

Important Events in the Development of Academic Advising in the United States

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The development of academic advising parallels the history of higher education and reflects decades of student personnel work. Changes in funding, curricula, students, and faculty roles have all affected the means by which students have been advised. The evolution of advising eventually led to the formation of NACADA in 1979. Since 2001, when I last documented the history of academic advising in the Mentor, I have expanded the benchmark information and references. I also added key advising events in the new millennium.

KEY WORDS: advising profession, advising role on campus, higher education, history of advising

The history and development of academic advising in the United States paralleled and reflected the history and development of higher education and student personnel work. The history of U.S. higher education is a chronicle of continuing growth and diversity of higher education institutions, their curricula, and their students. In loco parentis and the prescribed curriculum of the early years, as well as the small population of students in higher education, allowed the president of the college and the faculty to attend to the academic and moral needs of the students.

As higher education moved from the English, rural, residential model to the German paradigm, which was based on learning and research for its

own sake, faculty roles began to change. After the Morrill Acts of 1863 and 1869 motivated the founding of land grant institutions and Black colleges and universities, the inclusion of practical subjects into the curriculum made higher education available to more students.

As this diversification of students, curricula, and institutions continued, the need for more specialized services for students also grew. Coeducation was the catalyst for the creation of the position of dean of women, which can be seen as the forerunner of student personnel services from which many forms of advising were employed. After World War I, counselors of every ilk were being hired and the use of psychometric assessments aided their work. After World War II, the almost overwhelming influx of veterans on campus (thanks to the GI Bill) solidified modern student personnel work as an important component of higher education.

In the 1940s and 1950s, faculty members were still the primary academic advisors for students. The tidal wave of enrollments in the 1960s and 1970s, the development of community colleges, the advent of federal financial assistance for college, and the increasing smorgasbord of curricular offerings all set the stage for the development of complementary ways to advise students.

Within this historical backdrop, academic advising had its beginnings, but only with the founding of NACADA in 1979 did academic advising begin the journey to professionalization.

Higher Education in the United States before Academic Advising was Defined¹

16th through 19th Centuries

- 1636** Beginning with the founding of Harvard College and for the next century, the president of the college, and later the faculty, were responsible for advising students regarding their extracurricular activities, their moral life, and intellectual habits. They acted in loco parentis.²
- 1833-92** Coeducation was the catalyst for developing the position of “dean of women.” Initially, “matrons,” “preceptresses,” “lady principals,” or “wardens” were appointed to supervise the college life of women students, provide moral guardianship, and give counsel.³ These women could be considered not only the precursors of advisors, but advisors for an unserved population.
- 1841** Kenyon College (Ohio) introduced the first known formal system of advising. Each student was teamed with a faculty member who served as the student’s advisor.⁴

Academic Advising as a Defined but Unexamined Activity

- 1869** Charles Eliot, President of Harvard University, in his inaugural address, outlined his rationale for expanding the elective system.⁵
- The elective system introduced course choice to students and created the need to help students choose courses appropriate to their skills, interests, and career goals.
- 1870** Ephraim Gurney was appointed as the first dean in Harvard's history responsible for taking the burden of student discipline off of the president's (then Eliot) hands.⁶
- 1876-77** A system of faculty advisors was set up at The Johns Hopkins University (the first research university in the United States). President Daniel Coit Gilman credited classicist Charles D'Urban Morris with the idea.⁷
- 1886** President Daniel Coit Gilman of The Johns Hopkins University, in an attempt to avoid the fragmentation of the newer elective approach and as an antidote to the anachronistic prescriptive classical curriculum, created the group system. Directing every undergraduate to one of the staff as his counselor and advisor lent efficiency to the group system.⁸
- 1888** Boston University offered the first freshman seminar that focused on extended orientation to college.⁹
- Orientation to college life that integrated academic advising in a group (rather than individual) session began to take the form of orientation days, weeks, and lectures as well as freshman seminar and orientation courses organized within the regular curriculum.¹⁰
- 1889** Edward Herrick Griffin (professor of the history of philosophy) was appointed chief of faculty advisors at Johns Hopkins and soon was called "dean." He commented that a specific person in every institution should act as a counselor or advisor of students.¹¹
- Harvard created the faculty Board of Freshman Advisors for first-year students.¹²
- 1891** Harvard appointed LeBaron Russell Briggs (professor of English) to the new post of Dean of Harvard College to handle student relations (advising as well as disciplinary duties). This appointment divided the deanship and its labor between the academic dean and a dean of students.¹³
- LeBaron Russell Briggs of Harvard incorporated an orientation component into his freshman English course.¹⁴
- 1892-1901** A new cohort of deans of women was being hired who possessed significant academic credentials. Marion Talbot of the University of Chicago was the catalyst for this movement. Talbot believed that mixed classrooms were the only way to ensure equivalent educational opportunities for women and that women needed expert guidance to prevent the "drifting of a student through an amorphous course of study" (Talbot, 1910, p. 184).¹⁵
- 1899** William Rainey Harper, founding President of the University of Chicago, predicted that the "scientific study of the student" would be of great importance in 20th-century higher education. Steeped in the doctrine of individualism, Harper believed the data collected would determine the character of all advice given the student.¹⁶
- 20th Century**
- 1901** Thomas Arkle Clark of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign was the first dean of men officially appointed in American higher education.¹⁷

- 1903** In an attempt to better define and formulate the responsibilities and expectations of the position of dean of women, 18 women met in Chicago, forming the Conference of Deans of Women of the Middle West.¹⁸
- 1906** At Columbia and other universities, the establishment of an advisor system was the fad for supervising the selection of classes and to help bridge the ever-widening gap in student-faculty relations.¹⁹
- 1911** Reed College in Portland, Oregon, established the first known freshman orientation course for credit.²⁰
- 1915-16** Brown University inaugurated orientation lectures that provided students with the scope and aims of a college education.²¹
- 1916-17** Oberlin College introduced a course that was designed to orient freshmen toward future careers. It was a required, noncredit course.²²
- 1917** The Penn State College's board of freshman advisors gave responsibility for 30 freshmen to each advisor. The advisors' work was multitudinous.²³
- Post WWI** "Counselors of all varieties began to appear in large numbers after the war: deans of freshmen, junior deans, student counselors, deans of men, deans of women, directors of placement bureaus, clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, religious counselors, deans of chapel, and any number of others. Some of these offices had existed before 1914, but the personnel movement really began to become self-conscious in the American college and university after 1918 in this reaction against impersonalization" (Cowley, 1937, p. 224).

