Spring 5-2016

The Relationship of the Type of Academic Advising and Parental Types on the Transition of Freshmen Students to College

Elizabeth Ruth Gordon
University of Southern Mississippi

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE TYPE OF ACADEMIC ADVISING AND PARENTAL

TYPES ON THE TRANSITION OF FRESHMEN STUDENTS TO COLLEGE

by

Elizabeth Ruth Gordon

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
and the Department of Educational Studies and Research
at The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Approved:

_____
Dr. Lilian H. Hill, Committee Chair
Professor, Educational Studies and Research

_____
Dr. Thomas Lipscomb, Committee Member
Professor, Educational Studies and Research

_____
Dr. Georgianna Martin, Committee Member
Assistant Professor, Educational Studies and Research

_____
Dr. Richard Mohn, Committee Member
Associate Professor, Educational Studies and Research

_____
Dr. Karen S. Coats
Dean of the Graduate School

May 2016

Published by the Graduate School

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE TYPE OF ACADEMIC ADVISING AND PARENTAL

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The field of academic advising has evolved to incorporate more developmental

approaches to academic advising, which includes analyzing a college student's personal

or academic experience, as well as future career aspirations. An avenue of understanding

a student's background would be to understand the parental type to which students have

been exposed. This study attempts to determine if there are relationships between

academic advising type, parental types, and transition of the freshmen college student.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships of the academic advising

types, including developmental and prescriptive advising, and parental types, whether

permissive, authoritative, and authoritarian, on the transition that college freshmen

students encounter during the freshmen year of college. The study further determined if

college transition differed based on the type of academic advising and the type of

parenting a student receives. An additional aim of this research was to determine if there

are relationships between academic advisement and parental types on college transition

and how it relates to race or gender. The researcher received permission to use the

Academic Advising Inventory, Part I and the Parental Authority Questionnaire. The

researcher also purchased the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire. These

instruments were used to collect data from sophomore students attending four-year public

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colleges/universities in the southeastern region of the United States. A total of 193

sophomore students participated in this study.

The majority of the student participants in the study reported that they were white

(Caucasian), female, and traditional age sophomore students (between the ages of 18-20).

The majority of the students also indicated receiving developmental academic advising

and authoritative parental type.

Survey findings failed to provide evidence for a relationship between academic

advising types, race, or gender on freshmen college student transition. The relationship

was, however, significantly related to parental type. Research findings showed that

academic adjustment increased with parents who were authoritative and social adjustment

increased with parents who were permissive.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late, loving father, Raymond Anthony Paul Gordon, M. D.

A special thanks to my family members; my daughter who inspires me to keep pushing through all of life's adversities, my mother for always motivating me to strive for my very best and letting nothing deter me, and my brother for helping me find laughter in the midst of turmoil. Finally, I would like to thank my late father who always believed in me and taught me the importance of faith, determination, and compassion. I'm overwhelmed with joy and honor to carry on my father's legacy through my profession.

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CHAPTER I – INTRODUCTION

Overview

Obtaining a college degree develops students intellectually and socially while preparing students for a professional career, and ultimately plays an integral part in students' developmental process into adulthood. According to Brock (2010), college graduates benefit from obtaining a degree in comparison to students who never pursue a college education. It is well known that obtaining a college degree increases the prospects of finding a job (Brock, 2010).

Some of the additional benefits mentioned by Brock (2010) are improved health, the formation of deep friendships, and the opportunity to meet future spouses or partners. Research has demonstrated that in addition to the potential for increased income, obtaining a college education can have an influence on engaging in political issues or community improvements (Brock, 2010). Schafer, Wilkinson, and Ferraro (2013) state that individuals with a college education, manage a healthier state of mind, self-control, and a healthier lifestyle than individuals with little or no education. Brock (2010) stated that institutions of higher education will aid in developing college students academically, socially, and personally by creating an environment of safety that allows creative and social growth. Institutions of higher education significantly influence students' passage into adulthood by supporting the development of intellectual and personal growth while preparing him/her for success in work and society (Brock, 2010).

The transformation from high school to college can be very difficult or strenuous, filled with exhilaration, adventure, interest, confusion, frustration, and discouragement (Butler, 2011). College transition requires an academic as well as a psychosocial

adjustment (Halamandaris & Power, 1997; Pace, 2003). Kelly, Kendrick, Newgent, and

Lucas (2007) evaluated the need to implement transitional programs to increase the rate

of college retention by assisting students who are leaving home for the first time to think

more critically and develop the self-confidence in making concise decisions. While

Kelly et al. (2007) found transitional programs to be helpful in preparing and retaining

students in college, an earlier study by Filder and Hunter (1989) found that the freshmen

seminar was the most efficient in increasing retention rates. This study found that

implementing transitional programs before entering colleges or universities will prepare

the students for college life more effectively (Kelly et al., 2007). Kelly et al. (2007)

emphasized that transitional programs need to teach students productive ways of

studying, prioritizing and coping with college. Kelly et al. (2007) also addressed the

need to develop transitional programs during the sophomore year of college and have

encouraged students to remain in social activities for social and cognitive development.

They also noted that student affairs practitioners can aid in increasing student retention

by becoming more involved in the educational, psychological, and social needs of

students (Kelly et al., 2007). The accountability of institutions playing a role in college

persistence is important for college transition and retention (Titus, 2004).

   Extensive literature exists regarding academic advising types and how the type of

academic advisement correlates with college student retention rates, persistence, attrition

rates, transition and academic performance among 2-year and 4-year colleges and

universities. According to O'Banion (1972) and Crookston (2009), academic advising

can be defined as two areas, prescriptive and developmental academic advising.

Prescriptive academic advising is advising that provides students with a list of required

courses, while developmental academic advising entails a more developmental approach to understanding the students' career goals and aspirations in life (Crookston, 2009). Research has shown that developmental academic advising can improve the transition and retention of freshmen college students. Gardner (2009) emphasized the value of quality academic advising on improving second-year retention rates and persistence to degree completion. Campbell and Nutt (2008) view increased student retention as a by-product of effective academic advising, by focusing attention on developing students by actively engaging them in their learning, which ultimately will increase student fulfillment, acquiring knowledge, and perseverance to completion of a college degree.

Academic advising, faculty, and grades, and non-academic factors, such as parenting, both relate to college transition, and, therefore, retention. Smith (2011) focused on how external factors such as parental types influence college transition and retention. Correlation between parental type and children's locus of control was found along with the significance of the nonacademic constructs in this study, which led to the conclusion that authoritative parental type was associated with internal locus of control association (Smith, 2011). "Parents that have protected, nurtured, guided, and regulated their child can now have a deeper more adult-like relationship that allows the child to gain autonomy and independence" (Smith, 2011, pp. 93-94). The parental types described by Baumrind (1966) have been observed by many researchers, which are permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative. The permissive parent lacks structure and provides few rules to follow, whereas the authoritarian parent is the exact opposite of a permissive parent (Baumrind, 1966). The authoritarian parent believes in structure and rules. The authoritative parent exhibits traits of both the permissive and authoritarian

parent, providing rules but with leniency. The authoritative parent prefers to discuss why those rules are important and allows the child to make decisions that are logical and responsible (Baumrind, 1966). Much of the research regarding parental types has been mainly observational, such as the study by Yelle, Kenyon, and Koerner (2009), which analyzed if a first-year student becoming independent of parents was related to how well he or she adjusted or transitioned to college. Results showed that college students who had a strong relationship with parents while entering college were able to cope better than students who did not have a strong relationship with parents (Yelle Kenyon, & Koerner, 2009). Pace (2003) also examined how a secure parental attachment was predictive of an easier transition for college students, while a college student without a relationship with parents was more likely to experience a challenging and unsuccessful adjustment to college. While parenting is a vital aspect of understanding how students transition to college, the literature does not reveal how different types of academic advising along with different parental types may have a relationship with relationship with college student transition.

<div align="center">Statement of the Problem</div>

Although there is extensive research regarding how parental types and academic advising types can relate to college transition independently, there is no known literature concerning the relationships between these two variables: parental types and academic advising types. There is a lack of extant studies that investigate the relationships between types of academic advising, parental types, and college transition. The authoritative parent and the developmental academic advisor share common characteristics of providing guidance and being responsive. The type of parenting a student receives

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cannot be controlled, but knowing the type of parenting a student has experienced may be beneficial when academic advisors are advising students and when transitional programs are being implemented.

It is predicted that by 2015 an additional 2.3 million students will be enrolled in college with remaining low retention and graduation rates (Morrow & Ackermann, 2012). Researchers have investigated students' persistence at a college or university and how students are retained at institutions of higher education (Morrow & Ackermann, 2012). Understanding a student's parental type background and tailoring a student's academic advising based on their level of transition can possibly increase the persistence of students in college, ultimately increasing retention rates in college. According to the National Student Clearing House Research Center (2014), of all students entering college for the first time in fall of 2012, 68.7 % returned to college at any institution of higher education in the United States in fall of 2013, and 58.2 % returned to the same institution. This research study will seek out sophomore undergraduate students of 4-year public colleges and universities in the southeastern region of the United States to determine if the type of academic advising and parental types have a relationship on transitioning of the first year.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships of developmental and prescriptive academic advising types and permissive, authoritative, and authoritarian parental types on the transition that college freshmen students encounter during the freshmen year of college. In this study, it was determined whether there are relationships between the type of academic advising and parental type. The study further determined if

college transition differs based on the type of academic advising and parental types a student receives.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Does the type of academic advising relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)?

2. Does the type of parental type relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)?

3. Is there a relationship between the type of academic advising and parental types to freshmen college student transition?

4. Is there a relationship between academic advising types, parental types, and ethnicity to freshmen college student transition?

5. Is there a relationship between academic advising types, parental types, and gender on freshmen college student transition?

The following hypotheses were also addressed:

1. Academic advising will have a relationship with freshmen college student transition.

2. Parental styles will have a relationship to freshmen college student transition.

3. There will be a relationship between academic advising types and parental types on freshmen college student transition.

4. There will be a relationship between academic advising types, parental types, and ethnicity to freshmen college student transition.

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5. There will be a relationship between academic advising types, parental types, and gender on freshmen college student transition.

One measure of college transition and adjustment frequently used by researchers is the Student Adaption to College Questionnaire (SACQ) (Baker & Siryk, 1999). In developing the SACQ, Baker and Siryk (1999) identified four facets of college adjustment: academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional attachment. Knowing the relationships of academic advising and parental types on college transition could help academic advisors better understand the need for developmental academic advising and assist them to develop advisement programs that can help freshmen students transition effectively into college. This relationship may also help students to develop effective transitioning programs for students entering college. Helping students effectively transition can ultimately increase college retention rates.

<div align="center">Justification</div>

Studying the relationship of academic advising types and parental types on college transition of freshman college students can help to better understand the effects of college transition on freshman students, potentially providing information that could be used to develop effective transitional programs that will aid in helping first-year freshman students adjust or adapt to college more efficiently. Understanding students' parental background and determining if there is an interaction between parental types and academic advisement type may help with the placement of students with the academic advisor who will be the most beneficial to the student. Helping freshmen students' transition into college effectively while increasing college persistence may also lead to higher student retention rates.

Retention has been of great concern in higher education. According to the ACT (2013), 72% of first-year college students were retained to sophomore year within an institution of higher education, 8% of first-year college students, who transferred to a different in-state school, were retained to sophomore year, and 4% of first-year college students were re-enrolled out of state. Understanding retention and how to improve it in colleges/universities is a key topic of discussion amongst college administrators and faculty. Seidman (2005) states that while access to higher education has become universally available, drop-out rates in higher education have steadily increased. According to Morrow and Ackerman (2012), graduation rates are even more troubling with only 48% of college students in the U.S. completing their degree within five years. In regards to retention of college students, Drake (2011) identified critical elements of retaining students in college which are creating an environment that allows students to learn effectively and productively while having someone to consult with regarding first year experiences and academic goals. Drake (2011) also highlighted that the most crucial part of creating this supportive environment is academic advising, which involves consulting with students in a way that allows a relationship that leads to student achievements and perseverance.

College persistence involves student success as he or she continuously enrolls in college until completion within a reasonable amount of time (Habley, Bloom, Robbins, & Gore, 2012). The amount of time for completion would depend on the type of college, for instance, two years for a community college and four years for a four-year college or university (Habley et al., 2012). College persistence varies among type of student or his

or her situation. For instance, Leppel (2002) informs that persistence can differ by gender, race, family income, marital status, or age.

Titus (2004) reveals how colleges and universities should be held accountable for college persistence. Administration, faculty, student affairs, and support staff all play a role in student success and retaining students throughout all four or five years of matriculation (Habley et al., 2012). Policy makers are analyzing measures and determining if policies should be put in place to require substantial graduation and retention rates for eligibility for federal student financial aid programs (Habley et al., 2012; Titus, 2004). Habley et al. (2102) emphasizes the need to implement retention programs, practices, and interventions that help students persist through college. Examples of practices and interventions for helping students persist are the implementation of remedial coursework, quality academic advising support, orientation programs, summer bridge program, or freshmen seminar course (Habley et al., 2012).

There have been many programs and services implemented to increase retention rates in higher education, such as programs for underrepresented students, economically disadvantaged students, people with disabilities, women, and non-traditional adult students. There are also counseling programs and federal and state financial aid programs for a wider range of students (Seidman, 2005). Pace (2003) stated that various interventions including freshmen courses or seminars have been proving to be the most effective in regard to higher retention rates of college students, whereas Seidman (2005) stated that even with the implementation of these different programs, student retention has not improved over time. Seidman (2005) suggested there is a need to understand the

behavior of students and find ways to alter their behavior in such a way that they would become more interested in completion of a college education.

<center>Definitions of Terms</center>

Academic advising: Process of enhancing and increasing involvement in students' college experience, helping students to select a program of study, which occurs at least once each term for every college student in postsecondary education (Crookston, 2009; Frost, 1991; O'Banion, 1994).

Academic advisor: Employee of a postsecondary educational institution, whose primary focus is concerned with helping students choose a major, courses, or an occupation while providing guidance and support through a student' s matriculation through college (Crookston, 2009).

Authoritarian parenting: The authoritarian parent is very strict in nature, demanding and directive of child's responsibilities, and is not accepting of discussion or responsiveness from parent or child (Baumrind, 1966; Darling, 1999).

Authoritative parenting: Authoritative parenting style is associated with sufficiently guiding children and maintaining social competence while achieving lower levels of problem behavior. The authoritative parent seems to be able to balance the demanding nature of parenting while respecting and being responsive to his/her children's needs (Darling, 1999).

Developmental academic advising: Developmental relationship of advisor advising and student acting on his or her advisors' advice, where both parties engage in developmental tasks and both benefit from the learning process (Crookston, 2009).

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Permissive parent: A parent who does not exhibit discipline, is very accepting of the child's behavior or personality, desires a friendship with the child, and believes in discussing and reasoning with the child (Baumrind, 1966).

Prescriptive academic advising: The common connection between the academic advisor and advisee, where the advisor is acting in an authoritative manner prescribing a list of courses to register for a specific program of study (Crookston, 2009).

Transition: Occurs when a viewpoint is altered of themselves and the associations around them, causing behavioral changes and new relationships (Schlossberg, 2011).

Delimitations

1. This study was delimited to freshmen and sophomore undergraduate college students of four-year public postsecondary institutions who are full-time or part-time students in their second semester of matriculation. Junior and senior undergraduate students will not be included in the study.

2. The researcher used a web-based survey instrument that was administered to the following four-year public colleges/universities campuses in the southeastern United States: Jackson State University, The University of Alabama, The University of Southern Mississippi, University of Louisiana at Lafayette, and University of Mississippi.

3. The scope of this research was delimited to providing an overview of the possible outcomes of type of academic advising and type of parenting students' experience.

