CHAPTER ONE

Historical Foundations of Academic Advising

Terry L. Kuhn

For the purposes of this chapter, *academic advising* will refer to situations in which an institutional representative gives insight or direction to a college student about an academic, social, or personal matter. The nature of this direction might be to inform, suggest, counsel, discipline, coach, mentor, or even teach. Such activities have occurred throughout the history of academic advising in higher education, and this chapter will briefly summarize the historical development of academic advising, characterize academic advising as it occurs in different institutional types, and discuss how to achieve advising as an examined activity by amalgamating theory, practice, and research.

Readers are urged to examine the chapter by Susan H. Frost on "Historical and Philosophical Foundations for Academic Advising" that appeared in the first edition of this book (Frost, 2000). This current chapter intends to complement Frost's chapter.

ERAS OF ACADEMIC ADVISING

The First Advising Era

Advisors in a designated separate role were not an aspect of American higher education at its inception. In 1636, the founders of Harvard College cast the mold for the liberal arts college in what was to become the United States of America. They created a four-year residential institution whose Puritan classical curriculum was designed to produce well-educated ministers, lawyers, and doctors for an emerging society. This institution would create "a society of scholars, where

teachers and students lived in the same building under common discipline, associating not only in lecture rooms but at meals, in chambers, at prayers, and in recreation" (Morison, 1946, p. 12). Writing about his travels in the United States and Canada in 1818, John Duncan (1823) said that at Princeton "a President, two Professors, and two Tutors, form the whole corporation" (p. 169).

From 1636 until about 1870, the period that Frost (2000) identified as "Higher Education Before Academic Advising Was Defined," all students took the same courses, and no electives were available. In this era, the college ideal was "a large family, sleeping, eating, studying, and worshiping together under one roof" (Rudolph, 1962, p. 88). The mind was viewed as a tool to be sharpened, and subjects like Latin, Greek, and mathematics were favored sharpening stones. Religion was included in the curriculum to ensure appropriate moral training. During this period "a president, two professors, and one or two tutors perform the whole duty of instruction and government" (Brown, 1862, p. 10). These small colleges had no student service professionals, administrators, secretaries, or custodial staff. The president and faculty served *in loco parentis* and assumed responsibility not only for students' intellectual and academic lives, but also for their moral training and extracurricular activities. Getting everything done comprised their bundle of responsibilities.

Tutors supplemented the instructional staff of these small colleges. "A typical tutor was a young man in his early twenties who had himself only recently graduated from the institution where he was employed . . . [and] his chief duties were to hear student recitations and act as a disciplinarian and overseer of students under his charge." Professors typically received appointments at their alma maters after having served in some nonacademic occupation, usually a pastorate. The "conditions precluded a professor from specializing: it was not at all unusual to find the same person teaching geography, mathematics, and natural philosophy; or Latin and Greek literature, plus history, ethics, and moral philosophy" (Lucas, 2006, p. 124).

By the 1870s, the general social climate had become very formal and rigid, and students were kept in line by an inflexible system of rules, regulations, and punishments. "No longer was it considered appropriate for faculty to speak with students on a personal basis; neither was it considered proper for students to approach faculty members" (Bush, 1969, p. 599). Students thought of faculty as a "necessary evil" and faculty treated students as an "unavoidable nuisance" (Veysey, 1965, p. 295). For many years there was disorderly conduct in the classrooms, chapels, commons, and dormitories that ranged from throwing spitballs at the professors, drinking, throwing food and utensils during meals, barring doors shut, cursing, and threatening to burn the president's house (Morison, 1946). Rebellions often were directed at "bad food in the dining commons to restrictions on student activities and autonomy. Presidents, assisted by tutors, were constant disciplinarians" (Thelin, 2004, p. 21). This restrictive control widened an increasing gulf that divided students from tutors and faculty and continued until the elective system provided: (1) more choices to students, (2) better faculty interaction that softened relations with students, and (3) increasing use of seminars and laboratories ("the seminar and the laboratory

lent themselves to a more intrinsically democratic relationship between student and professor than had the lecture method alone" (Bush, 1969, p. 605).

