example, one of the key objectives of our institution is increasing retention and graduation rates; therefore effective advising is paramount.

Retention studies at HBCUs established that consistent and positive student interaction with faculty members is associated with increased academic persistence (Chenoweth, 1999). An innovative activity requires advisors to create a distribution list consisting of the e-mail addresses of their advisees and commit to e-mailing them weekly or biweekly just to "check in." This activity allows advisors to monitor the progress of their advisees and address challenges promptly. Additionally, this activity serves as a tool for enhancing the relationship between the advisor and advisees.

Student Evaluation of Advising

At the conclusion of each academic term, students typically evaluate their course and their course instructor's performance. This evaluation serves multiple purposes; it gives students an opportunity to voice their opinion about the course and gives the instructor feedback about the course design and delivery to make necessary changes. In learning centered advising, evaluation is key. Advisors and advisees develop a relationship that requires consistent evaluation of both the student and the advisor. Research suggests that survey items should be grounded in the available theory and research (Cuseo, 2008). For example, consider including items that assess advisor characteristics that students value such as, items that assess advisor

availability, knowledge, helpfulness, and approachability (Smith & Allen, 2006).   The evaluations need not be standardized. Advisors can develop a few questions such as:

1. My advisor was available when I needed assistance.
2. My advisor was knowledgeable about the degree requirements.
3. My advisor was knowledgeable about my University's resources.
4. My advisor was approachable.
5. My advisor assisted me with thinking critically about my academic career.
6. Overall, my advisor was effective.
7. Provide any additional comments that you may have about your advisor and or the advising process.

Advisors should also consider evaluating their students' performance in completing the required advising curriculum activities and their overall effectiveness as an advisee (Cuseo, 2008). Students can be asked questions such as:

- Rate your level of effort in the following areas:
  1. Reading the syllabus
  2. Learning about the curriculum requirements
  3. Learning about university resources
  4. Developing my critical thinking skills

Conclusion

In recent years, institutions of higher learning, in particular Historically Black Colleges and Universities, have begun to reexamine the focus and purpose of academic advising. Important to this discourse is the viewpoint that academic advising at its core is teaching.   It is essential that students take an active role in all aspects of their academic development and this is especially the case with the advising process. To this end, we have outlined several innovative activities that support a learning centered approach to advising. It is our belief that this approach will enhance the effectiveness of the advising process by highlighting the importance of student engagement and active participation while also underscoring the undeniable connections between teaching, learning and advising.

References

Appleby, D. (2001). The teaching-advising connection, part II. The Mentor, 3(1). Retrieved from www.psu.edu/dus/mentor/.

Bloom B. S. (1956). Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: The Cognitive Domain. New York: David McKay Co Inc.

Chenoweth, K. (1999). HBCUs tackle the knotty problem of retention. Black Issues in Higher Education, 15 (26), 38-41.

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

Cuseo, J. (2008). Assessing advisor effectiveness. In Gordon, V.N. Habley, W.R., & Grites, T. J. (Eds.) Academic Advising: A Comprehensive Handbook (2nd edition). pp. 369-383. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

D'Antonio, M. (2007, July). If your syllabus could talk. The Chronicle of Higher Education: Chronicle Careers. Retrieved May 5, from http://www.chronicle.com/jobs/news/2007/07/2007071901c/printable.html

Harper, B. (2007). African American access to Higher Education: The evolving role of historically Black colleges and universities. American Academic, 3, 109-128.

Hemwall, M.K., & Trachte, K.C. (2003). Academic advising and the learning paradigm. In M.K. Hemwall & K.C. Trachte (Eds.), Advising and learning: academic advising from the perspective of small colleges and universities (NACADA Monograph No. 8, 13-19). Manhattan, KS: National Academic Advising Association.

Hemwall M.K., & Trachte, K.C. (2005). Academic advising as learning: Ten organizing principles. NACADA Journal, 25 (2), 74-83.

Light, R. J. (2001). Making the most of college: Students speak their minds. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Lowenstein, M. (2006). A learning-centered view of teaching as advising. Proceedings from the Firth Annual Professional Development Conference on Academic Advising. Retrieved from www.psu.edu/dus/mentor/proc01ml.htm

Lowenstein, M. (2006). If advising is teaching, what do advisors teach? NACADA Journal, 25 (2), 65-73

Smith, C. & Allen, J. (2006). Essential functions of academic advising: What students want and get. NACADA Journal, 26, 56-66.

Pascarella, E., & Terenzini, P. (1991). How College Affects Students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wood, K. (2002). Developmental versus prescriptive advising: An investigation of advising delivery at a major university. Unpublished Master's Thesis, West Virginia University.

Author Bios

White Professors at HBCUs: On Becoming Equal Contributors for Black Student Success
ANDREW T. ARROYO, ED.D.
Norfolk State University
Department of History and Interdisciplinary Studies
700 Park Ave
Norfolk, VA 23504

Andrew T. Arroyo is assistant professor of Interdisciplinary Studies and a Research Affiliate with the Center for Minority Serving Institutions at the University of Pennsylvania. His research agenda focuses on minority-serving institutions, diversity, and equity in higher education, and his writings have appeared in such journals as *Teaching Theology & Religion* and the *American Journal of Education*. Currently he is finishing a second MA in Humanities and working on a Law degree.

The First Generation College Student: Overcoming Barriers to Success
ERNESTINE A. DUNCAN, PH.D.
Department of Psychology
Norfolk State University
700 Park Ave.
Norfolk, VA 23504

Dr. Duncan is currently the Department Head for the Department of Psychology at Norfolk State University. She earned her Ph.D. and M.A. degrees in Clinical Psychology from Georgia State University. Her undergraduate degree is from Oberlin College in Ohio. Dr. Duncan's research interests include health psychology and more specifically, HIV/AIDS prevention in African Americans. Her clinical interests include working with children with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). She began teaching at Norfolk State University in 2001.

