Advisement Satisfaction Among Community College Students in Mississippi

LaToya Tamiko Jones-Reed
University of Southern Mississippi

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The University of Southern Mississippi

ADVISEMENT SATISFACTION AMONG COMMUNITY
COLLEGE STUDENTS IN MISSISSIPPI

by

LaToya Tamiko Jones-Reed

Abstract of a Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

May 2013
ABSTRACT

ADVISEMENT SATISFACTION AMONG COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS IN MISSISSIPPI

by LaToya Tamiko Jones-Reed

May 2013

Mississippi lacks a formal unified method for evaluating academic advising programs, and it is unclear whether advisement practices are satisfactory and aiding in student success. This study attempted to assess advisement satisfaction among students attending community colleges in Mississippi. The purpose of this study was to explore the level of satisfaction among Mississippi community college students with advisement. An additional aim of this study was to determine if advisement satisfaction is influenced by race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, or on/off campus housing across Mississippi community college student populations. Students from each of the 15 community colleges in Mississippi (only the main campuses) were invited to participate in the survey process. The researcher purchased the Survey of Academic Advising, Copyright 1997, from ACT, Inc. The Survey of Academic Advising was developed by the Evaluation Survey Service (ESS) and ACT and was used to measure students’ satisfaction with advising.

The majority of the participants reported being satisfied with their advisor. Students indicated an overall high level of satisfaction with advisors’ assistance. Students were most satisfied with advisors’ knowledge of scheduling/registration, graduation requirements, drop/add procedures, and selecting and changing majors. Students were least satisfied with advisors’ knowledge of obtaining course credit through nontraditional
means including CLEP and workforce experience programs, obtaining tutorial and remedial assistance, job placement after college, and obtaining campus employment.

Survey findings showed that satisfaction with advisement is unrelated to gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential student status. Satisfaction was only significantly related to race. The research showed a small positive correlation between Caucasian students and satisfaction with advisors. In this study, Caucasian students were more satisfied with their advisors than African Americans students and students who reported their race as other.
The University of Southern Mississippi

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by

LaToya Tamiko Jones-Reed

A Dissertation
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May 2013
DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to two of my biggest fans: my husband, James Reed, IV, and my daughter, Londyn Michelle.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I give honor and thanks to my Lord and Savior for giving me the strength to persevere. Through Him, all things are possible. I am so thankful to be able to share this moment with individuals who have believed in me, encouraged me, supported me, and continued to lift me up in prayer. It is hard to believe that I am at the end of this journey. With great sincerity, I thank each of those individuals who have contributed to my successful completion of this process. The research underlying this dissertation could not have been done without support from the faculty and staff at The University of Southern Mississippi (USM), my family, my friends, and my colleagues at Hinds Community College.

The faculty and staff at USM are outstanding. I am deeply appreciative of my dissertation advisory committee. Heartfelt thanks goes to my committee chair, Dr. Lilian Hill. She was always supportive and untiring in her engagement at every point in this process. She was always just a phone call away. Her patience, encouragement, and motivation truly guided me to the finish line. I extend my deepest gratitude to Dr. Thelma Roberson, Dr. Aubrey Lucas, and Dr. Thomas O’Brien. Each of them played a unique role in the success of my research study. They challenged me beyond my wildest expectations. Their collegial support was always helpful and timely. Dr. James Johnson was invaluable in directing the statistical analysis of this study. He was so flexible and always willing to compromise his personal time when I needed it. Additionally, Mrs. Doris Vines’ assistance throughout many technicalities from afar will never be forgotten. Her dedication to the students in the Department of Educational Studies and Research is matchless.
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Finally, I thank my supervisors and colleagues at Hinds Community College and the Jackson Academic and Technical Center for the gift of time to complete each stage in this process, especially analysis and writing. They positively encouraged my efforts. Their kind gestures and generosity will always be gratefully remembered.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .................................................................................................................... ii

DEDICATION ................................................................................................................ iv

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ............................................................................................... v

LIST OF TABLES ........................................................................................................ ix

CHAPTER

I. INTRODUCTION ...................................................................................................... 1
   Statement of the Problem
   Purpose of the Study
   Rationale and Significance of the Study
   Research Questions
   Definition of Terms
   Delimitations
   Assumptions

II. REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE ................................................................. 17
   Higher Education in the United States
   Historical Overview of Community Colleges
   The Community College Mission
   Characteristics of Community College Students
   Characteristics of Community College Faculty
   Overview of Student Personnel Services
   Historical Overview of Academic Advising
   Mission of Advisement Services
   Types of Advising
   Student Satisfaction with Academic Advising and Usage of Services
   Best Practices in Advisement Services
   Theoretical Framework
   Synopsis of Literature Review

III. METHODOLOGY .................................................................................................. 85
   Research Questions
   Research Design and Data Collection Procedures
   Description of Research Environment
   Description of the Participants
Population and Sampling
Instrumentation
Analysis of Data

IV. RESULTS ............................................................................................................. 101

Demographics
Research Question One
Research Question Two
Summary

V. DISCUSSION ...................................................................................................... 118

Summary
Conclusions and Discussion
Limitations
Recommendations for Policy or Practice
Recommendations for Future Research
Concluding Thoughts

APPENDIXES ........................................................................................................ 129

REFERENCES ......................................................................................................... 149
## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Community Colleges in Mississippi by County</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Student Race</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Student Gender</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Student Age</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Mother’s Education</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Father’s Education</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. First-Generation Student</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Commuter or Residential Student</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Student Needs Met</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Description of Advisor</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Input into Selection of Academic Advisor</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Time Having Current Advisor</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Students’ Satisfaction with Advisors’ Assistance</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Relationship Between Students’ Satisfaction and Independent Variables</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Coefficients (Students’ Satisfaction)</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The attainment of a college degree through the matriculation of postsecondary education continues to be perceived as a major vehicle for upward mobility. Colleges and universities were founded with the intent of aiding students in developing both intellectually and socially in addition to preparing students to become mature professionals (Thelin, 2004; Wilder, 1981). Trends in past research and current research indicate that college-educated individuals are much more likely to effectively participate in the governance of the nation, donate time and money to community service efforts, consume fewer public services, and commit fewer crimes (Belfield & Bailey, 2011; Hale, Graham, & Johnson, 2009). Overall, the idea of this research is that students who do not seek higher education fail to realize the economic, social, political, and cultural benefits of a college education (Belfield & Bailey, 2011; Hale et al., 2009). Brock (2010) argued that college graduates have better prospects in the labor market in comparison to their peers who discontinue their formal education after high school. He further added that over the course of a lifetime, an adult with a bachelor’s degree will earn nearly twice as much than an adult with only a high school diploma (Brock, 2010). Although the benefits of college attendance are substantial, the central mission of higher education is to prepare students for professional roles and productive citizenship in society.

To carry out the central mission of higher education, colleges and universities that accept students have the implicit responsibility of aiding students in successful transitions into the collegial environment (Magolda, 2003; Pizzolato, 2008). To ensure the successful transitioning of students into higher education, colleges and universities must
work through advisement and other auspices that offer student support services (Brock, 2010; Kellogg & Niskode, 2008; Kiker, 2008). It is imperative for colleges and universities to strive to promote the intellectual and social development of all students in addition to providing the highest caliber of academic and support services to ensure student success. Failing to successfully adjust to college may result in students being unable to complete school and being forced to leave or seek transfer to another institution (Pizzolato, 2008). Derby and Smith (2004) implied that higher retention rates are indicative of higher quality in educational and instructional practices as well as institutional effectiveness as a whole. In addition, student persistence and retention ratings have been known to have major influence on rankings in college guides and press reviews. Bailey, Calcagno, Jenkins, Leinbach, and Kienzl (2006) noted that the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 revealed that one of every five students who earned a bachelor’s degree received it from a different institution than the one in which they had initially enrolled. Even more alarming is the fact that four-year colleges in America lose a quarter of all first-year students before the start of the second year (Reason, Terenzini, & Domingo, 2006).

Over the past decade, researchers, government, institutional administrators, and scholars have been concerned with exploring strategies for student support services to use in executing the best possible undergraduate experience for college students throughout postsecondary matriculation (Light, 2001; Robinson, 2004). Jarrell (2004) argued that the key to improving student retention lies within the ability of student support services to begin at the beginning by taking early action in the start of the first year to promote academic growth and development. She added that student support services practitioners
must effectively create and adapt unique programs that convert applicants into self-sufficient graduates and program completers (Jarrell, 2004). Watson (1993) referred to student support as the work of those professionals who have the overall responsibility of serving students beyond the classroom, holistically developing them, easing their postsecondary transition and becoming involved in their total education experience. Culp (2005) added that student support services are a pivotal asset to the success and fulfillment of postsecondary education’s mission of helping students attain their educational and career goals.

The number of students who leave college prior to completion of a degree continues to exceed the number of students who remain in college and graduate because transitioning from high school to college presents a great challenge to entering college freshmen (Brock, 2010; Noonan-Terry & Waiwaiole, 2008). Upon entrance to postsecondary institutions, individuals may experience loss of friends, feelings of anxiety, and trepidation about leaving home for the first time (Magolda, 2003). Beaver (2010) explained that it is not uncommon for students to struggle with coping and adjusting to the norms in their new environment. In contrast, not all students entering institutions of higher learning are academically prepared for the rigor that accompanies degree attainment, the social influences and norms that go hand in hand within a collegial setting and the transformation that takes place between living at home as a dependent to becoming an independent self-sufficient college student (Brock, 2010; Nitecki, 2011; Steltenpohl & Shipton, 1986). Noonan-Terry and Waiwaiole (2008) argued that students come from diversified educational experiences and they possess differing goals and
reasons for college entry; therefore, there is a need for student support services to tailor practices to the unique student bodies within the colleges they serve.

Bland (2004) argued that diverse groups come to higher education from all walks of life and when students enter college they are presented with a wealth of information designed to aid in their transition and assist them in deciding on a major field of study. Moreover, she explained that during this time students are assigned an advisor whose primary role is to assist them in outlining their educational goals, formulating career plans, and providing them with the necessary tools to orchestrate their academic experiences (Bland, 2004). Walsh (1979) argued that college catalogs provide large descriptions of what is available rather than prescriptions of what is required for college completion. Brock (2010) noted that a large number of students arrive at college not knowing what steps are needed in order to accomplish their educational goals, and many need help in figuring out which courses to take, how to drop or add courses, file for graduation, and resolve personal or academic problems that may hinder their progress.