The introduction of curricular electives in the 1870s initiated the need for advisors to guide students in the successful pursuit of their chosen paths. Also, the broader curriculum required faculty specialization, which brought the pansophic approach of faculty to an end. As institutions grew in size and complexity, and as more was demanded of faculty members in the way of research and service, traditional faculty responsibilities gradually unbundled, spawning new roles and positions, one of which was the academic advisor. The need for academic advisors was recognized by President David Bates Douglass at Kenyon College. President Douglass's action was described by Rutherford B. Hayes, 19th President of the United States, then a junior at Kenyon College, in a June 1841 letter written to his mother. In that letter he said:

> A new rule has been established that each student shall choose from among the faculty some one who is to be his adviser and friend in all matters in which assistance is desired and is to be the medium of communication between the student and faculty. This I like very much. My patron is a tutor in the Grammar School who has graduated since I came here. (Hayes, 1841, p. 54)

Hayes' enthusiasm for the new practice may have been spurred by his ability to choose his "patron."

The Second Advising Era

Frost (2000) called the era from 1870 through about 1970 "Academic Advising as a Defined and Unexamined Activity." Beginning in the 1870s, American higher education institutions began to include more practical courses as alternatives to Greek, Latin, and other traditional courses. As more courses were offered in this new elective system, students could have choices. Instituting an elective system was controversial for those who wanted to preserve the classical curriculum. Developing an academic advising process was one answer to those critics, who feared that the elective system used unwisely by students would result in a less focused education. For example, the elective system that President Eliot instituted at Harvard in 1872 (Thelin, 2004) was later defended on the basis of Harvard's having a Board of Freshman Advisers, who helped students make appropriate choices among elective subjects (Rudolph, 1962). In 1877, Johns Hopkins had a system in which students could choose from seven groups of courses, each group being similar to today's "major." Hopkins also had faculty advisors (Hawkins, 1960) in "recognition that size and the elective curriculum required some closer attention to undergraduate guidance than was possible with an increasingly professionally oriented faculty" (Rudolph, 1962, p. 460).

President Daniel Coit Gilman at Johns Hopkins University, whose initiatives helped to usher in this second advising era, not only used the word "adviser" to refer to someone who gave direction to a student concerning an academic, social, or personal matter, but stated the responsibilities required of the role. In 1886, Gilman showed keen understanding of the undergraduate advising role when he wrote that:

> The adviser's relation to the student is like that of a lawyer to his client or of a physician to one who seeks his counsel. The office is not that of an inspector, nor of a proctor, nor of a recipient of excuses, nor of a distant and unapproachable embodiment of the authority of the Faculty. It is the adviser's business to listen to difficulties which the student assigned to him may bring to his notice; to act as his representative if any collective action is necessary on the part of the board of instruction; to see that every part of his course of studies has received the proper attention. (p. 565)

Gilman appears to have had an idealistic view of the advisor-advisee relationship. In reality the advisor system "degenerated into a perfunctory affair involving only brief, impersonal interviews" (Veysey, 1965, p. 297). For instance, Morison (1946, p. 403) states that the Board of Freshman Advisers at Harvard "did little except address the entering class *en masse,* approve study cards, and invite the advisee to a pallid luncheon at the Colonial Club." While these systems were designed partially to help students choose among electives, they were also intended to diminish a growing gulf between students and faculty (Veysey, 1965). Thus, institutions like Harvard and Johns Hopkins identified "advisors" with specified expectations, but they paid little attention to the relative success of their advising processes. Although the concept of advising was beginning to be defined, it remained an unexamined activity.

By the 1920s, "most colleges and universities were busy perfecting various systems of freshman counseling, freshman week, faculty advisers, and before long the campus psychologist as well as the college chaplain would join these many agencies in giving organized expression to a purpose that had once been served most simply by a dedicated faculty" (Rudolph, 1962, p. 460). Rudolph lists examples of such advising systems at Wesleyan University, the University of Minnesota, the University of Oregon, Iowa State University, Columbia University, Emory University, Denison University, University of Miami, Stanford University, Ohio State University, and Marietta College.

