# THE RELATIONSHIP OF PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT TO PREFERENCES FOR ACADEMIC ADVISING USING A TWO-DIMENSIONAL MEASURE

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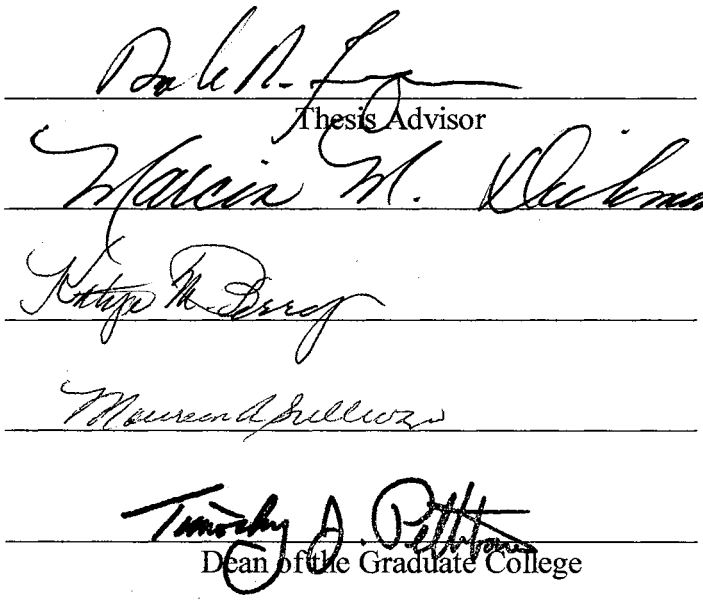

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Higher education in the United States has changed radically since its inception in the 17th century. Once solely the province of the white male elite, college campuses have gradually opened to women, minorities, and the middle class (Cohen, 1998). The once rigid curriculum has expanded to include a nearly infinite choice of courses and degree programs. Today, the diverse array of students, faced with a myriad of curricular choices, needs knowledgeable guidance in establishing and clarifying values, developing goals, and making academic and extracurricular choices in support of those goals. All of these factors play a role in overall student development.

Effective academic advising should be the heart of a developmental approach in higher education (Shane, 1981). Briefly stated, academic advising is a process in which the advisor helps the student develop his or her total potential (O'Banion, 1972). Indeed, few college experiences influence student development as much as academic advising (National Academic Advising Association, 2002). The nature of the relationship between advisor and advisee is of critical importance (Crookston, 1972). Interaction with an academic advisor gives the student the opportunity to learn and understand degree requirements, learn about extracurricular opportunities, discuss major and career options, and consider life values and goals. High quality advising is essential to student learning and leads to improved retention rates (Austin, Cherney, Crowner, & Hill, 1997; Creamer, 1980, Creamer & Atwell, 1984; Crockett, 1985; Glennen & Baxley, 1985; Grites, 1979; Habley, 1982; Ting, 1997). Greenwood (1984) has described academic advising as "one of the most important and influential components of a higher education institution"(p.64).

As the role of academic advisors continues to gain recognition, and, as college student populations become increasingly diverse, an emphasis on advising styles has continued to be the focus of research and discussion. Much of this discussion has revolved around two opposite ends of the advising continuum: the prescriptive, or traditional, model, and the more modern, or developmental, approach. In 1972, Crookston introduced the construct of developmental advising, which promoted total student development as opposed to the prescriptive advising model. Many researchers have concluded that the developmental advising model is superior to the prescriptive model (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Creamer, 1980; Crookston, 1972; Winston & Sandor, 1984). When institutions plan changes in advising delivery services, the changes consistently reflect a developmental approach (Creamer & Creamer, 1994). However, not all students prefer the developmental approach (Fielstein, 1989; Saving & Keim, 1998).

What factors might influence a student's preference for prescriptive or developmental advising? A student's level of psychosocial development may influence his or her desire to be told what to do, versus being a partner in a collaborative decision-making process. Younger students might be more reluctant to take responsibility for their decisions than older students. At the same time, one cannot assume a person is in a certain psychosocial stage based on his or her chronological age, especially in young adults (Jordan, 2002).

If the developmental advising model is one that advisors should aspire to embrace, then there can be a conflict of expectations between developmentally-oriented advisors and students who expect or prefer the prescriptive approach. This conflict can

be detrimental to the advisor-advisee relationship, and, perhaps ultimately, to the student's success. The first step toward resolution of this conflict is to identify and understand the underlying psychological constructs that lead students to prefer the prescriptive advising model.

## Need for the study

Students are, in general, dissatisfied with the quality of the academic advising they receive (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Guinn & Mitchell, 1986; McLaughlin & Starr, 1982; Noel-Levitz, 2001). Yet, students consistently rate academic advising as a service that is important to them (Noel-Levitz, 2001). In order to bridge this gap, it may be helpful to explore student preferences for advising styles, and, ultimately, provide advising services that are more consistent with individual student preferences.

While the current literature is replete with studies that suggest general student preferences for a model of advising (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Broadbridge, 1996; Winston & Sandor, 1984), little has been done to identify the underlying constructs that prompt a student to prefer one method to another. In fact, Saving and Keim (1998) specifically recommended further research to possibly link student personality traits with preferred advising style.

Additionally, Daller, Creamer, & Creamer (1997) found that advisors do not vary their advising styles between students. Yet, student advising needs are very personal, and vary between students as well as over time (Shane, 1981). This suggests that a need exists for advisors to recognize individual differences and modify advising procedures accordingly.

This circumstance raises the question, what are some of the individual differences that would contribute to a student's preference for prescriptive advising? How might advisors utilize information regarding these differences to better adapt advising styles to individual students?

Advisors would be better able to facilitate students' continued personal growth and development if they could identify those students who prefer a prescriptive, rather than developmental, approach to advising. Students who are less mature psychosocially may need and want a more prescriptive approach. A developmental approach may remain the long-term goal in terms of the advisor/advisee relationship, but an awareness of a preference for the prescriptive approach will help the advisor to meet the student on common ground and work slowly but surely toward a more developmental relationship.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was primarily to determine what association, if any, exists between levels of psychosocial development, preference for prescriptive advising methods and satisfaction with advising. The current study includes an analysis of a current measure of psychosocial development and a measure of preferences for advising style in order to explore alternative means of conceptualizing these constructs.

## Statement of the Problem

Previous research has attempted to explore student preference for advising styles (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Broadbridge, 1996; Winston & Sandor, 1984), but psychological variables associated with those preferences have not yet been analyzed. An increasingly diverse student body demands a recognition of individual differences for effective academic advising. The findings and subsequent implications of the current

study can be incorporated into daily practice for student affairs practitioners. A knowledge of the relationship between psychosocial development and preferences for advising styles will be helpful as advisors get to know individual advisees and adapt their advising styles accordingly. Given the importance of a strong and effective advisor/advisee relationship, the ability to adapt advising styles to individual student needs will strengthen this relationship and ultimately enhance overall student success.

Additionally, a closer examination of the way that psychosocial development, as well as preferences for advising styles, is measured may be useful. A structural analysis of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999) may suggest a more parsimonious format. A modification of the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) may help advisors to begin conceptualizing advising styles in a more realistic manner.

## Definition of Terms

*Developmental Advising.* Developmental advising can be defined as a systematic process to help students achieve educational, personal, and career goals through use of institutional and community resources (Winston & Sandor, 1984), and is designed to promote total student development (Chickering, 1969). Developmental advising tasks include reaching an agreement between advisor and advisee regarding who takes the initiative, who takes responsibility, and how knowledge and skill are obtained (Crookston, 1972). Developmental advising is a decision-making process and, therefore, emphasizes communication and shared responsibility (Crockett, 1985).

*Prescriptive advising.* Prescriptive advising can be defined as an authoritarian relationship (Herndon, Kaiser, & Creamer, 1996). This paradigm assumes that students

are not particularly motivated, and that they expect advisors to take full responsibility for staying well informed and for telling students what they must do to satisfy requirements (Winston & Sandor, 1984). The prescriptive model places the responsibility for decision-making with the advisor; therefore, if the decision does not turn out to be in the student's best interest, it is the advisor's fault (Crookston, 1972). Crookston has also described the prescriptive model as a "doctor-patient" type of relationship.

*Psychosocial development.* Psychosocial development can be defined in terms of a constellation of developmental tasks. For the purpose of this study, a developmental task is defined as an interrelated set of behaviors and attitudes that would be expected to be exhibited by individuals of similar age in a similar culture and context. Successful accomplishment of a task prepares the individual to achieve future developmental tasks. Failure to successfully achieve a developmental task can lead to adjustment difficulties (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999).

*Professional advisor.* A professional advisor is one for whom academic advising is his or her primary responsibility. A professional advisor's educational background is frequently in student personnel, counseling, or related fields, or, it may be in the field in which he or she advises. Advisee loads are usually much higher than those of faculty advisors. A professional advisor's advisees are generally majors within a single department or college.

*Faculty advisor.* A faculty advisor is one for whom academic advising is a secondary responsibility. Teaching and research are generally faculty advisors' primary responsibilities, and faculty advisee loads are generally much smaller than those of professional advisors. The faculty advisor's educational background is generally in the

department in which he or she teaches, and advisees are majors in that department as well.

## Assumptions

1. For the purpose of this study, it was assumed that each student had met with an advisor on multiple occasions. The participants had at least a rudimentary familiarity with the concept of academic advising in order to respond appropriately to the items on the Academic Advising Inventory.
2. It is assumed that the assessment instruments that were used accurately measured the constructs of interest to this study.

## Limitations

1. A limitation of this study is that the sample may not be representative of all college students in general in the United States and, therefore, may not be generalizable to other student populations. A large proportion of students come from small high schools and rural backgrounds. This circumstance can influence their perceptions and awareness of many issues involved in the college experience.
2. Another possible limitation stems from the fact that students were not randomly selected for participation in this study; however, they were members of intact groups that were selected at random.
3. A final limitation may be that the participants in this study were advised by a number of different advisors. These differing advising experiences may influence how students interpret the items on the instruments used in the study.

## Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are of significance to advisors, faculty, and others interested in students' motivation to succeed in college, by offering insight into individual personality differences that can impede or enhance student success. The undergraduate years are a time in which students make the transition from a more structured environment to an environment in which they must make important decisions on their own. The degree to which they are ready to accept these new responsibilities will vary among individuals. Students who have not progressed developmentally may prefer to avoid responsibility or to have their decisions made by others. This preference will be extended to the relationship with their academic advisors, at which time a developmentally-oriented advisor will expect the student to take responsibility for his or her own decisions. A conflict of expectations can arise, which can be detrimental to the advisor-advisee relationship, and, perhaps ultimately, to the student's success. If the advisor can identify those students who prefer a more prescriptive approach, he or she can then begin the advising process on common ground. The advisor can help the student to become aware of his or her reluctance to take control of the academic process, and to work through those obstacles to personal responsibility that might otherwise impede the student's success.

## Research Questions

1. What are the structural dimensions of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR), and the Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment?
2. Can preference for advising style, as measured by the Academic Advising Inventory Part V, be measured as two separate constructs?
3. What is the relationship between levels of psychosocial development and preferences for advising style and satisfaction with advising?

## Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five major parts: introduction; review of the literature; method and design; results; and summary, conclusion and recommendations. The introduction includes a statement of the problem, the need for the study, and a statement of the research questions. The review of the literature includes a discussion of relevant theoretical foundations as well as relevant research in the field of academic advising. The method and design section includes a description of the subjects, description of the instruments used, the research design, and the procedure. The results section includes a summary and analysis of the data collected. The summary, discussion, conclusion, and recommendations section includes discussion, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

# CHAPTER 2

# REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

## Introduction

The literature review presents the theoretical foundations in human development theory, its role in student development, and implications for the academic advising context. The second section describes the role of academic advising in higher education and its importance in furthering the goals of higher education institutions. Finally, advising styles are described, and research in the areas of student preferences, perceptions, and expectations is discussed.

If, as Winston (1996) suggested, student development is student affairs' primary reason for being, then student development theory should be the basis for the meaningful provision of services to students. Theories that help explain human development will provide student affairs practitioners with a framework to understand and to anticipate student behaviors and issues. Practice that is based upon theoretical foundations will result in better outcomes than practice not based upon such knowledge (Rodgers, 1991). Although advisors draw from a variety of theoretical frameworks, for the purpose of this study, only theories of human development were examined.

Of the various theories of human development that exist, two are the most relevant for this study. Erikson (1963) developed a theory of development that covers the entire human life span. Two of his developmental stages, those occurring in adolescence and early adulthood, are particularly useful in a college setting. Chickering (1969) and Chickering and Reisser (1993) integrated Erikson's (1963) ideas into a detailed framework that applies specifically to traditional-aged college students.