The research suggests that the foundation of whether students persist and succeed academically is laid during a student’s first year of college. With 40% of entering college students failing to complete the first year, academic failure and dropout rates are major concerns in postsecondary education (Robbins et al., 2007). In investigating the relationship between the overall use of a wide variety of campus services, facilities and student persistence, Churchill and Iwai (1981) found a positive correlation. They further determined that the use of campus facilities is merely a measure of integration in the college community, and students who persist tend to use more services than students who leave school. Twenty years later, Light (2001) explained that for varying reasons,
students may not easily integrate into their new communities, resulting in a lack of cohesion between academic work and social connections. He further added that advisors and other support personnel should strongly push for student involvement in extracurricular activities by encouraging them to become engaged in at least one campus organization (Light, 2001). Further, Kiker (2008) discussed the emergent need for student support services to address students’ academic needs, career goals, and challenges that students may face inside or outside of the classroom and life circumstances. Pizzolato (2008) identified new student orientation, first-year advising, career planning, Greek letter organization membership, honor societies and convocation as academic and non-academic opportunities for students to transition into and identify within the norms of their college settings and for aligning connections to future career pathways. In contrast, Peck and Varney (2009) pointed out that assistance offered to students through orientations, welcome weeks, student mentoring services, extracurricular activities, and academic advising centers often is geared toward traditional age college students.

It is imperative that those auspices which drive the vehicle for positive academic outcomes are operating logically, effectively, and in total congruence with the mission of higher education (Culp, 2005; Jarrell, 2004; Nitecki, 2011). Habley and McClanahan (2004) explain that institutions with high retention and academic success rates showed evidence of providing comprehensive learning assistance, advising interventions to at-risk students, integration of first-year experience programs, academic advising centers, and math and reading labs. It is important that higher education administrators, faculty, and support personnel do not underestimate or ignore the role of advising in student retention because degree completion is the true bottom line in higher education (Hale et
al., 2009). Therefore, advisors are positioned to help students map out their college careers and plan their pathways for entrance into the workforce or graduate school upon completion of the undergraduate degree.

Academic advising and academic advisors are identified as key links to the students, the curricula, and the college; therefore, it is to the students’ advantage to make use of the services offered in counseling and advisement centers (Orozco, Alvarez, & Gutkin, 2010). Through academic advisement centers, college students are provided timely and accurate information to help them remain up-to-date on matters such as curriculum requirements, drop and add processes, mechanics of major changes, grade change petitions, policies for transferring to and from a university, college or department, transfer credit evaluation, registration procedures, student personnel services, and job placement information (Higbee, 1979). Culp (2005) elaborated on the efforts of college administrators, faculty, and staff in continuously reshaping the mission of advisement centers, improving the quality of advising services, and implementing best practices to ensure the holistic development and academic success of each student and strengthening student support services. In essence, the functions served by advisors are critical to student success and the overall academic enterprise (Culp, 2005; Harrison, 2009; Jarrell, 2004; Light, 2001).

There remains very little examination of, improvement in, and reward for advising in higher education (Dougherty, 1992; Hines, 1981a; Steingass & Sykes, 2008; Vance, 2008). Meanwhile, several researchers concerned with this area of student support firmly believe that advising has the potential to be a lifeline for students pursuing higher education, and it is undoubtedly a way for students to build relationships with
higher education personnel beyond the scope of classroom instructors (Allen & Smith, 2008; Ashburn, 2007; Biggs, 1975; Dahl, 2004; Hines, 1981a; Steingass & Sykes, 2008). Light (2001) argued that an integral part of a wholesome college education depends upon cultivating human relationships and developing personal rapport with at least one faculty or staff member on campus. This action can exert a lasting and profound impact on scholastic achievement and the attainment of educational goals (Light, 2001).

Although it has been illustrated that advising aids in integrating students within the campus community and is positively linked to student persistence, there continue to be pitfalls and shortcomings associated with this area of student support services (Allen & Smith, 2008; Ashburn, 2007; Campbell & Nutt, 2008; Freeman, 2008; Hester, 2008; Pizzolato, 2008; Tuttle, 2000). Wilder (1981) cited data indicating that inadequate academic advising ranked first and highest among negative characteristics linked to dropout rates in institutions of higher learning. He further explained that amid all institutional student-centered activities on college campuses, academic advising has been traditionally and universally viewed as being of poor quality (Wilder, 1981). Metzner (1989) described academic advising as an essential component in the efforts to retain undergraduate students. This researcher further suggested that effective advising is an intervention that has the potential to link students’ academic and career goals with institutional resources, ultimately resulting in student familiarity and involvement with campus programs, a higher level of motivation to persist, and an increased satisfaction with the undergraduate experience.

While researchers have argued the benefits of successful advising programs, much attention has been placed on the pitfalls associated with advising. Wilder (1981)
outlined the main problems associated with advising as poor accessibility of advisors, advisors’ failure to view their role as important to student development, inadequate training received by those who function as advisors, advisors’ failure to provide up-to-date information to their advisees, advisors being overloaded with advisees and other competing responsibilities, advisors failing to relate and identify with their advisees, poor compensation, little to no recognition for effective advising, and little to no institutional value placed on advisement. Likewise, Magolda (2003) argued that in academic advising, educators struggle to find balance between guiding students and encouraging students to take responsibility for their own academic decisions and progress.

Advisors play a vital role in the lives of college students’ at colleges and universities. Steingass and Sykes (2008) argued that enhancing the quality of academic advising is essential in meeting the challenges of a growing and more diverse student body because students are more likely to succeed academically, establish educational and career objectives, and tailor their educational experience toward their future aspirations when they receive ongoing and meaningful advisement. Harrison (2009) argued that academic advisors shape students’ perceptions of college, and when colleges seek to assess and improve advisement services they are making investments in the success of the students they serve.

Effective advising embodies a supportive collegial environment in which students are aided in identifying connections between college coursework and future career goals, balancing scholastic and personal obligations, and engaging in campus life (Cornell & Mosley, 2006). Arguing that academic advising is the only structured campus endeavor
that can serve as the hub of the undergraduate experience, Hunter and White (2004) further identified it as the “stalwart soldier of American higher education” (p. 25).

Statement of the Problem

Advising continues to warrant the attention of researchers concerned with the provision of quality educational experiences for college students (Ashburn, 2007; Freeman, 2008; Hester, 2008; Hollis, 2009; Johnson & Morgan, 2005; Pizzolato, 2008; Tuttle, 2000). Although there is a significant amount of research focusing on academic advising at the university level, very limited emphasis has been placed on the advisement practices in community colleges (Green, 2006; Hines, 1981b; Worth & Stephens, 2011). Professional literature detailing advisement practices in community colleges and student satisfaction with advisement services is sparse (Hines, 1981b; Light, 2001). Hence, 30 years ago, Hines (1981a, 1981b) argued that there was a need for reform in the area of academic advising and further challenged the idea that the small amount of literature available on the subject lacked empirical-based data and some remains unpublished. Research still fails to provide a clear structure to support the overall process of advisement. Smith, Szelest, and Downey (2004) pointed out that with great emphasis being placed on outcomes and accountability in higher education, advisement assessment should be reflective of student voices to gain a sense of what they have experienced, their attitudes concerning the advisor/advisee relationship, and whether their experience with an advisor aided in their academic success.

Much of the existing literature on advising fails to focus on advisement within the community college system (Smith et al., 2004; Templin, 2011). Instead, researchers use four-year institutions as their target research population, seeking to assess the
successfulness of university counseling and advising centers (Barbatis, 2010; Light, 2001; Orozco et al., 2010). Orozco et al. (2010) confirmed that there is a disconnect in research on advising and retention, arguing that most literature is inclusive of only four-year institutions and, to date, there has not been enough investigation into advisement effectiveness within two-year colleges across the United States. While there is no blueprint to guide the advisement process at two-year colleges, it is of high importance to ensure quality delivery of student support services (Barbatis, 2010; Smith et al., 2004). Thus, as community colleges are projected to be the continuing leader in undergraduate enrollment, innovative strategies must be developed to aid in degree attainment (Templin, 2011).

Recent literature concerned with advisement identifies high counselor-to-student ratios and lack of adequate funding due to the economic crisis as the main reasons that advisement centers are failing to meet the needs of student populations (Brock, 2010; Leguelinelle, 2008). Additionally, Hunter and White (2004) pointed out that large numbers of students purposely avoid advisement systems and ultimately struggle in higher education because they miss the opportunity to seek guidance and mentorship from an adult who is willing to help them clarify their purposes for college attendance, plan for the future, and understand how to work to their fullest potential. Regretfully, in some cases, when students circumvent advising systems, they end up not taking the right courses, which prolongs their time toward degree completion (Hunter & White, 2004).

The state of Mississippi consists of 15 community colleges, each with one or more associated branches. To date, the Mississippi Community College Board lacks a formal unified method for evaluating academic advising programs and offices within its
governance of the 15 community colleges (Mississippi State Board for Community and Junior Colleges). Due to the lack of an evaluative method for community college advisement, it is unclear whether students attending Mississippi community colleges are satisfied with their advising experience, and it is unknown whether advisors in Mississippi community colleges are making a positive impression on the students for whom they provide advisement. Student support services personnel in Mississippi community colleges do not know if student needs are being met through advisement. The extent to which advisement centers are aiding Mississippi community college students in attaining their desired educational outcomes has yet to be determined. Therefore, this study is necessary to make a determination as to whether or not students are satisfied with the quality of services rendered by Mississippi community college advising systems.

To date, there is no standard model or approach to academic advisement across community colleges in Mississippi. Additionally, a standard evaluation process to assess advisement satisfaction and advisee needs does not exist; therefore, the success or failure of community college advisement in Mississippi community colleges is unknown. This study sought data from the student populations at all 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi. This study offers a refined understanding of community college advisement in Mississippi.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research study was to explore the level of satisfaction among Mississippi community college students with advisement. This research is important because scant attention has been paid to community college students’ satisfaction with advisement, and the Mississippi Community College Board lacks a method for assessing
the effectiveness of advisement across its 15 colleges. Further, it is important to
determine if advisement satisfaction is related to race, gender, non-traditional student
status, first-generation student status, and housing status (campus housing or off-campus
commuter) across Mississippi community college student populations.

Rationale and Significance of the Study

Student support services must assume some responsibility for helping students to
reach their highest academic potential in higher education. Understanding the advisor-
advisee relationship and uncovering student and faculty perceptions and expectations of
advising is a very important and worthwhile pursuit in higher education (Harrison, 2009).
This research project contributes to a limited body of research focusing on advisement
satisfaction within two-year higher education institutions. As there has not been a one-
size fits all model to apply to academic advising, the outcomes from this study serve as a
useful foundation for the future development and implementation of an effective
community college advising model template. Results from this research study may, in
fact, yield best practices and recommendations for community college advisement centers
seeking to improve the quality of student support services.