Specialization

As the breadth and complexity of curricula increased, the need for specialization and extended counseling became more critical. Specialization of advising became evident and was divided into at least three types:²⁴

- personal (psychological) from the mental hygiene movement,
- vocational (career) from the vocational guidance model, and
- academic advising (educational counseling).

These functions significantly overlapped in the early to middle 20th century.

- 1919** Columbia University's Introduction to Contemporary Civilization was one of the most comprehensive courses offered in American colleges and an early example of an orientation course organized within the curriculum. The University of Minnesota's Orientation Course and Dartmouth's Evolution were other examples of orientation courses organized within the curriculum.²⁵

After World War I, the number of deans of men increased rapidly. The National Association of Deans of Men (which would ultimately become the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators [NASPA] in 1951) was founded.²⁶

- 1920** Many colleges and universities had a range of systems in place for freshman advisors, faculty advisors, and other counseling personnel to give academic advice to students. The tasks formerly accomplished by faculty alone were split into responsibilities for several areas on campus.²⁷
- 1923** A new introduction to higher learning included testing, counseling, informing, and registering prior to classes. This process was first called "Freshman Week" at the University of Maine.²⁸

The University of Minnesota recommended that faculty advisors be chosen from among per-

sons who were “completely willing to inform themselves in all matters pertaining to complicated problems of educational and vocational advisement . . .” (Doermann, 1926, p. 83).²⁹

Thomas Arkle Clark of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign stated that the dean of men was positioned to create a successful advising system.³⁰

1925 Thyrsa Amos, University of Pittsburgh Dean of Women, initiated a freshman week program and general orientation as well as a senior mentor position.³¹

1928 The Association of American Colleges reported that 60% of institutions it surveyed offered some form of freshman orientation.³²

1930s The term “student personnel work” began appearing in higher education practice. This work, which included educational guidance as well as psychological and vocational counseling for students, was not well-defined. Academic advising was rooted in student personnel work and advising philosophy paralleled that of student affairs.³³

Despite tight budgets, salary cuts, and other ramifications of the Great Depression, courses were added to the curriculum and few were removed. “This overwhelming embarrassment of riches plunges personnel people into a series of quandaries . . .” (McClellan, 1949, p. 30).³⁴

1931 At its 13th annual conference, the National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men recommended a follow-up to its 1925 survey on the functions performed by deans and advisors of men.³⁵

1932 At the University of Chicago, the fundamental principles for counseling students were a) concern for the whole student, b) recognition that transition to a university can be difficult, c) nonacademic factors can affect the academic enterprise, d) personal relationships with certain faculty members are necessary, e) some faculty members are better counselors than others, f) faculty members are preferred counselors, and g) students should have the same counselor for a sufficient period of time. The university operationalized these principles by creating a counseling structure (overseen by the dean of students) wherein each college appointed faculty departmental counselors to whom students were assigned for counseling and advising.³⁶

1941 Wrenn (1941, p. 508) called for an end to the perpetual tension between faculty advisors and professional (personnel worker) advisors: “Faculty advisors and trained counselors must cease being either afraid or contemptuous of each other. . . . We are merely stating here that if our philosophy of personnel work is based upon an ‘either-or alternative’ we are licked before we start.”

Post WWII Veterans taking advantage of the GI Bill of Rights (Servicemen’s Readjustment Act of 1944) flocked to college and university campuses in heretofore untold numbers. These veterans were not the typical college students of the day and they required unique services. Under contracts between the Veterans Administration and the educational institutions, various types of counseling services were provided by the institutions. Those counseling services included interviewing and psychological testing as well as vocational, educational, and personal adjustment counseling.³⁷

1947 An Alfred University committee appointed by the president advocated the establishment of a personnel office to ensure a strengthened program of freshman and sophomore advising as well as orientation courses.³⁸ This recommendation was an attempt to supplement rather than replace the faculty in the advising process.

1948 A study sponsored by the Educational Research Fund of the Tuition Plan surveyed 276 American colleges to investigate factors affecting students leaving college. On the basis of the

results, the researcher set forth certain principles. Lack of guidance and planning with regard to a student's academic work drew sharp attention.³⁹ This is one of the earliest studies in which the term *academic advising* was used.

Academic Advising as a Defined and Examined Activity

- 1958** Student advising was perceived as a pervasive problem on college and university campuses. The *North Central Quarterly* solicited a report in an attempt to understand and state the problems of academic advising. Based on conversations at 20 campuses across the United States, the researcher recommended that academic advising a) should not be mandatory, b) is an extension of teaching and advisors should be teachers, c) needs a published, clear philosophy on each campus, and d) is a college responsibility. The report also outlined the mutual suspicion, mistrust, and hostility that existed between faculty and professional advisors.⁴⁰
- 1959** Faculty members were still recognized as the primary academic advisors for students. The growth of student personnel staff and services, the impending tidal wave of students, the perceived growing indifference of faculty toward advising, and the changing expectations of faculty work led campus administrators to look for mechanisms to support, supplement, and coordinate advising and counseling.⁴¹
- 1960s** While faculty advising was still the primary delivery system for academic advising, two new delivery systems were introduced: the centralized advising center and peer and paraprofessional advising.⁴²
- 1961** Advising was differentiated from counseling. The term *advising* was reserved for helping a student with academic planning and *counseling* designated a more extensive endeavor.⁴³
- 1966** Ninety percent of 110 institutions of higher education offered a Freshman Week for newly entering students. Freshman Week ranged from 2 to 11 days and was composed of a plethora of activities.⁴⁴
- 1970s** A more diverse student population enrolled in higher education institutions. Growth of community colleges, open admissions, and federal programs of financial support brought first-generation college attendees, students from lower socioeconomic circumstances, less academically prepared students, adults, those with disabilities, and other new students who required a different approach to services, including academic advising, than had been traditionally offered.⁴⁵ These changes laid the groundwork for the expansion and specialization of academic advising.
- 1972** The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education recommended that enhanced emphasis should be placed on advising as an important aspect of higher education.⁴⁶
- Independent articles by Crookston (1972) and O'Banion (1972) established student development as the theory base of academic advising.⁴⁷
- University 101 for freshmen was developed at the University of South Carolina as an enhancement to traditional orientation programs. It focused on providing students with the skills needed for college success. University 101 has been replicated at hundreds of other institutions.⁴⁸
- 1973** Glennen (1975) introduced intrusive college counseling as an effective retention strategy.⁴⁹
- Emerging goals for matriculating increasingly diverse students, offering varied educational options, and helping student with self-development created the need for new counseling personnel and programs.⁵⁰