As student support systems proliferated during the 1930s and 1940s, a more student-centered philosophy within higher education emerged. This philosophy was described in the 1949 *Student Personnel Point of View (SPPOV)* issued by the American Council on Education,

> The student personnel point of view encompasses the student as a whole. The concept of education is broadened to include attention to the student's well-rounded development—physically, socially, emotionally, and spiritually—as well as intellectually. The student is thought of as a responsible participant in his own development and not as a passive recipient of an imprinted economic, political, or religious doctrine, or vocation skill. (American Council on Education, 1949, pp. 17–18)

The *SPPOV* went on to define the key elements of a student personnel program that included "the service to the student of trained, sympathetic counselors to assist him in thinking through his educational, vocational, and personal adjustment problems." More than anything else, the *SPPOV* established the legitimacy of academic counseling along with personal, vocational, and job

placement counseling in higher education. This heritage still held true in the early 1970s (Morrison and Ferrante, 1973) and extends to the modern day.

The Third Advising Era

Frost (2000) characterized the third era, from the 1970s to the present, as "Academic Advising as a Defined and Examined Activity." In contrast to the second era, during which advising was primarily assisting students with course scheduling and registration, academic advising became an examined activity.

Academic advising became an examined activity when those doing advising began to compare how they conducted advising to how it was being conducted at other institutions. The first formal instance of such comparison occurred when over 300 people attended a national meeting on academic advising in October 1977 in Burlington, Vermont. Over the next two years the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA), an adjudicated journal, a professional staff, and annual national and regional conferences were established (Beatty, 1991). Other seminal influences on the development of "advising as an examined activity" were the publication of research articles by Crookston (1972), O'Banion (1972), and others who conceptualized notions of what it meant to "advise" a student with terms such as *prescriptive advising* and *developmental advising.*

While *prescriptive* and *developmental* refer to the act of advising itself, Habley (1983) examined the administrative structure of advising using several different organizational models. While the nuances of advising practices cannot be categorized with precision, the advising models first identified by Habley provide useful constructs for the description and analysis of advising programs. He later (2004) described the models as follows:

> **Faculty-Only Model.** All students are assigned to an instructional faculty member for advising. There is no advising office.
>
> **Supplementary Model.** All students are assigned to an instructional faculty member for advising. There is an advising office that provides general academic information and referrals for students, but all advising transactions must be approved by the student's faculty advisor.
>
> **Split Model.** A specific group(s) of students (e.g., undecided, under-prepared, etc.) are advised in an advising office. All other students are assigned to academic units or faculty advisors.
>
> **Dual Model.** Each student has two advisors. A member of the instructional faculty advises the student on matters related to the major. An advisor in an advising office advises the student on general requirements, procedures, and policies.
>
> **Total Intake Model.** Staff members of an administrative unit are responsible for advising all students for a specified period of time or until some specific requirements have been met. After meeting these requirements, students are assigned to an academic subunit or member of the instructional faculty for advising.

Satellite Model. Each school, college, or division within the institution has established its own approach to advising.

Self-Contained Model. Advising for all students from the point of enrollment to the point of departure is done by staff in a centralized unit.

The models are used in the next section to characterize how advising is conducted in different types of institutions.

DEVELOPMENT OF INSTITUTIONAL TYPES

In 2005 the United States had a plethora of 4,387 higher education institutions that differed in type and auspices, in the purposes they held sacrosanct, in the instructional programs they offered, and in the students they served (2005 Carnegie Classification, 2006). Among the types of institutions were small and large, two-year and four-year, undergraduate and graduate, public and private, religious and secular, and nonprofit and for-profit. The institutions themselves were varied in these qualities, and their student bodies displayed a diversity of gender, age, and race. Most institutions offered an extensive array of programs, while some had but a single curricular focus. Within that array of institutions was a dualism of purpose seeking an appropriate balance between liberal and practical education. This chapter continues with descriptions, in relative historical order, of the predominant types of existing institutions and their respective approaches to academic advising.