This study was guided by Vincent Tinto’s (1975) Student Integration Model
(SIM). The model proposed that students who are less integrated into the academic and
social communities at an institution are more likely to leave school without earning a
degree (Elkins, Braxton, & James, 2000; Zea, Reisen, Beil, & Caplan, 1997). The more
connected, integrated, and involved an individual is with the collegial system, the more
committed the individual will be to the institution and to the goal of degree completion
(Elkins et al., 2000; Mannan, 2007; Tinto, 1975).
Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising?

2. Are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, commuter or residential student status?

Definition of Terms

*Academic advising*: a developmental process which assists students in the clarification of their life and/or career goals, development of educational plans, and adaptation into the academic environment. It is a decision-making process by which students realize their maximum educational potential through communication and information exchanges with an advisor; it is an ongoing, multifaceted responsibility of both student and advisor (Church & Robinson, 2006; Crockett, 1978).

*Advisee*: for the purpose of this study, an advisee refers to a college student attending college who is seeking personal, academic, and educational advice (White & Schulenberg, 2012).

*Advisor*: for the purpose of this study, an advisor is an individual who assumes the role of student advocate and assists students in establishing and meeting academic and career planning on an individual basis. For the purpose of this study, advisors work within an office designated solely for counselor and advisement services (Drake, 2011).

*Attrition*: for the purpose of this study, attrition describes the act of leaving an institution of higher education and abandoning an educational goal (Tinto, 1988).
Continuing generation student: student attending college and at least one parent (mother or father) possesses formal education beyond high school or GED completion (McConnell, 2000).

Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS): a consortium of professional associations with the mission of promoting standards for various aspects of the higher education endeavor that foster student learning and development, quality assurance, and professional integrity (White, 2006).

Community college: “Any institution regionally accredited to award the associate in arts or the associate in science as the highest degree” (Cohen & Brawer, 2008, p. 5).

First-generation student: student enrolled in college and neither the mother nor the father has any formal education beyond high school (Gibbons & Borders, 2010; McConnell, 2000).

National Academic Advising Association (NACADA): professional association dedicated to the support and professional growth of academic advisors through its mission of promoting quality academic advising in institutions of higher education (Beatty, 1991).

Non-traditional student: student who is 23 years old or older and is enrolled either part-time or full-time in a higher education institution (Palazesi & Bower, 2006).

Residential student: a student residing in a dormitory or on-campus housing.

Reverse transfer student: student who was enrolled at a four-year institution prior to attending the community college (Duggan & Williams, 2010).
*Traditional student:* student who enrolls in college directly from high school with full-time status; in this study, traditional age students are defined as 18-years to 22-years of age (Palazesi & Bower, 2006).

**Delimitations**

This study was limited to the scope of community colleges in the state of Mississippi. Results do not reflect advisement satisfaction at four-year colleges in the state, nor do results reflect advisement satisfaction at two-year institutions for other states. Also, the researcher elected to administer this survey only at the main campuses of the 15 community colleges. Therefore, findings in this study were not reflective of satellite campuses or smaller branches within each community college. Participants were those who were pursuant of a two-year degree or technical certificate. Participation was restricted only to students enrolled in a Public Speaking/Oral Communications (SPT 1113) class for the Fall 2012 semester.

**Assumptions**

The following assumptions were considered for this research study:

1. All participants responded accurately, truthfully, and in an unbiased fashion in response to each questionnaire item.

2. All participants were enrolled in Public Speaking/Oral Communications (SPT 1113) for the Fall 2012 semester. This course is uniform across the Mississippi community college system, and it is a required core class for both academic and career-technical students.

3. All participants were assigned or had been introduced to their academic advisor.
4. All participants participate in advisement throughout course selection and matriculation.

5. Student affairs professionals were trained in and knowledgeable about advising procedures which will aid in the development and implementation of a mission for innovative strategies to improve community college advising centers.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Brock (2010) argued that remedial education, student support services and financial aid are three areas in higher education that stand in need of reform. The expertise of all student support services personnel, especially counselors and advisors is vital to student success in higher education. Reason et al. (2006) suggested that colleges and universities begin at the beginning by evaluating the ways in which new students are welcomed and supported on campuses. Advising plays an indispensable role in the success of a college student. The universal mission of advising in higher education is to help students develop educational goals, assist in the successful acclimation to the college, introduce students to services and resources, and to ensure their overall success to degree attainment (Churchill & Iwai, 1981; Harrison, 2009; Higbee, 1979; Metzner, 1989; Thelin, 2004). According to Smith et al. (2004), the assessment of student outcomes has become paramount in setting higher levels of academic standards. In turn, this push for accountability has and should continue to motivate college administrators to focus on improving the quality and satisfaction of collegial experiences for students.

Freeman (2008) identified advising as one of the three most frustrating services to undergraduate students on college campuses alongside parking and dining hall food. While many factors may be associated with the perennial disgruntlement surrounding campus parking and dining hall food, the dissatisfaction with advisement is alarming and continues to be an area of great concern to higher education professionals. In investigating an interrelation of resource and service utilization and first-year grade point average and retention among students enrolled in a four-year postsecondary institution,
Robbins et al. (2007) found utilization of academic services and advising sessions to be positively associated with retention. Their study revealed that more recurring advisement sessions were related to increased retention. Their findings concluded that students need to be made aware of the importance of using advisement services and maintaining an open line of communication with advisors so that their educational and career goals are met (Robbins et al., 2007).

Data to support and assess the importance and usage of student support services in community college settings are sparse (Barbatis, 2010; Boggs, 2004; Freeman, 2008; Jarrell, 2004). This research study was designed to explore community college students’ reported levels of satisfaction with academic advising. An additional aim of this research was to determine whether reported satisfaction levels with advising was related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential student status. In the scope of this literature and consistent with published literature, the terms community college, junior college, and two-year college, will be used interchangeably. Review of the literature warranted a need to encompass many necessary themes analogous to the practice of advising. The intent of this review was to provide a synthesized examination of the literature relevant to the questions that guide this study.

This study was concerned with advisement satisfaction within community colleges. The two focal points of this review of literature were (a) community college evolution and (b) advisement. First, a brief discussion explaining the expansion of higher education in the United States is provided to set the foundation. Next, a discussion relative to the evolution and overall mission of community colleges in the United States postsecondary educational system is provided, followed by a description of the profile of
students and faculty in two-year institutions. Then the researcher provides a tapestry of student personnel support services by first presenting an overview of personnel services, followed by an explanation of the history of advisement. Next, an overview of the mission of advisement is presented, followed by a discussion of the types of advisement services offered by colleges and an explanation of student satisfaction and usage of advisement services. This review of literature highlights several examples of best practices in advisement. Additionally, this review discusses Vincent Tinto’s (1975) model of student integration as the theoretical perspective that framed this study. This chapter concludes with an integrative synopsis of the review of literature.

Higher Education in the United States

According to John Thelin (2004), the history of higher education in the United States dates back to the early 1600s, with the founding of Harvard in 1636, followed by The College of William and Mary in 1693, and Yale in 1701. Deeply rooted in the history of higher education in America is the fact that in the late 19th century there was a shift in postsecondary education’s demographics. Increasing social mobility, rise of political representation, and an elevated number of young adults expressing interest in higher education were among the main forces that contributed to the rise of American colleges and universities (Cohen & Brawer, 2008).

Despite the rise of American higher education in the United States, many individuals still failed to gain entry into colleges and universities. Upon the inception of higher education and the founding of postsecondary institutions, minorities and women were denied access to a quality education due to racial, gender, and socioeconomic barriers in American society (Thelin, 2004). Historical court rulings serve as landmarks
of the long fight for equal opportunity at all levels of education and accessibility to all individuals regardless of race, ethnicity, gender, and social class (Ponce, as cited in NASPA, 1988). Prior to precedence being set following many of the landmark cases, minorities and women were discriminated against and denied access to secondary and postsecondary education. In explaining how education became more accessible and available to minorities, Rury and Hill (2012) illustrated that the number of African American high school attendees had doubled in southern states from 1940 to 1960 and was almost equal to the number of white high school attendees. Rury and Hill (2012) also explained that Mississippi had few high schools for blacks until the 1960s, and this made it extremely difficult for blacks to be academically prepared.

Legal precedent was set in the 1954 case of Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka as civil rights activists worked to dismantle unfair practices of separate and unequal education for blacks and other minorities. In the case of Brown, plaintiffs pointed out to the Supreme Court the lack of educational materials and resources, poor facilities, and discrepancies in teacher wages as they asked that the court reverse the separate but equal decision in the 1896 case of Plessy v. Ferguson (Ponce, as cited in NASPA, 1988). In an unanimous decision the Supreme Court ruled that the separate but equal doctrine was a violation of the 14th Amendment of the U.S. Constitution and states were ordered to desegregate elementary and secondary schools (Ponce, as cited in NASPA, 1988).

Although the ruling in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka was aimed specifically at elementary and secondary educational systems, the 1973 case of Adams v. Richardson focused on granting blacks and minorities access to higher education in states that operated dual systems under the separate but equal mandate; thus, in this landmark
case the Supreme Court ruled that failure to admit minority students was a violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act (Ponce, as cited in NASPA, 1988). The Civil Rights Act of 1964 bans racial and ethnic discrimination and segregation in programs, activities, public and tax-exempt educational institutions that receive federal funds (Stuart, 2013). It also provided Black students access to education at colleges other than historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs). Moreover, the 1978 case of Regents of the University of California v. Bakke was another landmark case targeting higher educational institutions usage of separate admissions processes for minority students. In this case the Supreme Court justices were divided, but they later ruled in favor of Bakke, stating that separate admissions processes and the use of quotas was unconstitutional yet race and ethnicity was permissible for consideration in the admissions selection process (Kim, 2005).

Besides minorities being excluded from higher education because of discriminatory quotas and practices, Stuart (2013) asserts that the cost of attendance was too expensive for many American families, especially minorities, to afford. Further, it was disadvantaged groups including non-white minorities, working class and poor, and the physically and learning disabled who did not gain access to higher education until mid-20th century (Stuart, 2013). Lowry (2009) cited the Morrill Acts, the G.I. Bill, federal financial aid, and student loan programs through the Higher Education Act of 1965, and various research grant programs as areas in which the government has offered funding to support the expansion of higher education. The Higher Education Act of 1965 was significant to the future of higher education because financial assistance became available for individuals pursuant of a college education (DeWitt, 2010; Thelin, 2004).
The Higher Education Act was reauthorized in 2008 as the Higher Education Opportunity Act (HEOA), allowing students to qualify for more financial aid and grant monies based on the costs associated with attending postsecondary institutions (DeWitt, 2010; Lowry, 2009).