- 1976** The first statewide California State University/University of California/Private University Academic Advising Conference was held on September 30 in Fresno.⁵¹
- 1977** The first national academic advising conference was held in Burlington, Vermont.⁵²
- 1978** Academic advising was defined in two ways: premajor (or general education) advising and major advising. While faculty members were still the primary academic advisors for major advising, a centralized administratively or professionally staffed advising office took responsibility for premajor, general education, and undeclared academic advising.⁵³
- 1979** The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) was established. NACADA had 429 charter members.⁵⁴
- The conclusions of an ACT (American College Testing Program) national survey of academic advising, based on 820 responses from 2-year, 4-year public, and 4-year private institutions, showed a) more similarities than differences in delivery of advising services with faculty accounting for 82 to 89% of advising in 4-year institutions; b) academic advising had been and still was considered a low-status function; c) advising was perceived to involve dispensing of information rather than an integral part of student development; d) few advising evaluation systems were in place and no reward or recognition systems existed; e) few institutions had a comprehensive statement of policy regarding delivery of academic advising; and f) all of higher education exhibited an increased interest in academic advising that had not yet been translated into practice. However, a new, but still small, population of professional advisors was emerging.⁵⁵
- Walsh (1979) called for a general redefinition of academic advising, indicating that it should be truly developmental and not just bureaucratic: Advisors should assist student growth that would extend beyond college. Walsh also declared that if it were not recognized as a more significant function, it risked being phased out during times of financial hardship.
- 1980s** “Academic advising in American higher education has evolved from a routine, isolated, single-purpose, faculty activity to a comprehensive process of academic, career, and personal development performed by personnel from most elements of the campus community. This evolution has resulted from changing enrollment patterns, a new diversity of college students, increased student involvement in academic process, and the recent economic and labor conditions of the country; it has been reflected in the attitudes toward advising, a changing definition of advising, and a limited number of theoretical models of advising” (Grites, 1979, p. 1). The new definition described academic advising as a “decision-making process during which students realize their maximum educational potential through communication and information exchanges with an advisor” (Grites, 1979, p. 1).
- 1981** The term *academic advising* became a descriptor for the Educational Resource Information Center (ERIC).⁵⁶
- The first issue of the *NACADA Journal* was published.⁵⁷
- Habley (1981) introduced the advisement-retention model, which underscores the direct and critical relationship between academic advising and retention. The model relies on two basic assumptions: Advising must be a developmental activity and student centered.⁵⁸
- 1982** In an attempt to synthesize the myriad definitions of developmental academic advising put forth in the late 1970s and early 1980s, Winston, Enders, and Miller (1982) used the following list of characteristics to define developmental advising operationally: Advising is a) a process; b) concerned with human growth; c) goal related; d) based on the establishment of a caring human relationship; e) offered by adult role models and mentors; f) the cornerstone of col-

laboration between student affairs and academic affairs; and g) inclusive of all campus and community resources.⁵⁹

NACADA awarded the first Virginia N. Gordon Award for Excellence in the Field of Advising.⁶⁰

The California Conference of Academic Advisors (CCAA) was organized at its February 25-26 meeting in Chico. The CCAA held its conference jointly with NACADA on October 10-13 in San Jose, California.⁶¹

1983 The second national survey on academic advising cited greater administrative support and recognition of advising; an increase in the number of advising centers (particularly at public colleges); increased prevalence of comprehensive, written statements on the purposes and procedures of advising programs; and continued predominance of the faculty for advising delivery. However, advising effectiveness was not considered in making tenure or promotion decisions in three fourths of colleges.⁶²

Habley identified seven organizational models of academic advising programs: a) faculty only, b) supplementary, c) split, d) dual, e) total intake, f) satellite, and g) self-contained.⁶³

1984 Winston, Miller, Ender, and Grites (1984) identified the components of the exemplary academic-advising model: Academic advisers should want to advise, be trained to advise, and be evaluated and rewarded for their work.⁶⁴

ACT and NACADA established a national recognition program for academic advisors and advising programs.⁶⁵

Student preference for developmental academic advising was established for the first time through a research survey that operationally defined academic advising independent of a particular campus or delivery system.⁶⁶

Academic advising had evolved from a routine, isolated activity by faculty to a holistic developmental approach by student personnel staff and professional academic advisors to aid students in achieving academic, career, and personal development goals.⁶⁷

1986 NACADA held its first Summer Institute to offer training and development to professional and faculty advisors and advising administrators.⁶⁸

The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) published standards and guidelines for student services/development programs. With regard to academic advising, it addressed mission, program, organization and administration, human resources, funding, facilities, campus and community relations, ethics, and evaluation. The specific standards and guidelines for academic advising were to be used only in conjunction with the general standards for all functional areas.⁶⁹

1987 The CCAA voted to affiliate with NACADA at their November 8-10 meeting in Asilomar, California.⁷⁰

The third ACT national survey of academic advising depicted a disappointing status of academic advising in American colleges and universities. The results revealed little or no improvement in the management of advising programs, training, evaluation, and reward systems. Additionally, developmental advising, which was considered the most effective means by which to provide personalized service to students, was no more prevalent on campuses than it had been when the first national survey was conducted in 1979.⁷¹

Ernest Boyer of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, distressed by the large numbers of students who never sought academic advising on their campus and who felt treated as a number rather than a person, urged institutions to establish a comprehensive program of counseling and advising throughout the freshman year.⁷²

Results from a survey of member institutions of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) indicated that the most important factor contributing to student attrition was inadequate academic advising.⁷³

1988 NACADA first awarded Research Grants to recognize the importance of supporting research within the field of academic advising.⁷⁴

The Status and Future of Academic Advising: Problems and Promises by Wesley R. Habley featured eight recommendations that aligned with those made by Grites (1979).⁷⁵

1990s The demographics that emerged among the 1970s student populations were characteristic of students enrolling in the 1990s.⁷⁶

1991 Academic advising should be an institution-wide system centered around student involvement and shared responsibility for positive outcomes (Frost, 1991, p. vi).⁷⁷

1992 NACADA awarded its first Pacesetter Award to honor higher-level postsecondary education executives who exemplified a commitment to academic advising.⁷⁸

Handbook of Academic Advising by Virginia Gordon is published.⁷⁹

1993 NACADA issued scholarships to members pursuing graduate education.⁸⁰

1994 *NACADA Journal* published the classics revisited issue in which contributors reflected, revisited, and reconsidered developmental academic advising as the theory base for academic advising. Developmental advising was seen as an elusive ideal and a new paradigm was put forth: a learning model based on collaborative peer-group interaction.⁸¹

1995 NACADA established a Web site.⁸²

NACADA started publishing a monograph series.⁸³

Assessment of programs within an institution had become a popular practice, and academic advising was not excluded from this practice.⁸⁴