## Theoretical Foundations

Theories of psychosocial development integrate psychological and sociological theory within a given environmental context. Psychosocial theory is based on developmental stages through which individuals normally progress as they mature. A developmental stage or task is a time during which environmental and internal challenges create a conflict for the individual that must be resolved. Successful resolution of each developmental challenge prepares the individual to achieve future developmental tasks. Failure to successfully achieve a developmental task can lead to adjustment difficulties (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999).

### *Erikson*

Erikson's (1963) ideas originally stemmed from the psychoanalytic realm of Freud. However, Erikson's theory of human development departed from Freud's in two major ways: 1) Erikson emphasized the interactive nature of the individual with his or her environment; and 2) Erikson believed in the adaptive capacity of humans. Taken together, these two departures paved the way for a theory of development that emphasized a combination of biological and social factors that influence growth and change.

Erikson (1963) described eight stages of psychosocial development. Each stage can be seen as a time when biological, cognitive, and social demands converge to create a developmental challenge. Erikson described these challenges in terms of polar attitudes. Each challenge creates a period of motivating uncertainty, which, when resolved, results in a new sense of self. Unresolved, it results in adjustment difficulties that can hinder further development.

According to Erikson (1963), humans move through his first four stages between birth and age 11 or 12. In Stage One, Trust vs. Mistrust, the infant and caregiver establish a relationship. This stage generally takes place during the first year of life. The infant essentially must decide if the world is trustworthy or not. In Stage Two, Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt, the child struggles between taking pride in his or herself and the ability to make decisions, or shame/doubt about abilities and decisions. This stage occurs roughly from one to three years of age. Between three and six years of age, in Stage Three, Initiative vs. Guilt, a child begins to either assume responsibility for himself or herself, or, has feelings of unworthiness and irresponsibility or inadequacy. In Stage Four, Industry vs. Inferiority, a child either begins to take pride in accomplishments, or has feelings of inadequacy or inferiority. This stage occurs between six and 11 years of age.

Stages Five and Six are particularly relevant for college students, as they usually take place during adolescence and early adulthood. Stage Five is called Identity vs. Role Confusion. This is the stage of paramount interest to this study. During adolescence, the individual struggles to establish his or her identity. Identity takes shape across a number of levels, including vocational identity, racial or cultural identity, and the formation of personal goals and values.

Certainly the quest for identity can span the entire life cycle; however, the task of establishing identity is especially central during adolescence and young adulthood (Widick, Parker, & Knefelkamp, 1978b). In the college context, a young adult leaves the supportive and directive environment of home and enters a new world where he or she must take responsibility for making important life choices. It is a complex stage, where

one must pause, reflect, and continually ask, "Who am I?" The question may be asked and answered numerous times. Academic advisors can play an important role in this stage by helping students to ask questions, reflect, explore possibilities, and eventually come to some conclusions. Failure to make a reasonable amount of progress in this stage results in role confusion.

Erikson (1963) asserts that for men, the resolution of the identity issue usually centers around vocational direction and values orientation. He is less clear about the nature of identity formation for women (Widick, Parker, & Knefelkamp, 1978b).

The college environment should promote an environment that will facilitate resolution of the identity question. Widick, Parker, & Knefelkamp (1978b) suggested that experimenting with various life roles, exploring choices, achieving meaningful goals, effectively managing stress, and making time for reflection and introspection are activities that can help promote identity development.

During early adulthood, humans generally arrive in Stage Six: Intimacy vs. Isolation. Relationships with peers evolve and change. Healthy, balanced bonds between friends or romantic partners develops. At this time, individuals either develop the ability to love and develop close relationships, or become isolated and self-absorbed.

The final two stages for Erikson (1963) occur in middle and later adulthood. In Stage Seven, Generativity vs. Stagnation, individuals in the middle adult years normally develop an interest in guiding the next generation. In Stage Eight, Ego Identity vs. Despair, the final stage of life presents a dilemma between feelings of dignity and contentment, or feelings of fear of death and time running out.

*Chickering*

Chickering's (1969) and Chickering and Reisser (1993) work was influenced by Erikson (1963). "Chickering is a rare entity, a scholar-practitioner who stands between and joins theory to practice" (Widick, Parker, & Knefelkamp,1978a, p.20). Chickering (1969) integrated existing theory and research to develop a model of the distinct psychosocial phases typically encountered by traditional-age college students. Chickering's psychosocial phases, or vectors, follow a sequential pattern, similar to the structure of Erikson (1963). However, Chickering did not intend to advance theory per se, but rather to improve practice (Thomas & Chickering, 1984). Chickering created seven developmental vectors that can be applied to the higher education setting, but described identify formation as the primary developmental concern. Thomas & Chickering (1984) explained that these developmental vectors have been widely used in the practice of student affairs and are directly related to the goals of developmental academic advising (Frost, 2000).

Each of the seven vectors can be seen as a series of developmental tasks that are facilitated by the college experience. Development along each vector requires cycles of differentiation and integration, stimulated by social interaction. In other words, internal psychological conflicts periodically occur, and external circumstances will facilitate development in each stage. Achievement in each vector prepares students to face the challenges of the next vector. The sequence of developmental phases offers advisors an idea of what to expect as students progress through college. However, the vectors are not rigidly sequential and students may notice themselves occasionally revisiting issues from previous vectors (Evans, 1996).

Developing Competence, the first vector, encompasses three spheres: intellectual, physical, and interpersonal competence. The collegiate environment provides challenges that students must master if they are going to feel confident and competent in both academic and social situations. The second vector, Managing Emotions, involves increased awareness and control of feelings and their expression, rather than repression or loss of control (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Moving through Autonomy Toward Interdependence includes the development of emotional autonomy, self-direction, mobility, and improved problem-solving skills (Evans, 1996). Interdependence refers to recognizing one's place in the broader community and society and the acknowledgement of one's interconnectedness to others (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). In the Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships vector, acceptance and respect for individual differences evolves, as well as the ability to foster healthy and lasting relationships (Evans, 1996). Establishing Identity, the fifth vector, is of key importance for Chickering. Identity formation depends, in part, on achievement in the previous four vectors. Chickering sees this vector as a point of integration of one's experiences so that a realistic, stable self-image emerges: " ...there is an *I* who coordinates the facets of personality, who "owns" the house of self and is comfortable in all its rooms" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 49). Identity development entails 1) comfort with body image; 2) comfort with gender and sexual orientation; 3) sense of self in a broad, cultural context; 4) clarification of self-concept through lifestyle; 5) sense of self in response to external input; 6) self-acceptance and self-esteem; 7) personal stability and integration.

The sixth vector, Developing Purpose, involves assessment and clarification of interests, educational and career options, and lifestyle preferences. At this point students

should be able to make meaningful commitments to personal interests and goals (Evans, 1996). Finally, vector seven, Developing Integrity, involves personalizing values, and attaining congruence between values and behavior. Guidelines for living are selected that fit the individual's personal beliefs and circumstances.

The seven vectors are a general guideline rather than a prescribed path. College student development is an extremely complex process. Progress along the vectors will occur at varying rates, and may interact with progress in other vectors at the same time. As well, developmental differences occur along gender lines. Studies have indicated that development of autonomy in women occurs differently than Chickering's original model would suggest (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Taub, 1997).

The interaction of biological, psychological, and environmental factors creates a unique life path for every individual. It is imperative to keep in mind that developmental stages do not correspond to particular biological ages (Jordan, 2002). The implication for academic advisors is that developmental status cannot be readily determined by a student's age or circumstance. Individual differences need to be explored before appropriate interventions are initiated. Level of psychosocial development in the various vectors may indeed impact a student's preferred mode of interaction with an academic advisor. This reality leads to the questions proposed in this study.

## Role of Academic Advising

Academic advising is an essential function in higher education that involves thousands of faculty members, administrators, and professional advisors (Borgard, 1981). Grites (1979) has defined academic advising as a decision-making process through which students realize their full educational potential through communication and interaction

with an advisor. O'Banion (1972) echoed this idea but described the purpose of advising more succinctly, as one in which the advisor simply helps the student develop his or her total potential. This definition is intentionally broad, so as to encompass a wide variety of advising goals.

Borgard (1981) suggested that students often do not think about what type of life and work will exist for them after college. Advisors can help students clarify their interests and help them learn how to cultivate those interests via academics and extracurricular activities. In short, an effective advisor can help the student answer the question, "How do I want to live my life?" (O'Banion,1972, p. 62). More specifically, advisors help students integrate their academic experiences by 1) linking course work with career planning; 2) learning decision-making skills and strategies; and 3) making use of all resources available at the university (Kramer, Taylor, Chynoweth, & Jensen, 1987).

Prior to the twentieth century, the collegiate experience in the United States emphasized community life and close interpersonal relationships between faculty and students. Institutions were small, and the student body was relatively homogenous. However, over time, social and political changes transformed higher education. Especially after the second World War, colleges grew radically, both in terms of the number of institutions as well as in terms of the number and diversity of the students enrolled. Although more and more people were gaining access to higher education, sadly, campus life began to become more and more dehumanized (Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1984). Close interpersonal relationships between faculty and students became more and more uncommon as enrollments grew. At the same time, curricular opportunities expanded, creating more options and choices for students. By the 1970's, academic

advising evolved as one way to continue to provide individual attention and establish a personal connection with students, while helping them navigate the curricular and extracurricular options on campus.

Students today are more demographically diverse than ever before in the history of higher education. These changing demographics create new challenges for advisors. Advisors must get to know their students along numerous dimensions, including personality, race, culture, and academic preparation in order to adequately serve them (Upcraft & Stephens, 2000).

Greenwood (1984) has described academic advising as one of the most important and influential components of a higher education institution. Indeed, the importance of academic advising on college campuses has been receiving increased recognition over the past two decades, due to its demonstrated link to desired institutional outcomes.

*Student Retention*

Student retention is a critical issue in higher education. Retention is the result of improved quality of programs and services that lead to a quality educational experience (Noel, 1985). The literature is replete with studies that link quality academic advising with improved retention rates (Austin, Cherney, Crowner, & Hill, 1997; Creamer, 1980; Creamer & Atwell, 1984; Crockett,1985; Glennen & Baxley, 1985; Grites, 1979; Habley, 1982; Ting, 1997). Indeed, academic advising is the single most frequently used strategy to increase student retention (Crockett, 1985; Forrest, 1985.) Specific behaviors that have been demonstrated to positively impact student retention include a caring attitude of faculty and staff, as well as individual attention (Crockett, 1985). The quality of the

educational experience diminishes when students perceive faculty and staff to be insensitive to their personal and educational needs (Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1984).

Several studies have empirically demonstrated the positive effects of intrusive advising techniques on retention for at-risk students. Glennen and Baxley (1985) assessed the effectiveness of the Intrusive Advisement Program at Western New Mexico University. This program required all new freshmen to meet with faculty advisors numerous times during the semester. Previously, freshmen were required to meet with an advisor only once per semester for class registration. The program resulted in a marked decrease in attrition for freshmen. Additionally, higher mean GPA's were reported for the participants, and retention of students with low ACT scores increased 27% each year following program implementation.

In 1994, a Michigan State University advising team designed an intrusive advising program for students placed on academic probation. "The Forum" was a group advising series established to help students understand the causes of their academic difficulties, learn the skills necessary to succeed in school, and learn to become more responsible for their decisions and actions. Overall, the students who participated in the Forum experienced improved GPA's and retention rates (Austin et al., 1997).

A more recent intervention for at-risk students suggests that grades and retention rates can improve when students are assisted in developing socially and culturally in addition to building academic skills. In 1994, researchers at the University of Wisconsin implemented the ExCEL (Excellence-Commitment and Effective-Learning) program. This program was designed to address a troubling attrition rate of over 30% for new freshmen. The ExCEL program included a series of group sessions in which students

explored psychological, social, and cultural factors related to academic success. At the conclusion of the program, the ExCEL participants had significantly higher GPA's than a control group and experienced slightly higher retention rates (Ting, 1997).

*Student Learning*

The academic community generally agrees that good advising leads to more effective student learning and decision-making (Creamer & Atwell, 1984). The academic advising relationship is a vehicle for learning, experimenting, reality testing, and goal setting (Gordon, 1984). A developmental advising approach has been demonstrated to be associated with higher rates of student cognitive development and improved critical thinking skills (Frost, 1989, 1991). In these studies involving freshman women, the researcher was able to find positive correlations between scores on the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal and identification of developmental advising as measured by the Academic Advising Inventory. As well, developmental advising is crucial for meeting the needs of students who are academically under-prepared for college (Kitchen, 1995). Quality advising increases overall student engagement in learning and academic work (Frost, 2000), and overall growth (Greenwood, 1984; Winston & Sandor, 1984).

