

NACADA: THE GLOBAL COMMUNITY FOR ACADEMIC ADVISING



Beyond Foundations

.....

Developing as
a Master Advisor

Thomas J. Grites
Marsha A. Miller
Julie Givans Voller
EDITORS

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BEYOND FOUNDATIONS

Developing as a Master Academic Advisor

Edited by
Thomas J. Grites
Marsha A. Miller
Julie Givans Voller

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This book is dedicated to all who practice academic advising at the master level and to those who aspire to achieve this level. May you use its contents to advance your advising practice, further student success, and contribute to the academic advising field.

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The idea for a book explicitly for those who advise at the master level grew from discussions with Erin Null, then a staff member at Jossey-Bass. NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising began its long and productive relationship with Jossey-Bass with the development and publication of the first edition (2000) of *Academic Advising: A Comprehensive Handbook*. Much has changed in the field of academic advising since 2000; as a result of discussing those changes with Erin, a three-book series took shape to address the broadening scope of advising practice.

With the publication of this book, NACADA and Jossey-Bass complete the academic advisors core resources library:

- *The New Advisor Guidebook: Mastering the Art of Academic Advising* (Advising 101—the informational component),
- *Academic Advising Approaches: Strategies That Teach Students to Make the Most of College* (Advising 201—the relational component), and
- *Beyond Foundations: Developing as a Master Advisor* (Advising 301—the conceptual component).

Beyond Foundations is the first of its kind: a book dedicated to those who have not only mastered the basics of the field but who wish to contribute to the professional development of academic advisors on their campuses and in academe.

We owe a debt of gratitude to a number of individuals who contributed to the production of this text. First, we thank the master advisors who reviewed the book's outline and initial chapter drafts; their insights into what master advisors need in a book (and in the field) were invaluable.

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Finally we thank you, the master advisor, reading this book. We trust that you will find validation for your advising practice as you acquire new ideas and strategies so you can boost student success, impact your campus, and contribute to the advising field.

THOMAS J. GRITES
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Charlie L. Nutt was appointed the Executive Director of the National Academic Advising Association in October 2007. Prior to this, he served as the Associate Director of the Association for 5 years. In addition, he was also Vice President for Student Development Services at Coastal Georgia Community College for 9 years and assistant professor of English/Director of Advisement and Orientation for 6 years. He received his AA from Brunswick College, BSEd from the University of Georgia, and MEd and EdD in Higher Educational Leadership from Georgia Southern University. Nutt has had vast experience in education. In addition to his 15 years as a teacher and administrator at Coastal Georgia Community College, where he originated the College Advisement Center and Orientation Program, which was awarded a Certificate of Merit by NACADA in 1995, he has taught English in grades 9 through 12, served as a department chair and assistant principal in a high school, and served as director of development and admission at a private K–12 institution. Presently, he teaches graduate courses in the College of Education in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology at Kansas State University. He has also been instrumental in the development of the NACADA/K-State Graduate Certificate in Academic Advising and several other NACADA professional development initiatives.

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During the past 25 years, **George E. Steele** has presented at the NACADA Annual Conference on topics related to working with undecided students, advising theory, and use of technology in advising. He has also written more than two dozen publications addressing these topics. He has been recognized for his work by NACADA in various ways, including the Service to NACADA Award and the Virginia N. Gordon Award. In addition, he has served in a variety of NACADA leadership roles. In his professional career, Steele has served as the Executive Director of the Ohio Learning Network, an organization that assisted Ohio higher educational institutions to assess, adopt, and deploy technology for online learning and student services. Prior to this position, he directed the advising program at the Ohio State University for undecided and major-changing undergraduates. Currently, Steele is a consultant working with institutions on topics related to his interests and teaching online for The Ohio State University.

Carolyn Thomas is the Dean and Vice Provost for Undergraduate Education at the University of California (UC) Davis and a professor of American Studies. As a faculty member, she served as an undergraduate and graduate student advisor for programs in American Studies and Cultural Studies. In her administrative role, she collaborates with deans, associate deans, and advising directors to enhance advising resources and partners with the Director of Academic Advising to improve advising practices throughout the UC Davis community. She is also the former recipient of the Chancellor’s Award for Distinguished Undergraduate Mentoring at UC Davis.