Assumptions

1. Sophomore undergraduate college students participating in this study
    answered questions accurately and honestly.

2. Sophomore undergraduate college students participating in this study have
    been provided academic advisement during their first or second semester and
    are currently being offered academic advisement in current first or second
    semester.

CHAPTER II – REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

History of Higher Education in the United States

Higher education began during the 16th century when colleges shared a common architecture of red brick Georgian buildings with slate roofs, white trim, and mullioned windows (Thelin, 2004). Oxford and Cambridge University were some of the original colonial colleges in America (Brubacher & Ruby, 1997). Some of the surviving colleges that were founded during this era depict this colonial image such as Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Princeton, Brown, and Columbia (Thelin, 2004). Today these prestigious colleges and universities are considered the Ivy League schools.

Higher education was primarily for the elite social and economic class (Eckel & King, 2004). College students were a privileged group of young men, who were serious about their studies and religion, and constituted 1% of the population (Thelin, 2004). Entering and graduating classes were sometimes as few as one student with curriculum encompassing biblical texts, mathematical problems, and Latin (Thelin, 2004). During the 20th century, many social and economic changes paved the way for the middle-class, women, and minorities to enter higher education (Eckel & King, 2004). These social and economic changes were brought about by several historical court rulings that provided for equal opportunity for individuals regardless of educational preparedness, race, gender, ethnicity or social class (Jones-Reed, 2013).

American's accessibility to obtaining a college education gave America the reputation of being the country where opportunity is obtainable (Eckel & King, 2004). The founding of the community college also opened doors to many individuals of many different demographic backgrounds (Eckel & King, 2004). Higher education in America

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is a reflective of a nation where opportunity is unlimited (Eckel & King, 2004). As

professionalism became the ultimate goal for Americans, graduating from college

became associated with opportunities, authority, mobility, merit, and success (Bledstein,

1976).

Today, there are many types of colleges and universities, including public and

private institutions, two-year and four-year colleges and universities, institutions

concentrating on research, liberal arts, faith or Christian beliefs: predominantly black

institutions, and for-profit institutions granting bachelor's degrees, graduate degree

certificates (Eckel & King, 2004). Table 1 shows headcount of postsecondary institution

of higher education in the United States in year of 2009-2010.

Table 1

Total headcount enrollment of postsecondary institution of higher education in the

United States in Year 2009-2010

Type of Institution	Undergraduate	Graduate	Total
4-year public	7,547,034	1,843,696	9,390,730
4-year private non-profit	3,009,105	1,537,821	4,546,926
4-year private for-profit	2,005,691	430,855	2,436,546

Table 1 (continued).

Type of Institution	Undergraduate	Graduate	Total
2-year public	10,989,210	3	10,989,213

The Relationship of Academic Advising Types, Parental Types, and College Transition

The academic advising types described in the literature review are prescriptive and developmental, while the parental types described are permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative. The literature review discusses the relationship of academic advising types, parental types, and college transition.

The first relationship discussed is academic advising types, such as prescriptive and developmental academic advising, and how it relates to college transition. Academic advising involves assisting students with adjusting to an institution and becoming familiar with academic resources (Wood, 2002). While academic advising is a vital part of the transitioning into college, there are different forms of it. There are two types of academic advising that are discussed throughout the literature; these are developmental and prescriptive academic advising. Developmental academic advising is defined by Crookston (2009) as advisors being involved in students' background, likes and dislikes, and career goals. Crookston (2009) defines prescriptive academic advising as only focusing on scheduling and registering students for courses, and not involved with developing the student academically and personally.

Evolution of Academic Advising

Academic advising has evolved over the years, from prescriptive to developmental, dating back to the colonial years (Gordon, 2004; Kuhn, 2009). Kuhn (2009) describes three eras of advising, with the first era dating from 1636-1870. During this time, all students studied the same courses with a standard set of coursework. Diverse curricula or elective courses were not offered and an advisor was not required to guide students with a particular selection of courses (Kuhn, 2009). Advising was generally the responsibility of the college president and faculty members who acted in loco parentis, meaning to act in the role of a parent (Cook, 1999; Gordon, 2004). This particular time in higher education was characterized by stringent rules or regulations, with very few interpersonal relationships permitted between faculty and students (Kuhn, 2009).

As time passed, a second era of higher education evolved. Electives became available for students and the need for academic advisors was initiated. This era, dating from 1870-1970, has been labeled as the era of "academic advisement as a defined and unexamined activity" (Kuhn, 2009, p. 6). Charles W. Eliot, while president of Harvard, was acknowledged as the first to implement and practice academic advising in higher education (Tuttle, 2000). During this era, it was intended that academic advisors develop relationships with students, and listen to students' difficulties and career choices. Unfortunately, academic advising became very impersonal, and many simply prescribed students a list of courses (Kuhn, 2009).

As time progressed, it became clear that students needed support systems while matriculating through college. Many support systems evolved on campuses of higher

education institutions as they developed and implemented systems for freshmen counseling and faculty advisors (Kuhn, 2009). This evolution of academic advising from a routine practice of assisting students with course selection and deciding on a major to a more developmental academic advising process of helping students with not only the selection of course work, but also assisting with career goals as well has also impacted student populations (Hester, 2008; Jones-Reed, 2013; Thelin, 2004). This new era, dating from 1970-present, evolved as the era of "academic advisement as a defined and examined activity" (Kuhn, 2009, p. 6). During this era, developmental advising became prominent and advisors began to observe how they and others conducted advising (Kuhn, 2009).

Developmental Academic Advising

Developmental academic advising is based on engaging and developing a bond between the advisor and the advisee during the advisement process (Crookston, 2009). Developmental academic advising involves a developmental process of assisting students and helping them choose a program of study that defines them, which includes exploring career goals or aspirations while assisting with course selection for his or her program of study (O'Banion, 1972). Appleby (2008) indicated that advising is equated with teaching, pointing out that Crookston viewed developmental advising as a teacher and student relationship, in which the teacher and student both learn from the advising experience. The teacher-student model demonstrates how advisors can learn about the advisee's strengths, weaknesses, academic and career goals, and personal information, such as family, work, or social life while the student learns from the advisor's advice (Appleby, 2008). This model also demonstrates how important it is for the advisor to

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have an open mind to learning about the student. Advisors can learn from each advising experience and apply that learning to other similar advising situations (Appleby, 2008).

Developmental academic advising enhances the outcome of college, by increasing the students' involvement in the college experience (Frost, 1991). O'Banion (1972) states that programs of study are often formed in regards to available faculty members or poorly stated philosophical reasons, but should be developed based on the process of academic advising. Although developmental advising should guide students in the appropriate direction, it should also instruct students to be more autonomous (Jones-Reed, 2013). Developmental academic advising involves more than a prescriptive method of registering students for classes by handing them a list of prescribed classes with a set of rules and guidelines that must be followed (King 2005). Consistent with this definition of developmental academic advising, Drake (2011) also emphasizes that academic advising is more than just prescribing students a class schedule. Academic advising should involve the advisor connecting with students and helping students bridge their talents with their aspirations in life and future career goals (Drake, 2011). Student success is highly important in higher education in regards to practice and policy making; therefore, it is important to cultivate student achievement with academic advising (Drake, 2011).

Astin (1984) introduced a student development theory based on how student involvement, which is defining how much a student involves themselves academically and socially. Frost (1991) states that research findings link developmental academic advising to retention by way of the faculty and students. Astin (1984) further establishes that academically devoted students are highly involved on campus with student activities

and organizations, and stays connected with others on campus. Student involvement takes many forms, such as honors program involvement, undergraduate research participation, athletic involvement, academic involvement, social organizations, and interacting with others on campus (Astin, 1984). The more a student is involved in college, the greater the student will learn and develop personally (Astin, 1984). Frost (1991) also adds that it was essential to allow students to participate in the advisement process by focusing on a student individually. Developmental academic advisors could assist students to become more involved academically and/or socially to help them succeed academically and personally.

Much of past and current research and practice of developmental academic advising has been framed by developmental student theories, such as the psychosocial development theory of Chickering and Reisser (1993), the cognitive development theory of O'Banion (1972), and personal preferences or personality types (Briggs, McCaullen, Quenk, & Hammer, 1985). Academic advising and transitional programs could encompass the developmental theories of Chickering and Reisser (1993), which identified seven vectors that deal with emotions, cognitive development, beliefs or values, and relationships. These developmental vectors can be used when advisors are facilitating career and academic advising. The seven vectors of Chickering and Reisser's (1993) theory involves being competent, being emotionally stable, transforming from independency to working well with others, building sophisticated relationships, becoming aware on one's self, establishing drive, and maintaining honesty (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

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Perry's cognitive development theory proposes that undergraduates experience four stages of cognitive and ethical development that affect them both academically and personally: dualism, multiplicity, relativism, and commitment (Koring & Reid, 2009).

Drake (2011) highlights how influential academic advising and the act of mentorship are on student achievement and retention. Academic advising should entail building relationships with students, identifying possible student disconnects with college, such as low academic performance or being uninvolved with campus student activities, and helping students understand their purpose in college. This out of class interaction with faculty members aids in student retention.

Prescriptive Academic Advising

Prescriptive academic advising involves providing instruction on how and what courses to register for. King (2005) describes prescriptive advising as students going to the advisor for specific questions to be answered and the advisor in return giving the student exact instructions to follow. In terms of advising, the student meets with the advisor for advisement on courses needed and the advisor prescribes required coursework needed to successfully fulfill the program of study. According to Crookston (2009), this way of advising is convenient for advisors because it does not allow the advisor to get too involved in the student's personal life (Crookston, 2009). Also, with prescriptive advising, it is the advisors responsibility to come up with a solution to the advisees' problems. This can be described as a behavioral, teacher-centered approach to learning (Yarbrough, 2010). If things do not work out for the student or advisee based on what he or she is told to do by the advisor, the student would feel it was not their fault, but the advisor's fault (Crookston, 2009).

Common Academic Advisement Models

Developmental and prescriptive academic advising are two widely known academic advising types, but academic advising can also be described according to model type. According to Gordon, Habley, and Grites (2011), these models can be divided into three types, termed decentralized, centralized, and shared advising models. The decentralized advising model is implemented in the department by faculty members. Centralized advising models are more centralized, taking place at an academic or counseling center. Shared advising models the sharing of academic advising between departmental faculty members and a centralized counseling or advising center (Gordon et al., 2011; Marvin, 2013; Tuttle, 2000). The faculty-only advisors are advisors who are faculty members, advising students within the same discipline in which the faculty member works or instructs (Marvin, 2013). Within the decentralized model, faculty-only advisors not only build a foundation for learning for students in a particular major but also build a strong relationship between students and faculty member (Gordon et al., 2011; Marvin, 2013). Faculty-only advisors are typically beneficial for the decided major student, while often being a disadvantage for the non-decided major students due to a non-decided major student not having a particular major established in which a faculty member of a particular department specializes. A non-decided major student would probably benefit more from a general advisor, such as a career counselor who can help the student explore potential majors (Gordon et al., 2011). The faculty-only model is the most popular amongst advising models, but it recently became unpopular with only 25 % of colleges and universities utilizing it (Gordon et al., 2011; Tuttle, 2000). Another type of decentralized advising model is the satellite model, which is specifically designed for

the transfer students and students with special needs. This model has a central advising office that coordinates with the campus departments, shifting its advisement from the advising office to faculty members (Gordon et al., 2011). This type of advising model allows advisement opportunities campus wide. For example, each department has the opportunity to coordinate with the satellite office advisement positions within a particular department that will aide advising students (Tuttle, 2000).

Of the centralized advising models, there are self-contained advising models including centers or counseling centers that are staffed by either full-time or part-time advisors, faculty members, counselors, paraprofessionals, or peers. This model usually consists of trained models which prioritize advising and are housed in a central location, being easily accessible (Gordon et al., 2011).

The shared advising model consists of supplementary model, split model, dual model, and total intake model. The supplementary model includes all faculty members being assigned to a student and advising them with the help of an office that will assist in creating the advising handbooks, informing students and faculty regarding advisement, acting as a referral resource, and providing advisement training (Gordon et al., 2011; Tuttle, 2000). The split model involves an advisement office which may initially advise the undecided student. Once this particular student declares a major, he/she is then assigned a faculty member, full-time advisor, paraprofessional, or peer. The dual model includes two advisors for the student, a faculty advisee regarding program and an advising office. The last shared advising model is the total intake model, which includes an office that does initial advising by a professional advisor, counselor, faculty member, paraprofessional, or peer for a particular period of time (Gordon et al., 2011; Tuttle,

2000). Once specified conditions are established with each student, the student is

assigned to faculty or academic subunits (Gordon et al., 2011).

Academic Advising Relationship to Student Transition and Retention

While academic advising can be delivered in many forms or models, quality

academic advising can assist college students with transitioning through college (Frost,

1991; Gardner, 2009). According to Cuseo (2005), retention research suggests that the

degree of students' engagement of their academic and professional goals is strongly

correlated to attaining a degree. Many students report that the primary reason for

attending college is to prepare for potential careers (Cuseo, 2005). While students enter

college to prepare for potential careers, some students do not easily transition into the

college life (Frost, 1991). Academic advising becomes a major part of these students'

college lives.

The field of advising is very broad in terms of techniques, but when administered

properly, students will value it (Gardner, 2009). Research has shown that quality

advising improves second-year retention and persistence to degree completion (Gardner,

2009). Frost (1991) emphasizes that academic advising is an avenue of amplifying and

strengthening the result of a college degree. According to Frost (1991), research has

shown that academic advising directly and indirectly influences persistence in college, for

example, contact with academic advisors or other faculty members regarding scholarly

and professional concerns to enhance academic commitment and drive. Frost (1991)

believed that recognizing diversity and catering to individual student needs are essential

involving students in the academic advising process. Students come to college with

many different backgrounds, whether they are students who are academically

disadvantaged, students with disabilities, or with different parental type backgrounds. It is

important for the academic advisor to tailor their advising to a student's needs through

developmental advising (Frost, 1991).

Academic advising is more than just clerical record keeping or prescribing

students a class schedule (Drake, 2011). It should involve building a relationship

between advisor and student, thereby helping students to bridge individual talents to

scholarly and professional ambitions. If student success is the driving force of higher

education and policy making, academic advising should be of high importance in

cultivating student success and is therefore imperative to the progress of higher education

(Drake, 2011).

Leppel (2001) describes the ways developmental academic advising relates to

persistence in college in a study that examined the influence of majors on college

persistence among freshmen college students which showed that college persistence rates

varied with major field, when other variables were held constant. Leppel concluded that

the persistence rates for non-traditional majors may be adversely affected by social

interaction with faculty, staff, and advisors (Leppel, 2001). For example, suggested that

there is a need to incorporate support from faculty, counselors, and advisors to assist in

retention rates of women in business and men in education (Leppel, 2001). Leppel also

suggested it is important to make sure advisors are trained properly to handle non-

traditional majors and to be unbiased when advising students. The development of a

mentorship program is also advised to help non-traditional major students during

matriculation (Leppel, 2001). This study demonstrated the importance of academic

advising to college persistence. With proper guidance and information, a student can find their way through challenges faced during the college years.

According to Campbell and Nutt (2008), there is a trend among all campuses nationwide to focus on student success and acknowledge effective academic advising. Effective academic advising is now being rewarded and recognized as a means to successful outcomes for students (Campbell & Nutt, 2008). Rewarding advisors can go a long way in the advising process. When an advisor feels appreciated for his or her time and effort, the advisor will continue to give that time and effort.

Parental Types

The second relationship discussed in this literature review is the relationship among parental types, college transition, and student development. Parental type involves perspectives that communicate an emotional climate for parent and child relationship (Barnhart, Raval, Jansari, & Raval, 2012). Baumrind (1966) identified three parental types: permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative, whereas Darling (1999) identified four parental types: indulgent, authoritarian, authoritative, and uninvolved parent.