Although educational policy in the United States has been a primary function of state and local governments, the federal government has had to intervene and at times assume a functioning role in policy development. Governmental agencies, accrediting bodies, and other external constituencies have placed great demand on accountability in higher education in part due to the sizable funds that are allocated toward the enterprise. Since the mid-1960s, federal policy changes and public interest have opened up postsecondary education to more women, minorities, and non-traditional age students while also placing community colleges at the forefront of higher education in America (Brock, 2010; Valadez, 2002). Monroe (1972) highlighted the possibilities of higher education in his envisioning that “the welfare of the nation would rest on the shoulders of the intellectual elite” (p. 151).

Historical Overview of Community Colleges

Cohen and Brawer (2008) defined the community college as “any institution regionally accredited to award the associate in arts or the associate in science as the highest degree” (p. 5). Garrett (1993) communicated that the term *community college* has become the nomenclature for all public two-year institutions. Wattenbarger and Witt (1995) dated the origin of two-year preparatory institutions back to Monticello College in 1835 and Susquehanna in 1858. They recognized Lewis Institute as the first private junior college to be formed in 1896. Without question, Joliet Junior College was the first public
institution in the United States to be named a junior college in 1901 (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Manzo, 2001; Monroe, 1972).

Community colleges began as extensions of local high schools and were often referred to as the 13th grade and 14th grade. Community colleges have provided a bridge for students who are ill-prepared or those who cannot afford to finance their schooling at the university (Braggs, 2001; Stuart, 2013). In the same vein, junior college attendance is believed to provide students better preparation for core course work in their major fields of study upon entrance at four-year colleges (Braggs, 2001; Kane & Rouse, 1999). Community colleges have attempted to relieve universities from the responsibility of teaching first-year and second-year students by providing academic preparation prior to university admittance. Boone (1992) explained that since their inception community colleges have been a vital force in improving the quality of life for individuals by responding to the educational needs of those in their services areas. Early two-year colleges, called \textit{junior colleges}, focused almost entirely on the concepts of transfer credits and liberal arts education because their design was based upon teaching preparatory material to newly entering college students without burdening the four-year colleges that were already in existence (Kane & Rouse, 1999).

Historically, the 1947 issuance of the Truman Report marked the point of a paradigm shift in U.S. postsecondary education because of an effort to provide job training, skilled workforce development, and labor-ready individuals to business entities within local communities (Braggs, 2001; Dowd, 2003; Romero, 2004; Valadez, 2002). Braggs (2001) and Dowd (2003) both reported that the Truman Commission on Higher Education proposed to make education through the 14\textsuperscript{th} grade available in the same way
that high school education is made free and public for all. In outlining the objectives of the report, President Truman declared community colleges as the primary channel by which higher education expansion would occur.

Community colleges witnessed a growth spurt in enrollment soon after World War II and the passing of the G.I. Bill because former military personnel were awarded tuition vouchers to attend postsecondary institutions (Kane & Rouse, 1999; Romero, 2004). In the 1960s following the Vietnam War and when the first baby boomers reached school age, enrollment in postsecondary institutions increased, causing rapid growth and diversity in the total make-up of the American higher education system, especially among junior colleges (Brock, 2010; Shaw & Jacobs, 2003). As transfer had become the term given for students earning an associate’s degree (AA) after completing two years of a general undergraduate education and continuing on into a four-year college to complete a bachelor’s degree, shifts in economic and political circumstances resulted in the expansion of the community college mission (Kane & Rouse, 1999). Thus, the mission of community colleges expanded to not only include transfer credits for liberal arts programs, but also a plethora of vocational, remedial, adult education courses for students aspirant of collegial experience or job skill training (Romero, 2004; Valadez, 2002).

Community college enrollment currently leads enrollment in higher education, and significant increases are expected due to the troubled economy characterized by high unemployment (McLaren, 2004). Porchea, Allen, Robbins, and Phelps (2010) highlighted statistical data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics arguing that by 2014 a large proportion of job openings will require some level of skill training or certification. The authors identified vocational and technical education as the gateway for development
in skill specific training and manufacturing as machine shops formerly found in high schools have moved to community colleges and been replaced with sophisticated computerized technologies (Porchea et al., 2010). Braggs (2001) credited community colleges for being the largest and single most important portals in the higher education market. Boggs (2004) lauded community colleges for graduating 60% of new nurses and 80% of firefighters, law enforcement officers, and other first responders who entered the workforce. Marcotte, Bailey, Borkoski, and Kienzl (2005) praised two-year colleges for providing vocational and technical training to youth and adults who enter college without a desire to seek senior college transfer in pursuit of a baccalaureate degree.

In a higher education initiative launched by President Barack Obama, an increase in college attendance and a significant rise in the proportion of college graduates by the year 2020 were identified (Beaver, 2010; McClure, 2009; Viadero, 2009). Moreover, Badolato (2010) pointed out that community colleges would play a critical role in reaching the aims of the American Graduation Initiative by increasing the number of awarded associate degrees and certificates, integrating strategies for providing opportunity to immigrants, minorities, first-generation college goers, low-income populations, and reforming the goals of student achievement.

Arguing that there are not enough students graduating from high school enrolling and staying in college, Kanter (2010) suggested that by the year 2016, four of every 10 new jobs will require advanced education or training. By the same token, community colleges will need to do much of the heavy lifting in an effort to improve public higher education’s graduation rates and job skill training so that the goals of the Obama Administration’s plan for postsecondary education will be attained (Badolato, 2010;
Many researchers have been concerned with the ever-changing mission and role of community colleges in the U.S. postsecondary education system. Communities without universities benefit from the opportunity of having community colleges in close proximity, ensuring that local citizens are provided access to postsecondary education (Braggs, 2001; Shannon & Smith, 2006). Although the people’s colleges was a term for high schools in the 1800s, Boggs (2004) used the term to describe two-year postsecondary institutions because of their open accessibility, innovativeness, and diversified student body populations. Two-year institutions operate with multiple functions, and they continue to be avenues for individual mobility among varieties of diversified student populations (Eagan & Jaeger, 2009). Additionally, two-year colleges take great pride in open access and efficient student learning outcomes (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Twombly & Townsend, 2008).

Dowd (2007) identified community colleges as gateways and gatekeepers of American higher education. As gateways, she explained that they are low tuition, open access institutions that offer something for everyone including general education requirements, occupational certificate programs, four-year transfer courses, remedial courses, English-language learner courses, noncredit courses for professional training, and leisure or self-help classes. As gatekeepers, Dowd rationalized that community colleges have reduced the pressure on four-year colleges and have allowed them to focus
on increasing the quality of their selectivity and program areas by enrolling large numbers of first time, less academically prepared students. Brint and Karabel (1989) advocated for community colleges by calling them the primary point of college entry for many students who seek individual advancement through the attainment of a college degree. Furthermore, community colleges have traditionally been a gateway to higher education for individuals who face economic and academic disadvantages due to their close proximity, low costs for attendance, and open access admissions policy (Boggs, 2004; Clowes & Levin, 1989; Dowd, 2007).

Community colleges serve large numbers of underprepared students who are believed to possess weaker academic ability, have few or no career goals, and have far less confidence than students who enter four-year schools, yet their needs must be met to achieve success in academia (Desai, 2012; Kolajo, 2004). Many community college critics argue that attending a two-year college rather than a four-year college lowers the likelihood that a student will obtain a bachelor’s degree (Dougherty, 1992). In a like manner, Beaver (2010) cited statistics from the American Council on Education indicating that only 11% of community college students will ever earn a four-year degree; hence, only one-third of the community college student population will ever earn a degree of any kind. Similarly it was argued that because community colleges play a much more prominent role today than they did in the past, they will be considered as the “center of gravity” in higher education (Brock, 2010, p. 109). Kotamraju and Blackman (2011) illustrate that two-year colleges sit at a “very important juncture within the U.S. education and workforce development landscape” (p. 203). Hornak (2009) also lauded community colleges for being a gateway to higher education, adding that many students
enroll in community college programs due to financial issues, close proximity, job restraint, plans to transfer to a four-year institution, and for remedial coursework in core academic areas including reading, writing, and mathematics.

Monroe (1972) predicted community colleges to be at the apex of universal postsecondary education for years to come. In turn, community colleges continue to be viewed as an American innovation in higher education; thus, they continue to lead higher education enrollment trends (Bastedo & Gumport, 2003; Brint, 2003; Kirkman, 1969; Levin, 2000; Shannon & Smith, 2006; Velez & Javalgi, 1987). If community colleges are to fulfill the promise of offering quality postsecondary education, then they must be able to successfully convert their rising number of enrollees into college completers by implementing efficient strategies in student support services (Ayers, 2002; Kotamraju & Blackman, 2011; Levin, 2000). Hornak (2009) claimed that community college enrollment continues to thrive and community college leaders pledge their full, untiring commitment to student success. The average tuition at a two-year college is less than half of the cost for attending a public four-year school (Kane & Rouse, 1999). Porchea et al. (2010) acknowledged the notion that because community colleges today serve a very diverse and growing population of students, the enrollment in two-year schools has exceeded four-year college enrollment.

A proposed remedy to fill the baccalaureate gap between two-year colleges and four-year colleges is for these systems to work simultaneously and aid one another in developing institutional and articulation practices, orientations, workshops, and seminars that provide clear and concise institutional policy for transfer students (Ayers, 2002; Brint, 2003; Levin, 2000; Light, 2001; Shannon & Smith, 2006). If implemented, this
proposal will help alleviate the academic, cultural, and social shocks associated with institutional transfer (Ayers, 2002; Hornak, 2009). Romero (2004) advocated for community college leaders to be aware of the need for student services divisions to be equipped to assist a uniquely diverse body of students who often will lack the background, skill, ability, preparation, and motivation to succeed in postsecondary education.