*Student Satisfaction*

Students agree that academic advising is a critical element in the college experience. The 2001 Noel-Levitz Student Satisfaction project surveyed approximately 906,000 students from 1,099 institutions of higher education, including four-year public and four-year private universities, two-year colleges, and career and private schools. When asked to rate the importance of various campus services, including financial aid, safety, instruction, and advising, students nationwide have consistently rated advising as

one of the most important services on campus over the past five years (Noel-Levitz, 2001).

Yet, students have been consistently and overwhelmingly dissatisfied with the quality of advising they receive. In a 1984 report, the National Institute of Education identified academic advising as one of the weakest components of undergraduate education (Frost, 2000). The most recent Noel-Levitz report (2001) also revealed that students continue to consistently rate their satisfaction with advising services as considerably lower than the importance they assign to it. This results in a considerable performance gap between student expectations of, and satisfaction with, academic advising. This reality was consistent across all institution types.

## Advising Styles

A general consensus regarding the need for quality advising, coupled with the pervasive student dissatisfaction with advising services, has prompted an ongoing discussion in the literature regarding preferred institutional models and advising styles. As well, increasing student diversity demands an examination of advising styles that can best meet individual student needs.

The discussion of a preferred style of academic advising began to gain momentum about three decades ago, when the notion of a developmental approach to advising was introduced. At that time, Crookston (1972) described his model of the advisor as teacher, one who maintains a personal relationship with the student and one who shares responsibility with the student. This model, coined as a developmental approach, evolved as an alternative to the more traditional, or prescriptive, point of view. At approximately the same time, O'Banion (1972) outlined five sequential steps that he

believed would serve as a guideline for developmental advising. The five steps were 1) exploration of life goals; 2) exploration of career goals; 3) selection of a major; 4) selection of courses; and 5) scheduling courses. O'Banion (1972) emphasized that the mechanical aspects of advising, course selection and scheduling, cannot be meaningfully accomplished outside the broader context of the student's personal values and goals.

*Prescriptive Advising*

A prescriptive advisor is primarily an authority figure who dispenses advice, assumes responsibility for the student, and is not particularly interested in the students' personal growth. Crookston (1972) has compared the prescriptive advisor/advisee relationship as a "doctor/patient" relationship. The "patient" comes in with a problem, and the "doctor" dispenses advice. The student assumes the advice is accurate and beneficial; if not, the advisor is to blame. Crookston (1972) concluded that the prescriptive orientation assumes that students are irresponsible; their abilities are limited; and they are not motivated.

Jordan (2002) described the prescriptive advising relationship as one based on institutional authority. Information is disseminated, but a human relationship is not important. Prescriptive advising can be carried out via electronic mail, web sites, or informational videos. In fact, Jordan asserts that purely prescriptive advisors may be easily replaced by technology.

On some college campuses, the role of the academic advisor is limited to routine, clerkish activities such as signing registration forms or other administrative tasks. These types of interactions fall under the umbrella of prescriptive advising as well (Winston, 1996).

*Developmental Advising*

Developmental advisors can be viewed as "life strategists," helping students set realistic goals and make informed, responsible decisions (Jordan, 2002). Developmental advising is concerned with facilitating a student's rational processes, problem-solving and decision-making skills (Crookston, 1972). Developmental advising techniques stimulate and support students in their quest for an enriched quality of life. Identifying and accomplishing life goals, promoting intellectual and personal growth, and sharing concern for each other are some of the primary goals of a developmental advising relationship (Winston, 1996).

The developmental orientation to advising makes several assumptions about students. It assumes that students are actively pursuing goals, that they are mature and capable of self-direction, and that they value achievement. In a developmental relationship, decision-making is a collaborative effort, and both student and advisor share responsibility for the outcome (Crookston, 1972).

Until 1984, although developmental advising was frequently discussed in the literature, no one had yet clearly defined or operationalized developmental advising. Winston and Sandor (1984) developed the Academic Advising Inventory for this purpose. Using Crookston's (1972) work as a theoretical base, the authors developed 62 pairs of statements that represented a continuum between prescriptive advising techniques and developmental advising techniques. The authors established construct validity for the instrument by utilizing eight experts in the field of academic advising to critique the items. This analysis resulted in a final version of the instrument that was comprised of 22 randomly ordered pairs of statements (Winston & Sandor, 1984).

Since then, other authors have continued to refine the concept of developmental advising by targeting specific behaviors. Ender, Winston, and Miller (1984) have established seven principles that define the process of academic advising: 1) advising is a continuous process with a synergistic effect; 2) advisors attend to the student's total experience in the institution; 3) advising is goal-oriented; 4) a caring relationship must be established; 5) advisors are models for students; 6) student affairs and academics are integrated via advising; 7) advisors encourage students to utilize the full range of opportunities available on campus.

Frost (1990) described developmental advising to include exploring factors related to student success, sharing personal values and concerns, discussing out of class activities, and generally displaying an interest in both students' academic and extracurricular progress. Outcomes for developmental advising include broadening interests, building insight, clarifying values, establishing career and life goals, and enhancing critical thinking and reasoning (Creamer & Creamer, 1994).

Since Crookston's (1972) seminal work, most researchers in this area have concluded that the developmental approach is the superior one (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Creamer, 1980; Crookston, 1972; Winston & Sandor, 1984). Creamer & Creamer (1994) revealed that categories of planned change projects across institutions reflected a pervasive developmental, rather than prescriptive, approach.

*Student Preferences*

A variety of researchers have attempted to determine which advising approach, prescriptive or developmental, is generally preferred by students. Several studies have concluded that, in general, students prefer a system of advising that can be considered

developmental (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Broadbridge, 1996; Winston & Sandor, 1984). The Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) was developed specifically to determine quantitatively whether students preferred a prescriptive or developmental approach. The results indicated a significant student preference for a developmental approach. Beasley-Fielstein (1986) asked the same question, but utilized a qualitative approach. The results of this study indicated that students felt that a caring, personal relationship with an advisor was necessary. However, these findings do not necessarily mean that developmental advising is recommended for all students in all situations. Fielstein (1989) determined that students perceived prescriptive advising tasks as a higher priority than developmental tasks.

A few studies conclude that academic advising is, can, or should be, a combination of both styles (Daller, Creamer, & Creamer, 1997; Fielstein, 1989; Jordan, 2002; Spokane, 1994). However, it would logically follow that advisor utilization of a specific advising style would differ according to the needs or preferences of individual students. Daller, Creamer, & Creamer (1997) reported that advising styles may not vary between students. This study included observation of the advising sessions of ten professional academic advisors. All of the advisors exhibited behaviors and attitudes that could be described as prescriptive as well as those that could be described as developmental. Yet, they did not vary their styles between students. One might speculate that changes in advising style occur in response to differing needs of individual students, yet, the advisors in this study maintained a consistent pattern of behavior regardless of individual student differences.

Many of the studies that attempt to determine student preferences for advising style do not differentiate between types of students, except for general demographic information. Herndon, Kaiser, and Creamer (1996) addressed this issue by studying preferences for advising styles in a sample of community college students. In this study, individual differences including gender, race, full-time or part-time status, and intention to transfer to a four-year institution were included in the analysis. The authors found that gender can impact students' preferences for advising style; specifically, females expressed a significantly higher preference for developmental advising than did males. Black females who were enrolled part-time expressed the strongest preference for developmental advising. White males enrolled part-time expressed the weakest preference for developmental advising. These findings suggest that student preferences for advising styles may be influenced by a complex set of variables, including demographics, and situational factors.

In addition to these factors, a student's individual level of psychosocial development will impact his or her advising needs. Crockett (1985) noted that student preference for advising style can change over time, and hence, student readiness for developmental advising may vary considerably. Less mature students may see advisors merely as disseminators of information. They may not want, or need, a more developmental approach. Students who are prematurely exposed to a higher level of cognitive functioning may respond negatively (Carberry, Baker, & Prescott, 1986). Creamer (2000) agreed that the role of academic advising changes as students develop. The need for information is predominant during the first year of college and gradually diminishes over time as that need is supplanted by the need for consultation.

In addition to preferences, perceptions of advising styles between advisors and students can conflict. Saving and Keim (1998) measured satisfaction with and perception of advising services. Students and advisors disagreed markedly on the survey items. It was discovered that although advisors perceived themselves as delivering developmental advising, their students perceived their advisors' styles to be prescriptive. The authors recommend future studies to link student personality traits with preferences for advising style.

In summary, student preferences for advising style may differ. However, factors associated with those differing preferences remain unclear. Student demographics, psychosocial development, or personality traits may be connected.

*Student Expectations*

Fielstein (1989) found that developmental advising was not rejected by students, but that students did not view this style to be practical, nor did they expect to be advised according to a developmental framework. Further, Guinn & Mitchell (1986) and Larsen & Brown (1983) reported that advisors and students' assumptions regarding advisor roles and responsibilities were vastly different. For example, Guinn and Mitchell (1986) discovered administrators, faculty, and students held vastly different expectations regarding whether advisors should be responsible for tasks such as writing letters of recommendation or for recommending specific instructors.

Scholars consistently emphasize the importance of the advisor/advisee relationship (Crockett, 1985; Crookston, 1972; Ender, Winston, & Miller, 1984). Can differing expectations impact the nature of the relationship? Although studies exploring this question were not found in the educational literature, a number of studies (Davison,

1998; Shuman & Shapiro, 2002) are present in the psychological literature that document the enhanced success of therapy when expectations between client and therapist are consistent. Although advisors are usually not professional counselors, advisors often utilize similar counseling or helping skills (Winston, 1996) thus creating a relationship that may be viewed as parallel to a client/therapist relationship. Shuman & Shapiro (2002) and Davison (1998) found that providing pre-therapy information greatly improves the accuracy of expectations for therapeutic outcomes.

Individual differences can also influence expectations. Constructs such as identity development, perfectionism, or worldview have been shown to impact expectations in psychotherapy. Scholl (1998) found a relationship between levels of identity development in college students and preferences for counselor role. Hart (1998) found that personality characteristics (in this study, the construct of perfectionism) may influence expectations of therapy. Kaplan (2000) found that clients' worldviews significantly impacted their expectations of therapy. Drawing a parallel relationship in the context of education, specifically, academic advising, these findings underscore the need to examine individual differences and the impact they have on the advisor/advisee relationship.

## Summary

The psychosocial development theories of Erikson (1963) and Chickering (1969) are valuable for student affairs practitioners, particularly in the field of academic advising. One primary concern for advisors is the promotion of student development, and the mastery of Chickering's seven vectors can be viewed as a roadmap to student success.

However, student differences in progress along developmental lines can create different expectations, perceptions, and preferences for delivery of student services.

Quality academic advising is a necessary component in higher education. Researchers and practitioners generally agree that a developmental model of advising is more conducive to student success than a prescriptive model (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986; Creamer, 1980; Crookston, 1972; Winston & Sandor, 1984). A caring, personal relationship, which centers around the student's total college experience, is beneficial to students. Yet, students may prefer prescriptive advising depending on their individual characteristics, especially developmental stage. Students who expect and desire a more prescriptive approach to advising may not want or benefit by a developmental approach, especially if such an approach is new to them.

In order to avoid a conflict of expectations that may be detrimental to the advisor/advisee relationship, the literature suggests that it may be useful for advisors to be aware of individual differences and preferences and adjust their advising styles accordingly (Daller, Creamer & Creamer, 1997). Advisors can then help students along the developmental path in a manner consistent with each student's individual needs.

Advisors must be proactive with students to promote intellectual and personal development (Winston, 1996). Advisors must acknowledge that individual students change over time, and college students as a whole are changing over time. Advisors must continually assess the changing needs of students and act accordingly (Borgard, 1981). Yet, advisors do not always recognize these individual differences or change their advising styles to reflect student differences.

Advisors and students should discuss the nature of the advising relationship, including roles, responsibilities, and expectations (Winston & Sandor, 1984). The literature suggests that a conflict of expectations can be detrimental to the relationship (Davison, 1998; Shuman & Shapiro, 2002). Studies have been conducted to assess student preferences, perceptions, and expectations of advising, yet few studies incorporate individual psychological differences into the analysis. Individual student differences, especially changing stages of development, may impact student preference for advising style. In order to predict which style a student might want or expect, and to ultimately improve advising services, it would be helpful to ascertain the underlying psychological constructs that are associated with a student's preference. The current study explored the relationship between levels of psychosocial development and preferences for prescriptive or developmental advising styles, as well as overall satisfaction with academic advising.