One parental type defined by Baumrind (1966) is the permissive parent, who is a parent who does not exhibit discipline, is very accepting of the child's behavior or personality, desires a friendship with the child, and believes in discussing and reasoning with the child. Barnhart and colleagues (2012) describes the permissive parent as having little emphasis on rules and structures. The permissive parent does not believe in punishing and reacts to the child's impulses, desires, and actions in a low controlled manner (Baumrind, 1966). Darling's (1999) definitions of the indulgent parent and the

uninvolved parent seem to parallel the permissive parent that Baumrind (1966) defined. The indulgent parent is responsive and lenient, whereas the uninvolved parent is not very demanding or responsive (Darling, 1999).

Another parental type defined by Baumrind (1966), is the authoritarian parent, who shapes, controls, and evaluates the actions and disposition of the child with definitive rules and regulations, motivated with high authority (Baumrind, 1966). The authoritarian parent is very strict in nature, demanding and directive of child's responsibilities, and is not accepting of discussion or responsiveness from parent or child (Baumrind, 1966; Darling, 1999). Miller (1990) described the authoritarian parent as one who has high expectations but provides little nurturing, which inhibits the growth of the child emotionally, socially, and academically. The authoritarian parent acts as a disciplinarian, whereas the responsive parent seeks to direct the child with reasoning (Baumrind, 1966; Darling, 1966).

A third parental typed defined by Baumrind (1966) is the authoritative parent who regulates the child's activities in a reasonable manner (Baumrind, 1966). Authoritative parental type is associated with sufficiently guiding children and maintaining social competence while achieving lower levels of problem behavior (Darling, 1999). The authoritative parent seems to be able to balance being a disciplinarian while respecting and being responsive to his/her children's needs. Pruitt (1998) describes the authoritative parent as one who sets rules and explains why these rules are set and why they must be obeyed. This type of authoritative upbringing helps the child balance social and achievement demands while remaining confident in their individualism (Darling, 1999). Results of a study analyzing the influence of parental educational styles, such as

democratic, permissive, authoritarian, and indifferent, on academic achievement showed that low levels of acceptance, involvement, and parental expectations had a negative influence on students' achievement, resulting in lower achievement (Casanova, Garcia-Linares, dela Torre, & Carpio, 2005).

It has been demonstrated through many studies that Baumrind's typology is applicable across many cultures (Bamhart et al., 2012). Parents in the Western culture are typically more authoritative, teaching children independence, competitiveness, and being more expressive, whereas parents of the Asian cultures exhibit a more authoritarian parenting style requiring obedience and respect (Bamhart et al., 2012).

Parental Types and Student Development

A student's development may also be linked to type of parenting experienced by the child. According to Baumrind (1966), authoritarian control and permissive noncontrol may both shield the child from the opportunity to engage in vigorous interaction with people. Baumrind (1966) states that the consequences of these two types of parenting may cause the child to fail at achieving. High or no demands, not allowing or avoiding feedback, and having high or low demands can result in unfavorable outcomes on the achievement of the child due to lack of independence (Baumrind, 1966). Baumrind (1966) concludes that authoritative control can mold a child in such a way that he or she retains individual autonomy and self-assertiveness.

While Baumrind (1966) describes type of parenting, Mowder, Harvey, Moy, and Pedro (1995) focused on parenting perceptions and behaviors and how they are framed by parental development theory. Parental development theory (PDT) involves characteristics such as establishing a relationship and regulations, while encouraging

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success, maintaining stability, compassion, and sympathy (Mowder et al., 1995). Long

before Baumrind (1966) and Mowder et al. (1995) developed theories on parenting, other

theorists perceived parenting very differently. Baumrind (1966) stated that children were

considered to be "a refractory savage, a small adult, or an angelic bundle from heaven"

(p. 888). Over time, parenting has evolved from one traditional form to many forms.

The first characteristic of parental development theory is bonding, which involves

the parent's affection and love shown towards their children, which can have a positive

effect on the child (Mowder et al., 1995). The next characteristic is discipline which

involves the limits a parent sets for his or her children. It is expected that children obey

or they will face some type of consequential punishment for misbehavior (Mowder et al.,

1995). General welfare and protection means children are protected from any harm and

are provided with the basic necessities of life such as clothing, food, shelter, or water

(Mowder et al., 1995). Responsivity describes how responsive a parent is to his or her

children, including being able to listen, notice, or perceive a child's needs. Being a

responsive parent means being a parent who cares, offers support when needed, assists

his or her children through life, and offers encouragement. The last characteristic of the

parent development theory is sensitivity which means understanding of a child's

emotions, physical, or intellectual capabilities (Mowder et al., 1995). These

characteristics are also involved in the type of parenting that Baumrind (1966) describes,

each type exhibiting different levels of each type of characteristic. This study explored

which type of parenting has the most positive effect on freshmen college students.

Of the three parental types described, Baumrind (1966) believes that authoritative

parenting may be the best type of parenting in terms of how a child responds and

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matures. Authoritarian's control and the permissive parent's lack of control may both

cause a child to not be socially involved. Setting high standards by the authoritarian

parent or not setting standards at all by the permissive parent may cause the child to not

gain knowledge and experience, ultimately affecting his or her social and networking

skills (Baumrind, 1996). It can be inferred that authoritarian and permissive parenting

can either be too protective or not provide enough guidance, which ultimately hinders the

child from developing the necessary skills to interact with others or succeed. Baumrind

(1966) believes authoritative parenting will guide the child in such a way that they still

retain individual autonomy and self-assertiveness.

Parental types can also relate to student behavior and academic achievement.

Kramer (2012) stated that the type of parenting relates to student behavior and academic

achievement. His research study showed a link between parental behavioral control and

various adolescent outcomes, but he argues that there are moderators involved when

determining this link. Kramer (2012) also indicated that "parental behavioral control

contributes to academic achievement only in the presence of high levels of parental

involvement and parental warmth" (p. 85).

Parental Types Relationship to College Transition

Schlossberg defined transition as a process that causes altered points of views

regarding worldly views or concerns, requiring a complementary altered way of behaving

and establishing relationships (Schlossberg, 1981). Transitions are a vital part of life

experiences but also can encompass experiences, such as job issues, and unadventurous

experiences, such as not being nominated or a position (Schlossberg, Lynch, &

Chickering, 1991).

Tinto (1993) articulated that the first year of college transition may be one of the most challenging times of a college student's life and how transitioning effectively is related to becoming socially and academically involved. Considering the definition of transition, academic adjustment involves student adapting to the demand of college by considering attitudes toward programs of study, academic engagement, and influence study habits (Credé & Niehorster, 2012). Baxter Magolda (1992) stated that a self-authoring perspective is needed to accomplish the goals of independence and transitioning, but a college environment often does not create the conditions necessary for self-authorship to develop. Credé and Niehorster (2012) state that adjusting socially is a reflection of how well students blend into social activities or organizations in college, and establish new friendships, contrary to alienating themselves or experiencing the feeling of being homesick. Credé and Niehorster (2012) described that adjusting personally and emotionally involves how well students deal with the expectations of college. Institutional attachment describes the emotional attachment a student associates with the college environment (Credé & Niehorster, 2012).

Kelly et al. (2007) evaluated the need to retain students by implementing programs that focuses on college transition and developing students to think more cognitively and independently. This study found that implementing transitional programs prior to entering colleges or universities will prepare students for college life more effectively (Kelly et al., 2007).

Tinto (2001) identifies the following reasons why students leave college: scholastic adversity, adaptation complications, unwillingness to commit, insufficient funds, disengagement, indecisive ambitions, and not adequately fitting at the college or

university. The implementation of transitional programs have been found to deter students from leaving college. Kelly et al. (2007) emphasize that transitional programs needs to encompass ways of studying more efficiently, prioritizing activities, and managing adversities. Kelly et al. (2007) also address the need to develop transitional programs into the sophomore year of college, encouraging students to remain in social activities for social and cognitive development. They also noted that student affairs practitioners can aid in increasing student retention by becoming more involved in the educational, psychological, and social needs of students (Kelly et al., 2007).

Research studies have shown that individual-level factors, social and emotional factors, and college students' relationships with their parents have been found to be associated with their transition to college (Yelle et al., 2009). Yelle et al., (2009) analyzed the separatism f students from parents and the association with adjusting to higher education. Yelle et al. (2009) found that college students who were highly connected with their parents but with the ability to separate from parents upon entering college had higher psychological well-being three months later than students who were not as connected with parents, and those who were not able to separate from parents as well (Yelle et al., 2009).

<center>Student Development</center>

While this research study attempts to determine if there is a relationship between academic advising, parenting, and college transition, students may develop as well. Student development involves student growth, progression, or increased developmental capabilities (Rodgers, 1990). According to Evans, Forney, Guido-DiBrito, Patton, & Renn (2009), student developmental theory guides educational practitioners such as

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student affairs professionals in developing programs for student development, growth, adapting, or transitioning. Student development theory is also beneficial to educators of higher education, allowing them to understand and be empathetic to students (Evans et al., 2009).

Student development is defined as a positive growth process of increasing knowledge and development, while integrating a wide array of experiences and influences (Sanford, 1967). Student educators use student development theory as a guide to help implement and design programs and services for students (Evans et al., 2009; Baxter Magolda, 2009). Baxter Magolda (2009) indicated that higher education and student affairs lack comprehensive views of acquiring knowledge and maturing into an adult student.

Student development theory evolved from the following foundational theories: psychosocial, cognitive structural, and learning style theories (Evans et al., 2009). Psychosocial theories deal with the development of a person over a life span, involving defining him or herself, his or her relationships, and life's goals (Erikson, 1990). Cognitive structural theories involve intellectual development during a student's college years, developing how they think and reason for future use in their lives (Piaget, 1952). Learning style theory involves how people approach learning or processing information (Evans et al., 2009). Based on these foundational theories, more specific theories have evolved over time such as the Psychosocial Identity Development theory, Chickering's Theory of Identity Development, and Perry's Theory of Intellectual and Ethical Development. Eventually, Integrative Theories were created such as Baxter Magolda's Self-Authorship and Schlossberg's Transition Theory (Evans et al., 2009). Another

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category of student development theories that emerged were Social Identity Development Theories.

Psychosocial theories examine the developmental process of a person's life, entailing issues that arise in life, self-awareness, relationships, and future goals in life (Erikson, 1990). Erikson (1990) indicated that all issues are not equally important throughout a person's life, some issues and development take precedence over others at different stages in a life span. Erikson (1990) believed that each stage came with developmental tasks that must be resolved. Many components influence stages of life such as intrinsic and extrinsic bodily needs. The extrinsic expectations such the social environment could have a major influence on someone at a certain point in his or her life. Overcoming these developmental tasks is influenced by the use of coping strategies of an individual (Erikson, 1990).

Another psychosocial theorist of relevance is Arthur Chickering. Chickering's theory of psychosocial development implemented an outline of the developmental issues that college students encounter and analyzed how the environment could impact the developing process (Chickering, 1969). Chickering's theory was developed from Erikson's psychosocial theory of self-identity and closeness. Chickering (1969) believed students are faced with self-identifying themselves during their matriculation through college, identifying key aspects of the college environment that influence development and suggesting ways to enhance student growth . Erikson (1990) also believed that stressful situations can cause one to become knowledgeable of knowing how to deal with future stressful situations.

Chickering (1969) introduced the idea of developmental advising in his landmark book, Education and Identity, which was centered on research he conducted between 1959 and 1965 while in college. Chickering (1969) evaluated the influence of creative ways of developing students through the administration of testing achievement and determining personalities at the end of their sophomore and senior years. Later, Chickering and Reisser re-examined his theory to incorporate distinct and later discoveries from research others had conducted. He summarized the work of other theorists as it related to his theory, and were more inclusive of various student populations, encompassing 90% of new material (Chickering, 1969). Chickering (1969) suggested seven vectors of development contributing to the construction of one's self. The term vectors were used because the authors believed that progression was not linear; instead they described progression as a journey (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Foubert, Nixon, Sisson, and Barnes (2005) acclaimed that the process of developing is a sequential progression as students move to more complex ways of thinking.

Evans et al. (2009) stated that Chickering noticed that not every student experienced the same progression of vectors the same standard, such as different times of experiencing a particular vector, different interactions of several vectors, and different associations with a particular vector. Vectors are not rigid and sequential stages but are stepping stones building to a more complex, stable, and integrated stage of development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Foubert et al. (2005) stated that although Chickering and Reiseer's vectors are not rigid and sequential, they do view them as a guide to determine where students currently are and where they will be developmentally.

Students influence their lives profoundly by understanding themselves and others inside and outside the classroom (Evans et al., 2009). This statement embodies William Perry's theory of intellectual and ethical development. Learning allows advisors and teachers to properly acknowledge dissimilarities of intellectual progress (Perry, 1981). Between the 1950s and 1960s, Perry (1968) examined the process of acquiring and instructing knowledge. Perry and his colleagues (1968) formulated what he has described as "the typical course of development of students' patterns of thought" and "unfolding views of the world" (Evans et al., 2009, p. 84). Perry noticed there was little research in regard to addressing the adolescent-to-adulthood transition, so he embarked on addressing this gap in literature. Perry (1968) believed that cognitive and moral development structurally molded ideologies of experiences. Perry's theory encompassed nine areas outlined in sequential order of development, rather than the use of stages as previous theorists did. Perry (1968); Perry (1981) believed no assumption about duration is made when using a position. He also believed that a position can demonstrate a range of development and depends on a point of view of how a person views the world (Perry, 1968, 1981). Evans et al. (2009) stated that the positions Perry describes are static, meaning to allow development to occur between the positions or the transition from one position to another. Perry preferred to use the term positions because they are positions from which the world is viewed and discernments of students along their path (Moore, 2004). Evans et al. (2009) stated that development is mainly transition whiles 'stages' are breaks, moving on a continuum to evolving commitments (Evans, et al., 2009). (Moore, 2004) stated that Perry's model reflects the critical intertwining of cognitive and effective perspectives at the heart of a college education. Perry's theory of intellectual

and ethical development provided essential knowledge of students' developmental process (Perry 1968; Perry, 1981).

Researchers who succeeded Perry added significant new information about cognitive-structural development, highlighting limitations of Perry's research and theory. Perry's research was conducted primarily from the perspective of men, but new theorists such as Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) focused on women. Perry also used participants from one elite institution, while later theorists included participants from various types of colleges, as well as community service agents (Evans et al., 2009). Baxter Magolda (1992) built her research from the works of Perry by comparing the epistemological development of men and women over time in a longitudinal study at Miami University. Belenky et al.'s (1986) research involved interviews with 135 female students, recent graduates of academic institutions, or those who were affiliated with human service agencies that provided support to women in parenting. Baxter Magolda (1992) compared and contrasted Perry's (1968) research of males and Belenky et al.'s work of females. Baxter Magolda (1992) identified that there were no current studies addressing gender and its relationship to mental development.

In a five-year longitudinal study, Evans et al., (2009) stated that Baxter Magolda (1992) identified six leading presumptions defining her model:

(1) ways of knowing and patterns within them are socially constructed; (2) ways of knowing can best be examined using naturalistic inquiry; (3) students' use of reasoning patters is fluid; (4) patterns are related to but not dictated by gender; (5) student stories are context bound; and (6) ways of knowing appear as "patterns," a term suggested by Frye (1990). (p. 125)

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Baxter Magolda's earlier studies focuses on the epistemological development of Miami University students during the college years. Her subsequent research involved observing a sample of students, ages 20-30, employed in the business and education arena, married or in committed relationships, or with children (Baxter Magolda, 1992). In Baxter Magolda's postcollege research, she used informal conversational interviews, mostly via telephone (Baxter Magolda, 1992). During these interviews, Baxter Magolda (1992) found evidence that her participants' development of knowledge was linked to self-awareness and establishing relationships.