McPhail and McPhail (2006) expressed a concern for community college leaders to revisit their respective missions. In doing so, they suggested that the question to ask is whether or not the current and historical missions are operable under today’s social, political, and economic media in higher education. If historic missions are unreasonable under contemporary circumstances, then there needs to be an evaluation of the core values so that leaders can shift the missions of institutions to better align with societal, political, and economic demands. Ayers (2002) challenged community college leaders to focus on renewing their modus operandi to create value to their missions in the wake of changing cultural climates. When missions change, the idea is that the new missions will respond to policy changes, new educational movements, new areas of concern and will further reflect enhanced leadership and management within the organizational structure (Ayers, 2002; Boone, 1992; Shannon & Smith, 2006). Mellow and Talmadge (2005) argued that resilient community colleges reflect their communities and, for this reason, institutional needs should be invigorated by the make-up of the student population. If community colleges boast that they exist to serve community and societal needs, then they are charged with changing as community and societal needs change in order to uphold their mission (McPhail & McPhail, 2006; Romero, 2004).
Characteristics of Community College Students

Community college enrollment thrives in part due to open access and low tuition costs. Romero (2004) explained the concept of open-admissions as “serving whoever walks through the open door” (p. 33). Community colleges have long been recognized as open-door institutions that provide higher education access to a wide range of unique and diverse students (Bailey et al., 2006; Santibanez, Gonzalez, Morrison, & Carroll, 2007; Walker, Pearson & Murrell, 2010). Keene (2008) viewed community colleges as an avenue to low-income and minority students’ realization of the “American Dream” (p. 65). Alfonso (2006) stated that community colleges have traditionally provided higher education access to immigrants, non-traditional, first-generation, and economically and academically challenged students by providing them close proximity, low costs, and open door admissions. Community colleges have provided a safety net for reverse transfers who fail to persist at four-year colleges. Kalogrides and Grodsky (2011) recognized a need for reverse transfer students to be examined in community college literature because this is an increasing population that is often overlooked. Nonetheless, it is the responsibility of community colleges to meet all students where they are and to provide quality remediation, academic encouragement, and integration into the social life of the institution (Shaw & Jacobs, 2003).

Community colleges have seen extremely high increases in enrollment over the last few decades. In 1999, the demographics of the community college student population were as follows: 70% Caucasian, 19% African American, and 11% Hispanic (Alfonso, 2006). Orozco et al. (2010) found that African Americans, Latino Americans, Native Americans, and Pacific Islanders make up a large population of students enrolled in
community colleges. Approximately 40% of the postsecondary student population is currently enrolled in community colleges (Marcotte et al., 2005; Nitecki, 2011; Porchea et al., 2010). Kellogg and Niskode (2008) urged 21st century higher education to support the needs of multiracial students through the creation of safe and welcoming college climates. Also, campuses must be academically and culturally responsive to the needs of varying student groups that exist in the realms of higher education (Levin, 2000).

Under-preparedness has always been a challenge to faculty in postsecondary institutions. Community colleges have had to provide much more institutional support and opportunity to low-performing students in academia (Levin, 2000; Oudenhoven, 2002). Thus, another function of community colleges is the cooling out concept. Bahr (2008) explained the cooling out function as a proposition developed by Burton Clark (1960, 1980) identifying a responsibility of community colleges and community college advisors as one that would dissuade academically underprepared students with overambitious goals and, in turn, convince them to pursue other avenues that would substitute realistic educational and career goals befitting to their capabilities (Adelman, 2005; Bahr, 2008).

The cooling out phenomenon developed from a belief that students who failed to perform appropriately at their academic level should be convinced that their academic goals were unrealistic and not in alignment with their ability (Adelman, 2005). Additionally, academic advisors are imperative to the cooling out concept because they are able to compare and contrast academic ability and cumulative record to determine which students will and will not be cooled out (Bahr, 2008). Adelman (2005) further explained that community college advisors must cool out students whose academic
ambitions and aspirations exceed their academic abilities by gradually disengaging students from their professed goals, leading them to the point of exploring other avenues that may be a more appropriate fit for a student’s preparation, ability, and skill level, such as pursuance of one or two-year degrees in vocational or applied programs rather than attainment of bachelor’s degrees.

Since Clark’s observation, researchers have been concerned with the motives of the cooling out concept (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cain, 1999; Romano, 2004; Templin, 2011). Many advocates of the community college cooling out function argue that the concept is a way to circumvent academically underprepared students from being set up to fail (Adelman, 2005). Advocates of the cooling out function have been supported by past research from the National Center for Education Statistics (Bahr, 2008). For example, in 2006, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) published data validating the cooling out phenomenon; the data implied that only 51% of all transfer track students actually transferred to colleges and universities beyond their community college tenure (Provasnik & Planty, 2008). Furthermore, Provasnik and Planty (2008) reported that 45% of students beginning at a community college in 2003-04 left school without completing a degree or certificate program by 2006. This disconnect between entrance and completion is a harsh reality that there is a serious inconsistency between students needing encouragement to achieve and the realities of limited opportunity and to keep students from failing at their goals, student aspirations need to be rechanneled (Moore, 1975).

Conversely, critics have argued that the cooling out phase is merely a way of displacing ambition, reproducing socioeconomic inequality, and limiting life chances
(Borden, 2004; Romano, 2004). Critics have also questioned the fairness of Clark’s cooling out process. Hellmich (1993) argued that the cooling out concept is meritocratic because the value of cultural capital is based on the linguistic and social norms of the dominant culture, which denies equitable educational opportunity to students of less socioeconomic status and social privilege. It was further stated that educational aspirations that clashed with the realities of the class system and upward mobility could not be easily attained by students of lower social privilege in a stratified society (Hellmich, 1993). His summation was that students of higher social privilege are most likely to have higher aspirations than their peers with less social privilege, and they are better prepared for postsecondary education (Hellmich, 1993). To support his claim, Hellmich (1993) cited a 1990 argument from Katherine McClelland which proposed that racial and social devaluation lowers students’ aspirations because lower privileged students are seldom exposed to images of success in order to connect effort and reward.

Amen-Deil and Rosenbaum (2002) did in fact agree that students are often misinformed about the connection between their position in higher education and their prospects for success, but these authors also criticized the cooling out concept itself and the published literature surrounding the concept as being outdated. They further pointed out that community colleges have evolved since the 1960s and 1970s; hence, modern-day cool out processes in community colleges consist of pre-entrance testing, pre-admission counseling, orientation classes, extensive remedial course offerings, tutoring opportunities, and probationary periods for students to work at improving grade point averages (Amen-Deil & Rosenbaum, 2002). They added that these modern day practices are more efficient than the traditional cooling out method because they allow students to
strive for success and work harder rather than demoralizing students and forcing them to lower their life goals for themselves due to substandard performance. Community colleges are faced with the challenge of creating ingenious ways to preserve students’ self-confidence and aspirations and avoid being deceptive and selling students a scam by having them invest time, money, and effort in courses that will yield no value to degree credits toward college completion (Amen-Deil & Rosenbaum, 2002).

In continuing to discuss the characteristics of community college students, it is important to highlight the work of Cohen and Brawer (2008) which added to the discussion of under-preparedness by explaining that most community college enrollees come from the lower half of their high school classes both academically and socioeconomically; hence, statistics suggest that these students are highly likely to interrupt enrollment, attend part-time, and delay enrollment upon high school completion, which decreases their likelihood of attaining a baccalaureate degree (Alfonso, 2006; Levin, 2000). Community colleges play a substantial role in remedial education. Students entering community colleges are often forced to enroll in developmental or remedial courses because of their poor skills in basic academic areas such as reading, writing, and math (Amen-Deil & Rosenbaum, 2002; Esch, 2009; Oudenhoven, 2002). Barbatis (2010) reported that 41% of all community college freshmen nationwide are forced to take developmental remedial education courses because of low entrance and placement scores. Amen-Deil and Rosenbaum (2002) pointed out that 80% of all community colleges nationwide offered remedial courses in reading, writing, and mathematics. Additionally, students could receive financial aid for remedial coursework, but the classes are not counted as credit toward the completion of a degree or transfer. Conversely, many states
are choosing to phase out remediation in four-year institutions making two-year institutions the sole provider of remedial education to under-performing students (Barbatis, 2010). Bettinger and Long (2005) identified California, New York, Arizona, Florida, Montana, South Carolina, and Virginia as states that have phased out remedial courses in four-year institutions and moved them to two-year colleges.

Aside from needing remedial and developmental courses upon college entrance, community college students share other demographic characteristics (Shaw & Jacobs, 2003). Large numbers of community college students are minority, non-traditional rather than traditional student age, first-generation, employed, and commuters rather than residential students (Alfonso, 2006; Ayers, 2002; Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Esch, 2009; Hollis, 2009; Levin, 2000; Oudenhoven, 2002). Hollis (2009) explained that non-traditional students and first-generation students struggle the most upon entering higher education because they are bewildered when it comes to navigating the path from college admission to college graduation. She further described the navigation process for non-traditional and first-generation students as being like “falling down the rabbit hole, full of twists, turns and unexpected predicaments” (Hollis, 2009, p. 31). Hollis stated that non-traditional students and first-generation students have a steeper hill to climb because for many of them life has been full of punishments, failures, and disappointments; thus, for this reason she called upon advisors to be teachers, cheerleaders, coaches, role models and life preservers.

Non-traditional Students

Over the past several years, community colleges have experienced remarkable increases in the enrollment of adult students. Steltenpohl and Shipton (1986) identified
adult students as the fastest growing college population in higher education. Gibson and Slate (2010) showed that over the past two decades there has been a constant increase in the number of adult students in higher education. According to Laanan (2003) and Schaefer (2010), adult students, also referred to as non-traditional students in the literature, are going to school in record numbers because they are pursuant of additional education and training to change or upgrade their job skills or activities, or they are simply wishing to satisfy their personal interests. Palazesi and Bower (2006) explained that these lifelong learners enroll in community colleges for personal development, job-related courses, or for transfer coursework for four-year degrees.

The number of individuals age 25 years and older in the higher education classroom seeking re-entry, enrolling for the first time, or returning to school after long absences, more than doubled between 1970 and 1982 (Eldred & Johnson, 1977; Steltenpohl & Shipton, 1986). Kane and Rouse (1999) illustrated that, at the time of their study, 36% of community college students were at least 30 years old and 22% of public four-year college students were 30 years old or older. Laanan (2003) argued that 60% of the adult student population was enrolled in two-year colleges. Calcagno, Crosta, Bailey, and Jenkins (2007) reported that individuals 25 years to 64 years of age represented 35% of the higher education population. Cox and Ebbers (2010) reported that 43% of the community college populations are students aged 25 years and older and the average age of community college students is 29 years.

Palazesi and Bower (2006) credited the baby boomer generation for the increase in the adult student population on college campuses. Schaefer (2010) gave credit to the elongated lifespan in the United States as a major reason that adults are returning to
postsecondary education. Schaefer (2010) pointed out that the life expectancy is 77 years compared to 47 years in the early 1900s. Kane and Rouse (1999) argued that older students favor community college enrollment due to its convenience and variance in the delivery of course options. Among several reasons explaining why adult learners continue to dominate the community college population, Worth and Stephens (2011) highlighted economic downturn, job loss, and low cost of attendance as primary factors for record enrollment of adults in community colleges.