The needs of students requiring special attention were more frequently considered in the delivery of academic advising. Examples included students who are underprepared or undecided, people with disabilities, racial and ethnic minorities, and honors students.⁸⁵

1998 NACADA gave out its first technology award.⁸⁶

1999 The on-line journal, *The Mentor: An Academic Advising Journal*, made its debut.⁸⁷

A new organizing principle for academic advising is proffered: student learning.⁸⁸

Lowenstein articulated an alternative to the developmental theory of advising, the academically centered model, through which the academic advisor acts as an academic facilitator.⁸⁹

21st Century

2000 Higher education experienced declining resources, growing enrollment pressures, expectations for greater accountability based on assessment, and student populations who were more technically savvy and diverse than their predecessors had been. Additionally, the Millennials came to college as special, sheltered, confident, team orientated, conventional, pressured, and achieving. Their helicopter parents came with them.⁹⁰

“Advisors will be called on to serve larger numbers of students with existing or, in some cases, even reduced resources. The obvious challenge is to advise more students with no additional staff while maintaining high-quality services. Reconciling these seemingly contradictory goals will require advisors to examine seriously their traditional ways of doing business—current advising structure and practices—and identify strategies for increasing efficiencies” (Teitlebaum, 2000, p. 398).⁹¹

Academic Advising: A Comprehensive Handbook, edited by Virginia N. Gordon and Wesley R. Habley, was published.⁹²

2002 A comprehensive review of the literature on academic advising and student retention showed a need for improved academic advising and higher rate of student retention. Improvement in academic advising is associated with better student retention.⁹³

2003 A NACADA task force compiled definitions of academic advising.⁹⁴

NACADA launched an on-line graduate certificate program in academic advising.⁹⁵

CAS revised the standards with a new emphasis on student learning and development.⁹⁶

2004 The authors of the ACT survey report, *What Works in Student Retention*, asked survey respondents to identify three campus practices that had the greatest impact on student retention. The top three were freshman seminar/University 101 for credit, tutoring, and advising interventions with selected student populations.⁹⁷

Learning Reconsidered was published and called for broader responsibility for academic advising to include “helping students design a college experience that will lead to the learning outcomes they and their institutions seek; [*sic*] in parallel, providing additional training or preparation for academic advisors (many of whom are members of the faculty) for this expended role” (National Association of Student Personnel Administration and American College Student Personnel Association, 2004, p. 25).

2005 The learning-centered advising paradigm, which paralleled the learning-centered teaching paradigm, began to be adopted.⁹⁸

2007 The NACADA vision statement was reaffirmed and strategic goals updated by the NACADA Board of Directors.⁹⁹ The new vision and purpose statement reflected the growing professionalization of the field and the changing world.

2008 NACADA and Kansas State University began offering an on-line master’s degree program in academic advising.¹⁰⁰

Academic Advising: A Comprehensive Handbook, Second Edition, edited by Virginia N. Gordon, Wesley R. Habley, and Thomas J. Grites was published.¹⁰¹

NACADA has over 10,000 members representing all 50 states, Puerto Rico, Canada, and several other countries.¹⁰²

¹ The historical periods of academic advising (before academic advising was defined, academic advising as a defined but unexamined activity, and academic advising defined and an examined activity) were introduced by Frost (2000, pp. 3–17).

² To act in loco parentis is to assume legal responsibility of a person or organization in place of a parent. The policy allows institutional representatives to use their judgment to act in the best interests of the student (Brubacher & Rudy, 1976, p. 331).

³ Nidiffer (2000) identified this phase of the professionalization of dean of women as a “historical backdrop” (pp. 12–14). See also Holmes (1939), Johnson (1927), and Kehr (1938) for information on early deans of women. The first person to serve in this position was “lady principal” Marianne Parker Dascomb in 1835 at Oberlin College, founded in 1833 as the first truly coeducational higher-education institution in the United States. Dascomb’s primary duties consisted of supervising living conditions and morals. By 1836, under Alice Cowles Welch, Dascomb’s successor, women were permitted in the regular Collegiate Department (as opposed to the Female Department) and “advising all those young ladies who have strength and means to take a thoro course” was added (Kehr, p. 7). Swarthmore, founded in 1864, also as a coeducational institution, appointed Elizabeth Powell Bond as “matron” in 1886. She was named dean in 1890 and may have been the first person to possess this title (Johnson, 1927, p. 138).

⁴ This is possibly the first use of the word *advisor* to refer to someone who gives direction to a student concerning an academic, social, or personal matter. In a letter written to his mother, future President Rutherford B. Hayes, then a junior at Kenyon College, wrote, “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. I like this very much” (Williams, 1922, p. 54).

⁵ Introduction and expansion of the elective system (rather than a purely prescribed curriculum) led to the perceived need for advisors to help students make good course choices (Eliot, 1950/1869, pp. 13–42).

⁶ Three months after Eliot was inaugurated as Harvard’s president, Gurney was confirmed as the first college dean (Brubacher & Rudy, 1976, pp. 334–35). See also Morison (1936, p. 333).

⁷ “The whole apparatus of counseling was an effort to provide some equivalent for the *in loco parentis* tradition which suffered so severely as the university idea prevailed” (Rudolph, 1962, p. 460). Morris served as the faculty advisor to the 35 undergraduate students who enrolled in 1876 (Bishop, 1987, p. 502). “Elsewhere, every under-graduate is assigned to one of the teachers who acts as his adviser, and who has an influential control over his selection of studies” (Gilman, 1883, p. 537).

⁸ “The custom which is here followed of directing every undergraduate to one of the staff as his counselor and adviser has not only given efficiency to the group system of studies. . . . The advisers are purposely chosen as representatives of all the groups; they hold frequent meetings and advise with one another as to their methods of instruction and as to the improvements which are possible . . .” (Gilman, 1886, p. 565).

⁹ “Organized attempts to assist freshmen to adapt to the college and university environment are on record as early as 1888 when Boston University inaugurated an orientation course for its freshmen” (Drake, 1966b, p. 1).

¹⁰ In addition to the comprehensive studies of orientation by Doermann (1926) and Drake (1966a, 1966b), see also Barefoot and Fidler (1996), Bass (1921), Bennett (1938), Fidler (1991), Jewler (1989), Mead (1916), and Wilkins (1922).

¹¹ The Johns Hopkins University was credited with creating the country’s first system of faculty advisors when it opened in 1876. The appointment of Griffin to chief of advisors pioneered the separation between

a dean of academia and a dean of students (Cowley, 1949, pp. 21–22).

¹²The Board of Advisors “did little except address the entering class *en masse*, approve study cards, and invite the advisee to a pallid luncheon at the Colonial Club” (Morison, 1936, p. 403).