Liberal Arts Colleges

Liberal arts colleges have a distinctly undergraduate focus, and the popularity and proliferation of small private colleges is ample testament to the success of this ideal. The early colleges were "shaped by aristocratic traditions and they served the aristocratic elements of colonial society." Indeed, only elite white males attended. The people who established the first colleges had an idealistic desire "to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity" (New England's First Fruits, 1640, ¶ 1). While the high importance given to learning and education was a fundamental element of the social philosophy of the time, it was also the case that this aristocratic order was giving way to the dynamics of mobility "such that Benjamin Franklin, [who] had no more than a few years of elementary schooling" would become a "symbol of the self-made man in social and economic terms" (Rudolph, 1962, pp. 18–19).

The venerable liberal arts college was the bastion of the Faculty-Only model, and because of their long history, typically small size, and intimate character, liberal arts colleges remain the primary exemplar of advising by instructional faculty. The Faculty-Only model was and remains the model most able to provide holistic integration of major, general education, vocational, and extracurricular aspects of the undergraduate college experience (Habley, 2004).

Normal Schools

"The first publicly funded Normal School opened in Massachusetts . . . and . . . provided only a two-year, post eighth grade education to prepare teachers to teach in the primary grades" (The Normal Schools, nd, ¶ 1). Normal schools were created to provide prospective teachers with a laboratory for learning, using model classrooms as a place to practice their new skills (Cheek, nd, ¶ 3, 8). In that respect, the meaning of "Normal" was "in the sense of setting an excellent model—or "norm"—for other schools" (Hilton, nd, ¶ 3).

Many Normal Schools evolved into four-year teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and then universities. In those latter stages, teacher training was only one aspect of a broader curricular mission. The change from Michigan State Normal School (1852), to Michigan State Normal College (1899), to Eastern Michigan College (1956), and then to Eastern Michigan University (1959) illustrates this metamorphosis (Eastern Michigan University, nd).

There was formal advising by the president and faculty. It appears that the singular purpose of this advising was to help students enroll for classes, and that help was provided through the Faculty-Only advising model. In illustration of this point, the Kirksville Missouri's 1912 Normal School Bulletin stated that "All members of the Faculty are to be at the President's Office from 8 to 12 A.M. and from 2 to 5 P.M., Tuesday, September 10th, for the purpose of assisting students in making programs" (1912 Normal School Bulletin, 1912, p. 10 ¶ 4).

Historically Black Colleges and Universities

Quakers founded the Institute for Colored Youth in Philadelphia as a teacher training college in 1837. This Institute was the first of the Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) (Historically Black Colleges, nd, ¶ 1). The establishment of this institute was important because educating blacks was prohibited by public policy in the South before the Civil War, and as a result, higher education for black students was virtually nonexistent (Thelin, 2004).

"As the Civil War was raging, the Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862 gave federal lands to the states for the purpose of opening colleges and universities that would train Americans in the applied sciences, agriculture, and engineering—quite a departure from the classical curriculum of the early colleges" (HBCU, nd, ¶ 2). However, after twenty-eight years of intransigence throughout the country, Senator Morrill created the second Land Grant Act of 1890 which specified that States could ". . . either make their schools open to both blacks and whites or allocate money for segregated black colleges to serve as an alternative to white schools" (Rudolph, 1962, 253–254). In that year, funds from the Second Land Grant served as impetus to establish sixteen exclusively black institutions (HBCU, nd, ¶ 2).

The second Land-Grant Act was worded the way it was because of the "separate but equal" doctrine. That doctrine was formulated into law by the Supreme Court in 1896 when Homer Plessy, a thirty-year-old Creole of African descent whose light skin allowed him to "pass," challenged the state of Louisiana's Separate Car Act, arguing that requiring blacks to ride in separate railroad cars

violated the thirteenth and fourteenth Amendments. The 1896 U.S. Supreme Court upheld the Louisiana law requiring separate railroad cars for blacks and whites and made the "separate but equal" doctrine a legal precedent for other segregation laws, including separate but equal education (Brown, 1896, ¶ 1–2).