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Stephen O. Wallace serves as Coordinator of Developmental Education and Advising Development at Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania. He has extensive experience in advising and student support services. He received a PhD in Educational Administration from the University of Alabama and MEd in Adult and Higher Education from the University of Oklahoma. He has published in various NACADA publications and the *NADE Digest* and presented at the 2008 NACADA Annual Conference.

INTRODUCTION

Thomas J. Grites, Marsha A. Miller, and Julie Givans Voller

The best way to predict your future is to create it.

—Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865)

This book provides a path for the future of academic advising and those who practice it at a mastery level by

- delving deeply into the foundations and development of academic advising as a significant component of higher education;
- reflecting on master advisors' consistent and primary goal of fostering student success; and
- examining the contexts in which master advisors practice the craft in the 21st century.

This book completes a series of joint NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising and Jossey-Bass publications, the advisor core library, that build upon Habley's (1987) work in which he delineated the components of academic advising as *informational* (advisor knowledge), *relational* (advisor communication skills and approaches), and *conceptual* (advisor understanding of ideas and theories) to advise students effectively. Thus the three books provide a functional curriculum for the practice, research, and scholarly inquiry that comprise academic advising. The audience for this book includes experienced advising practitioners, active researchers, engaged scholars, and the upper level administrators of these individuals. For the purpose of this book, we call this group *master advisors*.

The first book in the core library series, *The New Advisor Guidebook: Mastering the Art of Academic Advising* (Folsom, Yoder, & Joslin, 2015), explains the broad spectrum of roles, responsibilities, and the requisite skills and knowledge necessary to successfully practice as an academic advisor. The *Guidebook* also establishes the base of a pyramid structure (illustrated in chapter 3 of this book) that reflects the organizational and informational aspects of the advising process. It can be considered (in course numbering parlance) as Advising 101.

The second book of the core library, *Academic Advising Approaches: Strategies That Teach Students to Make the Most of College* (Drake, Jordan, & Miller, 2013), provides a wide range of strategies that connect academic advising approaches to the practices that have emerged since the 1970s. The *Approaches* book builds upon the central part of the pyramid by reflecting the relational strategies that advisors use in their craft. It is considered Advising 201.

This final volume in the series, *Beyond Foundations: Developing as a Master Advisor*, synthesizes advisor knowledge and beliefs about the rapidly changing world of higher education in an effort to identify, confront, and resolve the current and the impending challenges facing the field of academic advising in the near future. *Beyond Foundations* provides the opportunity for master advisors to create their own future. It completes the apex of the pyramid by imposing the conceptual framework that the field of academic advising needs to establish. It is considered Advising 301.

As academic advising professionals (both those whose primary role within an institution is to advise students and those who advise as part of their faculty responsibilities) look to the future, a number of unresolved, perhaps even confusing, fundamental aspects related to the advising process need to be (re)examined. The nature of the academic advising process is characterized by diversity in terms of practitioners (e.g., faculty and staff advisors), appropriate credentials for academic advisors, organizational delivery systems, types of institutions, and student clienteles, so conclusive resolutions may not—and perhaps should not—result from an examination of the individual or collective aspects of advising. Marsha A. Miller (chapter 3), Susan M. Campbell and Susan McWilliams (chapter 4), and Karen L. Archambault (chapter 6) describe these distinct elements and offer suggestions for accommodating the dilemmas they pose for the practitioner. These quandaries have created obstacles to the construction of a universally accepted definition of academic advising. Nevertheless, the concerns related to the academic advising process need to be reviewed.

Understanding the Foundation and Development of Advising

As the importance of the role of academic advising gained recognition as a visible force in higher education, a number of scholars examined the nature underlying it. Burns Crookston (1972/1994/2009) and Terry O'Banion (1972/1994/2009) raised the level of consciousness about academic advising in articles now considered classics in the advising literature. Although the importance of these concepts went unrecognized at the time, they established a cornerstone for the acknowledgment of academic advising as a significant factor in facilitating the success of college students.