# CHAPTER 3

## METHOD AND DESIGN

This study explored several research questions concerning the variables of interest. First, the structural dimensions of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory (SDTLA, Winston, Miller & Cooper, 1999) were examined. Second, the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI, Winston & Sandor, 1984) was modified to create a more precise measure of preferences for developmental or prescriptive advising techniques. Finally, the relationship between various dimensions of student development and preferences for advising style, as well as satisfaction with advising, was explored. Two hundred twenty-eight undergraduate students participated during the fall 2002 semester. Participants completed three instruments, Form 2.99 and Form 3.99 of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999), as well as Parts 3 and 5 of the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984). In addition, participants completed a separate demographic questionnaire designed by the researcher. Form 2.99 of the SDTLA (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999) consists of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose (PUR) Task, the Response Bias scale, and also includes seven demographic items. SDTLA Form 3.99 consists of the Developing Autonomy (AUT) Task, and the Response Bias scale. The AAI (Winston & Sandor, 1984) Part 3 measures student satisfaction with advising, and Part 5 measures preference for advising style. The data were analyzed using factor analysis and multiple regression techniques. The outcome of these analyses was compiled and interpreted to address the following research questions.

## Research Questions

1. What are the structural dimensions of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR), and the Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment?
2. Can preference for advising style, as measured by the Academic Advising Inventory Part V, be measured as two separate constructs?
3. What is the relationship between levels of psychosocial development and preferences for advising style and satisfaction with advising?

## Subjects

This study was conducted at a medium-sized, comprehensive university in a largely rural state in the Southwest. The undergraduate enrollment at this institution is approximately 20,000. Approval for this study was granted by the university's Institutional Review Board (see Appendix A).

The sample for this study was selected from students enrolled in upper division classes in the College of Arts and Sciences. Students participated as members of intact groups, selected at random. A random list of classes was generated by the Office of Planning, Budget, and Institutional Research using the following parameters: each class must be an upper division class in the College of Arts and Sciences, and each class must have a minimum of 20 students enrolled. Classes from other colleges were not included in the sample in order to control for the effects of differing advising models between colleges. Upper division courses were selected in order to exclude freshmen who may have only minimal experience with academic advising and, thus, may not have been able

to respond to the items on the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) in a meaningful fashion.

The researcher contacted the instructor of each class on the random list in the order that the classes appeared and asked for permission to administer the survey either as an in-class assignment or outside of class for extra credit. Two-hundred twenty-eight students in six courses (one junior-level psychology course, one junior-level journalism course, one senior-level journalism course, one senior-level sociology course, and one senior-level communication disorders course) participated. Thirty-nine student surveys were later excluded from the data analysis because those students indicated a major outside of the College of Arts & Sciences. Two surveys were also later excluded from the analysis due to scores above three on the SDTLA Response Bias scales, per the authors' recommendation (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999).

The data were collected during the months of September, October, and November 2002. A total of 187 surveys were included in the analysis, which equaled 82% of the total participant group. The sample included 53 males (28.3%), and 134 females (71.7%). One hundred forty-nine participants (84%), were age 22 or younger. Seventeen participants (9.1%), were between the ages of 23 and 25, and the remaining 13 participants (6.9%), were age 26 or older. Racial backgrounds reported by students were: White or Caucasian/European, 161 (87%), Native American, 16, (8.6%), Black or African-American, 5, (2.7%), Hispanic, Latino/a, or Mexican-American, 2 (1.1%), and Asian American or Pacific Islander, 1 (.5%). Data for this item were missing in two cases. The class standing of the sample was predominantly junior and senior level. One hundred seven fourth and fifth year students comprised 57.2% of the sample, 68 third

year students comprised 36.4%, 11 second year students comprised 5.9%, and only one respondent (.5%) reported first-year standing. Fourteen academic majors were represented in this sample. Thirty-eight percent of respondents (71) participants were journalism majors, 27.8% (52) participants were psychology majors, 12.3% (23) were communication science majors, 10.7% (20) were sociology majors, 3.2% (6) were art majors, 2.1% (4) were biology majors, and the remaining 5.8 (8) percent of students represented physiology, chemistry, Spanish, zoology, political science, history, biochemistry, and undecided.

Data concerning the number of times students met with their advisors (either in person, by telephone or via electronic mail), the length of each visit, and whether their advisors were faculty or staff were also collected. One hundred sixteen participants (62%) reported meeting with an advisor between two and four times during the previous semester. Thirty-three students (17.6%) reported meeting with an advisor four to six times, nine students (4.8%) reported meeting with an advisor seven to ten times during the semester, and nine students (4.8%) reported meeting with an advisor more than ten times. Only one respondent (.5%) reported not meeting with an advisor at all during the previous semester.

The average length of advising sessions for most students was between 10 to 20 minutes. Seventy-three respondents (39%) reported meetings with their advisors lasted 10 to 15 minutes, and 56 students (29.9%) reporting meeting lengths of 15-20 minutes. Twenty-five students (13.4%) reported advising sessions of less than 10 minutes, and 25 students (13.4%) also reported meeting lengths of 20-30 minutes. Six students (3.2%) reported meeting lengths of 30-45 minutes. Only one respondent (.5%) reported the

average length of advising meetings to be more than 45 minutes. One hundred fifty-one students (80%) reported seeing a staff advisor, and 35 (20%) indicated a faculty advisor.

Finally, students were asked to provide their cumulative grade point average (GPA). The range of GPA's was 2.0 to 4.0. The average self-reported GPA for the sample was 3.26.

## Instruments

The instruments used in this study were selected to provide data regarding students' psychosocial development along two main dimensions and their preference for advising style as well as satisfaction with academic advising. Data were obtained from three instruments: the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment, Forms 2.99 and 3.99 (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999) and the Academic Advising Inventory, Parts 3 and 5 (Winston & Sandor, 1984), as well as a brief demographic questionnaire designed by the researcher (see Appendix B). Form 2.99 of the SDTLA consists of 57 items that measure the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task plus the Response Bias Scale and seven demographic items. Form 3.99 consists of 57 items that measure the Developing Autonomy Task plus the Response Bias Scale. These tasks (and the four subtasks associated with each) were selected due to their relevance to the process of academic advising. Only Parts 3 and 5 of the Academic Advising Inventory were used, as the remainder of the AAI was not relevant to this study. The scales of the AAI may be used independently (R.B. Winston, personal communication, June 24, 2002).

### *Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (SDTLA)*

The Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (SDTLA, Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999) is used to measure the multifaceted construct of student

development. The instrument incorporates the developmental tasks articulated by Chickering (1969). The SDTLA is a modification of several previous instruments, the Student Developmental Task Inventory – Revised (Winston & Polkosnik, 1981) and the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory (Winston, Miller, & Prince, 1987). These earlier instruments were designed primarily as advising tools. Their main purpose was to assist students in self-exploration and goal establishment for college. The Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment differs from its predecessors. It was designed more as a tool for research in psychosocial development (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999). Although the earlier instruments were used for research, the current form of the SDTLA is even more appropriate than its earlier forms for the purpose of the current study.

The Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999) consists of three major developmental tasks, each of which is further delineated by subtasks, and two scales. A developmental task is defined as a set of interrelated behaviors and attitudes exhibited at a similar age, and in a similar context. A subtask is defined as a more specific component of a larger developmental task. Reliability and validity estimates have been established for each of the tasks, subtasks, and scales, thus allowing each to be used independently (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999). The Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR) is composed of four subtasks: Educational Involvement (EI), Career Planning (CP), Lifestyle Planning (LP), and Cultural Participation (CUP). The Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) is composed of four subtasks: Emotional Autonomy (EA), Interdependence (IND), Academic Autonomy (AA), and Instrumental Autonomy (IA). The Mature Interpersonal

Relationships Task (MIR) was not be used for this study, as that dimension was not relevant to the current study.

*Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR)*

Students who obtain a high score on this task a) have thoroughly explored educational options and have well-defined goals; b) have synthesized knowledge about themselves and the world of work into appropriate career plans and have taken steps to realize those goals; c) have established a personal direction in their lives, accounting for values, future family plans, and career objectives; and 3) demonstrate a broad range of cultural interests.

*Educational involvement subtask (EI).* High achievement in this subtask means that students have well-defined educational goals and plans and are actively involved in college. They have thoughtfully selected an appropriate major field of study that is compatible with their abilities, qualifications, and personalities. They are engaged in a variety of extracurricular activities and maintain regular contact with academic advisors and faculty members.

*Career planning subtask (CP).* Students who score high on this subtask have successfully synthesized knowledge regarding the world of work, awareness of their individual strengths and limitations, and the emotional as well as educational demands of specific occupations. They are able to take steps toward fulfillment of career goals including employment or graduate school.

*Lifestyle planning subtask (LP).* Achievement in this subtask includes integrating personal, ethical, and religious values, as well as vocational and family plans into a general lifestyle orientation.

*Cultural participation subtask (CUP).* Cultural participation includes attendance at musical events, plays, museums, art exhibits, as well as ethnic celebrations and performances. Students who score high on this subtask have developed a sense of aesthetic appreciation and interest.

*Developing Autonomy Task (AUT)*

Students who demonstrate high achievement on this task a) do not need continued reassurance from others; b) can function independently and carry out their responsibilities without extensive guidance or support from others; c) can meet academic expectations independently; and d) recognize the reciprocal relationship between self and community and act as a contributing member to that community.

*Emotional autonomy subtask (EA).* Success on this subtask means the student is self-confident enough to make his or her own decisions and to express dissenting opinions in groups. This student trusts his or her feelings, is confident in his or her abilities, and needs minimal direction from parents.

*Interdependence subtask (IND).* High scores on this subtask mean the student's behavior reflects his or her concern for others in the community. He or she understands the reciprocal nature of individual and community relationships and is actively involved in activities that promote the improvement of the community.

*Academic autonomy subtask (AA).* Students who perform well on this subtask can perform academically at levels consistent with their abilities. They are self-disciplined, independent learners, who will seek help when necessary. They deal well with ambiguity and will monitor behavior so as to fulfill responsibilities.

*Instrumental autonomy subtask (IA).* Students who score high on this subtask can manipulate their environments so as to satisfy daily needs and fulfill responsibilities with minimal support from others. They are able to manage their time well; they are goal-directed and self-sufficient.

*Response Bias Scale (RB)*

A high score on the RB scale suggests the student is attempting to portray himself or herself in an unrealistically favorable light. The authors of the SDTLA suggest that participants with scores of four to six on the Response Bias Scale be eliminated from the subject pool.

### *Reliability and Validity of the SDTLA*

The authors of the SDTLA used two methods of reliability estimation, test-retest and internal consistency. The SDTLA was initially administered to three classes of students at two different institutions and then re-administered four weeks later (n = 52). Test-retest reliability was calculated for each task, each subtask, and each scale. The test-retest correlations for the PUR and AUT tasks were from .84 and .81, respectively. Correlations for the subtasks ranged from .74 to .89. Internal consistency was demonstrated using 1822 students enrolled in 32 colleges in the U.S. and Canada. Alpha coefficients were .81 for the PUR task and .88 for the AUT task. Coefficients for the subtasks ranged from .62 to .84. All correlations were statistically significant at the $p<.01$ level. Further details can be obtained in the technical manual for the SDTLA (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999).

Construct validity was obtained by correlating the scales with other instruments that measure similar constructs. The Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR)

was correlated with six other scales, including Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, and Myers' (1981) Career Exploration Scale, Pace's (1983) College Student Experiences Scale and Experiences with Faculty Scale, and Pickleshimer's (1991) Problem Solving and Decision Making Scale. Correlations for the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR) with these other scales ranged from .28 to .60. The Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) was correlated with the Georgia Autonomy Scale (Winston, Phelps, Mazzeo, & Torres, 1997) and the College Student Questionnaire (Pace, 1983). Correlations for the Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) ranged from .21 to .67. Additional detail regarding these validity estimates can be obtained in the technical manual for the SDTLA (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999).

### *Academic Advising Inventory*

The Academic Advising Inventory (AAI), developed by Winston & Sandor (1984), is designed to measure the prescriptive and developmental advising that students receive and to seek their preferences for either approach. The entire instrument takes about 20 minutes to complete and is best administered in a group setting. The AAI is comprised of five parts: the developmental/prescriptive advising scale; advisor-advisee activities; satisfaction with advising; demographics; and preferences for developmental or prescriptive advising. A total of 72 items are included overall. The current study concerned Part 3, Satisfaction with Advising, and Part 5, Preferences for Advising. Part 3 contains five items and Part 5 contains 14 items.

#### *Preferences for Developmental/Prescriptive Advising Scale (DPA)*

Part 5, the Developmental/Prescriptive Advising scale is comprised of 14 pairs of items. Each item represents an eight-point continuum from prescriptive behavior (low

scores) to developmental behavior (high scores). Low scores (14 to 56) indicate a preference for prescriptive advising or a preference for the advisor to function as the expert and prescribe remedies to problems. Sessions revolve exclusively around formal academic matters. High scores (57 to 112) indicate a preference for developmental advising or a preference for a collaborative relationship and an emphasis on the student's total education and well-being.