¹³“Briggs was primarily a teacher plus counselor” (Brown, 1926, p. 63).

¹⁴LeBaron Russell Briggs developed a course for freshmen to orient them with real life issues. He made use of the third hour of his writing course to provide general information (Brown, 1926, pp. 55–56). Fley (1979) credited Briggs with the idea of freshman orientation (p. 25). When advising students on the intellectual side of college life, Briggs warned students against becoming specialists too early in their college careers. He encouraged students to reserve a corner of their mind for the study of topics totally different from their specialties (Briggs, 1904, p. 208).

¹⁵Nidiffer (2000, p. 33) referred to this period as the pre-professionalization of the position of the dean of women. She stated, “Thus a new cohort of deans of women appeared who had university-wide authority (at least with respect to women) and were not limited to matron-esque duties. The University of Chicago was first when President Harper hired a dean of women, Alice Freeman Palmer, and her associate Marion Talbot, in 1892. Northwestern hired a lady principal in 1892, but changed her title to dean in 1898. . . . The University of Michigan was the first state university to hire a woman with the title ‘dean,’ in 1896 and was followed by the University of Wisconsin in 1897.”

¹⁶Harper predicted that a general diagnosis of each student (character, intellectual capacity, tastes, social nature) would be a regular function of each college in the 20th century. Such a determination would ensure that each may “receive the assistance so essential to his highest success,” which was necessary because of the many subject choices available to students (Harper, 1905, pp. 317–26).

¹⁷Increasing student enrollments was one catalyst for dividing administrative responsibilities between an academic dean and a dean of men. The need for the latter position grew out of a commitment to a policy of increased service to students, student requests for such an advisor, and an observation of women’s work with girls (Findlay, 1939, p. 279–80). Clark was appointed as Dean of Undergraduates and Assistant to the President in 1901. He was not given the title dean of men until 1909 (Fley, 1979, p. 33).

¹⁸Nidiffer (2000) identified 1901 through 1906 as the period of collective activity for deans of women. The Conference of Deans of Women in the Middle West was the first attempt at professionalization and standardization of the position of dean of women. Clearly, college presidents saw the dean of women as someone who would take care of the “woman problem” resulting from coeducation. The deans of women were interested in making the job more suitable to their academic qualifications and not one that just dealt with women’s housing, health, and social supervision.

¹⁹However, the advisor system for supervising class selection at large universities did not remedy the growing gap between students and faculty members (Veysey, 1965, p. 297).

²⁰In 1911, Reed College offered a freshman credit course entitled College Life. The University of West Virginia offered the course later in the same year (Drake, 1966b, p. 2).

²¹“Brown University is this year trying the very simple and straightforward experiment of giving freshmen a series of lectures of talks about college” (Mead, 1916, p. 428).

²²Drake (1966b, p. 2).

²³“The chance to guide men in the proper channel, to help mould and direct the lives of men during the plastic period of the freshman year, this is the sacred duty of the freshman adviser” (Hansen, 1917, p. 201).

²⁴“Programs of individual counseling assumed three or four main forms after 1918. The work developed at the University of Chicago in the period may well serve as an example of the national trend. There we find well-defined and specialized programs in the fields of educational counseling, vocational counseling, personal counseling, and religious counseling. They were all posited on the assumption that higher education should concern itself with the successful development of the whole personality of the student” (Brubacher & Rudy, 1976, p. 343).

²⁵The instructors were advisors to the students in their classes as well (Doermann, 1926, pp. 104–7).

²⁶Like the deans of women before them, the first deans of men were often appointed to their positions without a clear definition of their work (Fley, 1980, p. 26). The broader range of men’s concerns tended to be centralization. The titles student counselor, advisor of men, freshman advisor, and counselor for men were being replaced by the title dean of men (Findlay, 1939, p. 281).

²⁷“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 dedicated faculty” (Rudolph, 1962, p. 460).

²⁸There is some discrepancy over how freshman week originated. Some sources claimed that Wellesley College recorded such a week in 1916, having employed the idea as early as 1914. In 1918, the University of Rochester required all freshmen to report one week before classes for an examination and instruction on the nature, aims, and methods of college study and college life (Drake, 1966b, p. 3).

²⁹Consequently, a change was occurring in the system: Faculty members were viewed as unable to perform the duties of a counselor when they also were carrying a full teaching load. Institutions of higher education began to choose only those faculty members who had the interest and the ability to advise students and relieved them of a portion of their regular teaching responsibilities (Doermann, 1926, pp. 82–83).

³⁰The success of such an advisory system depended on availability, fairness, viewpoint (youthful), perceived permanence, and level of centralization. These factors as part of an advisory system, Arkle believed, would “reduce the number of intellectual and moral failures of which in our colleges there are too many” and made the Dean of Men’s Office the ideal place for this activity (Clark, 1923, p. 90).

³¹Amos was credited with bringing the concept of an individualized student-development program using student mentors to fruition (Herdlein, 2004, p. 344).

³²“Administrators in charge of student affairs tried to find ways to give students additional guidance. One of the most common new programs, in addition to faculty advisers, was freshman orientation. . . . The University of Chicago, University of Michigan, University of California, and Yale all instituted freshman orientation programs in the 1920s. These programs aimed to introduce students to ‘the whole academic, social, and moral environment’ of the college.” These programs tried to compensate for the chaos of the modern university and its increasingly complex curriculum (Reuben, 1996, p. 254).

³³Rentz (1996) stated that the historical development of student affairs was characterized by three major movements or philosophies: student personnel work, student development, and the current evolving emphasis on student learning (p. 28). The theory bases of academic advising parallel these movements.

³⁴McClellan’s (1949) study during the Depression gave the example of one institution adding 111 courses while eliminating only 19. On the positive side, this gave students more choice. On the negative side, neither the student nor the counselor could possibly know enough about the courses and teachers to make informed choices.

The continuing expansion of the curriculum, along with the increasing specialization of faculty work, cre-

ated a need that would ultimately be filled by professional academic advisors.

³⁵ Gardner (1934, p. 196) offered the following definition: “A dean or adviser of men is an administrative officer of an educational institution possessing the training, the authority, and the means to aid the individual male student in the solution of his personal problems, and to direct his group activities in such a way as to further the student’s development and the general educational program of the institution. . . .”

³⁶ Brumbaugh (1932) also described the functions performed by the advisors in the colleges as well as the evaluation and criticisms of the University of Chicago counseling program.