Baxter Magolda's research involved young adults in their 20s explaining the development of achieving self-authorship (Evans et al., 2009). Baxter Magolda (1992) defined self-authorship as the intrinsic capability to acknowledge a belief, be comfortable with identifying one's self, and socialization. She noticed many developmental tasks associated with the decade of the 20s, consisting of exploring value systems, analyzing knowledge pertaining to the views, issues, and history of the world, making decisions about goals in life, and accomplishing those life goals and aspirations. Baxter Magolda (1992, 2004) introduced three important questions that take precedence: "How do I know?" "Who am I?" and "How do I want to construct relationships with others?" Baxter Magolda (1992) observed how students begin to attempt to find answers, but become bombarded by the fast pace, lack of clarity, and complexity characterizing society as they enter an unfamiliar world outside education with concerns that center around establishing careers, developing meaningful relationships, being able to manage their lives on their own, establishing families, and becoming satisfied and happy. Baxter Magolda (1992) also determined that students look forward to becoming self-sufficient as

they complete their degrees, graduating from college aware that independence is an expectation of others while not being intrinsically ready for that independence. Baxter Magolda (2004) stated that higher education should help young adults transform from being influenced by society to influencing society by achieving leadership roles. Baxter Magolda (1992) discusses four phases in the path leading to self-authorship that involves the realization of what is important to one's self mentally, psychologically, and personally.

Theoretical Framework

Academic advising and parenting are both important to student development in that they contribute to the student development academically and personally (Frost, 1991; Yelle et al., 2009). They are especially important in that crucial stage of the student's development as he/she transitions from high school into college.

While college transition plays a role in student development (Evans et al., 2009), student development and college transition are both key components in retaining students in college. Therefore, transition theory is the foundation for the study of determining a relationship between academic advising and parental types on college transition of freshmen students. College transition's theoretical foundation is best described by Schlossberg's transition theory (Schlossberg, 1981), an integrative theory that integrates aspects of development and factors contributing to change. According to this theory, as people evolve, they are consistently involved in changing and transformation that forms new relationships, new behaviors, and new self-perceptions (Schlossberg, 1981).

Evans et al. (2009) stated that Schlossberg's transition theory is generally classified as an adult development theory; yet, it may be applied to traditional college-

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aged students as well. Schlossberg's three factors of transition can be applied to college transition. Transitioning allows the student to experience a role change that may have a positive or negative affect, ultimately causing the student to adapt (Schlossberg, 1981). The second factor of transitioning consists of having support internally, institutionally, support, and physically that result in adapting. The third factor of transitioning encompasses psychosocial proficiency, managing a healthy life style, and awareness of different demographic factors can all have an effect on the student adapting to college (Schlossberg, 1981).

Schlossberg (1981) described life changes as being events such as graduating from high school, starting a new job, getting married, having children, experiencing death and unanticipated experiences such as mental, emotional, and physical development. Schlossberg (1981) highlighted the process of transition as a process during which an individual moves from totally being preoccupied with the transition to integrating the transition into his or her life. When formulating a model for human adaptation to transition, Schlossberg (1981) believed that transition itself is not the primary issue but how that particular transition fits into an individual's stage, situation, and style at the time of transition. When describing transition, Schlossberg (1981) identifies a common set of variables: role change, affect, source, timing, onset, duration, and degree of stress. Role changes are transitions in one's life that involves the loss or gain of a role, such as getting married, becoming a parent, getting divorced, or retiring. These role changes can be accompanied by some degree of stress depending on the individual (Schlossberg, 1981). Schlossberg (1981) defined affect as an emotional state, e.g., a positive or negative event in one's life that can cause pleasure or pain. This variable is associated with some degree

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of stress as well. Source refers to an involuntary action or voluntary action. Involuntary action usually causes one to experience more stress than a voluntary action (Schlossberg, 1981). Schlossberg (1981) also described the variable timing as another characteristic that can lead to stress during transition. One can feel the social pressures of not experiencing life events at a certain age. The onset variable or characteristic involves a gradual or sudden onset of an event. Schlossberg (1981) indicated that a gradual onset is less stressful than sudden onset of events. Lastly, Schlossberg (1981) described the degree of stress characteristic as being dependent on all the previous characteristics described, how the degree of stress varies from person to person, and how one deals with stress.

Schlossberg (1981) described the traits of transitioning as three aspects of the process of transition involving support from personal relationships, institutions of higher education and the environment. Personal relationships with others are necessary to successfully adapt in different situations or environments. Support from the institution involves providing professional support, faith-based support from organizations, political and community support. An example of institutional support being useful is practical support, such as job placement and job training. Physical setting, such atmospheric conditions, location and living circumstances, and work environment can affect how stressful one becomes and how they perceive life (Schlossberg, 1981).

Schlossberg (1981) discusses characteristics of the individual in the adaptation to transition as follows: 1) psychosocial competence, 2) sex (and sex role identification), 3) age (and life stages), 4) state of health, 5) race-ethnicity, 6) socioeconomic status, 7) value orientation, and 8) previous experience with a transition of a similar nature

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(Schlossberg, 1981, pp. 9-15). Evans et al. (2009) stated that Schlossberg and Chickering revised the transitional model in response to the realization that adaptation may not always be achieved. Evans et al. (2009) further stated that Schlossberg's transition theory includes three components: approaching change, taking stock, and taking charge. Chickering (1969) and Schlossberg (1995) identified a systematic process of transition that is labeled the "Four S's": situation, self, support, and strategies, which embodied the "taking stock" component of Schlossberg's transitional model. Situation refers to the individual's view of the transition, self is the type of strengths and weakness brought to the transition by the individual, support are those things or individuals in the individual's life that provide support, and strategies are the ways in which the individual copes with the transition (Evans et al., 2009).

The "taking charge" component of the transition model refers to the process of transition as a series of phases involving a moving in (confronting transition) phase, a moving through (going through the transition) phase, and a moving out (end of transition) phase (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995; Evans et al., 2009). Goodman, Schlossberg, and Anderson (2006) re-defined transition as "any event, or non-event, that results in changed relationships, routines, assumptions, and roles" (p. 33). The influence of perception is key in transition because the transition does not exist if the person experiencing the transition is not aware of it (Evans et al., 2009).

In terms of applying Schlossberg's transition model to higher education, Evans et al. (2009) pointed out the use of the model for program and workshop development, counseling, advocacy, and self-help groups; as a guide for organization officers, resident assistants and other student leaders; as a guide for orientation programs for entering

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students using the moving-in component of the transition model; or as a guide for transitioning programs for college seniors approaching graduation using the component moving out of the transition model.

<div align="center">Summary of Literature Review</div>

This research study attempted to determine the interaction effect of academic advising styles and parental types on college transition of freshmen and sophomore undergraduate students and to further determine whether transition is affected by race, gender, first-generation status, or public vs. private college/university status.   A review of literature has shown the value of academic advising in relation to students' retention, attrition, and transition to college. The literature review has also demonstrated how parental type relates to students' success and transition. It may be useful to understand if there is an interaction effect of academic advising and parental type students' encounter on college transition during freshmen year.

CHAPTER III – METHODOLOGY

Overview

This chapter provides a description of the methodology that was used during this study. The following is discussed: the purpose of the study, a description of the participants and research environment, a description of instrumentation, the data collection process, and data analysis.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships of the academic advising types, including developmental and prescriptive advising, and parental types, whether permissive, authoritative, and authoritarian, on the transition that college freshmen students encounter during the freshmen year of college. The study further assessed if college transition differed based on the type of academic advising and the type of parenting a student receives. An additional aim of this research was to determine if the relationship of academic advisement and parental types on college transition was related to race or gender.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Does type of academic advising relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)?

2. Does type of parental type relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)?

3. Is there an interaction of the type of academic advising with parental types for freshmen college student transition?

4. Is there an interaction of the type of academic advising, parental types, and ethnicity for freshmen college student transition?

5. Is there an interaction of the type of academic advising, parental types, and gender for freshmen college student transition?

Participants

The target population for this study was full-time and part-time sophomore undergraduate college students currently attending four-year public non-profit institutions of higher education in the southeastern region of United States. A convenience sampling method was used for the student survey process by selecting sophomore students from among 4-year public institution of higher education in the southeastern region of the United States.   Additionally, in order to capture sophomore students for the survey, the researcher sought out First-Year Experience like programs at 4-year public universities/colleges in the southeastern region of the United States. First-Year Experience programs are programs that guide students through their first year of college, offering mentoring and additional guidance that will aid in matriculation through the first year of college. An email invitation (Appendix E) explaining the purpose of the research, selection criteria, instruction of accessing the online questionnaire, and requesting student participation was sent to students from among 4-year public colleges/universities in the southeastern region of United States. Follow-up emails and telephone calls to faculty were used to provide clarification and to serve as reminders of the purpose of the study. The first-year program directors/coordinators emailed the sophomore students the email invitation including the survey link to participate in the study.

Description of Research Environment

This research study recruited sophomore undergraduate students from among four-year public, no-profit colleges/universities in the southeastern region of the United States.

Instrumentation

A cross-sectional survey design was used. The primary quantitative data collection technique was a web-based survey using Qualtrics™ that employed the demographic questionnaire (Appendix A), the Academic Advising Inventory, Part I (Appendix B), the Parental Authority Questionnaire (Appendix C), and the Student Adaption to College Questionnaire (SACQ) (Baker & Siryk, 1999) (Appendix D), which was administered during the first of the sophomore year. The Academic Advising Inventory and the Parental Authority Questionnaire determined type of academic advising and parental types the student participants are receiving or have received respectively.

Academic Advising Inventory, Part I

The Academic Advising Inventory, Part I consist of 14 items which form the Developmental-Prescriptive Advising Scale (DPA) and the three Subscales: Personalizing Education (PE), Academic Decision-Making (ADM), and Selecting Classes (SC) (Winston and Sandor, 2002). The Developmental-Prescriptive Advising (DPA) scale defines the type of the advising relationship and subject matters and issues discussed during an advising session, representing a continuum between prescriptive and developmental academic advising perceived by students (Winston & Sandor, 2002). The Personalizing Education (PE) subscale emulates a caring disposition for the student's

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educational experience, involving professional and academic assessment, establishing

goals, and determining support systems to assist with academic work. The Academic

Decision-Making (ADM) subscale's primary focus is to implement skills on how to make

concise decisions as well as managing academic advising sessions and the development

of the student. The Selecting Courses (SC) subscale involves assisting students with

selecting courses based on requirements and scheduling (Winston & Sandor, 2002).

Participants were to choose from 14-paired statements deciding which of the two

statements best fits their advising process (chose one side of the statement, then deciding

how true that chosen statement was (from very true to slightly true). Permission to use

this instrument was provided to all researchers with specific guidelines (Appendix G).

Academic Advising Inventory Reliability

Cronbach Alpha was calculated and utilized to determine internal consistency

reliability for the Developmental-Prescriptive Advising Scale (DPA) and its subscales

Personalizing Education (PE), Academic Decision-Making (ADM), and Selecting

Courses (SC) (Winston & Sandor, 2002).

In standardizing DPA, the alpha coefficients ranged from .42 to .81. The alpha

coefficient for the total DPA Scale was .78. The subscales were consistent and uniform

measures. The intercorrelations of DPA and the subscales ranged from .42 to .87, with

DPA and the subscale Personalizing Education (PE) having the highest correlation at .87.

Academic Advising Inventory Validity

Winston and Sandor (2002) stated that there were presently no instruments that

attempted to calculate similar constructs as those calculated by the Developmental-

Prescriptive Advising (DPA) Scale, therefore it was imperative to design other forms of

calculating validity. Winston and Sandor (2002) measured validity by contrasting groups

and correlating with categories of activities in Part II of the AAI.   One form of

estimating construct validity was to determine groups who would discern advising as

developmental or prescriptive. Students at the University of Georgia were used to

identify the two groups for this study. The group that received developmental advising

was deficient academically and given more intense academic advising and instruction by

professional advising counselors (Winston & Sandor, 2002). In comparison, the second

group includes regular freshmen students, not deficient in academics, received a more

prescriptive or less developmental type of academic advising , who received less advising

sessions for a limited amount of time (Winston & Sandor, 2002). Winston and Sandor

(2002) predicted that students who received more intense and thorough academic

advising would identify the advising as being developmental, whereas the students who

received less instruction and guidance would identify the advising as prescriptive.

According to the results, the developmental advising group scores were higher

than the prescriptive advising group on the DPA, PE, and SC Subscales. The groups

were statistically significantly different from each other at the pre-established alpha level

$(p < .001)$ only on the DPA and PE. It was challenging to identify the reason for no

statistically significant difference on the ADM and SC. Winton and Sandor (2002)

believed that the similar ways of assisting students in decision making for both groups

may be the reason for no statistically significant difference.

Parental Authority Questionnaire

This instrument's purpose was to measure Baumrind's permissive, authoritarian,

and authoritative parental authority prototypes (Buri, 1991). This instrument includes 30

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items per parent and calculates permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative scores for both parents. Permission to use this instrument was given by Buri via email (Appendix H).

Parental Authority Questionnaire Validity and Reliability

To test Test-Retest Reliability, 185 students of an introductory psychology class completed the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) at the end of a class period early in the semester. Two weeks later, 61 of 185 participants were examined again by completing the PAQ at the end of a class period then questioned about the purpose of their participation (Buri, 1991). High reliability was generated for the 2-week period of both the mother and father for all parental types (Buri, 1991).

Regarding internal consistency reliability, results showed that the Cronbach (1951) coefficient alpha values of each of the six PAQ scales were high, ranging from .74 to .87.

In regards to the discriminant-related validity testing, responses of 127 participants proved that the Permissive, Authoritarian, and Authoritative scales of the PAQ is a definitive way of measuring Baumrind's three parental prototypes (Buri, 1991).

Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire

The SACQ was purchased by the researcher from Western Psychological Services (WPS). The SACQ was used to measure the transition of the freshmen and sophomore college students. The SACQ, produced, distributed, and analyzed by WPS in 1989, was developed to estimate student adjustment to college, which essentially is the meaning of college transition (Baker & Siryk, 1999). The SACQ is a 67-item questionnaire that will measure four principal subscales that focus on certain aspects of college adjustment: academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional attachment (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

The academic adjustment subscale consists of 24 items and estimates the achievement of students dealing with expectations and adversities of college (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Adapting to college academics is reflected in students' attitude toward courses, their engagement in course work, and sufficiency in stud habits and academic achievement (Crede' & Niehorster, 2012). The Social Adjustment subscale contains 20 items relevant to the interpersonal–societal demands of college (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Social adjustment pertains to how well students adjust with establishing personal relationships while in college (Credé & Niehorster, 2012). The Personal-Emotional subscale contains 15 items and determines a student's psychological well-being or feelings, such as experiencing stress, anxiety, or sleeplessness (Baker & Siryk, 1989; Credé & Niehorster, 2012). The Attachment subscale contains 15 items and determines a student's overall fulfillment with college and establishing how well a student fits at the present institution they are enrolled (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

The student participants responded to each SACQ item on a 9-point scale varying from "applies very closely to me" to "doesn't apply to me at all" (Baker & Siryk, 1999). "Values from 1 to 9 have been assigned to successive positions in a continuum that range from less adaptive to more adaptive adjustment, respectively. For 34 of the items (the negatively keyed items), these values run from 1 to 9, while for the other 33 items (the positively keyed items) the values run from 9 to 1" (Baker & Siryk, 1999, pp. 1-4). Each scored item for each subscale represents four types of adjustment. The total score for all 67 items or the Full Scale represents overall adjustment. High scores signify more adjustment (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

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The survey questionnaire was administered through Qualtrics™ (2015) and accessible using a specific URL provided to all potential participants. A web-based survey allowed automatic storage of participant responses in one database which was transferred to SPSS for data analysis. The informed consent letter was located on the opening page of the web-based survey. (Appendix E). Participants consented to participate in the survey to gain access to the questionnaire. Data were collected during the fall semester of the 2015-2016 academic school year.