Internal consistency reliability for the Developmental/Prescriptive Scale was obtained using the Cronbach Alpha procedure. The alpha coefficient for the entire scale was .78. Construct validity was estimated by comparing scores of groups of students who were expected to perceive academic advising differently. One group of students, who were enrolled in the Developmental Studies Division at the University of Georgia, were marginally prepared freshmen who received intensive developmental advising. The second group of students were regularly admitted freshman who received more routine academic advising. It was predicted that the first group would perceive the advising they received as more developmental than the second group. Scores on the Developmental/Prescriptive Scale were significantly different for the two groups ($p<.001$), with the first group perceiving the advising received as being more developmental than the second group (Winston & Sandor, 1984).

The current study intended to determine if preferences for prescriptive or developmental advising can be measured as two separate constructs. Toward that end, the researcher modified Part 5 (see Appendix C). Permission was obtained from the author to rewrite each item as two separate items (see Appendix D). One item measured student preference for developmental advising and one item measured preference for prescriptive

advising. Reliability and validity estimates for the revised instrument were calculated and are reported in Chapter 4.

*Satisfaction with Advising*

Part 3 of the AAI is comprised of five items that assess the student's overall satisfaction with academic advising. Scores can range from a low of five to a high of 20. A higher score indicates greater satisfaction with advising.

### *Demographic Questionnaire*

A brief questionnaire, developed by the researcher, was administered to determine the participants' major, whether they were primarily advised by a faculty or staff advisor, and the frequency of meetings per semester with the advisor (see Appendix B). Based on the literature that suggests individual attention can be an important contributor to student success (Crockett, 1985), the author's questionnaire included items regarding the length of the average advising session, and the number of visits with an advisor per semester to determine whether these factors were associated with overall satisfaction with advising. Information regarding student majors and whether they were assigned to a faculty or staff advisor was also collected in order to gain a more precise description of the sample. Data from all of these variables provided useful information that may suggest possible explanations for student differences in preferences for advising style and/or satisfaction with advising.

## Research Design

The current study is a correlational design. This study attempts to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between quantifiable variables of interest. This study explored three separate questions. The first research question

concerns the structural dimensions of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999), specifically, the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task and the Developing Autonomy Task. Because the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose (PUR) Task and the Developing Autonomy (AUT) Task both contain four subtasks, a total of eight independent variables are involved. These variables are correlated with one another (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999). The current study intended to determine which combination of these eight variables account for more of the variance in the dependent variables. It may be that a small number of constructs account for the main sources of variance (Stevens, 2002). Thus, the set of eight correlated variables may be reduced into a smaller set of uncorrelated variables, or factors. To accomplish this, principal components analysis was used to reduce the eight subscales (independent variables) into a smaller set of factors. These factors were then used in subsequent analyses.

The second research question concerned the Academic Advising Inventory, as written by Winston & Sandor (1984). The AAI currently measures preferences for developmental or prescriptive advising on a single continuum ranging from a definite preference for developmental methods to a definite preference for prescriptive methods. However, this study sought to determine if preferences for advising style can be measured as two separate constructs: one measure of preference for prescriptive advising as well as one measure of preference for developmental advising. Students may not view prescriptive or developmental advising as mutually exclusive domains; rather, they may have a preference for one or the other depending on the specific advising activity at hand. The Academic Advising Inventory, Part 5, was modified in order to test this hypothesis.

Each item was separated into two separate items, thus providing the researcher with two separate scores: one measure of preference for developmental advising and one measure of preference for prescriptive advising. Reliability and validity measures for the modified scale were reported.

The third research question explored the association between the psychosocial variables and the academic advising variables. The researcher sought to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between the variables of interest. Three multiple regression analyses were conducted. The first analysis regressed the three new factors on the criterion variable, preference for developmental advising. The second analysis regressed the three new factors on the criterion variable, preference for prescriptive advising. The final analysis regressed the three new factors on the criterion variable, satisfaction with advising. This technique was used to determine how much variance in preference for advising style and satisfaction with advising was accounted for by the set of predictors (factor scores).

## Procedure

Participants in the current study were limited to upper level students in the College of Arts & Sciences in order to control for differing advising models between colleges and to ensure that participants had some experience with the process of academic advising. Participants were members of intact groups. A random list of upper division (junior and senior level) courses offered in the College of Arts and Sciences during the Fall 2002 semester was generated by the Oklahoma State University Office of Planning, Budget, and Institutional Research. Beginning at the top of the list and proceeding downward, the researcher contacted the instructor for each class and

requested permission to administer the instruments either in class or in a scheduled session outside of class for extra credit. Most of the instructors were unable to accommodate this request. Many of the instructors contacted cited the length of time necessary to administer the instruments in class (approximately 45 minutes) as unacceptable and permission was denied. Other instructors also stated that as a rule they did not offer extra credit for participation in research. The researcher requested permission from 44 instructors and received permission from six of them. The total number of students enrolled in these six classes amounted to over 200, and thus provided an adequate sample size for the current study.

Cases numbered one through 52 were completed outside of class for extra credit. Cases numbered 53 through 228 were completed as an in-class assignment. Data were collected during the months of September, October, and November 2002.

The researcher made a presentation in each class in order to explain the purpose of the study and to invite students to participate. A protocol was used in order to maintain consistency in the tone of the invitation (see Appendix E).

The instruments and pencils were provided to each participant. Each participant read and signed an informed consent form (see Appendix F). The informed consent forms were distributed and collected first. The surveys were turned in anonymously to the researcher upon completion. Most participants completed the surveys within 40 to 50 minutes.

After the data were collected, those participants who indicated that they were not pursuing a major within the College of Arts & Sciences were eliminated from the sample in order to control for differences in delivery of advising services between colleges. Also,

those participants who scored four or above on one or both of the SDTLA Response Bias Scales were eliminated from the sample per the author's recommendations (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999). The total number remaining in the analysis was 187.

## Data Analysis

This study utilized statistical techniques including factor analysis and multiple regression to address the research questions of interest to this study. First, factor analysis was utilized to identify the structure of the constructs underlying the PUR and AUT scales. Factor analysis is a data reduction procedure that can be used with sets of correlated variables. The SDTLA tasks and subtasks are highly correlated with one another (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999). Factor analysis allows one to derive new linear combinations of the variables that account for a maximum amount of the variance. In this case, an exploratory approach was used, in order to determine the number of factors, whether or not the factors were correlated, and a pattern of items associated with each factor allowing the researcher to appropriately name the factors (Stevens, 2002).

Second, the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) Part 5 was modified to create two separate scales: one measure of preference for prescriptive advising and one measure of preference for developmental advising. Internal consistency reliability and construct validity estimates for the new instrument were reported.

Finally, multiple regression analysis determined what relationships exist between the three new factors and preference for advising style and satisfaction with advising. Regression analysis illustrates how much variability the dependent variable shares with the independent variable or variables. Multiple regression involves more than one

independent variable and allows the researcher to analyze the combined and separate effects of those variables upon the dependent variable (Pedhazur, 1997).

# CHAPTER 4

# RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the structure of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (SDTLA, Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999), to develop and test a modified version of the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI, Winston & Miller, 1984), and to examine the relationship between student psychosocial development and student preference for a developmental or prescriptive advising style as well as satisfaction with academic advising.

The research questions addressed in this study were:

1. What are the structural dimensions of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR), and the Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment?
2. Can preference for advising style, as measured by the Academic Advising Inventory Part 5, be measured as two separate constructs?
3. What is the relationship between levels of psychosocial development and preferences for advising style and satisfaction with advising?

## Results Related to Research Questions

**Research Question 1: What are the structural dimensions of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR), and the Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment?**

To address Research Question 1, a factor analysis of the eight subtasks of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task and the Developing Autonomy Task was conducted using SPSS (SPSS 11.0 for Windows, 2001). The factor analysis was used to

identify the structural dimensions of the instrument and to examine the subtasks' relationship with each other. An initial examination of the bivariate correlations of the subtasks reveals that most of the subscales are highly correlated with each other (see Appendix G). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were utilized to determine the suitability of the current sample for factor analysis. The KMO statistic indicates the proportion of variance attributable to common variance, or the variance that might be caused by underlying factors. Values of approximately .6 and above suggest that factor analysis is appropriate. Bartlett's sphericity test is utilized to determine the nature of the relationships among the variables. Very small values indicate that there is a significant relationship among the variables. Larger values would suggest that the variables are already uncorrelated and there is no reason to conduct a factor analysis (Stevens, 2002). The current value of .000 suggests that a high degree of correlation exists and a factor analysis is appropriate for the current study.

Table 1

*KMO and Barlett's Test*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| KMO | | .797 |
| Bartlett's Test | | |
| | Approx. Chi Square | 454.25 |
| | Df | 28 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

A principal components analysis was performed. An oblique rotation was performed using the direct oblimin method. Several criteria were used to determine the number of factors to retain. These criteria include the Kaiser (1960) rule, the total amount of variance accounted for by the factors, a scree plot, and the theoretical foundations. The Kaiser rule recommends retaining those factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The rotated solution identified three factors with eigenvalues greater than one (see Table 2).

Table 2

*Principal Components Analysis of the SDTLA Subscales*

| Component | Eigenvalues | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 3.33 | 41.59 | 41.59 |
| 2 | 1.11 | 13.89 | 55.48 |
| 3 | 1.01 | 12.59 | 68.07 |
| 4 | 0.82 | 10.28 | 78.34 |
| 5 | 0.61 | 7.60 | 85.94 |
| 6 | 0.58 | 7.27 | 93.21 |
| 7 | 0.32 | 3.98 | 97.20 |
| 8 | 0.22 | 2.80 | 100 |

*Note.* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total variance can also be used to identify appropriate factors to retain. Stevens (2002) recommends a solution that accounts for approximately 70% of the variance. The first three factors in this solution account for 68% of the total variance. After the third factor in the current study, however, each subsequent factor accounts for a relatively smaller proportion of the total variance. This would suggest a three-factor solution.

Additionally, a scree plot can be used to determine which factors to retain (Figure 1). The scree plot is a graphical representation of the magnitude of the eigenvalues. Stevens (2002) recommends retaining those components that appear in the sharp descent

before they begin to level off. Here only one component is clearly appropriate to retain; the next two components are questionable. Finally, the theoretical foundations of the current study add a fourth rationale for the factors that will be retained. An examination of the subtasks that load on each factor will be discussed in the next section.

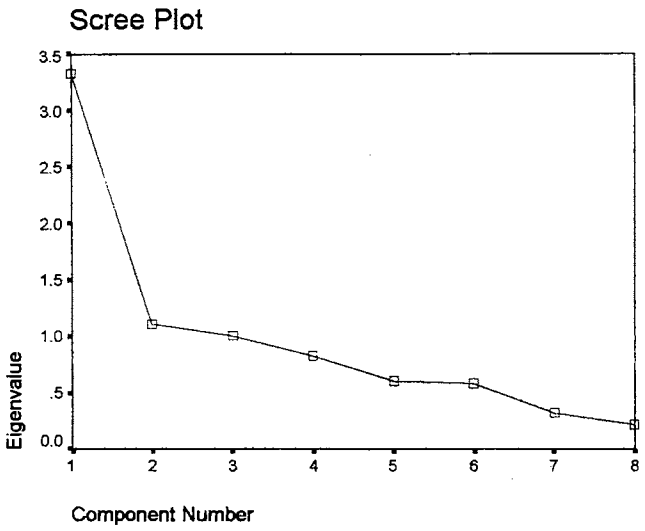


*Figure 1.* The scree plot illustrates the relative magnitude of the eigenvalues for each of the eight SDTLA subtasks.