³⁷ Scott and Lindley (1946) described the effort to provide the counseling services that were required by the veteran’s legislation. Where possible, existing campus facilities provided the counseling services and were augmented by The Advisement and Guidance Service of the Veterans Administration. This led to the expansion of counseling services, usually via expansion of the institution’s personnel program. Despite the impact the GI Bill of Rights had on transforming American higher education and its students, college and university stakeholders feared it would negatively change campus life as they knew it. “The inconveniences to all have been many. Colleges have had to admit many more students than they wished. The faculty teaching load has been greatly increased” (Strom, 1949, p. 159).

³⁸ The freshman-sophomore advisor was seen as a generalist and the major advisor (faculty) was a specialist. This paradigm created a split between faculty and professional staff, with the latter serving as advisors for general education requirements. The personnel office created a handbook for advising and a nomograph to predict academic success. It also maintained student advising files, assigned advisors to students in a systematic way, and nourished an esprit de corps among advisors (“With the Technicians,” 1952, pp. 40–44).

³⁹ “Before we can tackle the problem of advising and directing our students satisfactorily, we must develop a philosophy on which to base our actions. . . . It does not seem reasonable to allow a student to pick and choose his studies from the curriculum without asking any questions as to what the courses are, what relationship they have to other courses, and where they may eventually lead. Yet that is exactly what we have done, assuming that by some mysterious process the desired results will be achieved. . . . The losses resulting from such haphazard procedure have been shocking” (MacIntosh, 1948, p. 135).

⁴⁰ As the demand for academic advising increased and the rewards to faculty for advising became almost nonexistent, college and university administration looked at the use of professional advisors. Robertson (1958) made a clarion call to retain academic advising as a faculty responsibility. Reasons for the tensions and differing values of faculty versus professional advisors (that still exist today) are outlined at length (Robertson, 1958, p. 235).

⁴¹ Hardee (1959) surveyed institutional practices regarding faculty counseling. She believed the future demanded coordination and facilitation of counseling between faculty and student personnel professionals to serve the whole student. She listed her basic ideas or premises regarding the counseling process: “(1) The faculty member is indispensable in the counseling process; (2) there are specific methods, philosophically sound and decidedly practical, which can be utilized in the in-service training of faculty members in their assignment to counseling; (3) the *diversity* of kinds of counseling to be found on college and university campuses is good as long as some *unity* can be effected for the benefit of both the student and the institution; (4) this unity of purpose and practice on the campus can be facilitated through the merger of efforts of administrators, faculty members, and students, planning and working together; (5) the program of counseling in higher education builds upon the program of counseling in the secondary school; and (6) the expectation of parents concerning the counseling of son or daughter is a factor to be reckoned with in present-day programs of higher education” (p. viii).

⁴² Grites (1979) posited that advising centers were established in response to swelling enrollments and lessened faculty interest in advising, rather than as a concern for student welfare. These advising centers became a home for undecided or exploratory students (p. 13).

⁴³ Mueller (1961) contended that poor advising is worse than no advising at all and that faculty members with the ability and interest to counsel students should do so but those teachers with neither gift nor desire should stay in the classroom. Mueller's book included discussion on the importance of advising and motivating and compensating as well as selecting and training faculty members. It also highlighted common difficulties associated with faculty advising, including lack of information, prejudices, and unsuitable personalities.

⁴⁴ Activities usually included placement and psychological testing, registration, tours, dances, lectures, and convocations (Drake, 1966a, p. 2.).

⁴⁵ Cross (1971) chronicled this trend in *Beyond the Open Door: New Students to Higher Education*. In a later study (Cross, 2000), she reviewed articles published in *Change* magazine from 1969 to 1999 and found that during five overlapping eras the hot topics were a) student protests (1960s and early 1970s), b) open admissions (1970s) as defined by poor academic preparation rather than income or race, c) diversity (ongoing), d) lifelong learning (1980s), and e) the student as consumer (1990s). These topics influenced not only higher education in general, but the nature and purpose of academic advising specifically.

⁴⁶ "Recognizing that a student's intellectual development bears an intricate relationship to his affective, interpersonal, and ethical development, and thus, that the latter is potentially a proper concern for an academic institution, the Commission recommends that enhanced emphasis should be placed on advising as a[n] increasingly important aspect of higher education" (The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1972, p. 57). The Commission suggested raising advising to a higher order of importance, making it a more recognized assignment for faculty members. It also suggested reliance on well-trained and carefully selected professional personnel for financial, vocational, and psychological advising as well as a designated dean or associate dean concerned with the quality of advising services on campus.

⁴⁷ Crookston (1972) described two styles of academic advising. The more traditional approach was prescriptive: It was a nonpersonal style in which an advisor gave advice and the student followed it. The other style was developmental, based on "the belief that the relationship itself is one in which the academic adviser and the student differentially engage in a series of developmental tasks, the successful completion of which results in varying degrees of learning by both parties" (p. 13). O'Banion's (1972) model was geared toward community colleges and based on a logical sequence of steps to be followed in the course of academic advising: exploration of life goals, vocational goals, program choice, course choice, and scheduling courses. "Related to the rationale that the student is a whole person is the recognition that the steps in academic advising form a whole process" (p. 66). O'Banion believed that 4-year colleges and universities could adapt this model as well.

⁴⁸ The University of South Carolina's University 101 was called "a fresh hybrid of academic discipline and student affairs theory" (Jewler, 1989, p. 214). An analysis of 16 years worth of data on University 101 indicated that the content and process of this course contributed to higher return rates of sophomores (Fidler, 1991), confirming that University 101 was a successful student-retention program.

⁴⁹ Glennen's (1975) distinction between advising and counseling paralleled the distinction between prescriptive and developmental advising. A University College was established at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, in 1973 for all entering freshmen and transfer students. Willing and experienced faculty counselors were recruited to handle "preadmission counseling with students, matriculation into the university, and individual scheduling of academic programs . . . that reflected [the student's] interests, abilities, and goals" (p. 49). The faculty received training and professional growth opportunities. Students were called in for appointments where counselors provided information as well as began to establish rapport. This intrusive style of counseling led to lower incidents of probation, an increase in academic performances, and increased retention. The intrusive system, based on developmental theory, is also based on the recognition that students (particularly those at risk for attrition) may not be at the developmental stage to understand or seek out support services.

⁵⁰ Chickering (1973) stated that the role of the college counselor would become more critical and complex

in the near future. He said that the counselor's role was to establish relationships and build rapport with students at admission and orientation "followed by sustained attention to program planning, modification, and review" (p. 73).

⁵¹The September 30, 1976, meeting in Fresno was comprised of "informal meetings to get acquainted and begin networking" (California Conference of Academic Advisory/NACADA Pacific Region Academic Advising Conferences, n.d.).

⁵²This was not the first modern gathering of academic advisors; the California State University and the University of California held an Academic Advising Conference on September 30, 1976, in Fresno, but it marked the beginning of a national movement (Thurmond & Miller, 2006, p. 2).