In relation to Habley's categories, academic advising administrative structures in HBCU's are diverse both within and across institutions, making them reflective of advising in all of higher education. For example, J. P. Reidy, associate provost at Howard University, stated that Howard does not have a university-wide advising center, but that its Educational Advisory Center in the College of Arts and Sciences comes close to filling that function. Staff advisors (rather than faculty) provide the advising to all first- and second-year students. In contrast, Howard's College of Engineering, Architecture and Computer Sciences, uses an assistant dean (staff, not faculty) to provide much of the advising regarding general education requirements, with some assistance from faculty members in the respective departments. Reidy further indicated that there are differences among HBCU's based on program differences, institution and program size, and local customs and that these approaches change over time to serve changing student demographics (J. P. Reidy, personal communication, December 28, 2007).

Community Colleges

Since the founding of Joliet Community College in 1901, there has been a dramatic growth to 1,821 community colleges in the year 2006. About 39 percent of higher education students attend community colleges (Chronicle Almanac, 2006). Depending on their mission and funding source, community colleges have been called junior colleges, technical colleges, county colleges, and city colleges (Community College, nd, ¶ 1).

In defining a community college, Bogue (1950) amplified the 1922 definition developed for the American Association of Junior Colleges, "an institution offering two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade" to include "General education and vocation training make the soundest and most stable progress toward personal competence when they are thoroughly integrated" (p. 22). Thus, community colleges offer two-year associate degrees that can either be weighted heavily in liberal arts (Associate of Arts) as a precursor to a four-year baccalaureate degree, or focused on the development of workplace skills and immediate job placement (Associate of Science, Associate of Applied Science, or Associate of Technical Studies). Today's community colleges also offer baccalaureate-degree opportunities, usually through partnerships with colleges and universities.

The three most common organizational structures for academic advising at community colleges are the Self-Contained, Split, and Faculty-Only models. A noticeable trend away from the Faculty-Only model was noted in two-year public colleges (Habley, 2004). This finding has been supported by King, who wrote that:

> The one model that is more unique to community colleges is the Self-Contained model because that model grew out of the guidance office concept common in public schools at the time many community colleges were being created. That

model is where all advising takes place in a centralized unit, typically an advising or counseling center, and advising often reports through the Dean or Vice President of Student Affairs. (King, nd, ¶ 1)

Research Universities

Research universities are large, complex institutions that can include campuses, colleges, departments, centers, and programs, as well as ancillary business operations. Even though research universities have a preponderance of undergraduate students, they have a distinctly graduate focus in their mission and programs. Criteria for faculty promotion and tenure at research universities are usually weighted heavily on the faculty member's productivity in grantsmanship and scholarship in adjudicated journals and books, with relatively less emphasis given to teaching, institutional service, and advising undergraduate students.

The underpinning of the research component in the teaching–research–service mission of today's institutions was in good part due to the influence of German universities. Indeed, Benjamin Franklin, who was instrumental in the establishment of what was to become the University of Pennsylvania, visited Gottingen in 1766, and urged "American students to go to Germany rather than to England or to Scotland" to study (Thwing, 1928, p. 12). During the 1800s and early 1900s, thousands of American students attended German universities and hundreds of German teachers were hired in American universities (Thwing, 1928). One of the primary elements in the German ideal was reflected in the desire by presidents of American institutions, such as Daniel Coit Gilman, president at Johns Hopkins University from 1876 to 1901, to appoint "professors who had shown their ability as investigators, whose duties as teachers would not be so burdensome as to interfere with the prosecution of their [scientific] researches, whose students should be so advanced as to stimulate them to their best work, and the fruit of whose labors in the advancement of science and learning should be continually manifest in the shape of published results" (Franklin, 1910, p. 196). In these words can be seen the template for faculty expectations in the contemporary research university.

The Morrill Act in 1862 gave prominence to agriculture and engineering as high-profile purposes for higher education. In the late 1800s there was need for research to make food grow, to build machinery and factories, and to find out how things worked so that society could be improved and protected. Over time this research agenda has imprinted itself within the missions of most institutions of higher education, and, in particular, on what are known as research universities (Veysey, 1965, pp. 174–179).

In public four-year colleges the Split model is the most popular. In private four-year colleges Faculty-Only is the predominant model. In a large complex research university, the advising unit might be within a single program, a major, a department, a college, a campus, or a university-wide center. Because some of these sub-administrative units can be quite large, several advising models can coexist: a small department with a single major might use the Faculty-Only model, or one college might use the Split model, while another college might reflect the Satellite model (Habley, 2004).