A rotated structure matrix is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

*Structure Matrix of Retained Rotated Factors*

| Subtask | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Academic Autonomy | .21 | .16 | .84 |
| Interdependence | .66 | .36 | -.16 |
| Instrumental Autonomy | .68 | .25 | .25 |
| Emotional Autonomy | -.01 | .83 | .24 |
| Career Planning | .86 | .00 | .01 |
| Educational Involvement | .85 | .26 | -.01 |
| Cultural Participation | .35 | .62 | -.40 |
| Lifestyle Planning | .86 | .01 | .16 |

*Note.* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Each value in the matrix represents the simple correlations of the variables with the factors, or in other words, the factor loadings. An examination of the combination of subtasks that load on each factor suggests the relationship between the eight subtasks. Stevens (2002) suggests using an absolute value of .40 as a critical value for factor analysis with a sample size of approximately 180. Subtask factor loadings that meet or exceed this value on factor one include Interdependence, Instrumental Autonomy, Career Planning, Educational Involvement, and Lifestyle Planning. A thread common to all five of these subtasks is the ability to think and act independently, responsibly, and consistently with one's personal values and goals, as well as the realities of the larger community. This factor was therefore named Goal Actualization. Subtask factor loadings meeting or exceeding .40 on factor two include Emotional Autonomy and Cultural Participation. These two subtasks are substantively different than the tasks loading on factor one. Emotional Autonomy and Cultural Participation deal more with activities and attitudes outside of school or career concerns. Accomplishment in these areas suggests an appreciation and interest in cultures, ideas, feelings, and activities that may deviate from the mainstream. This factor was therefore named Personal Expression. The third factor is bipolar, with one strong positive variable and one strong negative variable. Academic Autonomy was the primary subtask to load on factor three with a coefficient of .84. Cultural Participation loaded negatively on this factor with a value of -.40. Because one variable has a much stronger influence on this factor than the other, this factor will retain the title Academic Autonomy.

**Research Question 2: Can preference for advising style, as measured by the Academic Advising Inventory Part V, be measured as two separate constructs?**

Participants completed a 28-item modified version of the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984). Each of the original 14 items on the AAI Part 5 were split to create two separate items. The modified instrument appears in Appendix C. The primary goal of this task was to explain the construct validity and reliability of data collected with the modified AAI. The data were analyzed using Cronbach's alpha and principal components analysis with varimax rotation.

*Validity Analysis*

A principal components analysis was performed in order to demonstrate construct validity for the modified instrument. This approach was selected in order to determine if the items cluster together as the theory germane to this study would suggest.

Initial analysis of the data revealed a nine-component solution. Of the nine components, the eigenvalues of two components were much larger than the remaining seven. These two components explained approximately 30% of the variance, while adding a third component added only a very small portion (approximately 5%) to the total variance explained. These observations are consistent with expectations posited by theory, which indicates the hypothetical presence of only two distinct factors: (1) a preference for developmental advising techniques and (2) a preference for prescriptive advising techniques. Therefore, to test this hypothesis a two-factor solution was performed.

To aid in the interpretation of the factors, an oblique rotation was performed first. However, this rotation revealed uncorrelated factors. Therefore, an orthogonal solution was selected. A varimax rotation revealed significant loadings on the hypothesized factors. The rotated factor loadings are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

*Rotated Principal Components Analysis of Each of Two Academic Advising Subscales*

| Developmental Items (DAS) | | | Prescriptive Items (PAS) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Item | Component 1 | Component 2 | Item | Component 1 | Component 2 |
| V1 | 0.35 | -0.09 | V2 | 0.42 | -0.16 |
| V4 | 0.44 | 0.18 | V3 | 0.14 | 0.30 |
| V5 | 0.33 | -0.23 | V6 | -0.25 | 0.53 |
| V7 | 0.56 | -0.00 | V8 | -0.26 | 0.55 |
| V9 | 0.69 | 0.09 | V10 | 0.70 | 0.17 |
| V12 | 0.25 | -0.06 | V11 | 0.10 | 0.59 |
| V14 | 0.61 | 0.11 | V13 | 0.31 | 0.62 |
| V16 | 0.40 | 0.08 | V15 | -0.10 | 0.49 |
| V17 | 0.52 | 0.18 | V18 | -0.15 | 0.35 |
| V20 | 0.49 | 0.10 | V19 | 0.23 | 0.43 |
| V22 | 0.53 | -0.02 | V21 | 0.18 | 0.36 |
| V24 | 0.70 | -0.04 | V23 | 0.59 | 0.30 |
| V25 | 0.53 | -0.29 | V26 | -0.19 | 0.59 |
| V28 | 0.62 | -0.09 | V27 | 0.11 | 0.35 |

Analysis of the rotated component matrix yielded interesting results. Since a majority of the items loading on factor 1 were the developmental variables, this factor was labeled the Developmental factor. The second factor was therefore identified as the Prescriptive factor. Factors loading at .40 or above were deemed to be significant in identifying or describing that factor. Though 14 items were expected to load strongly on each of the two factors, a few of the items proved to be problematic. Three of the items from the DAS were problematic for Factor 1. These were items 1, 5 and 12, which exhibited weak loadings on that factor. Furthermore, items 2, 10, and 23, from the PAS, exhibited strong loadings on Factor 1 though theoretically they should have loaded more strongly on Factor 2. Observation of Factor 2 revealed seven items with strong loadings (>.40). For Factor 2, the problematic items, other than those discussed above, were those

that were expected to have strong loadings but instead loaded with values less than .40. These were items 3, 18, 21, and 27. These items loaded weakly on both factors. An examination of all of these problematic items reveals no clear pattern of similarities.

*Reliability Analysis*

To estimate the internal consistency of the scores, reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Because the modified instrument contains two subscales, a reliability analysis was conducted for each subscale. Reliability for the scores for the first subscale, the Developmental Advising Scale [DAS], was estimated at .79. A complete item analysis is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

*Item Analysis for the Full Developmental Advising Scale*

| Item | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| V1 | 40.57 | 34.78 | 0.23 | 0.78 |
| V4 | 40.63 | 33.67 | 0.33 | 0.78 |
| V5 | 41.41 | 32.90 | 0.24 | 0.79 |
| V7 | 41.68 | 30.61 | 0.46 | 0.77 |
| V9 | 41.20 | 30.74 | 0.50 | 0.77 |
| V12 | 40.98 | 34.03 | 0.19 | 0.79 |
| V14 | 40.82 | 31.64 | 0.52 | 0.77 |
| V16 | 41.24 | 31.54 | 0.35 | 0.78 |
| V17 | 41.55 | 30.62 | 0.42 | 0.77 |
| V20 | 41.66 | 30.99 | 0.40 | 0.77 |
| V22 | 40.84 | 32.31 | 0.47 | 0.77 |
| V24 | 41.22 | 29.93 | 0.56 | 0.76 |
| V25 | 41.67 | 30.63 | 0.47 | 0.77 |
| V28 | 40.98 | 31.32 | 0.53 | 0.76 |

Item analysis revealed that reliability could be increased by deleting item 12, item 5, and item 1 from the DAS group. These items were weakly correlated with the

others and diminished the overall reliability for the scale. Removal of these items resulted in a final alpha of .80.

A similar procedure was performed to assess reliability of the Prescriptive Advising Scale [PAS] scores. The initial estimate of reliability for the entire scale was .68 (see Table 6).

Table 6

*Item Analysis for the Full Prescriptive Advising Scale*

| Item | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| V2 | 32.63 | 32.70 | -0.03 | 0.69 |
| V3 | 33.18 | 30.26 | 0.23 | 0.67 |
| V6 | 34.63 | 28.60 | 0.30 | 0.66 |
| V8 | 34.42 | 28.44 | 0.29 | 0.66 |
| V10 | 33.53 | 29.82 | 0.20 | 0.67 |
| V11 | 34.02 | 26.72 | 0.41 | 0.64 |
| V13 | 33.33 | 27.27 | 0.52 | 0.63 |
| V15 | 34.50 | 28.16 | 0.29 | 0.66 |
| V18 | 34.34 | 29.77 | 0.19 | 0.68 |
| V19 | 33.81 | 28.26 | 0.34 | 0.65 |
| V21 | 34.25 | 28.84 | 0.27 | 0.67 |
| V23 | 33.81 | 28.71 | 0.34 | 0.66 |
| V26 | 34.44 | 27.88 | 0.38 | 0.65 |
| V27 | 33.71 | 29.04 | 0.28 | 0.66 |

Following a similar item analysis procedure, item 2 was removed, thus increasing reliability of this scale to .69 (see Table 8). This was the maximum reliability that could be achieved with any subset of items from the PAS.

The reliability of scores for the total modified instrument (comprised of all 28 items) is .76. This estimate of reliability compares favorably to that reported in the

development of the original instrument (Winston & Sandor, 1984). Winston and Sandor reported an alpha of .78.

Student scores on the Developmental and Prescriptive Advising scales revealed interesting results. Students were asked to select a response from a four-item Likert scale for each question on each scale. The lowest composite score on each of the two scales was 14. A student would report such a score by responding "very unimportant" to each item on the scale. The highest possible score on each of the two scales was 56. A student would report such a score by responding "very important" to each and every item on the scale. Scores on the Prescriptive Advising scale ranged from 23 to 56. Scores on the Developmental Advising scale ranged from 19 to 56. The mean score on the Prescriptive Advising scale was 36.5, and the mean score on the Developmental scale was 44.3. Approximately 95% of students indicated a Prescriptive advising score of 45 or less, and about 95% of students also indicated a Developmental score of 52 or less. A bivariate correlation between these two variables was significant at the .01 alpha level with a correlation coefficient of .22. These data suggest that the two scales are relatively independent.

Several other analyses were performed regarding additional questions of interest. An analysis of variance was performed in order to determine if there are any differences in preference for advising style between men and women. No statistically significant differences were found. A second ANOVA was performed to determine if differences in preference for advising exist between class levels. Again, no statistically significant differences were found. This may be partially due to the fact that the majority of the participants (94%) were upper classmen (third, fourth, and fifth year students). Two final

analyses were performed to determine if differences in preference for advising style exist between racial groups, and between students of various ages. Again, no statistically significant differences were found. Four similar analyses were then performed to determine any group differences with satisfaction with advising, and again, no statistically significant differences were found. Finally, no significant correlation between grade point average and satisfaction with advising was found.

**Research Question 3: What is the relationship between levels of psychosocial development and preferences for advising style and satisfaction with advising?**

To address this question, three separate regression analyses were performed. The first analysis regressed the criterion variable, preference for developmental advising, on the three new factors, Goal Actualization, Personal Expression, and Academic Autonomy, using the forward selection method. The second analysis regressed the criterion variable, preference for prescriptive advising, on the same three factors. The final analysis regressed the criterion variable, satisfaction with advising, on the same three factors.

Table 7 reports the proportion of variance in preference for developmental advising techniques accounted for by each of the three factors. Also reported is the incremental change in the F ratio, as well as the zero-order correlation coefficients and the corresponding tests of significance. As indicated in Table 7, the first analysis was not statistically significant. None of the three factors, nor the three factors combined, accounts for a statistically significant proportion of the variance in the criterion variable.

Table 7

*Multiple Regression of Preference for Developmental Advising on the Three Factors*

| Factor | $R^2$ | F | df | Sig. | F Change | Sig. | Zero Order | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Goal Actualization | .02 | 3.64 | 1 | .06 | 3.65 | .01 | .11 | .08 |
| Personal Expression | .03 | 2.35 | 2 | .10 | 1.05 | .31 | .14 | .03 |
| Academic Autonomy | .03 | 1.60 | 3 | .20 | .06 | .82 | .02 | .40 |

The second analysis revealed interesting results (see Table 8). Each of the three factors, as well as the three factors combined, accounted for a statistically significant proportion of the variance in the criterion variable at the .05 alpha level. It is important to note, however, that the zero-order correlation coefficients are negative, thus indicating an inverse relationship.

Table 8

*Multiple Regression of Preference for Prescriptive Advising on the Three Factors*

| Factor | $R^2$ | F | df | Sig. | F Change | Sig. | Zero Order | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Goal Actualization | .03 | 5.31 | 1 | .02 | 5.31 | .02 | -.15 | .02 |
| Personal Expression | .04 | 3.88 | 2 | .02 | 2.42 | .12 | -.17 | .01 |
| Academic Autonomy | .05 | 3.08 | 3 | .03 | 1.44 | .23 | -.09 | .11 |

The final analysis was also significant at the .05 alpha level (see Table 9). All three factors accounted for a statistically significant proportion of the variance in satisfaction with advising.

Table 9

*Multiple Regression of Preference for Satisfaction with Advising on the Three Factors*

| Factor | $R^2$ | F | df | Sig. | F Change | Sig. | Zero Order | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Goal Actualization | .02 | 4.01 | 1 | .02 | 5.31 | .05 | .13 | .04 |
| Personal Expression | .04 | 3.55 | 2 | .02 | 2.42 | .03 | .00 | .47 |
| Academic Autonomy | .04 | 2.40 | 3 | .03 | 1.44 | .07 | .15 | .02 |

## Summary

The current study addressed three separate research questions via three distinct analyses. The first research question addressed the structural dimensions of the SDTLA Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR), and the Developing Autonomy Task (AUT). A factor analysis was performed using the eight subtasks that comprise the two larger tasks. Three factors were retained and labeled to reflect the structural dimensions of this portion of the SDTLA. These factors were named Goal Actualization, Personal Expression, and Academic Autonomy.