Baker and Siryk (1999) stated that the SACQ is available to be administered during any point in the college student's matriculation, although it was originally intended for freshmen students. Due to alterations and adjustments of the questionnaire, it is now appropriate for any college student from all college levels (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

Psychometric Properties of SACQ

SACQ Norms. The SACQ has proven to be useful in assessment of counseling college students and in basic research (Baker & Siryk, 1999). The Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire Manual (Baker & Siryk, 1999) provided detailed explanation of the reliability, and validity of the SACQ. According to Dahmus and Bernardin (1992), when testing Clark College students in fall and spring semesters of academic years 1980 to 1984, there were significant gender-related and semester effects on some of the SACQ variables. Therefore, separate norms were computed for male and female students in the first and second semester of academic years 1980 to 1984 (Dahmus & Bernardin, 1992). Dahmus and Bernardin (1992) also advised that norms needed to be improved and more information is also needed on scores related to racial, ethnic, and national origin.

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SACQ Reliability. The measurable variables of SACQ can differ with modifications in the student's environmental conditions, experiences in personal or professional life, and personal traits, which causes the variables to be unstable (Baker & Siryk, 1999). "The variables measured by SACQ are not expected to be necessarily stable and enduring properties of individuals, but states that can vary with changes in the student's environment, life events, and, possibly, personality characteristics" (Baker & Siryk, 1999, p. 34). Baker and Siryk (1999) determined that measurements of internal consistency reliability are better estimates than test-retest reliability. They cautioned against simplistic and uncritical interpretation of cluster scores, especially when drawing inferences regarding individual students (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Dahmus and Bernardin (1992) noted that the 9-point scale format increases discriminability but decreases reliability than the more standard 5-point scale.

The Crobach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0.00 to 1.00, with higher coefficients indicating higher levels of internal reliability (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Coefficient alpha values were lower for the earlier, 52-item version of SACQ. Items have been added since to enhance the reliability of the subscales. The following are alpha coefficient values for the earlier, 52-item version of the SACQ over six administrations: .82 to .87 for the Academic Adjustment subscale, .83 to .89 for the Social Adjustment subscale, .73 to .79 for the Personal-Emotional Adjustment subscale, .84 to .88 for the Attachment subscale (called the General subscale in the 52-item version), and .92 to .94 for Full Scale (Baker & Siryk, 1999). The following alpha coefficient values for the final, 67-item version of the SACQ, including studies involving first and second semester freshmen students at three institutions, gathered over several

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years: .81 to .90 for Academic Adjustment scale; .83 to .91 for the Social Adjustment subscale; .77 to .86 for the Personal-Emotional Adjustment subscale; .85 to .91 for the Attachment subscale; and .92 to .95 for the Full Scale (Baker & Siryk, 1999). As noted, the 67-item version of the SACQ showed improved and reasonably larger alphas.

SACQ Validity. The 67-item SACQ subscales used in several studies over several years at Clark University and other institutions are statistically significant and related to independent real-life behaviors.   These subscales signify critical behaviors, results, or achievements in the lives of students (Baker & Siryk, 1999). The SACQ is considered a useful tool for counseling interventions and college life research, such as transitioning and adjusting to college. The SACQ instrument can assess and evaluate the impact of a variety of student services and programs (Dahmus & Bernardin, 1992).

Intercorrelation was also observed for the 34 administrations of the 67-item version of SACQ at 21 different colleges and universities. Baker and Siryk (1999) emphasizes that in the 67-item version of SACQ , the Attachment subscale contains one item from the Academic Adjustment subscale and eight from the Social Adjustment subscale, causing an inflated correlation between the Attachment subscale and the other two subscales. Although inflated correlations were found in the previous subscales just mentioned, median correlations were found for three subscales that did not have overlapping items such as Academic Adjustment/Social Adjustment at .45 and .39; Academic Adjustment/Personal-Emotional Adjustment at .60 and .55; and Social Adjustment/Personal-Emotional Adjustment at .49 and .42. Further analyzation of data established that size and pattern of subscale intercorrelations relate to constructs of college adjustment (Baker & Siryk, 1999). For each sample used in the 34

administrations of 67-item SACQ, the first element in the factor analysis and principal component analysis showed a large loading for each variable, with the first factor estimating as approximately 60% of the variance. Baker and Siryk (1999) observed a general factor of adjustment to college consistently with the current empirical data from several samples.

The relationship between SACQ scales and independent real-life behaviors was analyzed in a number of studies at Clark University and other colleges/universities (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Studies using the 67-item version were conducted with four subsequent successive freshmen classes at the same institution. There was significant correlation between Academic Adjustment and grade point average (GPA) in five of the six administrations of the 67-item version. No consistently significant correlations of equivalent magnitude were found between any of the other subscales or the Full Scale and GPA (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Other studies at other colleges found similar results. In a study examining socialization and the result of application for dormitory assistant positions, there was a significant relationship between the Social Adjustment subscale and this variable, but not for any other subscales (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Using a validity criteria, it was expected that the means of the Social Adjustment subscale would be highest for the hired students for the dormitory assistant position, next highest for those who were interviewed but not hired, and lowest for those rejected on credentials. This tiered pattern was found and was statistically significant for the Social Adjustment and Attachment subscales and Full Scale, and also on one of the administrations for the Personal-Emotional Adjustment subscale (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Findings on the 67-item questionnaire were slightly different because of changes in the hiring practices.

Data for the 67-item questionnaire provided validity support less consistency for the Social Adjustment subscale than for the Academic Adjustment subscale and the Full Scale. Significant relationships were found between these two variables on first-and second-semester testings for all three freshmen classes studied and on all but one of the eight testings for the four classes that were administered the 67-item SACQ (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

There were significant findings for both testings in all three freshman samples on the Attachment and Social Adjustment subscales. The Academic Adjustment subscale was significantly related to attrition in a portion of the administrations. The Personal-Emotional Adjustment subscale also shows significant correlations between the Attachment subscale and attrition (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

Data Collection

Data collection occurred for 6 weeks (October 27 through December 13, 2015), during the fall semester of sophomore years of student participants. Qualtrics™ (2015) was used to host the web-based demographic questionnaire (Appendix A). The Academic Advising Inventory (Appendix B), the Parental Authority Questionnaire (Appendix C), and the SACQ questionnaire (Appendix D) were also added to Qualtrics™. An email invitation to participate in the survey (Appendix E) that explained the researcher's background, significance of the research, purpose, benefits of participation in the study, and the specific URL for the survey was emailed to First Year Experience Program Directors/Coordinators at selected universities/colleges in the southeastern region of the United States after permission to conduct research was granted by the Institutional Research office of each institution. The web-based survey allowed

automatic storage of participant responses in one database which was transferred to SPSS

for data analysis. The opening page of the web-based survey contained an informed

consent form (Appendix F).   Participants consented to participate in the survey to gain

access to the questionnaire. The informed consent form informed the participant that

participation is voluntary and consent can be withdrawn and/or participation can be

discontinued at any point in time. Participants were informed that their information will

be kept confidential and anonymous.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 20.0, using a sample size of 180, as

indicated by G power. The data analysis used was a 2 (prescriptive and developmental) x

3 (permissive, authoritarian, authoritative) factorial MANOVA analysis. Two 2x3

factorial MANCOVA analyses were also used determining a difference in race (ethnicity)

and gender. In this analysis, there were two independent variables (IVs): academic

advising type and parental styles. The dependent variable (DV) measured college

transition with four subscales: academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-

emotional adjustment, and attachment. The two types of academic advising measured in

this study were developmental and prescriptive academic advising. The three types of

parental styles measured in this study were authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive

parenting. Each type of academic advising type was paired with each type of parental

type as follows: 1) developmental academic advising and authoritative parenting, 2)

developmental academic advising and authoritarian parenting, 3) developmental

academic advising and permissive parenting, 4) prescriptive academic advising and

authoritative parenting, 5) prescriptive academic advising and authoritarian parenting, and 6) prescriptive academic advising and permissive parenting as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

The pairing of IVs academic advising and parental types with DV transition subscales

Academic Advising Types (IV)	Parental Types (IV)	Transition Subscales (DV)
Prescriptive	Permissive	Academic Adjustment
		Social Adjustment
		Personal-Emotional Adjustment
		Attachment
Prescriptive	Authoritarian	Academic Adjustment
		Social Adjustment
		Personal-Emotional Adjustment
		Attachment
Prescriptive	Authoritative	Academic Adjustment
		Social Adjustment
		Personal-Emotional Adjustment
		Attachment
Developmental	Permissive	Academic Adjustment

Table 2 (continued).

Academic Advising Types (IV)	Parental Types (IV)	Transition Subscales (DV)
Developmental	Permissive	Academic Adjustment
		Social Adjustment
		Personal-Emotional Adjustment
		Attachment
		Academic Adjustment
Developmental	Authoritarian	
		Social Adjustment
		Personal-Emotional Adjustment
		Attachment
Developmental	Authoritative	Academic Adjustment
		Social Adjustment
		Personal-Emotional Adjustment
		Attachment

Each of these relationships was also examined on race/ethnicity (African American, Afro Caribbean, Asian Pacific Islander, Asian East Indian, Latino/Hispanic, Native American/Native Intuit, Caucasian, or other and gender (male or female). The two MANCOVAs executed were: academic advising type x parental type x ethnicity and academic advising type x parental type x gender.

CHAPTER IV – RESULTS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to identify relationships between academic advising types and parental types on college transition. Sophomore students from five 4-year public colleges/universities in the southeastern region of the United States were asked to participate in the study. The researcher contacted 20 different colleges/universities in the southeastern region of the United States to recruit sophomore students to participate in this study. Five colleges/universities, via First-Year Experience programs, First Year Experience like programs, or Institutional Research Departments agreed to assist in emailing sophomore students an invitation to participate in this study. The researcher estimated that approximately 16,600 sophomore students received an invitation to participate in this study. The researcher was granted permission to use the following instruments: Academic Advising Inventory (Appendix B), Parental Authority Questionnaire (Appendix C), and Student Adaptive to College Questionnaire (Appendix D). Qualtrics™ (2015) was used as the platform for this web-based survey which was accessible to invited student participants for a 6-week period via specific URL. The data collection process began on October 27, 2015 and ended on December 13, 2015. The Academic Advisement Inventory, Part I (Appendix B) is comprised of 14 items which form the Developmental-Prescriptive Advising Scale (DPA). The DPA scale describes the nature of the advising relationship and the breadth of topics and concerns addressed during an advising session, representing a continuum between prescriptive and developmental academic advising perceived by students (Winston & Sandor, 2002). The Parental Authority Questionnaire (Appendix C) is comprised of 30 items per parent and

produces permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative scores for both parents, mother and father. The Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (Appendix D) consists of 67 items that measured the four principal subscales that focus on certain aspects of college adjustment: academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional attachment (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

A total of 193 sophomore students elected to participate in this study. Upon expiration of the six-week data collection period, raw data were downloaded from Qualtrics™ (2015) to SPSS version 23. Most of the frequencies and demographics are presented in table or graph format.

Scoring of Instruments

Scoring of AAI, Part I

According to scoring instructions of AAI, the items were recoded. For Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 9, 13: A = 8, B=7, C=6, D=5, E=4, F=3, G=2, and H=1. For Items 2, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14: A=1, B=2, C=3, D=4, E=5, F=6, G=7, and H=8. Further directions were to sum the items. If the sum score for each participant was anywhere from 14-56, they were classified as having received prescriptive academic advising and if the sum score was from 57-112, they were classified as having developmental academic advising. It was noticed that about 125 of the 193 participants answered some or all of the 14 items in AAI Questionnaire incorrectly, therefore an average score instead of sum scores was computed for each participant for the AAI Questionnaire, which was a substitution for missing data. Instead of using the sum score ranges as indicated above, the following average scores were used for classifying advising types: prescriptive advising = 0-4.0; developmental academic advising = 4.0 -8.0.

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Scoring of PAQ

PAQ has three subscales (permissive, authoritarian and authoritative style). Each individual item on each subscale was added. Subscale #1 (Permissive Style) included the following items: 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24, and 28. Subscale #2 (Authoritarian Style) included the following items: 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26, and 29. Subscale #3 (Authoritative Style) included the following items: 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 23, 27, and 30. Parents' style was determined by taking the highest score of the range 10-30 for each subscale. If a subject or participant had a tie between the parental styles, they were not included in the data for data analysis.

Scoring of SACQ

Sum scores were computed via SPSS, Version 23, for each subscale (Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Personal-Emotional Adjustment, and Institutional Attachment) and full scale of the SACQ instrument. Items #26 and #33 were allowed to be missing if the student did not live in a dormitory or have a roommate, respectively. If any other items were missing, sum scores had to be calculated by hand, and a prorated average score was calculated for the missing item (no more than two). If there were more than two items missing (participant did not answer a question) for the SACQ, there was no prorated score calculated, and that item was not included in the sum score equation.

Survey results are explained as follows: demographics, discussion of research questions one through five, and a conclusion that summarizes the results of the study.

<div align="center">Demographics</div>

Demographic characteristic information was collected for each student participant on age, gender, race, name of college/university attending, undergraduate classification,

first-year generation college student status, degree pursuing, program of study, and type

of academic advisement personnel/center used. The majority of students who

participated in the study were white (Caucasian), female, traditional age sophomore

students (between the ages of 18-20).

Student Race

Race was used as an independent variable in this study because it was important

to determine whether or not there was an interaction among type of academic advising,

parental type, and race on freshmen college student transition. Table 3 and 4 illustrates

that a majority of the respondents in the survey reported Caucasian as race, while 26.4%

of the respondents in this survey were non-white (African American: 22.3%, Asian

Pacific Islander: 1.6%, Latino/Hispanic: 2.1%, Other: .5%).

Table 3

Student Race, Part I

Race	Frequency	Percentage
African American	43	22.3
Asian Pacific Islander	3	1.6
Latino/Hispanic	4	2.1
Caucasian	142	73.6
Other	1	.5
Total	193	100.0

Table 4

Student Race, Part 2

Race	Frequency	Percentage
Non-White	51	26.4
Caucasian (White)	142	73.6
Total	193	100.0

Student Gender

Gender was used as an independent variable in this study because it was important to determine whether or not there was an interaction among type of academic advising, parental types, and gender on freshmen college student transition. As shown in Figure 1 or Table 5, more females participated than did males in this study.

Table 5

Student Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	55	28.5
Female	138	71.5
Total	193	100.0
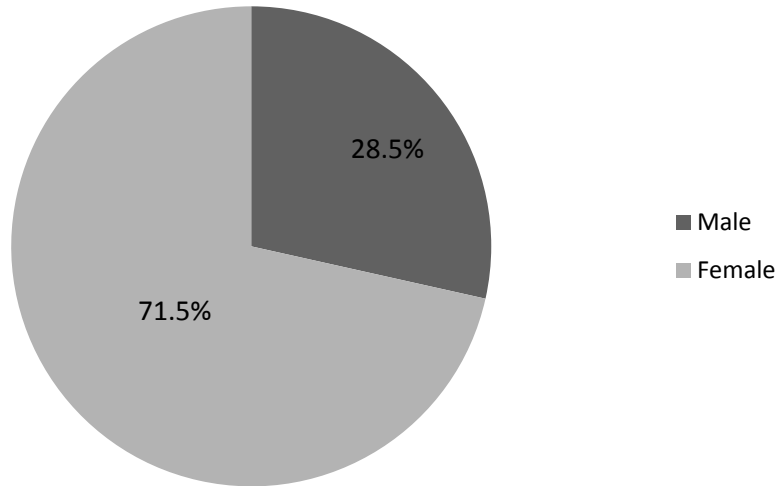
Figure 1. Student Gender.