For-Profit Institutions

In an era when our economy is becoming increasingly knowledge-based, the number of people seeking postsecondary education is increasing, and the personal computer and Internet are providing unprecedented access to information and educational opportunities, the growth of for-profit institutions has found fertile soil. The University of Phoenix, a for-profit institution, enrolled 115,794 students in the fall of 2004 (Campuses, 2006). This number more than doubled the number enrolled in either Miami Dade College or Ohio State University's main campus. Ruch (2001) contrasted nonprofit with for-profit institutions. He described nonprofit institutions as being tax-exempt, having donors and stakeholders, using shared governance, and cultivating knowledge within academic disciplines. He contrasted for-profit institutions as being tax-paying, having investors and stockholders, using traditional top-down management style, and applying learning to market-driven problems. For-profit institutions typically emphasize student learning to the exclusion of faculty research, offer degree programs that reflect market demand, and deliver courses at convenient locations and times for students.

While online learning has amalgamated itself into the teaching/learning environments at all types of institutions, it has been mostly for-profit institutions that have built their facilitating infrastructures and identities with the Internet rather than bricks and mortar. Moreover, online learning is transforming higher education because it is shifting accountability from institutional inputs to student outcomes, changing expectations for faculty employment and ownership of curricular material, shifting credit hours from the time students spend in class to their acquisition of knowledge and skills, altering the nature of attending classes for students, and rendering meaningless the concept of "geographical service area."

Out of concern for students, and in response to guidelines from the eight regional accreditation associations that distance learners must be provided appropriate student support services, online programs are giving careful consideration to how they provide academic advising as well as other support services (Best Practices, nd). For instance, the Ohio Learning Network (OLN) is a statewide effort to coordinate information about online offerings from eighty-one of Ohio's higher education institutions. It employs Regional Coordinators, whose responsibility is to help current and potential students find information about online learning opportunities in Ohio. OLN also provides a free orientation course for distance learners, and it maintains a Web page on how students can obtain available support that includes names, e-mail addresses, addresses, and telephone numbers of academic advisors at each participating institution offering online courses (Ohio Learns, nd). Likewise, Capella University provides academic advisors, career counselors, disability services, enrollment counselors, financial aid assistance, and tech support. In addition to the personal support from these individuals by e-mail and telephone, Capella has many online resources (Capella, nd). According to the Director for Educational Access of OLN, the majority of advising for distant

students takes place through e-mail correspondence and telephone conversations, although there is experimentation with other formats such as wikis, podcasts, and blogs (G. Steele, personal communication, July 27, 2007). In Habley's (2004) schema, these online advising efforts tend to reflect the Self-Contained model.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

From its inception as one form of counseling within student personnel services, academic advising emerged as an independent field within higher education. Manifestations of academic advising as a separate field include the growth in number of staff advisors, the development of a professional advising literature, establishment of centers for undecided and undeclared students, and the identification of multiple administrative structures for advising. Advancing the place of academic advising in the university community will require inquiry that integrates theory, practice, and research. This integration will depend on collaborative inquiry being conducted by practicing advisors and faculty researchers. Working together, they could expand the body of scholarly literature as they form a praxis of academic advising—a profession in which theory unites the dichotomy of practice and research into a continuum.

Several programs and efforts have helped to make academic advising an examined activity. Some of these include the assessment and accountability movements; advisors sharing their expertise in public conference presentations; the use of Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) standards; the American College Testing (ACT) Survey of Academic Advising to evaluate academic advising programs; and awards programs to recognize and publicize exemplary advisors and programs. Another example of advising as an examined activity was the publication of *NACADA Journal* issue 25(2), which focused on several new and unique theories of advising.

The works of Habley, Crookston, O'Banion, and many others have contributed to the vocabulary used in the field of academic advising. Terms like *advising, prescriptive, developmental, intrusive,* and *faculty-only* have been constructed to permit discussion of ideas about what advising is and how it is conducted. When such ideas are coined, they are described as constructs. Constructs are the ideas that we treat as things to study in this field. The future of advising as an examined activity will depend on how well advising theory, practice, and research can define and study advising constructs.