The second research question concerned a modification of the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) Part 5. The original instrument was designed to measure preferences for prescriptive or developmental advising as a point along a single continuum for a variety of advising tasks. The current study attempted to revise the AAI Part 5 to measure preferences for prescriptive or developmental advising as two distinct constructs. Toward this end, the researcher split each of the 14 original items into two separate items. Reliability and validity estimates for the modified instrument were reported and were acceptable. The data collected suggest that although students tend to

prefer a developmental approach, this preference is not necessarily at the expense of a preference for a prescriptive approach. In other words, student preferences are not necessarily in one camp or the other – students may in fact prefer both approaches or neither approach.

The final research question attempted to determine whether and to what degree a relationship exists between psychosocial development and preferences for advising as well as satisfaction with advising. Three multiple regression analyses were performed using the three new factors created in the analysis associated with the first research question. A statistically significant and negative relationship between psychosocial development and preference for a prescriptive approach to advising was found. In addition, the relationship between psychosocial development and satisfaction with advising was also statistically significant. The relationship between psychosocial development and preferences for a developmental approach to advising was not significant.

# CHAPTER 5

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the structure of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (SDTLA, Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999), to develop and test a modified version of the Academic Advising Inventory (AAI, Winston & Miller, 1984), and to examine the relationship between student psychosocial development and student preference for a developmental or prescriptive advising style as well as satisfaction with academic advising. Students develop across numerous dimensions as they progress through college, and the nature of these developmental changes, both between students and over time, affects the nature of the advisor-advisee relationship (Crockett, 1985). Students may need or prefer a particular approach to academic advising at various points in their college careers depending upon varying levels of psychosocial development. An awareness of and sensitivity to these preferences can help advisors better meet the advising needs of students.

Quality academic advising is a necessary component in higher education. A caring, personal relationship, which centers around the student's total college experience, is beneficial to students (Greenwood, 1984). Yet, students may prefer prescriptive advising depending on their individual characteristics, especially developmental stage. Students who expect and desire a more prescriptive approach to advising may not want or benefit by a developmental approach, especially if such an approach is new to them.

In order to avoid a conflict of expectations that may be detrimental to the advisor/advisee relationship, the literature suggests that it may be useful for advisors to

be aware of individual differences and preferences and adjust their advising styles accordingly (Daller, Creamer, & Creamer, 1997). Advisors can then help students along the developmental path in a manner consistent with each student's individual needs.

Advisors must be proactive with students to promote intellectual and personal development (Winston, 1996). Advisors must acknowledge that individual students change over time, and college students as a whole are changing over time. Advisors must continually assess the changing needs of students and act accordingly (Borgard, 1981). Yet, advisors do not always recognize these individual differences or change their advising styles to reflect student differences. Individual student differences, especially changing stages of development, may impact student preference for advising style. In order to predict which style a student might want or expect, and to ultimately improve advising services, it would be helpful to ascertain the underlying psychological constructs that are associated with a student's preference.

The psychosocial development theories of Erikson (1963) and Chickering (1969) are valuable for student affairs practitioners, particularly in the field of academic advising. One primary concern for advisors is the promotion of student development, and mastery of Chickering's (1969) seven vectors can be viewed as a roadmap to student success. The Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999) is a measure of psychosocial development across multiple dimensions based on Chickering's theory. This instrument has been widely used in research and in practice. However, in order to begin an examination of psychosocial development in an advising context, it may be useful to examine the structure of the instrument itself.

Student preferences for advising have for many years been dichotomized into two distinct camps, defined as prescriptive and developmental. One widely used measure of student preferences, the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984), measures student preferences as a point along a single continuum, with a strong preference for a prescriptive approach at one end and a strong preference for a developmental approach at the other end. While this conceptualization of student preferences has been useful, this study explores the possibility of measuring student preferences as two distinct constructs.

Finally, this study sought to examine the relationship between psychosocial development and preferences between advising style and satisfaction with advising. The outcome of this study may contribute to a better understanding of the nature of the relationship between psychosocial development in college students and the practice of academic advising.

The research questions addressed in this study were:

1. What are the structural dimensions of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task (PUR), and the Developing Autonomy Task (AUT) of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment?
2. Can preference for advising style, as measured by the Academic Advising Inventory Part V, be measured as two separate constructs?
3. What is the relationship between levels of psychosocial development and preferences for advising style and satisfaction with advising?

To respond to the first question, a factor analysis of eight SDTLA subtasks was conducted. Three factors were retained. Based on the subscales that loaded heavily on

each factor, the first factor was named Goal Actualization. The second factor was named Personal Expression, and the third factor, which was comprised mainly of a single variable, was named Academic Autonomy.

To address the second research question, the Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) was modified to create two separate measures of student preference for prescriptive or developmental advising styles. Reliability and validity estimates for the sample were reported. The data revealed that students may prefer both developmental and prescriptive advising styles. The correlation coefficient between scores on the two scales was positive and significant at the .01 alpha level.

The third research question was addressed by performing a series of three multiple regression analyses. The criterion variable, preference for developmental advising, was regressed on the set of three new factors. Second, preference for prescriptive advising was regressed on the same set of predictors. Finally, a third criterion variable, satisfaction with advising, was regressed on the set of predictors. Statistically significant results were found in the second and third analysis, but not in the first. This set of predictors accounted for approximately 5% of the variance in preference for prescriptive advising styles. This set of predictors also accounted for approximately 4% of the variance in satisfaction with advising.

## Discussion

The current study addressed several important questions and also raised some relevant issues for future research and practice in advising. The Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (SDTLA, Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999), is a widely used measure of college students' psychosocial development across multiple dimensions.

The SDTLA is a lengthy instrument, and administered in its entirety typically takes 65 to 90 minutes to complete. While the data collected from the SDTLA is valuable for a variety of research questions or advising settings, the time required to complete the instrument may diminish its appeal or feasibility for many researchers or practitioners.

Because the various dimensions of psychosocial development addressed in the SDTLA have been shown to be highly correlated with one another, an examination of the underlying structural dimensions may be useful in re-conceptualizing and consequently modifying the instrument to create a more parsimonious form. The current study included a factor analysis of the eight subtasks associated with the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose (PUR) and Developing Autonomy (AUT) tasks of the SDTLA. This analysis revealed three major factors. The factors were then named based on an examination of the nature of subtasks that loaded heavily on each factor. The factors were Goal Actualization, Personal Expression, and Academic Autonomy.

Goal Actualization comprises Interdependence, Instrumental Autonomy, Career Planning, Educational Involvement, and Lifestyle Planning. The Goal Actualization factor includes subtasks that focus on choosing appropriate goals, whether they are related to daily living tasks or long-term career goals, and acting upon them. A thread common to accomplishment on all five of these subtasks is the ability to think and act independently, responsibly, and consistently with one's personal values and goals, as well as the realities of the larger community. Although these five subtasks focus on differing facets of life, such as academics, career, or community involvement, the common element they share is the act of creating meaningful goals and life choices and behaving in a manner that reflects those choices.

The Personal Expression factor differs substantially from the Goal Actualization factor. The two subtasks that loaded on this factor, Emotional Autonomy and Cultural Participation, reflect more of a global attitude or world perspective rather than specific behaviors. This attitude or perspective enables the student to interpret his or her own feelings and ideas, as well as the diversity of cultures and perspectives around him, in an independent, tolerant, and mature fashion.

Finally, the Academic Autonomy factor is of particular interest. This factor consists of a strong positive loading from the Academic Autonomy subtask, and a somewhat weaker, and negative loading from the Cultural Participation subtask. The Academic Autonomy subtask was also less correlated with the other seven subtasks than the other seven subtasks were with each other. This suggests that Academic Autonomy is measuring a construct that is somewhat unique. The Academic Autonomy subtask concerns the ability to perform well in the classroom, the ability to be self-disciplined, and to seek help when needed. Clearly, academic autonomy is a skill area that is of primary importance to students and faculty from the first day on campus. As students attend classes each day, academic expectations are continually communicated, and successful behavior is reinforced. Although career planning, lifestyle planning, emotional autonomy and the other subtasks are crucial developmental tasks during the college years, they may be taught and/or learned only indirectly when compared to the priority that is awarded to academic endeavors. Additionally, the Cultural Participation subtask's negative loading on this factor suggests that students who achieve high levels of Academic Autonomy may be focusing on academics at the expense of extra-curricular activities such as attending plays and museums.

These three factors, Goal Actualization, Personal Expression, and Academic Autonomy may be useful in designing a new version of the SDTLA. A more parsimonious version of the instrument may improve its appeal for a larger number of busy practitioners who are interested in measuring these constructs.

The reliability and validity estimates of the revised Academic Advising Inventory suggest that the new instrument may be useful in future research. The data collected regarding student preferences for advising styles were also intriguing and suggest a possible new direction for conceptualizing these constructs. Although students did report higher preferences overall for a developmental approach to advising, the developmental preference scores were positively correlated with the prescriptive preference scores, thus suggesting that a true dichotomy does not exist. Rather, students may prefer one method or the other depending upon the specific advising task at hand. Or, some students may prefer to obtain all of the advising available, in any form, thus reporting preferences for both approaches at an equally high level. The reverse may also be true – some students may reject any and all advising, in any form. Further investigation into these issues may reveal a modified paradigm for approaches to academic advising.

The data collected in this study provide limited support for the influence of psychosocial development on preference for a developmental advising style, or for satisfaction with advising. Although the set of three factors did predict 5% of the variance in preference for a prescriptive advising style, a statistically significant amount, 95% of the variance remains unexplained. As well, although the same set of predictors accounts for 4% of the variance in satisfaction with advising, 96% of the variance remains unexplained. This unexplained variance may be due to the influence of family,

peers, professors, life events, other psychosocial constructs, or a myriad of additional factors. The human experience is infinitely complex.

One final finding of interest concerns the difference in the first two regression analyses. The first analysis, which addressed the relationship between the factor scores and preference for developmental advising, was not statistically significant, whereas the second analysis was significant. It is interesting to speculate about the reasons for this difference. One possible explanation may be that for less mature students, the need for direction and structure are much greater than for those who have reached a certain level of psychosocial development. Once a critical level is reached, students may feel comfortable and confident enough to adapt to a variety of advising styles.

## Conclusions

Chickering's (1969, 1993) theoretical vectors of college student development have been widely used in research and in practice. The Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment (SDTLA, Winston, Miller, & Cooper, 1999) was developed as an instrument to measure student progress through the various developmental tasks that arise during the college years. However, many of these tasks are interrelated and precise measurement of each, without including the impact of the others, can be difficult.

A factor analysis of the eight subtasks associated with the Developing Autonomy Task and the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose Task resulted in three major factors. An examination of the subtasks loading on each factor prompted the following names for the factors: Goal Actualization (comprised of Interdependence, Instrumental Autonomy, Career Planning, Educational Involvement, and Lifestyle Planning), Personal Expression (comprised of Emotional Autonomy and Cultural Participation), and Academic

Autonomy, which was the single variable to load positively and significantly on factor three.

The Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) was modified to test the hypothesis that preferences for prescriptive or developmental advising techniques can be measured as two separate constructs rather than a point along a single continuum. Reliability and validity estimates for the new instrument were favorable. The data collected suggest that although students in general prefer a developmental approach to advising, students may prefer both developmental and prescriptive advising techniques depending on the specific advising task at hand.

Finally, the current study examined the relationship between levels of psychosocial development as measured by the three new factors and preferences for advising style as well as satisfaction with advising. Three multiple regression analyses were conducted. The results suggest that levels of psychosocial development can predict a preference for prescriptive advising, and satisfaction with advising, but psychosocial development may not predict a preference for developmental advising.

## Recommendations for Research

The issues addressed in this study have raised a number of questions that may be the subject of future research. First, the analysis of the eight SDTLA subtasks revealed that most of the subtasks are highly correlated with one another, and thus may be measuring very similar constructs. The current study did not examine the Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships Task of the SDTLA or the two subtasks associated with it. A future study to examine the structure of this task may be useful. The current form of the SDTLA is quite long and time-consuming to administer. A more

parsimonious version, adopted from these structure analyses, may be useful. Second, the revised Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) may be of interest for future studies. The data collected in this study suggest that students may not prefer one advising style or another in all situations. It may be useful to determine if student prefer a prescriptive or developmental advising style differentially depending upon the task at hand. For example, a student might prefer a prescriptive approach when discussing degree requirements or the class registration process, but the same student might prefer a developmental approach when discussing career options. An examination of patterns of preferences associated with the various tasks that occur in an advising setting will be valuable.

Finally, this study demonstrated limited support for the relationship between psychosocial development and preference for academic advising style. The complex nature of human development makes this reality unsurprising. However, a link does exist. Future studies may explore other variables that contribute to the variance in student preferences.