Community colleges play a unique role in serving adult learners, and it is of great importance to understand their needs, obstacles, and goals in the realm of higher education (Kasworm, 2003; Worth & Stephens, 2011). Non-traditional students bring differing experiences to higher education. Their presence is very obvious in community colleges and usually they face a number of challenges upon transitioning into the collegial atmosphere. Student affairs professionals, faculty, and campus administrators must be instrumental in meeting the needs of adult students in postsecondary education (Cox & Ebbers, 2010). Strategies must be implemented to appropriately respond to the needs of this diverse student population (Laanan, 2003; Palazesi & Bower, 2006; Saunders & Bauer, 1998; Schaefer, 2010). Kasworm (2003) noted that adult students are usually fragile, doubtful, and insecure about their decision to pursue postsecondary education. Usually, their entry is the result of a life crisis such as divorce, separation, or loss of a job resulting in financial instability, and they need support and validation from family members, college personnel, and faculty to ease the fear and anxiety that accompanies their adaptation into the collegial environment (Kasworm, 2003).
Saunders and Bauer (1998) explained that non-traditional students are forced to juggle multiple roles in life including jobs, family obligations, child care, community involvement, financial constraints, and emotional challenges. For this reason, community colleges have demonstrated their commitment to life-long learning by designing programs and curricula for older, working adults, including night and weekend classes, online classes, and even classes at work sites in which a partnership exists so that employees can take college level coursework for workforce advancement (Stetar, 1974). Donaldson and Townsend (2007) cited distance education and accelerated programs as alternative methods that have been developed by community colleges to ease the transition that adult students face in attempting to meet their educational goals. Cox and Ebbers (2010) argued that due to the continuing increase in the number of adult students, postsecondary research should focus on examining the current needs of adult learners instead of attempting to gauge the needs of this student population based on previously existing retention models designed to meet the needs of traditional aged college students.

Although adult learners come to college with varying degrees of educational and personal experiences, they are also described as fearful and self-conscious upon college entry (Saunders & Bauer, 1998). Worth and Stephens (2011) explained that many students have poor academic records from previous years and are fearful of their learning experience upon returning to an academic environment following a prolonged period of absence. These authors, who have conducted extensive research on adult learners, also found that many adult students have transcripts from previous enrollment, but usually these transcripts are unavailable due to time lapse or they are in such disarray that it is in the students’ best interest to start from scratch (Worth & Stephens, 2011). Inevitably,
non-traditional students stand in need of remedial and developmental coursework to refresh skills in certain subject areas (Donaldson & Townsend, 2007). Moreover, new teaching methodology and advancements in the way that technology is incorporated into the learning fabric tends to often pose a problem for many adult students and has caused many community colleges to design tutorial classes for students who lack basic computer proficiency and who are not computer savvy (Kasworm, 2003, 2005).

Continuous societal restructuring will continue to increase adult participation in higher education. Kasworm (2003) argued that because of open access and egalitarian outreach, there will continue to be large numbers of non-traditional students enrolling in community colleges and contemporary leaders will be called upon to provide helpful and supportive student services to ensure the success of adult learners. She added that adult student needs are equally important yet considerably different than traditional age students and a commitment must be made to support diversity among student groups (Kasworm, 2003). Non-traditional students display a repertoire of emotional, mental, and social needs in higher education as they seek to develop an identity in their collegial settings; student services professionals must thus be proactive and innovative in supporting adult learners in their quest for higher education (Kasworm, 2003, 2008; Worth & Stephens, 2011).

First-generation Students

In addition to non-traditional aged students, first-generation students face a myriad of unfamiliar cultural norms in their transition to postsecondary education. McConnell (2000) cited three general variations in which literature has defined first-generation students: (a) neither parent had completed a college degree, (b) an individual
that is the first in his/her family to attend college, and (c) a student whose parents have no college experience. Another definition provided by Prospero and Gupta (2007) defined a first-generation college student as “someone whose parents have not completed a college degree program” (p. 963). Inkelas, Daver, Vogt, and Leonard (2007) described first-generation students as “educational pioneers” who are breaking the family tradition. (p. 404). First-generation students need assistance in order to be successful in their pursuit of postsecondary education. They lack exposure to adults who have progressed through the educational pipeline, continuing from high school to college then on into the workforce (Green, 2006).

In discussing college access and college success, McGlynn (2008) explained how first-generation students differ from traditional elite, children of privilege who are prepared for college and know the path to college entrance. She argued that many first-generation students must teach their parents the ropes pertaining to college admittance while they learn the ropes for themselves all at the same time (McGlynn, 2008). Green (2006) argued that first-generation students are likely to be low-income students of color and their access to higher education is often credited to the implementation of policies, practices, and programs set forth by federal, state, and local governing entities. An analysis of common demographic traits among first-generation students conducted by McConnell (2000) indicated that first-generation students are more likely to be older, single female students with jobs and have at least one or more dependent within their household. Mehta, Newbold, and O’Rourke (2011) reported that first-generation students accounted for nearly 50% of the undergraduate student population in 2001.
In further comparison to continuing generation students whose parents have completed college, first-generation students lack exposure to tutoring, entrance exam and standardized test preparation, cultural activities and college tours, and they are not equipped to cope with the pressures and processes that confront college students (Green, 2006; Mehta et al., 2011). First-generation college students often struggle because they do not have a family member or reference to help them navigate the postsecondary educational system; thus, college registration, goal-setting, course selection, and financial aid application processes can pose great difficulty for these students (Goodall, 2009; Prospero & Gupta, 2007). Cejda and Short (2008) explained that family influence is an extremely important predictor of first-generation students college-going behaviors, success, and completion in postsecondary education.

College completion is a laudatory goal for all and tremendous efforts have been made to assist in students’ successful transitioning and matriculation through postsecondary education (Kalogrides & Grodsky, 2011). Namely, Federal TRIO Programs funded by the U.S. Department of Education were created in 1964 with the goal of supporting the educational aspirations of low-income, first-generation, disadvantaged students by preparing and equipping them with academic, social, and administrative resources and knowledge (Field, 2007; Gallardo, 2009; Graham, 2011; Jehangir, 2009). Upward Bound and Talent Search are two of six programs under TRIO that provide outreach, counseling, tutorial support, and monetary assistance to disadvantaged students and veterans (Field, 2007). Graham (2011) spoke in favor of TRIO programs as a testament to highlighting personal and professional support which shaped and prepared her for an academic journey through higher education as a result of
her participation in TRIO programs. An alumnus of Upward Bound and Ronald E. McNair Scholars, Graham explained that her participation in TRIO began as a freshman in high school, guiding her to further attain a baccalaureate degree, Master’s degree, and a Doctorate degree. Furthermore, as a low-income, minority student who was the first in her family to ever enroll in college, she praised the golden opportunities which enabled her to excel academically that otherwise may not have been afforded to her without the support of federal TRIO Programs (Graham, 2011).

To further illustrate attempts aimed at providing early outreach and guidance to students who are the first in their families to go to college, it is important to highlight the objectives of the KnowHow2Go campaign. Established in 2007 by the Lumina Foundation for Education in conjunction with the American Council on Education, the campaign was launched to reach potential first-generation college-goers as early as in the middle school grade levels up through Grade 12 (McGlynn, 2008). KnowHow2Go is national public service advertising (PSA) initiative designed to aid potential college-goers in the navigational processes associated with two-and four-year colleges in hopes that low-income and first-generation students can turn their dream of college graduation into a reality (Corrigan & Hartle, 2007; McGlynn, 2008).

Corrigan and Hartle (2007) discussed the notion that many students desire to attend college, but unfortunately this dream does not magically happen. For this reason individuals must have assistance in making their dream an action-oriented goal. First-generation students lack awareness, expectations, guidance, and encouragement needed for college preparation, and they are often viewed as outsiders and oftentimes their collegial experience is negative because they feel ostracized from the mainstream on
college campuses (Corrigan & Hartle, 2007; Gibson & Slate, 2010; Penrose, 2002). Past and current studies indicate that students who are the first in their families to attend college are more likely to enter community colleges as opposed to four-year universities (Prospero & Gupta, 2007). First-generation students are highly likely to attend part-time, have one or more dependents, fail to participate in co-curricular student groups and organizations, and drop out prior to completing course requirements for degree completion (Gibson & Slate, 2010; Mehta et al., 2011; Penrose, 2002). Also, first-generation students tend to have a lower family income and lower grade point averages; therefore, these students enroll in remedial courses and lack the proper knowledge necessary to access federal financial aid (Prospero & Gupta, 2007). Inkelas et al. (2007) identified first-generation students as students who typically have lower reading, math, and critical thinking skills with the high likelihood of having attended a high school with less rigorous curricula than non-first-generation students. Their study also yielded that first-generation students were reportedly less likely than their counterparts to participate in advanced placement courses and testing (Inkelas et al., 2007).

Pierceall and Keim (2007) declared that all college students experience a rhapsody of stressors including academic issues relating to ill-preparedness, fear of failure, financial concerns, interpersonal and social barriers, overextended workloads, and time management challenges. In the same way, first-generation students exhibit fear and low esteem in college classrooms, which are characteristics parallel to stress ultimately equating to low academic performance and dropout (McConnell, 2000). Jehangir (2009) explained that it is common for first-generation students to feel isolated, singled-out, and marginalized, leading to difficulty in discovering the unwritten rules and expectations
that are fundamental to collegial norms. In truth, significant problems develop when college students suffer from stress and anxiety. Murff (2005) added that stress and burnout have been identified as reasons why first-generation students often choose to discontinue their educational pursuits. Nonetheless, Pierceall and Keim (2007) challenged community college personnel to seek to gauge the amounts of stress that students are experiencing and to be persistent in developing measures to assist them in learning to cope with stress and alleviate anxiety.

McConnell (2000) criticized the literature for failing to devote study to first-generation students within the community college sector. She argued that because of the differences in environment and student body make-up it was irrational to generalize findings for first-generation students at four-year institutions to first-generation students at two-year institutions (McConnell, 2000). Ten years later, Gibson and Slate (2010) criticized the literature for an immense gap in first-generation student engagement and persistence in community colleges. Hahs-Vaughn (2004) also expressed dissatisfaction with the literature for its failure to provide insight relating to the academic and socioeconomic outcomes of first-generation students who complete college. Additionally, she argued that the literature fails to examine the cognitive development that takes place throughout the collegial matriculation of a first-generation student (Hahs-Vaughn, 2004). In attempting to determine the degree of frequency with which adult learners appear in higher education journals as a topic of research publication, Donaldson and Townsend (2007) found that there is a lack of in-depth analysis on adult learners and there was a repetitive nature among refereed higher education journals featuring research on adult undergraduate students between 1990 and 2003. It was further agreed that adult learners
and first-generation students needed to be recognized in scholarly higher education research (Donaldson & Townsend, 2007).