⁵³Levine (1978, p. 136).

⁵⁴"The purpose of the National Academic Advising Association is to promote the quality of Academic Advising in institutions of higher education, and to this end, it is dedicated to the support and professional growth of academic advising and advisors" (Beatty, 1991, p. 5). For a detailed history of NACADA, see Beatty (1991) as well as Thurmond and Miller (2006).

⁵⁵Carstensen and Silberhorn (1979) also found that 54 to 60% of 4-year institutions had a director or coordinator of academic advising for 3 years or less. While the primary academic-advising delivery system was still predominately undertaken by faculty members, peer advisors accounted for 30% and professional counselors and advisors were responsible for 67% of "other" academic-advising delivery systems. Eighty-four percent of respondents from campuses that had established an advising center said the primary responsibility of the center staff was general education advising, and 84% said undecided student advising was the focus of center services.

⁵⁶On November 3, 1981, ERIC added *academic advising* as a descriptor for searching its database. Advising was defined as "a decision-making process in which a student and academic adviser use the resources of a postsecondary institution to analyze and coordinate learning experiences consistent with the student's needs, abilities, interests, values, and goals" (Education Resources Information Center, n.d.).

⁵⁷"This inaugural issue we designed to respond to the multifaceted issue of academic advising within higher education. It collects informative articles intended to promote our understanding and knowledge of the importance of academic advising and advisors to the fulfillment of student and institutional goals. Concurrently, it should lead the way to more efficacious policies and procedures" (Trombley, 1981, p.iii).

⁵⁸Habley (1981) emphasized the importance of helping students identify and clarify realistic educational goals and relate those goals to their higher education experience. He considered academic advising the most efficacious means to accomplish those goals.

⁵⁹Winston, Ender, and Miller (1982, pp. 7–8).

⁶⁰This annual award was created to honor a NACADA member who has made significant contributions to the field of academic advising. Lowell Walter was the first recipient (National Academic Advising Association, 2008h).

⁶¹Since the first meeting in 1976, this group met on April 14, 1977, and October 27, 1977, in Fresno; April 28, 1978, in Millbrae; October 27, 1978, in San Jose; April 10-11, 1979, in Sacramento; November 7, 1980, in Fresno; March 25, 1981, in Los Angeles; February 25-26, 1982, in Chico (when the members organized as the California Conference of Academic Advisors); and October 10-13 in San Jose (jointly with NACADA).

⁶²The data in the second national survey on academic advising were based on a national sample of 1,095

institutions (2- and 4-year public and private) that had been included in the first (1979) national survey on academic advising (Crockett & Levitz, 1983).

⁶³ Habley (1983).

⁶⁴ Winston, Miller, Ender, and Grites (1984, p. 24).

⁶⁵ Addressing the works of Winston, Miller, Ender, and Grites (1984) as well as Habley, Crockett, and Cowart (1987) that advisors do not receive recognition or rewards for their work, NACADA issued Outstanding Advising Awards to recognize individuals who demonstrate qualities associated with excellent academic advising or excellent academic advising administration. The Outstanding Advising Program Award recognizes programs that document innovative or exemplary practices resulting in improvement of academic advising services. The Service to NACADA Award recognizes a NACADA member for outstanding service to the organization (National Academic Advising Association, 2008c).

⁶⁶ Winston and Sandor (1984).

⁶⁷ Winston et al. (1984) defined developmental academic advising “as a systematic process based on a close student-advisor relationship intended to aid students in achieving educational, career, and personal goals through the utilization of the full range of institutional and community resources” (p. 19). This comprehensive handbook on developmental academic advising covers foundations and current practices, processes, organizing programs, and translation of theory into practice.

⁶⁸ This week-long event was instituted by ACT. In 1993, NACADA assumed responsibility for the Summer Institute with the purpose of “offering more concentrated development of professional and faculty advisors and administrators” (Gordon, 1998). The Wesley R. Habley NACADA Summer Institute Scholarships were first made available in 1997 for NACADA members who demonstrated involvement in national, regional, state, or local advising organizations and who exhibited potential for national advising-leadership roles (National Academic Advising Association, 2008i).

⁶⁹ CAS (1986) released the first set of professional standards and guidelines for 16 functional areas of student affairs, including academic advising. General standards not mentioned in the text include leadership and management, legal responsibilities, equal opportunity, access and affirmative action, multicultural programs and services, ethics, and evaluation.

⁷⁰ California Conference of Academic Advisory/NACADA Pacific Region Academic Advising Conferences (n.d.).

⁷¹ The data in the third national survey were based on a 2,606 sample of 2-year and 4-year public and private institutions. A sample of 652 institutions was selected and 447 responses were received. The study concluded that academic advising continued to lack coordination on many campuses; persons other than faculty could enhance the delivery of advising services to students; dearth of an institutional statement on advising hindered progress; systematic evaluation of advising was necessary for improvement; faculty members still constituted the primary delivery system; all faculty members should not be advisors; academic advising did not need to be just a one-on-one activity; and advisor load must be reasonable. Recommendations for action were offered (Habley et al., 1987).

⁷² These results were based on data from The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, National Survey of Undergraduates, 1976 and 1984. Boyer contended that the comprehensive advising program should be staffed with full-time professionals who report to the chief academic officer and that part of the faculty load should include advising duties (Boyer, 1987, pp. 51–57).

⁷³ The AASCU included 220 institutions across the United States. These institutions had been engaged in activities to increase retention in the 1980s. One of the results of this survey was that the member institu-

tions of AASCU reported inadequate academic advising as the most important factor in contributing to the decrease in enrollment (Cowart, 1987, p. 28).

⁷⁴ National Academic Advising Association (2008g).

⁷⁵ These recommendations were the 1980s standards regarding effective advising programs: a) Conduct a thorough assessment of the current state of the campus advising program; b) identify one person whose primary responsibility is to coordinate academic advising; c) implement an advisor selection process; d) develop a comprehensive advisor pre-service and in-service development program; e) develop a scheme for individual advisor evaluation; f) implement an advisor incentive or reward program; g) review the total advising program every 5 years; and h) conduct research aimed at improving the advising program (Habley, 1988).

⁷⁶ “Minorities, older adults, the academically underprepared, and other special populations attending college have increased dramatically and will continue to expand” (Gordon, 1992, p. 87).

⁷⁷ Implementation of such an ambitious enterprise was seen as the biggest challenge (Frost, 1991, p. 75).

⁷⁸ Strong institutional support for academic advising assures a more robust academic-advising program. The first recipient of the NACADA Pacesetter Award was James W. Vick of the University of Texas at Austin (National Academic Advising Association, 2008f).