As the debate over a definition grew, a number of terms appeared to describe the process, most notably *theory* and *philosophy* (described by Hilleary Himes and Janet Schulenberg in chapter 1). Subsequently, terms such as *concept*, *approaches*, and *purpose* appeared in the advising literature. Many of these terms are used interchangeably to describe the nature of academic advising. In the future, academic advising professionals (practitioners, researchers, and scholars) will be challenged to distinguish among these terms when using them to describe their work. For our purposes in this book, we suggest that the following differences be examined:

- *Theory*. While the debate about whether a unified theory of academic advising can or should exist continues (Lowenstein, 2014), the meaning of *theory* needs to be elucidated because it currently is not used universally, varying according

- to traditional academic disciplines. For example, theory in the arts and humanities fields is based on beliefs and analyses of numerous phenomena used to anticipate responses, but those in the natural and social science fields seek to prove or disprove whether interactions result in specific outcomes (Lowenstein, 2014). Simply referring to a *theory* of academic advising, without fully defining the term or context does little to advance the understanding or field of advising (Himes & Schulenberg, 2013).
- *Philosophy*. Although frequently used as a companion to *theory*, *philosophy* can connote different meanings, depending on the context in which it is used. An institutional philosophy (e.g., religious) may not fully comport with one's personal philosophy about specific issues. In many situations, however, one's beliefs, intentions, values, assumptions, and reflections likely enter the conversation as evidence of a personal philosophy. Furthermore, one's (personal) philosophy could, in fact, conflict with a theoretical perspective. The use of *philosophy* in the absence of understood parameters could create confusing, or even conflicting, conversations.
- *Concept*. NACADA adopted the term *concept* in 2006 when agreement on a specific definition of academic advising could not be reached (NACADA: The Global Community for Academic Advising [NACADA], 2006). This broader term suggested a fundamental idea, description, or understanding that enhanced certain specific explanations. Those drawn to this term must recognize and acknowledge whether it is used in reference to the NACADA Concept of Academic Advising (NACADA, 2006) or in a more generalized way.
- *Approaches*. The editors of the second book of the series intentionally chose this term for the title (Drake et al., 2013, p. xi) and specified that the approaches described therein are derived from various theories and employ certain strategies for implementing each approach. In chapter 2, Peggy Jordan has presented enhanced applications of several major theories.

Understanding the Goal of Advising: Student Success

The ultimate goal of every academic advisor seems clear: Help each student achieve his or her own success. Upon deeper inspection, the goal seems elusive: What does *success* mean? Who decides when success is achieved? Does a student's success reflect the behaviors or characteristics of advisors, advising programs, or institutions? To clarify the roles and importance of advising in higher education, questions on the meaning of success require answers in the not-so-distant future. In chapter 5, Stephen A. Wallace and Beverly O. Wallace explore success and offer suggestions for resolving the confusion that has emerged in the discussion of it.

The higher education agenda in the United States offers a clear answer to all the questions on success: graduation rates. More recently, the goal has evolved to include part-time and transfer students who graduate from college but not necessarily from

the institution of initial enrollment. However, these performance measures do not recognize students who do not claim graduation as their sole criterion for success or those with goals that do not include a degree or certificate. No one knows the number of students who fall into these categories. Furthermore, no systematic means of ascertaining the goals for nondegree students has been established, which certainly precludes any ability to determine whether they had achieved their educational goals before they left college.

Perhaps more alarming than the latest definition bestowed on higher education, *student success* is rarely defined in the literature or in the programs designed to result in this outcome. Graduation is presumed to be *the* criterion for student success, and it is rapidly becoming a surrogate for institutional success or failure. If graduation is the proxy for success, then the role of academic advising is defined: Get students graduated! However, this characterization of the advising role and related edicts often comes from those unaffiliated with higher education institutions. Furthermore, advisors may be held accountable for ensuring that students graduate. Academic advising advocates have been quick to take some credit for improved retention rates, but are they ready to accept some responsibility for unmet graduation criteria?