Additional demographic characteristics, including age, college/university attending, undergraduate classification, and first generation of immediate family attending college status are listed in Table 6.

Table 6

Additional Demographic Characteristics of Students

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Student Age		
18	20	10.4
19	101	52.3
20	35	18.1
21-25	18	9.4
26-30	7	3.6
31-40	7	3.5

Table 6 (continued).

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
41-60	6	3.0
Total	193	100.0
First-generation students of immediate family		
Yes	43	22.3
No	150	77.7
Total	193	100.0
Undergraduate sophomore class status		
1st semester sophomore	142	73.6
2nd semester sophomore	33	17.1
Other	18	9.3
Total	193	100.0

Five southeastern region institutions participated in this study. The frequency of student participation for each institution is shown in Table 7 or Figure 2.

Table 7 .

Southwest Region Institution Participants

SE Region Institution	Frequency	Percent
Jackson State University	30	15.5
The University of Alabama	73	37.8
The University of Southern Mississippi	23	11.9

Table 7 (continued).

SE Region Institution	Frequency	Percent
University of Louisiana at Lafayette	66	34.2
University of Mississippi	1	.5
Total	193	100.0
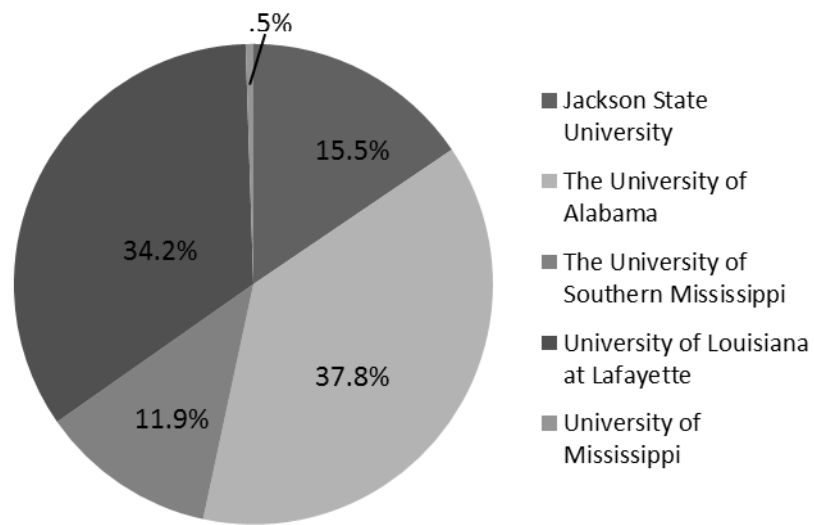
Figure 2. Southeastern Region Institutional Participants

Information about the type of Academic Advisor or Center was also collected, as shown

in Table 8.

Table 8

Type of Academic Advisor/Center

Type of Academic Advisor/Center	Frequency	Percentage
Assigned Faculty Academic Advisor	146	75.6
Non-Faculty Academic Advisor	8	4.1

Table 8 (continued).

Type of Academic Advisor/Center	Frequency	Percentage
Academic Advising Center	26	13.5
Career Counselor	9	4.7
Peer Academic Advisor	3	1.6
Did not answer	1	.5
Total	193	100.0

Table 9

Degree Pursuing

Type of Degree	Frequency	Percentage
Bachelors of Arts/Science	181	93.78
Masters	4	2..07
Doctorate	4	2.07
Undecided	1	.52
Did not answer	3	1.55
Total	193	100.0

Type of program of study was also sought for each participant. The frequency of type of

program is shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Program of Study

Program	Frequency	Percentage
Accounting	3	1.55
Allied Health	1	.52
Anthropology and/or Sociology	2	1.04
Architecture	1	.52
Athletic Training/Telecommunications	1	.52
Biology (General, Marine Biology) or Biology (Pre-Med)	14	7.25
Business/Business Admin.	8	4.15
Chemistry	3	1.55
Communications	2	1.04
Communicative Disorders	1	.52
Computer Science	1	.52
Computer Science and Engineering	1	.52
Consumer Science	1	.52
Criminal Justice	5	2.59
Culinary	1	.52
Cytotechnology	1	.52
Dance	1	.52
Dental Hygiene	1	.52

Table 10 (continued).

Education (Early Childhood, General, Secondary, Special Needs)	10	5.18
Engineering (Aerospace, Automotive, Biological, Chemical, Civil, Computer, Electrical, Environmental, Mechanical, Petroleum, Software)	23	11.92
English/English Lit/Creative Writing	5	2.59
Environmental Science	1	.52
Finance	2	1.04
Food and Nutrition	2	1.04
Forensics	1	.52
General Business/Pre-Dental	1	.52
General Health Studies	1	.52
Geology	1	.52
History	3	1.55
Human Devt/Family Studies	1	.52
Human Resources	1	.52
Kinesiology	3	1.55
Law (Pre-law)	2	1.04
Liberal Arts	2	1.04
Literature, Arts & Society	1	.52
Management/Management Info Systems	2	1.04

Table 10 (continued).

Marketing/Sales	2	1.04
Mathematics	3	1.55
Moving Image Arts	2	1.04
Music/Music Education	2	1.04
Nursing and Allied Health	9	4.66
Occupational Therapy	1	.52
Pharmacy/pharmacist tech	2	1.04
Physical Education	2	1.04
Physical Therapy	2	1.04
Physics	3	1.55
Political Science and/or Economics	2	1.04
Psychology	6	3.11
Public Relations	1	.52
Science and/or nursing	2	1.04
Social Work	3	1.55
Speech Pathology	1	.52
Surgical Technology	1	.52
Theatre and/or Psychology	2	1.04
Visual Arts	2	1.04
Undecided	2	1.04
Did not answer	33	17.10

As shown in Table 11, fifty-six subjects accounted for the missing data due to incorrectly

answering items for the AAI questionnaire and tied scores of the PAQ instrument.

Table 11 .

Academic Advising Type Frequencies

Academic Advisement Type	Frequency	Percentage
Prescriptive	39	20.2
Developmental	98	50.8
Missing	56	29.0

Table 12 shows the frequencies of parental types. The 56 missing accounted for those

subjects who answered items incorrectly on the AAI instrument and who tied when

summing scores for parental types in the PAQ instrument.

Table 12 .

Parental Type Frequencies

Parental Type	Frequency	Percentage
Permissive	7	3.63
Authoritarian	56	29.0
Authoritative	74	38.3
Missing	56	29.0

A two-way MANOVA was conducted to answer research questions 1 through 3,

while a three-way MANCOVA was conducted to answer research questions 4 and 5. The

Academic Advising Inventory, Part I (AAI, Part I), the Parental Authority Questionnaire,

and the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ) were used to determine the advisement types, parental types, and college transition, respectively.

The assumptions underlining the Box's Test of Equality Covariance for the two-way MANOVA were not violated, F (45, 9019.78) = 1.128, p = .258. Therefore, the researcher can assume there was equality of covariance. Levene's test was not violated, therefore, there was homogeneity of variance. Main effects and interaction effects of the two-way MANOVA will be discussed in research question one through three.

Research Question One

Research Question One: Does type of academic advising relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)? The Academic Advising Inventory, Part I (AAI, Part I) and the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ) were used to determine the advisement types and college transition, respectively. A two-way MANOVA was conducted to determine if the type of academic advising significantly affected college transition (academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment). A total of 137 subjects, were used to run this analysis, with 39 subjects accounting for prescriptive academic advising and 98 subjects accounting for developmental academic advising. There was no significant main effect of type of academic advising on college transition in this study, F (5,127) = 1.537, p=.183, r^2=.057.

Research Question Two

Research Question Two: Does parental type relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)? The two-way MANOVA determined if parental type affected college transition. There was a

significant main effect, F (5, 254) = 2.243, p=.016, r^2= .081, of parental type on college transition.

There were between groups main effects of parental type on the subscale, academic adjustment, F (2,131) = 4.348, p =.015, r^2= .062, and the subscale, social adjustment, F(2,131) = 3.301, p = .040, r^2= .048. There were no main effects on the subscales, personal-emotional adjustment, F(2,131) = .171, p = .843, r^2= .003 and institutional attachment, F(2,131) = 1.503, p = .226, r^2= .022.

Table 13 shows planned contrasts between parental type and subscales of college transition. There was a significant difference between permissive and authoritarian parental types on the subscale (dependent variable), social adjustment. There was also a significant difference between authoritarian and authoritative parental type on the subscale (dependent variable), academic adjustment. There were no significant effects of parental type on personal emotional adjustment or institutional attachment, p > .05.

Table 13

Parental Type Effect on Subscales (Dependent Variables) of College Transition

Parental Types	Subscale (Dependent Variable)	Sig.
Permissive Vs. Authoritarian	Social Adjustment	.012
Authoritarian Vs. Authoritative	Academic Adjustment	.008

According to Figure 3, students adjusted better academically with parents who were authoritative (Authoritative Parental Type, M=122.0, Authoritarian Parental Type, M=118.0, and Permissive Parental Type, M=115.0). As shown in figure 3, the mean for

academic adjustment was higher for students with authoritative parents in comparison to students with permissive and authoritarian parents
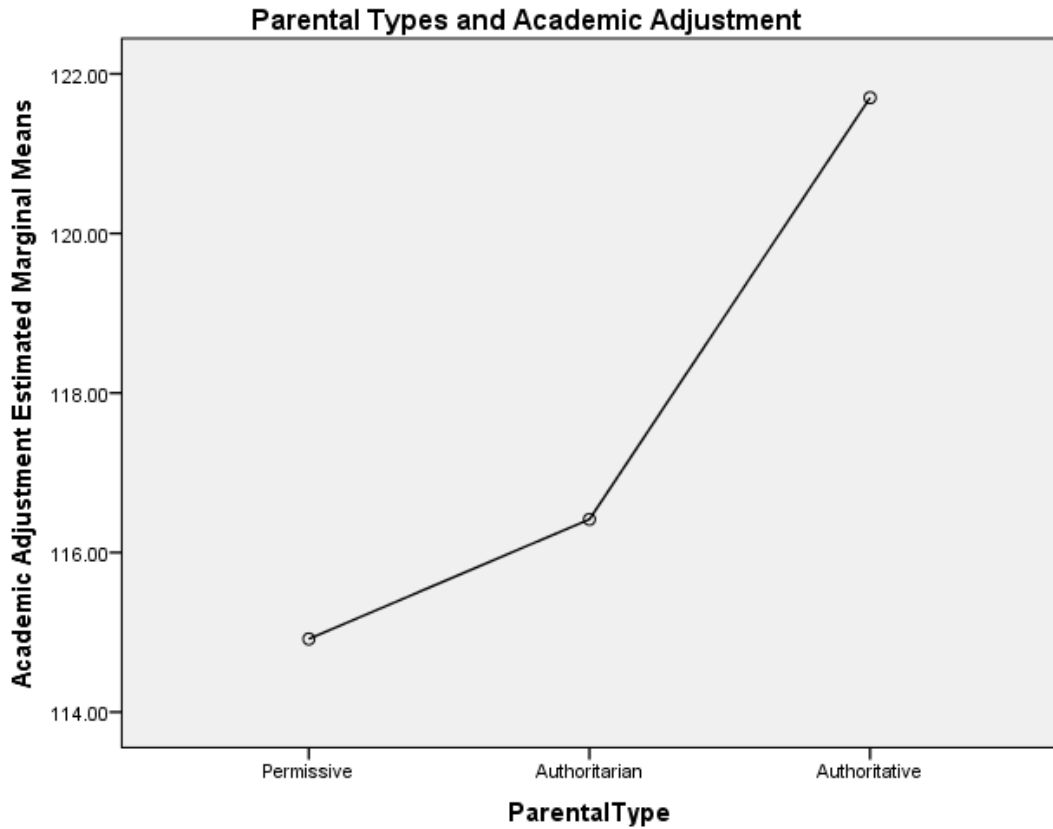
Figure 3. Parental Types and Academic Adjustment.

Parental Types and Academic Adjustment

According to Figure 4, students adjusted better socially with parents who were permissive, as shown with the downward slope (Permissive Parental Type, M=105, Authoritarian Parental Type, M=93.0, and Authoritative Parental Type, M=96.0). As shown in figure 4, the mean for social adjustment for students of permissive parents was higher in comparison to students with authoritarian and authoritative parents.
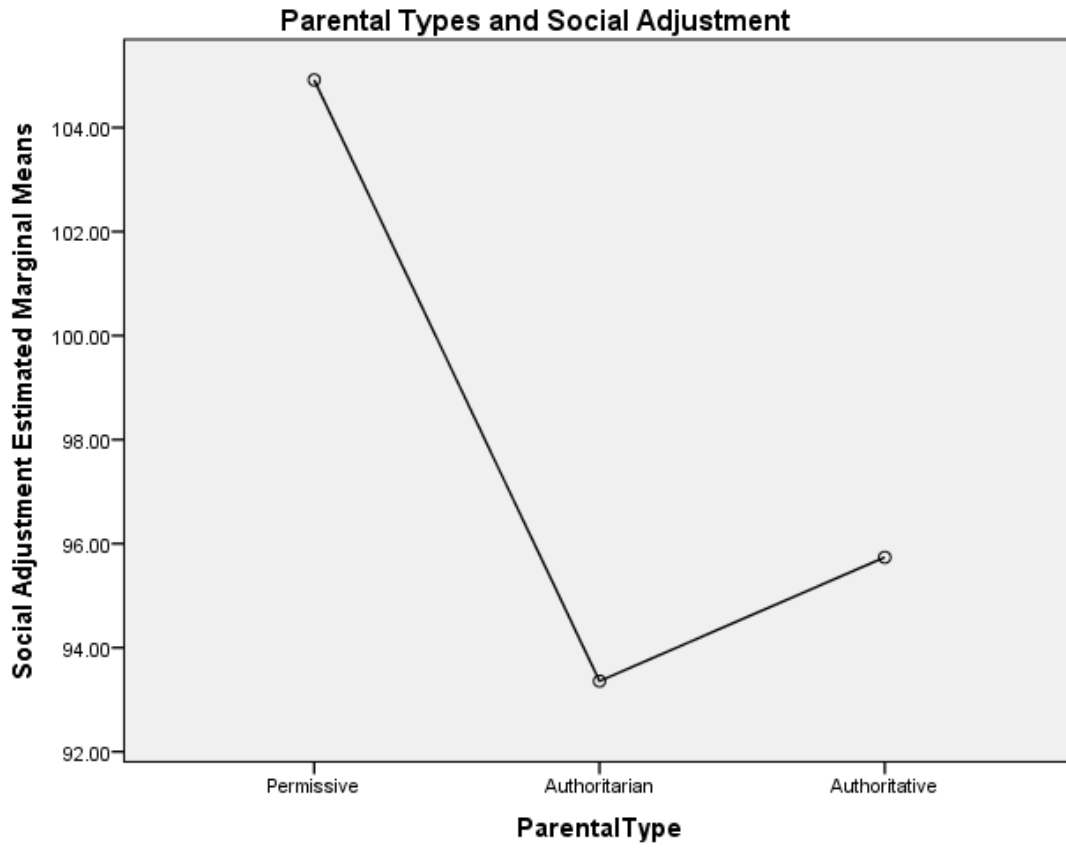
Figure 4. Parental Types and Social Adjustment.

According to Table 14, a post hoc test revealed there was no significant effect for permissive and authoritative parental type on any of the subscales (dependent variables) of college transition.

Table 14

Relationship of Permissive and Authoritative Parental Types on College Transition

Dependent Variable	Sig.
Academic Adjustment	.194
Social Adjustment	.155

Table 14 (continued).

Dependent Variable	Sig.
Personal-Emotional Adjustment	.998
Institutional Attachment	.595

Research Question Three

Research Question Three: Is there an interaction among the type of academic advising and parental types on freshmen college student transition? Using a two-way MANOVA, the researcher found no significant interaction of academic advising type and parental type on college transition, $F(10,254) = 1.244$, $p = .263$, $r^2 = .046$.