Community colleges play a distinct role in educating first-generation students and leading them to baccalaureate degree attainment (McConnell, 2000; Peterman, 2000). First and foremost, community colleges should function to better understand the struggles and challenges that first-generation students face and work to help them become successful in the academy (McConnell, 2000). McConnell (2000) suggested that colleges implement the creation of learning communities to aid in first-generation student transition. In the few studies conducted, recommendations for helping first-generation students assimilate into the college culture imply that colleges should encourage academic and social integration by offering pre-college and summer bridge programs and, in cases where first-generation students enroll, increase their time on campus by encouraging participation in events such as peer tutoring, advisement, career counseling, cultural programs, freshman seminars, and workshops (Alessandra & Nelson, 2005; McConnell, 2000). Last, Kennamer and Campbell (2011) argued that non-traditional students deserve no less than the best in opportunities and support while in pursuit of their career goals.

Characteristics of Community College Faculty

Community colleges play a significant role in training the citizens of the United States of America; however, they are not given attention in the literature and are often ignored in higher education publications (Green & Ciez-Volz, 2010). It is pivotal to understand that instruction is at the core of the American community college mission, and individuals who are at the forefront of educating community college students have a
unique rank in higher education (Green and Ciez-Volz, 2010; Hardy and Laanan, 2006).

Monroe (1972) identified the faculty as the second most important element in the community college, next to the student. Twenty-eight years later, Fugate and Amey (2000) explained that the strength of a community college is in its faculty.

According to Twombly and Townsend (2008), community colleges employ 43% of faculty members in public higher education. Unfortunately, there is a paucity of literature specifically addressing community college faculty, and instead there is a plethora of literature focusing on college faculty at four-year institutions. Twombly and Townsend (2008) argued that the reason little attention is given to community college faculty is because researchers are interested in topics concerning merit pay, tenure, and promotion, which are areas that pertain to faculty at research universities; thus, writers focus on the world that they know rather than the world they have yet to experience.

Faculty members at community colleges rarely conduct research, rarely write for publication, and are rarely concerned with scholarly inquiry. Instead, the primary responsibility of community college faculty is teaching (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Twombly & Townsend, 2008).

Twombly and Townsend (2008) discussed a sense of arrogance with which community college instructors are viewed by members of the university professoriate. The authors highlighted rudeness, lack of respect, and reluctance by four-year college faculty in acknowledging the quality of community college courses and accepting the credibility of community college faculty members (Twombly & Townsend, 2008). In like manner, community college faculty members have been denigrated and accused of making courses too easy and failing to uphold high standards of grading because many
community college students are ill-prepared students (Twombly & Townsend, 2008). As a result of the criticisms aimed at community college faculty, it is argued that their productivity in the higher education sector fails to be recognized and merited (Twombly & Townsend, 2008). Despite the implication that community college instructors are viewed as a “lesser class of professors,” the fact that they educate over half of the undergraduate population in the U.S. postsecondary system must not be ignored (Twombly & Townsend, 2008, p. 5).

Sprouse, Ebbers, and King (2008) expressed an emergent need for community colleges to be explicit and considerate when making decisions to bring aboard new faculty members. Community college faculty members must be student-centered, knowledgeable in their subject matter, and willing to accept and ungrudgingly work with students from varying motivational and ability levels (Monroe, 1972). Further, it is imperative for community college faculty members to be qualified, creative, tenacious, enthusiastic, empowering, and supportive of student aspirations (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Green & Ciez-Volz, 2010; Hardy & Laanan, 2006; Sprouse et al., 2008). A key argument involving community college faculty is whether or not faculty demographics are reflective of community college student demographics (Vega, Yglesias, & Murray, 2010). Additionally, community colleges are a reflection of their communities (Mellow & Talmadge, 2005). Hornak (2009) reported that community college faculty may teach and advise middle-aged single parents, recent high school graduates, laid-off factory workers, retired community members, and older lifelong learners all in a single course within any given semester because the demographics of community college attendees is unique.
Faculty Demographics

Cohen and Brawer (2008) declared that community college faculty demographics are widely different from faculty in other types of educational sectors. Community college instruction has moved toward the development of a profession, and the community college has become transformed into a well-known, highly regarded workplace (Cohen & Brawer, 2008). Twombly and Townsend (2007) explained that among community college faculty members, the most common educational credential is the master’s degree. The authors highlight 2006 data that indicated 12% of community college faculty members possessed earned doctorate degrees, 54% held a master’s degree as the highest degree, and 19% had a bachelor’s degree as their highest degree attained. Additionally, vocational and technical faculty members typically held only a bachelor’s degree or an associate’s degree, but were knowledgeable in their subject areas (Twombly & Townsend, 2007).

Hardy and Laanan (2006) criticized America’s public two-year college’s demographical sector for failing to create balance among ethnic and racial minorities within the faculty. Twombly and Townsend (2007) argued that while community colleges claim to provide equal opportunity hiring practices, race and ethnicity among the community college faculty body is mismatched and far from balanced. In fact, Hardy and Laanan (2006) and Cohen and Brawer (2008) both explained that 80% of the faculty members in higher education were Caucasian and non-Hispanic, further expressing disappointment in the limited representation of minority faculty notwithstanding the large number of minority attendees at two-year colleges. Data confirms that Caucasians constitute the majority of full-time community college faculty (Eagan & Jaeger, 2009;
Further, over 80% of community college faculty members are Caucasian, yet only 6.9% are African American, 5.9% are Hispanic, about 4% are Asian and Pacific Islanders, and less than 1% are American Indians (Twombly & Townsend, 2007). If the community college faculty body continues to be incongruent in composition from the community college student body, Twombly and Townsend (2007) predict that the future of community college effectiveness will be tumultuous and detrimental.

With regard to gender, Twombly and Townsend (2007) stated that 50% of the community college professoriate was women. They credited this parity to the perception that women balance work and family more easily at community colleges as opposed to four-year schools with greater workload demands and higher expectations for research (Twombly & Townsend, 2007). It was further explained that women favor the working environments and collegial climates within community colleges because there is less pressure to balance work and family and minimal sacrificing of family time and personal life (Twombly & Townsend, 2007). Moreover, Sallee (2008) explained that faculty may have spouses, children, parents, extended family, and friends that place a host of household duties and demands on their time. Nevertheless, greater burden is placed on women who juggle spending time fulfilling care-giving, housework, and occupational responsibilities, and community colleges grant female faculty more leeway in meeting the obligations since most of the effort is on teaching instead of research needed for tenure (Sallee, 2008).

As minority and gender representation issues concerning community college faculty has piqued great interest over the past few decades, age has also been a major area
of concern. Twombly and Townsend (2008) explained that the average age of a community college faculty member was 50 years old. Two years later, both Vega et al. (2010) and Green and Ciez-Volz (2010) reported that a large margin of community college faculty was between the ages 45 years and 64 years old. As a result of highlighting the marginal ages of community college faculty, it is evident that a large portion is nearing retirement age. Literature is indicative of the fact that community college faculty members are creating a gray area in the community college professoriate due to vast numbers of retirees; hence, a pressing demand to hire new faculty currently exists (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Green & Ciez-Volz, 2010).

In 2010, Vega et al. predicted that 40% to 80% of community college faculty will retire by 2015. With the majority of the faculty population approaching retirement and posing an impending crisis, community college systems are expected to recruit, hire, and retain a cadre of individuals who are passionate about the mission of community colleges and will commit to the accountability standards of 21st century higher education (Green & Ciez-Volz, 2010; Vega et al., 2010). Vega et al. (2010) suggested that robust efforts be implemented by community college leaders to ensure that faculty recruitment is reflective of student demographics and college service areas; thus, 21st century community colleges must hold employee diversity at the core of their being. Failure to employ a diverse community college faculty is hazardous and will yield costly repercussions to the communities which the colleges serve and to the quality of teaching and learning for the students (Vega et al., 2010).
Faculty Duties and Responsibilities

Community college faculty members merit the utmost respect and attention because they are an integral force among America’s postsecondary educational system (Twombly & Townsend, 2008). Hardy and Laanan (2006) explained that the values and reward structures in community colleges are different from the values and rewards in research universities. Shannon and Smith (2006) explained that community college faculty members are not assessed by the amount of research that they publish; instead, they are appraised by their ability to teach and engage students from differing backgrounds and academic skill levels (Shannon & Smith, 2006).

Teaching and learning are top priorities for community college faculty members, and it is imperative that these professionals possess the ability to engage, encourage, motivate, inspire, and teach the varying compositions of students that populate their classrooms (Green & Ciez-Volz, 2010). Rendering community service and volunteerism on institutional committees are also important aspects of the community college faculty role (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Moreover, Fugate and Amey (2000) highlighted that ties to the community are more common among vocational and technical faculty members than general education course instructors since they are more attuned to workforce and labor market needs within local communities.

Eddy (2010) found that many community college faculty members had never intended to teach at community colleges. Instead, they were ushered into the community college sector by chance. Eddy also discussed the notion that many community college faculty members join the ranks with a wealth of training in their profession but limited teacher training, yet they learn to teach by continuous reading in areas of interest, trial
and error, and observation. Additionally, faculty mentorship programs and professional
development opportunities aimed at enhancing teacher quality and introducing innovative
techniques for instructional delivery improve the quality of content delivery in
community college classrooms (Eddy, 2010). Diversification of the student body through
higher education expansion is the spark that has ignited a flame for the development of
fresh and innovative methods to community college instructional practices (Eddy, 2010;
Murray, 2001).

Community college instructors must have a well-articulated repertoire of
effective, exciting, creative, flexible, collaborative, interactive, and stimulating
instructional strategies to meet the needs and demands of the changing demographics in
higher education (Murray, 2001). By the same token, community college instructors must
be technologically proficient to meet the expectations of today’s multimedia age in a
virtual society; the typical mode of content delivery through lecture has thus been
replaced with savvy interactive online courses, academic social networks, and hybrid
course formats, and instructors amid the virtual world of learning have come forth as
facilitators, coaches, and mentors ready to guide students through the learning process
(Eddy, 2010; Green & Ciez-Volz, 2010; Murray, 2001). This effort takes the total
cooperation of college leaders and administrators in their being willing to offer
professional development opportunities to faculty members who are willing to
experiment with avenues leading to the integration of technologies in their courses
(Murray, 2001). Lastly, there must be a robust effort to address faculty needs and
establish balances in diversity at community colleges, if this is not achieved then there
will be costly repercussions at the expense of the students (Green & Ciez-Volz, 2010).
Teaching Areas

The two distinctive curricular areas in community colleges are academic and transfer education or career and technical vocational education (Twombly & Townsend, 2007). Twombly and Townsend (2007) explained that academic and transfer education is inclusive of general education courses, and career and technical vocational education includes occupational areas such as industrial arts, drafting, and child development. Twombly and Townsend (2008) reported that 47% of community college faculty taught in the liberal arts, 40% taught in professional areas such as nursing and business, 8% taught in vocational areas, and 4% taught developmental courses. According to Twombly and Townsend (2008), community college faculty carried an average teaching load of five 3-hour classes per semester. Although there has been no validation, many scholars contend that status tensions exist between faculty members who teach general education and transfer classes and those who teach career and technical courses. Additionally, general academic faculty have higher status and tend to be dominant in leadership and administrative roles (Twombly & Townsend, 2007, 2008).