Each academic advisor must appreciate the meaning attached to *student success* by campus, unit, and advisor. In his description of the human capital approach to career advising in chapter 9, Leigh S. Shaffer extends the call for clarity and development to students. Rather than succumb to the default criterion (graduation), advisors must determine, accept, and monitor alternative measures to demonstrate the success of the unit or the institution. Some may set the bar for success through measures of student satisfaction with the institution and the academic advising provided; completion of the student goals specified upon matriculation, with documentation of reasons for noncompletion as indicated by the students; established student learning outcomes; or postattendance behaviors such as transferring, attending graduate school, or entering the workplace. For example, a student who plans to transfer to another program or institution meets the criterion (i.e., demonstrates success) when she or he changes programs or colleges, not when an external party says the student has succeeded. In chapter 17, Thomas J. Grites encourages master advisors to monitor various sources and conditions that could create challenges in the future, and in chapters 14 and 15, Rich Robbins provides assessment strategies critical to documenting the establishment and achievement of specific advising goals.

Understanding the Master Advisor Concept

In selecting the title for this book, we created our own challenge: Determine the characteristics of a master academic advisor. We looked at various descriptors for this term—one qualified to teach, one with consummate skill, one whose work serves as a model, one having authority, and so forth—and we determined that all the descriptors probably apply to academic advisors who aspire to earn such a distinction.

Although we were confronted with the diverse nature of the field of academic advising, we call for further exploration of the criteria for master advisor recognition. Such a distinction will affect the future of academic advising as a profession, field, and discipline that can be studied. In chapter 7, Marc Lowenstein and Jennifer L. Bloom provide a strong foundation for understanding professionalism.

Because of the rapid changes in higher education over the last few years, academic advisors must lead, adapt, and produce results. Identifying and developing influential leaders cannot be left to chance, and master advisors must exert their leadership qualities. Brett McFarlane and Carolyn Thomas (chapter 11) describe a number of efforts that master advisors use to advocate for change on their campuses, including building coalitions, providing intentional professional development efforts, and garnering the support of upper level administrators.

The provision of a set of criteria by which individuals seek and receive acknowledgment for status as master advisors is addressed by Chrissy L. Davis Jones (chapter 10), who explains that those assuming a leadership role must also demonstrate

- up-to-date knowledge of the overall higher education landscape,
- understanding of the literature and research in academic advising,
- appropriate application of institutional policies and knowledge about their effects on the academic advising process,
- ability to articulate the rationale behind and proposals for enhancing the academic advising program, and
- engagement with professional development activities that have improved the ability to lead.

In chapter 12, Jeffrey McClellan explains current and desirable rewards and career ladders that motivate and retain master advisors. In chapter 13, Julie Givans Voller describes numerous professional development approaches for advisors that support their aspirations to become master advisors.

Folsom et al. (2015) provided a comprehensive description of the specific knowledge, skills, and behaviors that meet the criteria for their foundational mastery of advisor development. In this volume, Matthew M. Rust (chapter 8) addresses critical legal issues confronted by master advisors, and George E. Steele (chapter 16) shares a model for master advisors to harness technology that supports academic advising as a teaching.

Since the inception of NACADA in 1979, scholars and practitioners alike have struggled with the term *professional advisor*. Many who advise students as their primary function and those who have become academic advising administrators understand the term. However, many have criticized it because it seems to exclude the many excellent faculty advisors and may even suggest that faculty members who advise do not subscribe to the same high standards of practice as those specifically hired to advise students.

As the editors of *Beyond Foundations*, we have taken the position that the preferred term for the group of academic advisors who spend the majority of their time in direct academic advising or advising-related activities (managing, assessing, training, advocating, etc.) should be *primary-role* advisors. This term clearly delineates this group from the faculty members who advise but whose primary role is teaching. We are further emboldened to use this term because the NACADA Awards Program began using the term *primary role* in 2001 (along with *secondary role*) and subsequently recognized excellent faculty advisors in a separate category, as first seen with the Outstanding Advising Award winners in 2002.