A *theory* is an explanation of how something works. Theories allow someone to describe a process and to predict future events under given circumstances. Some examples of famous scientific theories include evolution (biology), big-bang (astronomy), global climate change (climatology), plate tectonics (geology), probability (mathematics), and relativity (physics). Advising theories have been identified as friendship, strengths-based, Socratic self-examination, conflict resolution, teaching, educating, prescriptive, and developmental.

Advising practice is the interaction between an institutional representative and a student that is intended to give the student insight or direction about an academic, social, or personal matter.

Research is inquiry that uses formal methods, such as qualitative, quantitative, or historical, to answer a question based on a theory.

Constructs are ideas that can be only indirectly observed, such as intelligence, bravery, and prescriptive advising. Things such as chairs, cars, or trees, on the other hand, can be directly observed and measured.

Assumptions are beliefs accepted without proof within the context of an inquiry based on theory. Within a theory, assumptions are neither true nor false, since there is no way of proving them to be either. For instance, as a starting point in developing the theory of relativity, Einstein assumed that the speed of light was a constant.

As an illustration, consider a study of undecided exploratory honors students as they choose a major. The *theory* supporting this inquiry will be a condensation of William Perry's "Scheme of Intellectual and Ethical Development" (Perry, 1970). It is assumed that Perry's nine positions can be meaningfully compressed into four stages, including dualism, multiplicity, relativism, and commitment. The purpose of this fictitious inquiry sketch is to determine whether these four stages are evident in a sample of thirty exploratory majors as they enter college and choose a major. These students are all advised in a student advising center by staff advisors; they are expected to declare a degree-granting major by the time they achieve between forty-five and sixty-four semester hours. *Practice* includes what advisors routinely do to assist students in choosing a major. The research, using qualitative methods of interviews, examination of student records for GPA, course selection and other facts, as well as advisors' notes and documentation, attempt to determine whether Perry's four stages are evident. The assumptions about this study include: (1) multiple influences exist on student choice, including family members, academic advisors, friends, interest in different majors, and physical and intellectual capabilities; (2) students with high intellectual prowess will find it easier to choose a major; and (3) stages parallel to Perry's can be identified in the process of students choosing a major. While this illustration is brief, it does show that a research inquiry in academic advising can address theory, practice, research methodology, and assumptions. While the theory in this example is a formal published theory, any explanation of how a process works can sufficiently address the theory dimension.

Collaboration between academic advisors and faculty researchers has the potential to increase the effectiveness of academic advising (Padak et. al., 2004). By collaborating, advisors could identify problems in need of investigation while researchers could provide the methodological expertise. Such collaborations could make advising a more thoroughly explored field. Together advisors and researchers can investigate problems that are important to the field using respectable and accepted research methods. Academic advising must be examined for its effectiveness in the lives of students. The future history of academic advising will lie in its ability to create and use theory, apply findings in practice, and assess effectiveness through research.

References

1912 Normal School Bulletin Kirksville, Missouri. Retrieved July 16, 2007, from http://www.rootsweb.com/~moadair/NormalSchool/2-Normal_School.htm

2005 Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education. (2006, August 25). *The Chronicle of Higher Education, LIII* (1).

American Council on Education. (1949). *The student personnel point of view* (rev. ed.). American Council on Education Studies, series 6, no. 13. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Beatty, J. D. (1991, Spring). The National Academic Advising Association: A brief narrative history. *NACADA Journal, 11* (1), 5–25.

Best Practices For Electronically Offered Degree and Certificate Programs. (n.d.). Chicago: The Higher Learning Commission. Retrieved July 27, 2007, from http://www.ncahlc.org/index.php?option = com_content&task = view&id = 37&Itemid = 116

Bogue, J. P. (1950). *The community college.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Brown, H. B. (1896). *Landmark Supreme Court cases, Plessy v Ferguson (1896).* Retrieved May 28, 2007, http://www.landmarkcases.org/plessy/background3.html

Brown, S. G. (1862). *The works of Rufus Choate with a memoir of his life.* Boston: Little, Brown.