Research Question Four

Research Question Four: Is there an interaction among the type of academic advising, parental types, and ethnicity (race) on freshmen college student transition? Using a three-way MACOVA, the researcher found no significant interaction of academic advisement type, parental type, and ethnicity (race) on college transition, $F(10,240) = .813$, $p = .617$, $r^2 = .033$. The assumptions for the Box's Test Equality Covariance for the three-way MANCOVA, academic advisement type x parental type x race, was violated due to significance, $F (75, 4450.71) = 1.295$, $p = .045$, therefore we cannot assume equality of covariance.

Research Question Five

Research question five: Is there an interaction among the type of academic advising, parental types, and gender on freshmen college student transition? Using a three-way MANCOVA, the researcher found no significant interaction of academic

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advisement type, parental type, and gender on college transition, F (10,240) = 1.338 , p = .211, r^2= .053. The assumptions underlining the Box's Test of Equality Covariance for the three-way MANCOVA, academic advising types x parental types x gender, was not violated, F(90, 6420) = 1.241, p = .062, therefor we can assume equality of covariance.

Summary of Results

Findings showed that parental types are related to transition of the freshmen students to college. The majority of the student participants in the study reported white (Caucasian), female, traditional age sophomore students (between the ages of 18-20). The majority of students also reported receiving developmental academic advising and authoritative parental type.

Survey findings showed that student transition into college is unrelated to academic advising types, race, or gender. A relationship was only significantly related to parental type. Research findings showed that students adjusted better academically with parents who were authoritative and adjusted more socially with parents who were permissive.

CHAPTER V – DISCUSSION

Academic advising has become a major strategy for helping retain students in higher education (Campbell & Nutt, 2008; Cuseo, 2005; Drake, 2011; Freeman, 2008). Many institutions have adjusted advising strategies and incorporated more developmental ways of advising students to satisfy students' academic and personal needs as well as assisting in making their matriculation a smoother transition (Freeman, 2008). Drake (2011) indicated that we are in an era where simply opening the doors to students to discuss class registration is not enough. Institutions must now be more concerned about improving retention rates and institutional accountability by focusing on solid academic advising (Freeman, 2008).

There is no set standard way of incorporating a developmental academic advising. Some institutions have used various developmental academic advising models such as a teacher advising model, while others have used an approach of more frequent advising sessions (Drake, 201; Freeman, 2008). The common denominator in the developmental approach of academic advising is establishing a relationship with the advisor and student in such a way that the student feels comfortable in expressing his or her scholastic and professional ambitions or asking for academic advice (O'Banion, 1972).

This study examined whether there is a relationship among academic advising types, parental types, and college transition of the freshmen college student. Based on research that established that developmental academic advising has a positive influence on transition and retention rates in higher education, this study sought to determine whether having information about a student's parental type may help academic advisors in the advising process when establishing a relationship with the student. This chapter

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provides a summary of this study, a discussion of the conclusion, limitations of the study, recommendations for practice, recommendations for future research, and concludes with final thoughts on academic advising.

Summary

This study was designed to explore if there was a relationship between academic advising types and parental types on college transition of the freshmen college students. An additional aim was to determine if academic advisement and parental type was related to race or gender. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Does type of academic advising relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)?

2. Does type of parental type relate to freshmen college student transition (academically, socially, personal-emotionally, and institution attachment)?

3. Is there an interaction of the type of academic advising and parental types for freshmen college student transition?

4. Is there an interaction of the type of academic advising, parental types, and ethnicity for freshmen college student transition?

5. Is there an interaction of the type of academic advising, parental types, and gender for freshmen college student transition?

A total of 193 sophomore students voluntarily consented to participate in this study.

Conclusion and Discussions

Research Question One

There was a failure to find evidence of differences between types of academic advising as it effects freshmen college transition. The findings suggest that there is no relationship of academic advisement with freshmen college transition. These findings contradict with the findings of Gardner (2009) and Frost (1991) who found that quality or effective academic advising improves retention rates, college persistence, and success in college. A majority of subjects indicated they were recipients of developmental (N=98) than prescriptive academic advising (N=39) in this study and this may have significantly affected the results of this research question. While developmental academic advising increased students' involvement and motivation, this study failed to provide significant evidence in type of academic advising and its role on academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, or institution attachment.

An important finding in this research study is that most participants indicated they were recipients of developmental academic advising, which indicates that that the developmental approach to academic advising may have become the chosen form of advising in many colleges and universities.

Research Question Two

The findings of this research study provided statistically significant evidence that there was a difference between parental type and subscales, academic and social adjustment. Research findings failed to provide statistically significant evidence showing differences between parental types, personal-emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment. Further findings showed that students revealed higher academic adjustment

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mean scores with parents who were authoritative and higher social adjustment mean scores with parents who were permissive. These findings align with the findings of Baumrind (1971, 1989), who found that the authoritative parent is associated with children being more competent, responsible, social, and independent in comparison to the permissive and authoritarian parent. Baumrind (1989) found that the permissive and authoritarian parent lacks given support or providing coping skills to children when faced with challenges resulting in the child becoming less responsible or independent.

Research Question Three

There was no significant interaction between academic advising type and parental type on college transition of the freshmen college student. There were no previous studies that examined this interaction. It can be noted that the high frequency of developmental academic advising participants in this study reported receiving may have significantly affected the result for this research question.

Research Question Four

There was no significant interaction found of academic advising type, parental type, and race on college transition, which suggests that race does not play a role in college transition when paired with academic advising and parental types. This study had a very high frequency of Caucasian participants, which may have affected the result of this research question. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2015), more white students (32.9%) than non-white students (26.7%) were enrolled for fall 2014. This current trend in enrollment could affect future studies that involve comparing race.

Research Question Five

There was no significant interaction between academic advising type, parental type and gender on freshmen college transition. This study had a high frequency of female participants, which may have affected the outcome of this research question. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2015), more women (33.2%) than men (26.4%) were enrolled for fall 2014.

Limitations

One limitation of this study was the use of a convenience sample in selecting schools that were public four-year colleges/universities in the southeastern region of the United States. The findings of this study do not represent the general population of all universities or colleges of the United States.

Another limitation for this study would be the small number of participants. A larger sample might have resulted in finding differences and stronger relationships. One issue was that the researcher had difficulty getting approval from several colleges or universities that she approached. Many schools denied permission to participate in the study or distribute email invitations due to the university's policies and procedures regarding surveying. Many schools also opted out of participating due to the overuse of surveying students.

Another limitation to the study was the lack of diversity in this particular sample. A majority of students who participated in this study reported being Caucasian, female, and the recipients of developmental academic advising. A more diverse and larger population of students may have shown more differences or relationships.

Another limitation of this study was the inability to include all 193 subjects due to participants answering the AAI questionnaire incorrectly. In order to retain adequate data, the scoring of means was calculated instead of calculating sum scores for this instrument. Using the means gave an average of the responses that were valid. If the sum scores were used, the total scores would have been understated because of the missing values. It was therefore assumed that the average of what was answered valid was equivalent to what would have been answered correctly for all items, meaning taking average scores instead of the sum score was the next best solution in determining type of advising for each participant, which was a substitution for the missing data. This limitation may have also contributed to the actual number of students indicating that they were the recipients of prescriptive versus developmental advising.

Although the research findings of this study showed little significance, it is important to note that the significance of non-significance may be contributed to the following factors: a lack of a strong sample and measurement error within the AAI, Part I instrument. The sample of this study intended to represent colleges and universities of the southeastern region of the United States, however, participants from only five colleges or universities agreed to participate in the study. In addition, the collection of participants failed to represent all races or gender equally. The measurement of error within the AAI, Part I instrument is evident with the percentage of participants answering the questionnaire incorrectly, which resulted in a decrease in subjects used for the data analysis. It is important to address the outcomes for future research studies.

Recommendations for Practice

Developmental academic advising seems to be the preferred method of advising students in higher education (Campbell & Nutt, 2008; Gardner 2009). Developmental academic advising should continue to be implemented in the advising process by academic advisors in colleges or universities. Hunter and White (2004) state that refined and properly examined academic advising may be the exclusive way to guarantee students a relationship with a caring and concerned adult, which is important for students to transition in college effectively.

To continue improving college transition through developmental academic advisement, one recommendation is to provide academic advisors with information about students' parental background. According to this study, the type of parenting relates to how students adjust academically and socially. Knowing this information, could give academic advisors more insight on how to advise students.

In addition to college transition, it is important to increase college persistence by expanding programs or services that have proven successful persistence and transition throughout the years (Habley, Bloom, & Robbins, 2012). Quality academic advising, assessment and developmental education, and student transition are examples of services that continue to increase college transition and persistence (Habley et al., 2012). According to Drake (2011), student success is highly important to the institutions of higher education and policy makers, therefore, it is imperative that student success is cultivated through services such as academic advising.

Another recommendation to academic advising is to always be welcoming and available for advising students or listening to students' concerns or ideas. As Drake

(2011) emphasized, academic advising, communicating, and mentoring leads to student success and persistence. Some students transition with little effort, while others may need a little extra guidance (Frost, 1991). It is essential to be there for the student that requires more advice as well as be available for the student who just needs someone to talk to.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Future Research</div>

This study only examined five four-year public colleges and universities of the southeastern region of the United States. Examining other four-year or two-year, public and private colleges from other geographical regions of the United States may provide more information regarding an interaction of academic advising type and parental type of college transition.

This study could also be improved by making sure the directions are clear for the Academic Advising Inventory questionnaire. Students were confused on how to answer these questions correctly, which resulted in inaccurate data and may have affected the outcome of the results. Therefore, to prevent this problem in future research, the researcher recommends that the instructions for completing the instrument could be revised.

Repeating this study with a larger and more diverse sample of students who equally report different academic advising types and parental types would provide more information on any relationships or differences of academic advising types and parental types on college transition.

A possible suggestion would be to conduct a longitudinal study, following the same group of students as they matriculate through all four years of college. A

longitudinal study would allow examination of how students transition from year to year over a four or five year span.

Although this study showed no interaction of race or gender on academic advising types, parental types and college transition, important to this study would be a follow-up study that measures the interaction of demographics, such as race, gender, or age on type of academic advising, parental type, and college transition. The follow-up study should include participants of a more diverse population pool of different races, gender, and ages.

<div align="center">Concluding Thoughts</div>

Quality and effective academic advising is an important aspect in college student transition. While there is no specific outline of what academic advising should entail, according to Gardner (2009), developmental academic advising relates to higher retention rates and persistence. Understanding students academically or socially, as well as their parental background, can only enhance the developmental academic advising process. According to this study, understanding a student's parental background can help advisors understand his/her academic, social, personal-emotional, or attachment behaviors. More importantly, it is important for academic advisors to examine each student individually. Not every student transitions into college the same way, therefore, having a thorough understanding of students' background, academic, social, and personal goals is a positive start to helping students transition into college

APPENDIX A - Demographic Information Questionnaire

Please complete all the categories to the best of your ability.

Are you over the age of 18 years? _____ Yes _____ No   If NO, Please EXIT this survey.

1. Sex: _____ Male _____ Female
2. Age: _____
3. Race/Ethnicity
   a. _____ African American
   b. _____ Afro Caribbean
   c. _____ Asian Pacific Islander
   d. _____ Asian East Indian
   e. _____ Latino/Hispanic
   f. _____ Native American/Alaskan Intuit
   g. _____ Caucasian
   h. _____ Other (Specify) _____

4. Name of College or University:

   _____

5. Undergraduate school classification:
   a. _____ Sophomore _____ 1st semester _____ 2nd semester

6. Are you of the first generation of your immediate family to attend college?
   _____Yes _____No

7. Degree pursuing: _____

8. Program of study: _____

9. Advising Type Received:
   a. Assigned Faculty member   _____ Yes _____No
   b. Non-Faculty Academic Advisor   _____ Yes _____No
   c. Academic Advising Center   _____Yes _____No
   d. Career Counselor   _____Yes _____No
   e. Peer Academic Advisor   _____Yes _____No

APPENDIX B - Academic Advising Inventory, Part I

Roger B. Winston, Jr. and Janet A. Sandor

Part I of this Inventory concerns how you and your advisor approach academic advising. Even if you have had more than one advisor or have been in more than one type of advising situation this year, please respond to the statements in terms of your current situation.

There are 14 pairs of statements in Part I. You must make two decisions about each pair in order to respond: (1) decide which one of the two statements most accurately describes the academic advising you received this year, and then (2) decide how accurate or true that statement is (from very true to slightly true).

EXAMPLE

80. My advisor plans my schedule.   **OR**   My advisor and I plan my schedule together.

A--------------B--------------C--------------D   E--------------F-----------G---------H
very true   slightly true   very true   slightly true

EXPLANATION: *In this example, the student has chosen the statement on the right as more descriptive of his or her academic advising this year, and determined that the statement is toward the slightly true end (response F).*

Table A1. *Academic Advising Inventory, Part I*

A Very true	B	C	D Slightly true		E Slightly true	F	G	H Very true

		OR	
1.	My advisor is interested in helping me learn how to find out about courses and programs for myself.	OR	My advisor tells me what I need to know about academic courses and programs.
2.	My advisor tells me what would be the best schedule for me.		My advisor suggests important considerations in planning a schedule and then gives me responsibility for the final decision.

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3. My advisor and I talk about vocational opportunities in conjunction with advising.					My advisor and I do not talk about vocational opportunities in conjunction with advising.		
4. My advisor shows an interest in my outside of-class activities and sometimes suggests activities.					My advisor does not know what I do outside of class.		
5. My advisor assists me in identifying realistic academic goals based on what I know about myself, as well as about my test scores and grades.					My advisor identifies realistic academic goals for me based on my test scores and grades.		
6. My advisor registers me for my classes.					My advisor teaches me how to register myself for classes.		
7. When I'm faced with difficult decisions my advisor tells me my alternatives and which one is the best choice.					When I'm faced with difficult decisions, my advisor assists me in identifying alternatives and in considering the consequences of choosing each alternative.		
8. My advisor does not know who to contact about other-than-academic problems.					My advisor knows who to contact about other-than-academic problems.		
9. My advisor gives me tips on managing my time better or on studying more effectively when I seem to need them.					My advisor does not spend time giving me tips on managing my time better or on studying more effectively.		
10. My advisor tells me what I must do in order to be advised.					My advisor and I discuss our expectations of advising and of each other.		
11. My advisor suggests what I should major in.					My advisor suggests steps I can take to help me decide on a major.		
12. My advisor uses test scores and grades to let him or her know what courses are most appropriate for me to take.					My advisor and I use information, such as test scores, grades, interests, and abilities, to determine what courses are most appropriate for me to take.		
13. My advisor talks with me about my otherthan-academic interests and plans.					My advisor does not talk with me about interests and plans other than academic ones.		
14. My advisor keeps me informed of my academic progress by examining my files and grades *only*.					My advisor keeps informed of my academic progress by examining my files and grades and by talking to me about my classes.		
A Very true	B	C	D Slightly true		E Slightly true	F	G	H Very true

APPENDIX C - Parental Authority Questionnaire

Instructions: For each of the following statements, select the number of the 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your mother. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your mother during your years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. We are looking for your overall impression regarding each statement. Be sure not to omit any items.