We also confronted the long-standing debate on the distinction (or not) of academic advising as a profession. We assert that those engaged in academic advising are members of a profession. Authors, researchers, presenters, and practitioners in academic advising frequently use this term rather freely, regardless of the debate surrounding it. Lawyers, landscapers, and lyricists are members of their professions, and we contend that advisors should think no less of themselves. Therefore, we asked our authors to use this term to reinforce our affirmation. Craig M. McGill and Charlie L. Nutt, in the final chapter (18) of this book, address the current and future state of this debate.

Finally, in discussions and in the literature, advisors use the term *field of academic advising*, and we encourage the continued use of it. Academic advising as a *field* refers to the continued expansion of research and literature that advances advisors' work and influence. We contrast *field of academic advising* with the term *academic advising discipline*. Academic disciplines incorporate the research and literature within a field into the subjects taught and studied within graduate programs, and those in a discipline espouse "theories and concepts that can organize the accumulated specialist knowledge effectively" (Krishnan, 2009, p. 9). To meet this articulated standard, the field needs to establish at least one theory of academic advising. The difficult task of establishing an organized academic advising theory was delineated by Lowenstein (2014) and is acknowledged in McGill and Nutt's chapter.

With this book, we provide the rationale and direction for moving practitioners beyond the fundamental roles of academic advisors to become campus advocates, leaders, researchers, and scholars within the field; in so doing, advisors can become a research-based discipline worthy of doctorate programs. Through well-conceived statements and explanations about advising practice, strategies, and concepts, the profession will gain recognition for advisor contributions to higher education and student success—however it is defined.

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THE EVOLUTION OF ACADEMIC ADVISING AS A PRACTICE AND AS A PROFESSION

Hilleary Himes and Janet Schulenberg

Study the past if you would define the future.

—Confucius (551–479 BC)

Those who wish to effect change in the role and status of academic advising within higher education need an understanding of the structural obstacles to and opportunities for innovation. We provide an overview of the history of the academic advising field with particular focus on areas with lasting ramifications for status and practice. In tracing the history of academic advising from a structuration perspective, we found three important influential trends: expansion of the purposes for attending higher education, the emergence of academic disciplines and their influence in knowledge generation, and changes in theoretical perspectives and perceived roles of academic advising.

Reader Learning Outcomes

From studying this chapter, advisors will use knowledge gained on the history of advising to

- identify several influences on the development of academic advising in the United States,
- select participation opportunities that may influence future change, and
- explain implicit and explicit structures of the institutional system and their relationship to the local and global history of academic advising.

Over the past two centuries, academic advising has emerged as an increasingly important component of higher education. Attention to the purposes, guiding principles, and outcomes of advising has increased, and as the field matures, practitioners increasingly view advising as a profession. In line with this movement, master

academic advisors must gain an understanding of the ways the history of advising affects their daily interactions with students and the role of practice within higher education. Further, those who wish to effect change need to know the structures and roles that create obstacles to and opportunities for innovation. This chapter provides an overview of the history of the academic advising field with particular focus on areas with lasting ramifications on status and practice.

Scholars have divided the history of academic advising into four eras:

1. Prior to 1870, academic advising was a largely unrecognized activity.
2. Between 1870 and 1970, the role of academic advising was recognized, but remained largely unexamined by both practitioners and other stakeholders.
3. Between 1970 and 2003, academic advising gained greater recognition and examination by practitioners (Frost, 2000; Kuhn, 2008).
4. From 2003 to present, academic advising practitioners attempt to intentionally clarify and convey the role of advising, including that of advising as a profession (Cate & Miller, 2015).

A current focus of advising scholarship is on illuminating the distinctive role of advising in higher education and elevating it in the eyes of others, such as higher education administrators, students, and the general public (Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2008; Shaffer, Zalewski, & Leveille, 2010). The historical development of the field sheds light on the reasons that those in higher education, including those who advise students, do not consistently value the practice or the expertise of advisors. It also points toward opportunities for change.