Bush, N. B. (1969). The student and his professor: Colonial times to twentieth century. *Journal of Higher Education, 40* (8), 593–609.

Campuses with the largest enrollments, fall 2004. (2006, August 25). *The Chronicle Almanac, 2004–5: The Chronicle of Higher Education, LIII* (1).

Capella University Distance Learning Resources. (n.d.). Retrieved July 26, 2007, from http://www.capella.edu/online_learning/support_services.aspx

Cheek, K. (n.d.). *The Normal School.* Retrieved May 25, 2007, from http://www.nd.edu/~rbarger/www7/normal.html

The Chronicle Almanac, 2006–7: 2005 Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education. (2006). *The Chronicle of Higher Education, LIII* (1), 35.

Community College. (n.d.). *Wikipedia.* Retrieved May 24, 2007, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Community_college

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

Duncan, J. M. (1823). *Travels through part of the United States and Canada in 1818 and 1819.* Glasgow: Printed at the University Press, for Hurst, Robinson, & Company, London.

Eastern Michigan University. (n.d.). *EMU style guide.* Retrieved September 8, 2007, from http://www.emich.edu/styleguide/timeline.htm

Franklin, F. (1910). *The life of Daniel Coit Gilman.* New York: Dodd, Mead.

Frost, S. H. (2000). Historical and philosophical foundations for academic advising. In V. N. Gordon, W. R. Habley, et al. (Eds.), *Academic advising: A comprehensive handbook.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Habley, W. R. (1983). Organizational structures in academic advising: Models and implications. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 26* (4), 535–539.

Habley, W. R. (2004). *The status of academic advising: Findings from the ACT Sixth National Survey*. (NACADA Monograph Series, no. 10.) Manhattan, KS: National Academic Advising Association.

Hawkins, H. (1960). *Pioneer: A history of the Johns Hopkins University, 1874–1889*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Hayes, R. B. (1841). At Kenyon College, 1840–1841. In *Diary and letters of Rutherford B. Hayes* (Vol. I). Retrieved August 24, 2007, from http://www.ohiohistory.org/onlinedoc/hayes/volume01.html

HBCU Historically Black Colleges & Universities. (n.d.). Indiana State University College View. Retrieved May 28, 2007, from http://www.collegeview.com/articles/CV/hbcu/hbcu_history.html

Hilton, F. (n.d.). *James Madison University: What's a Normal School?* Retrieved May 25, 2007, from http://www.jmu.edu/centennialcelebration/normalschool.shtml

King, M. C. (n.d.). *Community college advising.* Retrieved December 8, 2007, from http://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Clearinghouse/AdvisingIssues/comcollege.htm

Lucas, C. J. (2006). *American higher education: A history*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Morison, S. E. (1946). *Three centuries of Harvard: 1636—1936*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Morrison, J. L., & Ferrante, R. (1973, February). The public two-year college and the culturally different. Presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

New England's First Fruits 1640: The history of the founding of Harvard College. From Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society, 1792 (Vol. 1, pp. 242–248). Retrieved September 8, 2007, from http://www.constitution.org/primarysources/firstfruits.html

The Normal Schools (n.d.). Retrieved May 25, 2007, from http://www.lib.virginia.edu/fine-arts/guides/brown-normal.html

O'Banion, T. (1972). An academic advising model. *Junior College Journal*, *42* (6), 62–69.

Ohio Learns! Student Services Get support. (n.d.). Retrieved July 26, 2007, from http://www.ohiolearns.org/get_support/displayinst.php

Padak, G., Kuhn, T., Gordon, V., Steele, G., & Robbins, R. (2004). Voices from the field: Building a research agenda for academic advising. *NACADA Journal*, *25*(1).

Perry, W. G., Jr. (1970). *Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years: A scheme*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Ruch, R. S. (2001). *Higher Ed, Inc.: The rise of the for-profit university*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Rudolph, F. (1962). *The American college and university: A history*. New York: Knopf.

Thelin, J. R. (2004). *A history of American higher education*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Thwing, C. F. (1928). *The American and the German University: One-hundred years of history*. New York: MacMillan.

Veysey, L. R. (1965). *The emergence of the American university*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.