SHAMIER M. YATES
Shamier earned the Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology from Virginia State University. She went on to earn the Masters of Art degree in Community/Clinical Psychology from Norfolk State University in 2013. She has a strong passion for working with veterans in all capacities and providing crisis intervention services to individuals diagnosed with serious mental illness, developmental disabilities, and intellectual disabilities.

Overcoming Competing Responsibilities that Impact Academic Performance: Teaching Non-Traditional Students in a Traditional College Setting
KHADIJAH O. MILLER, PH.D.
Norfolk State University

Department of Interdisciplinary Studies
700 Park Avenue
Norfolk, VA 23504

Khadijah O. Miller is associate professor and chair of the Department of Interdisciplinary Studies at NSU. Her research interests include 20th and 21st century U.S. African American women, Critical Identity Studies (including African American, Women's and Interdisciplinary Studies), and online/distance learning.

Beyond our Borders: Internationalizing the Teaching of Psychology
JOHN E. FIFE, PH.D.
Virginia State University
Department of Psychology
1 Hayden
Dr. Petersburg, VA 23806

Dr. Fife is an Associate Professor of Psychology at Virginia State University. He coordinates study abroad educational experiences to his native Trinidad and Tobago. His research interest includes HIV/AIDS prevention, academic achievement, and the impact of international education on ethnic minority students.

From The Courtroom to The Classroom: The Value Of Service Learning To Encourage A Voice Of Care In Criminal Justice Students
DORIS L. EDMONDS, J.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Sociology
Norfolk State University

Doris L. Edmonds is an Assistant Professor at Norfolk State University who teaches criminal justice courses in the Sociology Department. Prior to teaching at Norfolk State, she was a practicing attorney who, over the years, served as assistant prosecutor, defense attorney, private attorney and asst. director of clinical education for the Marshall-Wythe School of Law. Her research interests include: Disproportionate Minority Contact in the Juvenile Justice System; The Plight of Black Female Victims of Intimate Partner Abuse; The Development of Self-Regulating Students at an Undergraduate Institution and The Importance of Service Learning to Establish an Ethic of Care in Criminal Justice Students.

Making the Transition to College within the Context of Emerging Adulthood
KAREN BRAKKE, PH.D.
Spelman College
Department of Psychology
350 Spelman Lane SW
Atlanta, GA 30314

Karen Brakke is an Associate Professor and former Chair of the Psychology Department at Spelman College. She earned her PhD in developmental psychology at Georgia State University and worked as a research associate at Morris Brown College before joining the Spelman faculty in 1999. She has advised and mentored many Atlanta University Center (AUC) students over the years, through both departmental advising and working with several federally-funded research training programs,

DEKIMBERLEN JONEKA NEELY, PH.D.
Spelman College
Office of Undergraduate Studies
350 Spelman Lane SW Box 1349
Atlanta, Georgia 30314

DeKimberlen J. Neely, is an associate dean in the Office of Undergraduate Studies at Spelman College. As associate dean, she is responsible for a number of duties such as managing the sophomore seminar course, coordinating the domestic exchange program, monitoring academic progress of students and identifying external prestigious scholarships for students. Dr. Neely earned her bachelor's degree in psychology from Spelman College in 1996, and earned both a master's degree and a doctorate in clinical psychology from the University of Cincinnati in 1999 and 2004 respectively.

Why I Chose to Teach at an HBCU
PAMELA B TROTTER, PH.D.
Virginia State University
Department of Psychology

Dr. Pamela Trotter began her teaching career in 1995 as a phd candidate in social psychology at Kent State University. She has taught at several universities and has taught diverse student populations. She is dedicated to assisting students reach their professional and personal goals. In addition, she is active in the community and is passionate about strengthening interpersonal relationships.

Rethinking Teaching and Advising: Strategies for Integrating the Principles of Student-Centered Teaching into the Advising Process at a Historically Black University
KAREN Y. HOLMES, PH.D.
Karen Y. Holmes is an Associate Professor of Psychology at Norfolk State University. She received her B.A. in Psychology from Hampton University and her M.A. and Ph.D. in Social Psychology from Wayne State University. Her research interests include the Social Psychology of Health in African Americans and statistics education.

DR. KAREN B. WHITE, PSY.D.
Dr. White received her doctorate degree in Clinical Psychology from the Virginia Consortium Program in Clinical Psychology, her master's degree from Norfolk State University in Community/Clinical Psychology and her bachelor's from North Carolina Central University. Dr. White is reality therapy certified. Her research interests include investigating the relationship

between self disclosure, intimacy, and satisfaction in African-American and European-America heterosexual relationships.

JOY COOLEY-DOLES, PSY.D.
Professor/Department of Psychology
Norfolk State University
Hometown: Ettrick, Virginia

Dr. Cooley-Doles began her education at Matoaca Laboratory School on the campus of Virginia State University. She is a graduate of Matoaca High School, The University of Virginia (Bachelor's degree), Virginia State University (Master's degree), and The Virginia Consortium for Professional Psychology (Doctor of Psychology degree). She began her service at Norfolk State University in 1989 and has enjoyed the past 25 years as an educator and advisor. Her research interests include happiness, positive psychology, and the relationships between people and their pets. Dr. Cooley-Doles relaxes by bird watching, walking, and movie going. She likes to travel and has participated in summer programs in Ghana and Kenya. She has a wonderful sense of humor and loves to laugh. She is a Life Member of Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Inc.