## Recommendations for Practice

The results of the current study may also have implications for practice. The analysis of the structural dimensions of the SDTLA suggest a possible new way to conceptualize the tasks associated with college student development. Rather than viewing student development along specific tasks such as career planning, instrumental autonomy, or lifestyle planning, advisors may begin to see students developing along more global paths. For example, the Goal Actualization factor that resulted from the first analysis in the current study comprises tasks such as career planning, lifestyle planning, and

instrumental autonomy. All of these tasks are correlated with one another. Hence, an advisor may begin to interact differently with a student who initiates an advising session to discuss indecision regarding choosing a major and a career. The advisor may choose to focus on the student's general goal seeking behavior and attitudes, rather than just those associated with the career issue. How does the student approach setting and achieving health and fitness goals? How does the student research and decide on spring break travel options? Insight into those skill areas may assist the student in building self-confidence and initiating a plan of action into other areas.

In contrast, the data suggest Academic Autonomy is a unique developmental dimension. Competency in this area may not necessarily imply competency in other areas. Advisors may choose to approach academic success skills as a distinct dimension in the context of advising or teaching.

The modified Academic Advising Inventory (Winston & Sandor, 1984) promises to provide some insight into the developmental/prescriptive debate. If in fact students may prefer both a developmental and prescriptive approach depending on the advising task at hand, advisors may choose to initiate a dialogue with students early in the relationship to determine what preferences or needs they may have. Further research with the modified measure will help to determine how advisors might use this information.

Finally, although the current study did find statistically significant relationships between psychosocial development and preferences for prescriptive advising and satisfaction with advising, much of the variance remains unexplained. Advisors and administrators should keep in mind the complexity of the college experience, and remain attentive to the many diverse influences that will continue to impact students.

## Summary

This study provided a degree of support for the relationship between psychosocial development and preferences for a prescriptive advising style as well as satisfaction with advising in college students. In addition, this study suggests possible new directions for measuring psychosocial development and preferences for advising styles. It is hoped that the conclusions and recommendations in this study will be useful for advisors and researchers as they continue to explore the complexities of college students and the challenges that all of us in higher education will continue to embrace.

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# Appendix A

## Institutional Review Board Approval

# Oklahoma State University
# Institutional Review Board

**Protocol Expires: 8/26/2003**

Date: Thursday, August 29, 2002 IRB Application No ED0315

Proposal Title: THE RELATIONSHIP OF PSYCHOLOCIAL DEVELOPMENT TO PREFERENCES FOR AND SATISFACTION WITH ACADEMIC ADVISING

Principal Investigator(s):

Susan Weir
219 North Murray
Stillwater, OK 74078

Marcia Dickman
435 Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

---

Dear PI :

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Sharon Bacher, the Executive Secretary to the IRB, in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, sbacher@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board

# Appendix B

## Demographic Questionnaire

Please do not use your Scantron sheet for this section. Mark your answers directly on this sheet. Thank you!

1. Please circle the name of your college:

Arts & Sciences Business Education Agriculture

Human Environmental Sciences University Academic Services

Engineering, Architecture, and Technology

2. **What is your current major?** If you are unsure, write "undecided."

_____

3. **During your last semester in college, how many times did you visit with your academic advisor, either in person, via telephone, or via e-mail?** Please circle one:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| One time | Two to four times | Four to six times |
| Seven to ten Times | More than 10 times | Never |

4. **Approximately how long do your meetings with your advisor usually last?** Please circle one:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 10 minutes or less | 10 – 15 minutes | 15- 20 minutes |
| 20 – 30 minutes | 30-45 minutes | More than 45 minutes |

**5. Please tell us about your academic advisor.**

For the purposes of this study, a **Faculty Advisor** is a professor whose primary duties are teaching and usually research, and who also advises students in his or her department. A **Staff Advisor** is a person whose primary duty is academic advising. He or she may work in a college student services office, or as a member of an academic department.

My advisor is (please circle one): Faculty Staff

**6. What is your current cumulative grade point average?** _____

**You're all done!! Thank you very, very much for completing this survey!**

# Appendix C

## Modified Academic Advising Inventory

Academic Advising Inventory
Part I
PLEASE MARK YOUR ANSWERS TO THIS SECTION ON THE SCANTRON SHEET.

In this section, please think about the type of academic advisor who would best meet your advising needs. Imagine you are meeting with your ideal academic advisor. As you read each item, decide how important or unimportant the activity is to you. This is not an evaluation of your current advisor, and may or may not match your experience with your current or past academic advisors.

For each item, please use the following scale: **A=Very Important, B=Somewhat Important, C= Somewhat unimportant, D=Very Unimportant.**

1. My advisor is interested in helping me learn how to find out about courses and programs for myself.

2. My advisor tells me what I need to know about academic courses and programs.

3. My advisor tells me what would be the best class schedule for me.

4. My advisor suggests important considerations in planning a schedule and then gives me responsibility for the final decision.

5. My advisor and I talk about vocational opportunities in conjunction with advising.

6. My advisor and I do NOT talk about vocational opportunities in conjunction with advising.

7. My advisor shows an interest in my out-of-class activities and sometimes suggests activities.

8. My advisor does NOT know what I do outside of class.

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

10. My advisor assists me in identifying realistic academic goals based on my test scores and grades.

11. My advisor registers me for my classes.

12. My advisor teaches me how to register myself for my classes.

13. When I'm faced with difficult decisions, my advisor tells me my alternatives and tells me which one is the best choice.

14. When I'm faced with difficult decisions, my advisor assists me in identifying alternatives and in considering the consequences of choosing each alternative.

15. My advisor does NOT know whom to contact about non-academic problems.

16. My advisor knows whom to contact about non-academic problems.

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

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

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

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

21. My advisor suggests what I should major in.

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

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

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

25. My advisor talks with me about my non-academic interests and plans.

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

27. My advisor keeps informed of my academic progress by examining my files and grades only.

28. My advisor keeps informed of my academic progress by examining my files and grades and by talking to me about classes.

Part II

Now, consider the academic advising that you have received in college. Please respond to the following items using this scale: **A=Strongly Agree; B=Agree; C=Disagree; D=Strongly Disagree.**

29. I am satisfied in general with the academic advising that I have received.

30. I have received accurate information about courses, programs, and requirements through academic advising.

31. Sufficient prior notice has been provided about deadlines related to college policies and procedures.

32. Advising has been available when I need it.

33. Sufficient time has been available during advising sessions.

Part III

34. What is your sex? A = Male
B = Female

35. What was your age at your last birthday?

A = below 20
B = 20 - 22
C = 23 - 25
D = 26 – 28
E = 29 or over

36. What is your racial or cultural background? Please select one response.

A = Black or African American
B = Hispanic, Latino/a, or Mexican-American
C = Asian American or Pacific Islander
D = Native American
E = White or Caucasian/European

37. What is your academic class standing?

A = Freshman (first year)
B = Sophomore (second year)
C = Junior (third year)
D = Senior (fourth year)
E = Fifth year senior or above

# Appendix D

## Permission to Modify the AAI

**sdtla@netscape.net**
**(Roger Winston)**
06/24/02 09:35 AM

To: basham@okstate.edu ("Susan B Weir")

cc: (bcc: Susan B Weir/stusvc/educ/Okstate)

Subject: RE: AAI proposal

Susan: Separating the scales is fine with me. I only ask that if you publish your findings that you clearly describe what you did and report your own reliability and validity information only--the reliabilitya and validity studies we have done would NOT apply to your research.

--Roger
==========
"Susan B Weir" <basham@okstate.edu> wrote:

>Dr. Winston,
>Hello once again! I am writing regarding the AAI. I met with my
>dissertation advisor, Dr. Dickman, and my committee chair, Dr. Fuqua,
>yesterday, to discuss my dissertation proposal. Dr. Fuqua came up with a
>very interesting suggestion that I would like to discuss with you.
>
>We are thinking that it might be very interesting to try to measure
>preferences for prescriptive or developmental advising as two separate
>constructs, rather than a single continuum. In order to do this, we would
>separate each item on the AAI part 5 into two items. The questions
>themselves will remain unchanged. But each person would then have one
>score indicating preference for prescriptive, and one score indicating
>preference for developmental advising.
>
>Would it be okay with you to do this?
>
>We will run the appropriate psychometric tests and let you know what we
>find. Let me know what you think of this idea. Thank you very much!
>
>Susan
>
>
>Susan Weir
>Senior Academic Counselor
>Oklahoma State University
>Department of Psychology
>Telephone: (405) 744-5543
>E-mail: basham@okstate.edu
>

--
Roger Winston, President
Student Development Associates, Inc.
PMB 500
2351 College Station Road
Athens, GA 30605

e-mail: sdtla@netscape.net

# Appendix E

## Protocol

**Protocol**

"Hello, my name is Susan Weir. I am a doctoral student in the OSU College of Education. I am currently working on a research study, and I would like to invite each of you to participate in the study today.

My research will explore the relationship between individual psychosocial differences and preferences for academic advising styles, as well as satisfaction with advising. I hope that the results of the study will ultimately improve the quality of advising services delivered on college campuses, by helping advisors to better serve students.

All of the information you provide will be kept confidential.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. There will be no penalty for those who choose not to participate. If you choose to participate, I will ask you to please read and sign the Informed Consent form. Then, you will need to complete two surveys and a brief demographic questionnaire. You will do all of this during class today. It should take less that one hour to complete.

I will provide all of the materials that you need to complete the assessments. Please let me know if you have any questions."

# Appendix F

## Informed Consent

**INFORMED CONSENT**

I,_____, hereby authorize or direct Susan Weir or associates or assistants of her choosing, to perform the following treatment or procedure.

This study is entitled *An analysis of the relationship of psychosocial development variables and preference for and satisfaction with academic advising.*

This study involves research and is being conducted through OSU, by Susan Weir, doctoral student in the OSU College of Education.

The purpose of the research is to explore the association between psychosocial variables and preferences for advising styles as well as satisfaction with advising. Participation will take 45 to 60 minutes.

The procedure entails completion of two assessment tools, the *Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment*, forms 2.99 and 3.99, the *Academic Advising Inventory* Parts 3 and 5, as well as a brief demographic survey.

This study will benefit those in higher education by helping to improve the working relationships between advisors and advisees, thus ultimately improving the quality of academic advising.

The information I provide will be kept confidential. No identifying information will be provided as part of any reporting of the data or results of this study

I understand that participation is voluntary and that I will not be penalized if I choose not to participate. I also understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and end my participation in this project at any time without penalty after I notify the project director.

I may contact Susan Weir at 744-5543 or Marcia Dickman at 744-9445. I may also contact Sharon Bacher, IRB Executive Secretary, Oklahoma State University, 415 Whitehurst, Stillwater, OK 74078. Phone: 405-744-5700.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date: _____ Time: _____ (a.m./p.m.)

_____

Signature

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the subject or his/her representative before requesting the subject or his/her representative to sign it.

Signed: _____

Project director or authorized representative

# Appendix G

**Correlation Matrix of the SDTLA Subscales**

## Appendix G

### Correlation Matrix of the SDTLA Subscales

| | AA | INT | IA | EA | CP | EI | CUL | LP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Academic Autonomy (AA) | | .09 | .19** | .13 | .16* | .11 | .06 | .22** |
| Interdependence (INT) | | | .41** | .15 | .46** | .50** | .27** | .41** |
| Instrumental Autonomy (IA) | | | | .19** | .41** | .49** | .15* | .58** |
| Emotional Autonomy (EA) | | | | | .00 | .19* | .14 | .06 |
| Career Planning (CP) | | | | | | .69** | .19** | .72** |
| Educational Involvement (EI) | | | | | | | .29** | .65** |
| Cultural Participation (CP) | | | | | | | | .21** |
| Lifestyle Planning (LP) | | | | | | | | |

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level

VITA 2

Susan B. Weir

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT TO PREFERENCES FOR ACADEMIC ADVISING USING A TWO-DIMENSIONAL MEASURE

Major Field: Educational Psychology

Specialization: Student Personnel Administration

Biographical:

Education: B.A., Journalism, University of Oregon, 1985. M.Ed., Educational and Counseling Psychology, University of Missouri-Columbia, 1993. Completed the requirements for the Ph.D. degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 2003.

Experience: Senior Academic Counselor, OSU Department of Psychology, 1999 to present. Academic Counselor, OSU College of Education, 1998-1999. Academic Advisor, University of Missouri School of Journalism, 1995-1997. Vocational Rehabilitation Consultant, Karr, Inc., 1993-1994.

Professional Memberships: National Academic Advising Association, Oklahoma Academic Advising Association