Structuration theory informs this discussion. It places social structures (defined roles, institutions, rules, etc.) in a dual role (Giddens, 1984). Social structures shape human practices by defining the goals that can and cannot be accomplished by an actor in a particular social role. Despite the boundaries, actors create and reproduce social structures (Giddens, 1984) that both constrain and enable human action. Further, they effect changes to systems both unintentionally and intentionally:

Human agents [are] “knowledgeable” and “enabled” [implying] that those agents are capable of putting their structurally formed capacities to work in creative or innovative ways. And, if enough people or even a few people who are powerful enough act in innovative ways, their action may have the consequence of transforming the very structures that gave them the capacity to act. (Sewell, 1992, p. 4)

The recent discussion of academic advising as a profession reflects social structures that both enable and constrain academic advisors. As a result, those in positions to innovate benefit from an understanding of the history of academic advising.

The history of academic advising within higher education as viewed from a structuration perspective reveals three influential trends:

- The social and professional roles higher education played for individuals expanded and grew complicated. Increased access to higher education, evolution of the social needs for an educated citizenry, and changes in credentialing for the professions are connected to both an increase in curricular complexity and the enrollment of an expanding and increasingly diverse student body.
- As academic disciplines emerged and the role of knowledge generation gained importance in the funding model for higher education institutions, faculty members became decidedly specialized in their disciplines (Raskin, 1979). At the same time, stakeholders recognized the need for specialization in helping students. Efforts to meet the need for specialized skills and knowledge led to the creation of a student personnel cadre (Cook, 2009), many with backgrounds in psychological theory and method.
- Particularly since 2000, practitioners and other stakeholders have paid increasing attention to the examination of academic advising philosophy, practice, and evaluation (Frost, 2000; Kuhn, 2008; Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2010). Changes in the particular theoretical perspectives and perceived roles of academic advising as well as the differential implementation of academic advising among higher education institutions contributed to the current shape and status of academic advising.

These historical trends inform past and present views of academic advising, create the boundaries for current practices and structures, and suggest areas critical to future directions and professionalization of the field. We encourage readers to gain familiarity with the historical accounts of advising by Frost (2000), Grites (1979), Kuhn (2008), as well as Schulenberg and Lindhorst (2010), as this chapter omits details articulated by other authors.

The First Advising Era (1620 to 1870): Academic Advising Is Unrecognized

Frost (2000) and Kuhn (2008) characterized the First Advising Era (1620–1870) as a period when academic advising was undefined within American higher education. By the turn of the 19th century, higher education had transformed dramatically, creating the need for students to make academic decisions with the aid of an academic advisor. The previous 200 years of higher education perpetuated the structures and roles from which academic advising emerged.

Prior to the American Revolution, nine colleges existed in the colonies, and they enrolled few students, predominantly from wealthy classes (Rudolph, 1990). These earliest institutions unified church and state, creating institutions for elite education and socialization for those destined for political and social leadership, primarily as

ministers. By 1750, college affiliation had become a mark of prestige, providing formal socialization of males likely to hold positions of power and providing families a network of social connections that reinforced the existing social hierarchy (Rudolph, 1990; Thelin, 2004; Vine, 1976). Few individuals attended college, and fewer graduated. Colleges played little or no role in credentialing for any professional field (Thelin, 2004); rather, colleges provided young teenage boys an education in manhood through strict intellectual and physical discipline as role modeled and enforced by teachers (Thelin, 2004; Vine, 1976). In particular, institutional leaders meant to prevent the effeminization of society, which they feared would be a consequence of allowing the children of the social and political elite to spend their adolescence with coddling mothers (Vine, 1976).

During this time, relationships between students and teachers were extremely formal and hierarchical. They mainly revolved around disciplinary issues (Thelin, 2004). Students lived and learned in austere environments. As the authoritarian figures, faculty members wielded power over students, who frequently challenged faculty authority with outbursts of riotous behavior. During this era, students and faculty members remained structurally separated, and the notion of a nurturing relationship between a faculty member and a student was antithetical to the role of higher education in socializing elite boys.