　　　1 = Strongly disagree
　　　2 = Disagree
　　　3 = Neither agree nor disagree
　　　4 = Agree
　　　5 = Strongly Agree

Table A2. *Parental Authority Questionnaire*

1. While I was growing up my mother felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Even if her children didn't agree with her, my mother felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what she thought was right.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Whenever my mother told me to do something as I was growing up, she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4	5
4. As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my mother discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My mother has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My mother has always felt that what her children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.	1	2	3	4	5
7. As I was growing up my mother did not allow me to question any decision she had made.	1	2	3	4	5
8. As I was growing up my mother directed the activities and					

decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My mother has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	1	2	3	4	5
10. As I was growing up my mother did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them.	1	2	3	4	5
11. As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my mother when I felt that they were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My mother felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
13. As I was growing up, my mother seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Most of the time as I was growing up my mother did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
15. As the children in my family were growing up, my mother consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways.	1	2	3	4	5
16. As I was growing up my mother would get very upset if I tried to disagree with her.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My mother feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
18. As I was growing up my mother let me know what behavior she expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations, she punished me.	1	2	3	4	5
19. As I was growing up my mother allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from her.	1	2	3	4	5
20. As I was growing up my mother took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but she would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My mother did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing up.	1	2	3	4	5

22. My mother had clear standards of behavior for the children in our home as I was growing up, but she was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My mother gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and she expected me to follow her direction, but she was always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	1	2	3	4	5
24. As I was growing up my mother allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and she generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.	1	2	3	4	5
25. My mother has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
26. As I was growing up my mother often told me exactly what she wanted me to do and how she expected me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
27. As I was growing up my mother gave me clear direction for my behaviors and activities, but she was also understanding when I disagreed with her.	1	2	3	4	5
28. As I was growing up my mother did not direct the behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
29. As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in the family and she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for her authority.	1	2	3	4	5
30. As I was growing up, if my mother made a decision in the family that hurt me, she was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if she had made a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5

Description: The PAQ is designed to measure parental authority, or disciplinary

practices, from the point of view of the child (of any age).

The PAQ has three subscales:

permissive (P: items 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24 and 28), authoritarian (A: items 2, 3,

7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26 and 29), and authoritative/flexible (F: items 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22,

23, 27, and 30). Mother and father forms of the assessment are identical except for

references to gender.

Scoring: The PAQ is scored easily by summing the individual items to comprise the

subscale scores. Scores on each subscale range from 10 to 50.

APPENDIX D - Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire

Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire: These 67 items describe college experiences. Read each one and decide how well it applies to you at the present time (within the past few days). Only select one box for each item using the following scale:

Table A3. *Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. I feel that I fit in well as part of the college environment.									
2. I have been feeling tense or nervous lately.									
3. I have been keeping up to date on my academic work.									
4. I am meeting as many people , and making as many friends as I would like at college.									
5. I know why I'm in college and what I want out of it.									
6. I am finding academic work at college difficult.									
7. Lately, I have been feeling blue and moody a lot.									
8. I am very involved with social activities in college.									
9. I am adjusting well to college.									
10. I have not been functioning well during examinations.									
11. I have felt tired much of the time lately.									
12. Being on my own, taking responsibility for myself, has not been easy.									
13. I am satisfied with the level at which I am performing academically.									
14. I have had informal, personal contacts with college professors.									
15. I am pleased now about my decision to go to college.									
16. I am pleased now about my decision to attend college in particular.									
17. I'm not working as hard as I should at my course work.									
18. I have several close social ties at college.									
19. My academic goals and purposes are well defined.									
20. I haven't been able to control my emotions									

very well lately.

21. I'm not really smart enough to the academic work I am expected to be doing now.

22. Lonesomeness for home is a source of difficulty for me now.

23. Getting a college degree is very important to me.

24. My appetite has been good lately.

25. I haven't been very efficient in the use of study time lately.

26. I enjoy living in a college dormitory. (Please omit if you do not live in a dormitory; any university housing should be regarded as a dormitory.)

27. I enjoy writing papers for courses.

28. I have been having a lot of headaches lately.

29. I really haven't had much motivation for studying lately.

30. I am satisfied with the extracurricular activities available at college.

31. I've given a lot of thought lately to whether I should ask for help from the Psychological/Counseling Services Center or from a psychotherapist outside of college.

32. Lately I have been having doubts regarding the value of a college education.

33. I am getting along very well with my roommate(s) at college. (Please omit if you do not have a roommate.)

34. I wish I were at another college or university.

35. I've put on (or lost) too much weight recently.

36. I am satisfied with the number and variety of courses available at college.

37. I feel that I have enough social skills to get along well in the college setting.

38. I have been getting angry too easily lately.

39. Recently I have had trouble concentrating when I try to study.

40. I haven't been sleeping well lately.

41. I'm not doing well enough academically for the amount of work I put in.

42. I am having difficulty feeling at ease with

other people at college.

43. I am satisfied with the extent to which I am participating in social activities at college.

44. I am attending class regularly.

45. Sometimes my thinking gets muddled up too easily.

46. I am satisfied with the extent to which I am participating in social activities at college.

47. I expect to stay at this college for a bachelor's degree.

48. I haven't been mixing too well with the opposite sex lately.

49. I worry a lot about my college expenses.

50. I am enjoying my academic work at college.

51. I have been feeling lonely a lot at college lately.

52. I am having a lot of trouble getting started on homework assignments.

53. I feel I have good control over my life situation at college.

54. I am satisfied with my program of courses for this semester/quarter.

55. I have been feeling in good health lately.

56. I feel I am very different from other students at college in ways that I don't like.

57. On balance, I would rather be home than here.

58. Most of the things I am interested in are not related to any of my course work at college.

59. Lately I have been giving a lot of thought to transferring to another college.

60. Lately I have been giving a lot of thought to dropping out of college altogether and for good.

61. I find myself giving considerable thought to taking time off from college and finishing later.

62. I am very satisfied with the professors I have now in my courses.

63. I have some good friends or acquaintances at college with whom I can talk about any problems I may have.

64. I am experiencing a lot of difficulty coping with the stresses imposed upon me in

	college.
65.	I am quite satisfied with my social life at college.
66.	I'm quite satisfied with my academic situation at college.
67.	I feel confident that I will be able to deal in a satisfactory manner with future challenges here at college.

Academic Adjustment Subscale

This subscale measures a student's success in coping with various educational demands characteristic of the college experience. Subscale items may be classified into four item clusters.

1. *Motivation*: Attitudes toward academic goals and the academic work required, motivation for being in college and for doing academic work, sense of educational purpose. This cluster contains Items 5, 19, 23, 32, 50, and 58.
2. *Application*: How well motivation is being translated into actual academic effort, how successfully the student is applying herself/himself to the academic work and meeting academic requirements. This cluster contains Items 3, 17, 29, and 44.
3. *Performance*: The efficacy or success of academic effort as reflected in various aspects of academic performance, the effectiveness of academic functioning. This cluster contains Items 6, 10, 13, 21, 25, 27, 39, 41, and 52.
4. *Academic Environment*: Satisfaction with the academic environment and what it offers. This cluster contains Items 36, 43, 54, 62, and 66.

Social Adjustment Subscale

This subscale measures a student's success in coping with the interpersonal-societal demands inherent in the college experience. Its items may be divided into four item clusters.

1. *General*: Extent and success of social activities and functioning in general. This cluster contains Items 1, 8, 9, 18, 37, 46, and 65.
2. *Other People*: Involvement and relationships with other with other persons on campus. This cluster contains Items 4, 14, 33, 42, 48, 56, and 63.

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3. *Nostalgia*: Dealing with social relocation and being away from home and significant persons there. This cluster includes Items 22, 51, and 57.
4. *Social Environment*: Satisfaction with the social aspects of the college environment. This cluster includes Items 16, 26, and 30.

Personal-Emotional Adjustment Subscale

This subscale focuses on a student's intrapsychic state during his or her adjustment to college, and the degree to which he or she is experiencing general psychological distress and any concomitant somatic problems. This subscale can be divided into two item clusters.

1. *Psychological:* Sense of psychological well-being. This cluster contains Items 2, 7, 12, 20, 31, 38, 45, 49, and 64.
2. *Physical:* Sense of physical well-being. This cluster contains Items 11, 24, 28, 35, 40, and 55.

Attachment Subscale

1. This subscale is designed to measure a student's degree of commitment to educational-institutional goals and degree of attachment to the particular institution the student is attending, especially the quality of the relationship or bond that is established between the student and the institution. The six items that are exclusive to this subscale (four are shared with the Social Adjustment subscale and one with the Academic Adjustment subscale), plus one of the items that is also on the Social Adjustment subscale *General*: Feelings about, or the degree of satisfaction with, being in college in general. This cluster contains Items: 15, 60, and 61.

2. *This College*: Feelings about, or the degree of satisfaction with, attending the particular institution at which the student is currently enrolled. This cluster contains Items 16, 34, 47, and 59.

APPENDIX E - Informed Consent Letter

Dear Undergraduate Student:

My name is Elizabeth R. Gordon and I am a doctoral candidate pursuing my doctorate of philosophy in higher education and administration at the University of Southern Mississippi. I am currently working on my dissertation which is entitled The Influence of the Type of Academic Advising and Parental Types on the Transition of Freshmen Students to College. I am inviting you to participate in this study by completing a web-based questionnaire which will approximately take 40 minutes of your time.

The purpose of this study is to gather data regarding types of academic advising and parenting you have encountered in relation to transition in college. The study has the potential to affect academic advising practices in the higher education setting

Your participation is completely voluntary with minimum anticipated risk. At any time you may feel free to decline participation or discontinue your participation without penalty. To uphold confidentiality, all data collected will be anonymous on your questionnaire. Any information inadvertently obtained during the course of this study will remain completely confidential. Data will be aggregated and summarized in dissertation. This research study will published and presented without identifying participant's name.

This project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the Chair of

the Institutional Review Board, the University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001, (601) 266-6820.

By clicking on "I agree" at the following website, www.questionnaireinprogress.com, you are agreeing to participate and will gain access to the web-based questionnaire. You are granting permission for this anonymous and confidential data to be used for the above described purpose. If you have any questions concerning this research study or if you would like a copy of the completed research, please feel free to contact me at Elizabeth.r.gordon@eagles.usm.edu.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this web-based questionnaire and for assisting me with my research.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth R. Gordon

APPENDIX F - Informed Consent for Survey Participants

You are being asked to participate in a research study conducted by Elizabeth R. Gordon, doctoral candidate pursuing my doctorate of philosophy in higher education and administration at the University of Southern Mississippi. I am currently working on my dissertation which is entitled *The Influence of the Type of Academic Advising and Parental Types on the Transition of Freshmen Students to College*.

Purpose
The purpose of this research study is to examine the influence of the type of academic advising and parental types on the transition of freshmen college students. The research study will also examine if there is an interaction effect of academic advising and parental types on how well an undergraduate freshmen transitions into college.

Description of Involvement
You will need to click on the provided link to access the web-based questionnaire which will take approximately 40 minutes of your time.

Potential Risks and Discomforts
There may be minimal to nonexistent foreseeable psychological risks, discomforts, and inconveniences. If at any time during participation you feel moments of frustration, concern, or discomfort, you may withdraw at any time without penalty or other consequences.

Confidentiality
Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain anonymous and strictly confidential. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of anonymous coding. All data will be stored in a safe locked file box at the home of the researcher.

Participation and Withdrawal
Participation is completely voluntary. You may withdraw at any time without negative consequences. You may also refuse to answer any questions that make you feel uncomfortable and still remain in the study.

Identification of Investigators
If you have any questions or concerns regarding the research, please feel free to contact Elizabeth Gordon at (601) 968-7879. This project has been reviewed by the Human Subjects Protection Review Committee which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the Administrator of the Institutional Review Board, the University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001, (601) 266-5997.

Rights of Research Participants
You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. This consent form is a copy of your legal rights. By clicking "I agree," you are giving your consent to serve as a research participant in this study. You are not waiving any legal rights by participating in this survey.

Preface and Permission for Use

We are providing the *Academic Advising Inventory*(AAI) to the academic advising profession under the auspices of the National Academic Advising Association and its Web Site as a means of promoting good practices through thorough, theory-based evaluation. The AAI is provided for the non-commercial use of advising practitioners at no costs by permission of Student Development Associates, Inc. (PMB 500, 2351 College Station Road, Athens, GA 30605)-- the copyright holder. No specific permission is required for institutional uses or for research studies. The AAI also may be used in dissertation and thesis research and included as an appendix with the document without written permission from Student Development Associates, Inc.

Permission to Adapt

Users have permission to use AAI Parts I and II in their entirety, that is, either or both of these parts may be used in their entirety, but individual items may not be removed from these two parts for use in other instruments. Users, however, have permission to use individual items from Parts III and IV. Items in Parts III and IV may be altered or eliminated to fit local conditions.

This manual was originally written in 1984. Subsequent to its publication additional research was conducted and an Addendum was written in 1986 to reflect the findings about the items in Part II of the AAI. This manual reflects an integration of these two documents. We, however, have not attempted to update the manual further by reporting on later studies that have utilized the AAI for evaluation or research purposes.

Acknowledgments

We wish to express appreciation to our friends and colleagues who nearly twenty years ago were generous in their willingness to collect data and/or lend their professional expertise. Specifically, we would like to thank Marjorie Chan, David S. Crockett, Steven C. Ender, Earl Ginter, Virginia N. Gordon, Thomas J. Grites, Wesley R. Habley, Jerry Kowal, Howard C. Kramer, Harry C. Langley, Keith Lemmons, Mary McNeany, Theodore K. Miller, Sue A. Saunders, and James Stoltie.

Special thanks is extended to Mark C. Polkosnik for his assistance with the statistical analyses conducted in development of the AAI.

October 2002   Roger B. Winston, Jr.
Athens, Georgia   Janet A. Sandor

EAGLE APPS

Elizabeth Gordon <elizabeth.r.gordon@eagles.usm.edu>

Regarding use of the Parental Authority Questionnaire

Elizabeth Gordon <elizabeth.r.gordon@eagles.usm.edu>   Sun, May 24, 2015 at 1:36 PM
To: jrburi@stthomas.edu

Hello Dr. Buri,

My name is Elizabeth Gordon, a doctoral student of the University of Southern Mississippi. As I embark on my dissertation journey, I am seeking an instrument for determining Baumrind's parental types. I noticed your instrument, Parental Authority Questionnaire, and thought this would be perfect for my study, The Relationship of Type of Academic Advising and Parental Types on the Transition of Freshmen Students to College. I am asking permission to use this instrument when surveying students for my dissertation study.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth Gordon

EAGLE APPS

Elizabeth Gordon <elizabeth.r.gordon@eagles.usm.edu>

Regarding use of the Parental Authority Questionnaire

Buri, John R. <JRBURI@stthomas.edu>   Tue, May 26, 2015 at 1:33 PM
To: Elizabeth Gordon <elizabeth.r.gordon@eagles.usm.edu>

Elizabeth:

Thank you for your interest in the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ). Please feel free to use the PAQ for any not-for-profit purposes. For further information about the PAQ (for example, scoring details, norms, reliability measures, validity), please see the following journal articles:

Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental authority questionnaire. *J. of Personality Assessment, 57,* 110-119.

Buri, J. R. (1989). Self-esteem and appraisals of parental behavior. *J. of Adolescent Research, 4,* 33-49.

Buri, J. R., Louiselle, P. A., Misukanis, T. M., & Mueller, R. A. (1988). Effects of parental authoritarianism and authoritativeness on self-esteem. *Personality & Social Psych Bulletin, 14,* 271-282.

I wish you the best with your research project.

John R. Buri, Ph.D.

Professor – Department of Psychology

University of St. Thomas

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THE UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI.

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
118 College Drive #5147 | Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001
Phone: 601.266.5997 | Fax: 601.266.4377 | www.usm.edu/research/institutional.review.board

NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 15093003
PROJECT TITLE: The Relationship of the Type of Academic Advising and Parental Types on the Transition of Freshman Students to College
PROJECT TYPE: New Project
RESEARCHER(S): Elizabeth Gordon
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Education and Psychology
DEPARTMENT: Educational Studies and Research
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Exempt Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 10/13/2015 to 10/12/2016
Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board

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