⁷⁹ This is the first comprehensive guide for advising practitioners (Gordon, 1992).

⁸⁰ A primary goal of NACADA is to promote professional training of advisors (National Academic Advising Association, 2008e).

⁸¹ Gordon (1994) listed the 10 reasons why developmental advising had not been implemented after many years: limited time, large advising loads that left no time for meaningful personal contact, no training, dearth of top administrative support for and funding of advising, lack of intrusive approaches, multiple advising units, unfamiliarity with diverse populations, and unclear assessment (pp. 71–74). Strommer (1994) claimed that developmental advising was more promise than reality, and changes required in teaching new populations parallel those needed for advising. According to Strommer, the new students had weak academic backgrounds and complex family patterns, were influenced by the media, female, experienced language barriers, and did not graduate in 4 years. For then shifting work patterns and expansion of knowledge compel the need to transfer knowledge. Advisors need to explore a learning model based on collaborative peer-group interaction rather than a traditional one-on-one model.

⁸² Thurmond and Miller (2006, p. 3).

⁸³ The first monograph, published in 1995, discussed the role of the faculty in academic advising. Each of the 19 additional monographs published since then highlights a timely, critical academic-advising issue or topic (National Academic Advising Association, 2008d).

⁸⁴ An assessment at the University of Texas–Austin collected information on whom students see, how often they seek advising, and the topics they discussed with their advisors. “Being aware of students’ expectations and concerns about college—the reasons they are attending, the grade point average they hope to earn, the number of hours they intended to study, and their perception of their own study skills—can help an adviser assess how realistically the students are viewing the college curriculum” (Hanson & Huston, 1995, p. 91).

⁸⁵ Strommer (1995) emphasized that the faculty must focus on the growth and development of special populations of students and their learning capacity. “Whether on probation or receiving honors, today’s students need competent, caring advisers who understand their needs as individuals and as members of special populations of students. Even more than earlier generations of students, they need thoughtful guidance and assis-

tance, concern for fostering their learning, and help in making all of the many possibilities of the institution become actual to them” (p. 33).

⁸⁶ Recognizing the power and potential of the application of emerging new technologies to academic advising, the NACADA Advising Technology Innovation Awards were established. They were used to recognize the most creative and unique uses of technology in support of academic advising, including Web sites, databases, electronic portfolios, software applications, and so forth (National Academic Advising Association, 2008b).

⁸⁷ *The Mentor: An Academic Advising Journal* is a free, Web-based scholarly publication about academic advising in higher education. By design, it provides “a mechanism for the rapid dissemination of new ideas about advising and for ongoing discourse about advising issues.” Journal articles are published continuously and each is archived 3 months after it is first posted and remains available indefinitely: www.psu.edu/dus/mentor.

⁸⁸ “Placing academic learning at the center of academic advising, then, means academic advisers should create and organize learning situations that assist students in understanding the reasons that the institution places a value on such things as liberal learning and social or civic responsibility. At the same time, the academic adviser should assist advisees in discovering their intellectual passions; and these passions should become part of a dialogue through which advisers guide students in making decisions about academic majors and course selection” (Hemwall & Trachte, 1999). See also Hemwall and Trachte (2005).

⁸⁹ Lowenstein (1999) proposed that “developmental advising and academically centered advising are competing theories about the *content* of advising, rather than the *style* of advising” [*emphasis added*].

⁹⁰ The Millennial generation (born after 1981), who began entering higher education in 2000, are smart, ambitious, busy, and female. They make decisions with their parents and expect the university to adapt to their high expectations. The impact in many areas—from advising to questioning in loco parentis—will be great. Helicopter parents are “. . . always hovering, ultra-protective, unwilling to let go. . .” (Howe & Strauss, 2003, p. 44).

⁹¹ Other authors concurred on the need to examine and possibly reinvent academic advising delivery and structure for the new millennium. Jordan (2000) stressed the importance of “authentic relationships” between advisors and advisees and saw an opportunity for advisors to expand their expertise using developmental theories, defense mechanisms, reframing, and narrative tools (called the advising continuum), as well as technology to enhance advising services. Gordon (2000) stated that advisors would continually need to develop their technological skills and become interpreters of complex information for students. Her predictions aligned with the characteristics and needs of the Millennial generation.

⁹² This handbook, with articles by over 30 advising experts, updated and documented the current status of academic advising. It is to be used as a reference book and guide by academic advisors, faculty members, and counselors (Gordon & Habley, 2000).

⁹³ Cuseo (2002) reviewed the literature for empirical connections between academic advising and student retention. He also provided a series of systemic strategies for “enhancing the quality and retention-promoting impact of advising programs” (p. 1). One such strategy called for state-funding policies based on retention and graduation rates rather than head count.

⁹⁴ The developmental foundation of academic advising is ubiquitous in these definitions. The task force defined academic advising as a process that stressed the importance of relationships, attended to the whole student, and for which meaningful outcomes were expected (National Academic Advising Association, 2003).

⁹⁵ The certificate program is a collaborative effort between NACADA and Kansas State University initiated in fall 2003 (Charles L. Nutt, NACADA Executive Director, personal communication, December 18, 2008).

⁹⁶“The 2002 revision . . . reaffirmed and reinforced the importance of the specified outcome domains by building into the General Standards a stated expectation that all functional programs must place emphasis on identifying relevant learning outcomes and assessing their achievement by students” (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2003, p. 22).

⁹⁷Habley and McClanahan (2004, p. 6).

⁹⁸Well-defined learning objectives that fit the academic advising office and the university mission, meet student needs, and provide flexibility are key to adopting this paradigm successfully. Constructing an academic advising syllabus can be done in concert with construction of learning objectives (Martin, 2007).

⁹⁹“NACADA is the leader within the global education community for the theory, delivery, application and advancement of academic advising to enhance student learning and development.” With this vision, NACADA’s mission is to a) address the academic advising needs of higher education globally, b) advance the body of knowledge of academic advising, c) champion the educational role of academic advising to enhance student learning and development in a diverse world, d) educate university and college decision makers about the role of quality academic advising in higher education, and e) ensure the effectiveness of the NACADA organization (National Academic Advising Association, 2007).

¹⁰⁰This program, started in spring 2008, leads to a master of science degree in academic advising (Charles L. Nutt, NACADA Executive Director, personal communication, December 18, 2008).

¹⁰¹This handbook is an updated and expanded version of the 2000 publication (Gordon, Habley, & Grites, 2008).

¹⁰²Members represented higher education institutions across the spectrum of Carnegie classifications and included professional advisors and counselors, faculty members, administrators, and students whose responsibilities include academic advising (National Academic Advising Association, 2008a).

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