Following the American Revolution, the purposes of higher education institutions shifted from educating the clergy toward “educating citizens for a new republic” (Frost, 2000, p. 5). During this period, the enlightenment ideal of an educated citizenry prevailed: Persons put the welfare of the country ahead of individual interests. The colonial universities shed their historical ties to particular religious denominations and aligned control with the state (Thelin, 2004). A broader population of students was educated in subjects in keeping with enlightenment values: applied sciences (e.g., agriculture), professions (e.g., medicine, civics), and modern languages (particularly French). Immediately following the Revolution and into the 19th century, “The American college was conceived of as a social investment” (Thelin, 2004, p. 58). By the end of the 19th century, however, the civic purpose had diminished.

As the public displaced the public servant in the conduct of civil affairs, the college was denied some of its sense of purpose. As Americans lost their sense of society and substituted for it a reckless individualism, there was less demand on the colleges to produce dedicated leaders. . . . In time colleges would be more concerned about the expectations of their students than about the expectations of society. (Thelin, 2004, pp. 59-60)

From 1783 to 1899, more than 450 colleges were founded and enrollments increased a hundredfold (Geiger, 2000). The western frontier was growing, in part because church denominations sought to offer religious-sponsored education to local residents and in part because of the need for educated individuals on the frontier (Rudolph, 1990; Thelin, 2004). Through this expansion of institutional mission and increase in number of institutions, a wider range of individuals gained access to

college. In particular, the number of colleges for women and Blacks, as well as institutions specifically geared toward the emerging sciences of engineering and agriculture (e.g., land grant institutions), increased dramatically (Geiger, 2000). These changes in mission and college-attendance patterns laid the foundation for aspects of American higher education still relevant today. Much more research on the development of academic advising at these emerging institutions is needed; this summary is largely informed by developments at universities.

Of particular salience for this period, classical curricula were evolving and becoming increasingly focused on practical disciplines such as natural sciences and philosophy. Connected to this, more faculty members developed disciplinary specializations. As a result individual faculty members no longer taught all classes for a cohort; rather, each taught within disciplinary areas, and institutions often hired young scholars who had been educated abroad. By the 1830s, some institutions no longer required the student to learn Latin and Greek, and others allowed junior and senior students to select optional studies (Sack, 1963). Also at this time, some college presidents instituted changes such as formal matriculation and established new roles for faculty, including as an academic advisor. In an 1840 letter to his mother, Rutherford B. Hayes, a student at Kenyon College in Ohio, explained the role of advisor to his mother:

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. Upon the whole, the President governs very well for those who intend to take every opportunity to evade the laws. But he is rather hard on those who are disposed to conduct themselves properly. (Hayes & Williams, 1922, p. 54)

The intention behind the creation of an advisor role and the subsequent effects on students, faculty members, and institutions remain unclear. Tutors, like the one chosen by Hayes, were recent graduates, who were likely of a similar age to enrolled students. As Hayes indicated, faculty members and presidents served as *in loco parentis* disciplinarians. Other letters sent home by Hayes described turbulent relationships between faculty members and students that often resulted in students' dismissal from college (Hayes & Williams, 1922). During this era, the few college enrollments were further diminished by dismissals (apparently a common form of discipline). In fact, these low enrollments cost the President of Kenyon College his job (Douglass, 1844).

Nineteenth-century students differed from their 18th-century counterparts. They were older, more indulged, operated with a sense of honor, and expected more luxury. Student clubs (eating clubs) had been formed in the colonial era. Later, honor societies were formed by and for students who did not want to rebel against the faculty or indulge in drink or sport. Collegiate sports and other student activities associated with higher education institutions had gained popularity by 1840 (Frost, 2000; Geiger, 2000).

The Second Era (1870 to 1970): Academic Advising Remains Unexamined

The Second Advising Era has been defined as a period during which institutions created the particular role of a primary academic advisor, but the goals, methods, and theories that guided practice were largely undefined and unexamined (Frost, 2000). Several key elements affected the development of academic advising: knowledge expanded as did the college curriculum, student–faculty relationships similar to those of the post-Revolution remained, student enrollment and diversity increased, and student support systems—informed by the emerging field of educational psychology—proliferated (Frost, 2000; Kuhn, 2008; Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2010).

Curricular expansion in the late 19th and early 20th centuries exerted an impact on the history of academic advising (Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2010). Curricular expansion related to academic advising was embodied in the 1880s at The Johns Hopkins University, which created topical areas of focus—the beginning of undergraduate majors—and the creation of a formal role of academic advisors to guide and approve student choices for study (White & Khakpour, 2006). Around the same time, Harvard University instituted a curriculum based on a system of electives and shortly thereafter coupled that expansion of student choice by using academic advisors to guide students in these choices. Charles Norton (1890), a Harvard graduate, described a provision that

every student on his entrance to college is referred to a member of the Faculty, who will act as his adviser in regard to all matters in which he may stand in need of counsel, such, for instance, as a judicious scheme and choice of courses of study, and the best use of his time and opportunities in college in view of his proposed aims in after-life, or as to his social, economical, and moral interests. (p. 588)

Norton's description of advisors includes many responsibilities that remain within the purview of academic advisors today.

The 18th-century faculty member as disciplinarian continued well into the 19th century; the few exceptional accounts of beloved faculty members suggest that close relationships between students and faculty were not the norm. The underlying goal of advising appears to include guidance for students in making meaningful choices for their education and to advocate for and mediate the student–faculty relationship (Gilman, 1886):

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. 575)

The ideal role of advisor was to facilitate the development of maturity through student choice of educational focus (Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2010). Yet in practice, advising was predominantly characterized by the approval of course and major selection, not the relationship and conversation meant to underlie such approval. For example, at Harvard,

sympathetic mentors . . . were the more needed in the era when personal liberty and free election bewildered many students, left them drifting without rudders, the sport of every breeze. The Board of Freshman Advisers was set up in 1889, but they did little except address the entering class en masse, approve study cards, and invite the advisee to a pallid luncheon in the Colonial Club. (Morrison, 1936, p. 403)

Although academic advising appears to have been founded as a means for bringing students and faculty members closer together, the evidence suggests that no such relationship became the norm in 20th-century American higher education.

The 20th-century expansion of higher education included increasing numbers and diversity of students to institutions of all types (Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2010). Educational emphasis shifted toward intellectual growth of students and away from their social, moral, and religious development (American Council on Education Studies [ACE], 1949). In addition, the emerging field of educational psychology contributed to the progressive education movement, which emphasized the whole person and individual differences (Schetlin, 1969).

During the first half of the 20th century, the push to study education through a scientific lens contributed to a growing emphasis on practice based on assessment and statistical method (Schetlin, 1969). Schools used IQ tests to determine students' abilities and potential, which allowed placement in course work that best fit their ability level. Founded in a growing literature base on student needs, institutions provided support in the form of orientation, psychological counseling, tutoring, and other services: "With the growth of our understanding and appreciation of the significance of individual differences, some institutions have endeavored to develop the science of advising to keep pace with our more accurate knowledge of human nature" (Hopkins, 1926, p. 25).

Most of these emerging student personnel areas were informed by the growing scholarship in educational psychology as applied to practice by specialists. *The Student Personnel Point of View* (ACE, 1949), created by educators "who were deeply concerned about the welfare and needs of their students" (Schetlin, 1969, p. 63), championed the focus on the whole student and a range of psychosocial needs, including mental, physical, social, spiritual, intellectual, and vocational aspects of individual development (ACE, 1949).

Because few envisioned academic advising as a specialist field, a body of literature about advising was not developed, nor were theories intentionally and consistently applied to practice (Raskin, 1979). As with the original advising roles for faculty in the 19th century, advising in the 20th century was seen as "an extra job added on to