When discussing teaching areas among community college faculty, it is imperative to provide a synthesis addressing the large portion of adjunct faculty members employed by two-year colleges. Adjunct faculty members maintain part-time status with the college; however, they bring a wealth of expertise to the collegial environment and they aid institutions in meeting the needs of diverse students and rapid, increasing enrollment (Charlier & Williams, 2011; Twombly & Townsend, 2008). Twombly and Townsend (2007) discussed several ways in which the hiring of adjunct faculty yields cost savings to institutions in that these individuals are non-salaried and paid on a course-
by-course basis while they receive little to no sick leave or healthcare benefits. Charlier and Williams (2011) made reference to the fiscal benefits of hiring adjunct faculty in the wake of tightened and constrained budgets across higher education. Moreover, Charlier and Williams (2011) described the hiring of adjunct faculty as a “critical part of the plan to meet enrollment demands in a climate of ever-tightening budgets” (p. 160).

In comparison to cost effectiveness relating to the hiring of adjunct faculty, Twombly and Townsend (2007) also spotlighted some of the downsides associated with the hiring of adjunct faculty such as non-availability because adjunct faculty are not required to maintain office hours, have limited interaction with students outside of class time, and are less familiar with institutional policy and programming than full-time faculty. Additionally, another concern related to community college faculty, is the concern that part-time faculty members are unable to provide input in curricula design and textbook selection (Twombly & Townsend, 2007). Twombly and Townsend (2007) argued that, despite a debate over whether or not the extensive use of part-time faculty negatively affects college graduation rates, the number of adjunct faculty members increased by more than 100% during the past three decades. Reports on adjunct faculty workload in 2004 showed that adjunct faculty members taught an average of 8.5 credit hours per week and still sustained other jobs in addition to their teaching (Charlier & Williams, 2011; Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Twombly & Townsend, 2007).

In concluding the discussion on community college faculty, it must not be forgotten that institutional diversity and qualified applicant pools will vary by geographical locations. Charlier and Williams (2011) pointed out that unmet institutional diversity is heavily impacted by size and location of the college. Furthermore, rural,
suburban, and urban community college faculty members will dictate faculty make-up due to factors relating to institutional size, regional characteristics, economic basis, resources, and attractiveness of the area (Charlier & Williams, 2011). Nonetheless, community colleges will continue to educate multitudes of undergraduates across the nation, and faculty members at two-year institutions must be provided valued, professional climates so that they can seek to be all things to all people (Charlier & Williams, 2011; Monroe, 1972; Murray, 2001).

Overview of Student Personnel Services

Monroe (1972) indicated that, universally, community colleges should offer students the delivery of a formal curriculum of instruction and accessibility to support services beyond the scope of instructional activities that take place in classrooms. Student support services sit at the heart of the collegial experience to provide optimal development for academic success by assisting students in resolving their academic problems, ensuring that they are working to their fullest scholastic ability, and encouraging their involvement in campus organizations (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Monroe, 1972).

Student personnel auspices first appeared in colleges across the United States in the early 1900s, catering to the physical needs of students during a period subsequent to World War I extending services in the areas of counseling and psychology (Dean & Meadows, 1995). Sharkin (2004) explained that support services has evolved and expanded to play a very vital role in the overall mission of higher education. In addition, Sharkin provided a review of past studies that illustrated strong relationships between advisement and retention. Sharkin (2004) cited a 1986 study conducted by Brenneman
and Bishop and a 1990 study conducted by Bishop and Walker, both of which were empirical studies demonstrating the positive effects that counseling had on retention rates. As a result of previous studies that were cited, Sharkin (2004) credited effective student support services for being a large contributor to student retention. Many advisement offices have expanded to make distinctive services available for student athletes, students with disabilities, students seeking job placement services, international students, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender students (Cohen & Brawer, 2008).

Unlike students in early colleges and universities, today’s college students are plagued with issues of emotional insecurity, inability to articulate life goals, and difficulty in coping with the demands of the collegial environment and academic coursework (Sharkin, 2004). Cardinal, effective, and multifaceted personnel services must lay the groundwork for student success and development (Cook, 1999; Hester, 2008; Light, 2001; Monroe, 1972; Sharkin, 2004). Rogers (2002) commented that student support services, also named student affairs, have received considerable attention in the literature. He further named the following publications in American higher education that are concerned with research on student affairs and student development: Journal of College Student Development, College Student Affairs Journal, NASPA Journal, and Journal of College Admissions (Rogers, 2002).

Student personnel services divisions must be adequately staffed with professionally trained individuals, who must remain willing to readily respond to challenges and changes in higher education (Dean & Meadows, 1995; Monroe, 1972; Sharkin, 2004). Monroe (1972) described student support services in community colleges as inadequate due to limited budgets and little vested interest in this area on the part of
administrators and faculty within institutions. Additionally, he added that early student personnel services were understaffed, underfinanced, and inadequate (Monroe, 1972).

Consequently, Dean and Meadows (1995) explained that external forces and internal issues would lead to the creation of uncertain atmospheres in higher education support services. Dean and Meadows predicted that the following external forces would lead to the continuous transformation amid the dynamics of student support services: changing student demographics, increasing health and safety needs of students, financial needs for students, budget cuts, staffing cuts, higher levels of assessment standards and accountability, increased focus on retention and accountability, and increasing competition for resources. Additionally, the authors predicted that internal forces such as increased enrollment of multicultural and non-traditional students and students with disabilities and varied therapeutic needs would create constant reformation of student support services in postsecondary education institutions (Dean & Meadows, 1995).

Student services complement the instructional realm and serve as the hub of student development and success in higher education (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Rogers, 2002; Sharkin, 2004). Student services under the auspices of student affairs are inclusive of employed personnel from recruitment and retention, counseling and advisement centers, admissions counselors, orientation, financial aid counselors, residence life, Greek life, career services, judicial affairs, student government, student health services, disability support services, campus police and safety departments, student activities and intramurals, and academic support services (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Dean & Meadow, 1995; Rogers, 2002; Sharkin, 2004).
Sprouse et al. (2008) argued that community colleges are open-door institutions that value teaching excellence and high caliber customer service. Student affairs professionals play a crucial role in the total student experience. These professional individuals must be “efficient leaders, effective problem solvers, and sensitive handlers of crisis” (Cohen & Brawer, 2008, p. 223). Moreover, the programs and services offered by the varying divisions of student services are critical to the cultural, social, moral, intellectual, and physical development of students in higher education; on the contrary, failure to yield efficient and successful programs and services can be detrimental to the holistic development of students (Rogers, 2002; Sharkin, 2004).

Historical Overview of Academic Advising

Advising is far from a newly innovated concept in higher education. The evolution of academic advising dates back to the early history of higher education. Particularly, in the colonial days, advising was the responsibility of the college president, and members of the faculty who acted in loco parentis (Cook, 1999). This system of advising ensured that students were counseled about their extracurricular activities, morals, and intellectual habits (Cook, 1999). Raskin (1979) argued that guidance and advice focusing on the religious, social, and moral development of students has existed long before counseling became a formally accepted skill in higher education. Kathryn Tuttle (2000) has focused attention on the history of academic advising in its evolution over the last two decades. She credited Harvard president Charles W. Eliot for being the historical godfather of academic advising. In 1870, he appointed Ephraim Gurney to be the first Dean of Students at Harvard. As Dean of Students, Gurney’s responsibilities included student discipline and assisting students in choosing course electives (Tuttle,
2000). In turn, the first formal faculty advising center was established at Johns Hopkins University in 1876, making faculty members completely responsible for the mission of advising and its function in higher education as it related to student development (Tuttle, 2000). Moreover, Monroe (1972) described the two types of community college deans prior to the 1930s, indicating that academic deans were charged with managing faculty and making decisions related to admissions, student academic records, and graduation while deans of men and women were charged with enforcing codes of personal behavior and serving as regulatory and disciplinary supervisors. Additionally, since most community colleges were commuter campuses with no dining facilities or residence halls, the need to supervise students to reduce disciplinary issues outside of class was minimal (Monroe, 1972).

Consequently, while early advisement practices were routine, involving only the selection of courses and assistance in helping students decide on a major field of study, this area of higher education has emerged and revamped its core mission in an effort to keep up with the needs of the student populations that change frequently across the history of higher education (Hester, 2008; Hines, 1981a, 1981b; Thelin, 2004). To date, there has not been a one size fits all prescription to ensure that effective advisement takes place in colleges and universities, but there has continued to be growth in higher education enrollment coupled with growing diversity among the faculty and student bodies. The face of academic advising has transformed professionally and comprehensively as a critical aspect of higher education, and advising is an ongoing process that can transform the quality of a student’s collegial experience (Cornell & Mosley, 2006; Light, 2001).
Mission of Advisement Services

Additionally, the mission of academic advisement centers has transformed from clerical duties geared toward course scheduling and degree audits to an amiable process involving connectivity among students and the institution as well as improved students/faculty relations. Student integration and academic and social development remain at the core of advisement benchmarks. Brock (2010) explained that some students arrive at college with pre-outlined educational and career goals, while a large number of entering students need assistance in navigating through processes and procedural matters associated with postsecondary transition. In contrast, dozens of empirical research studies have shown that colleges and universities lose over half of their freshmen population before the start of the second year (Feldman, 1993; Hunter & White, 2004; Robinson, 2004; Tinto, 1975). Yet, as advising has been identified as a key concept in helping students navigate the college entrance and matriculation processes, recent literature has declared advising as a contributing factor in the reduction of student attrition (Pizzolato, 2008). Researchers contend that the overall delivery of advising services significantly impacts student motivation and collegial involvement, which, in turn, positively correlates with retention (Cook, 1999; Tinto, 1988; Tuttle, 2000).

Today, advising is a major priority for student support services personnel. The outcomes of advisement have caused it to become a campus-wide responsibility involving administrators, faculty, counseling professionals, and even students as mentors. Consequently, with advisement becoming a shared responsibility within the higher education community, more emphasis has been placed on institutional accountability to guarantee greater effectiveness. In response to the call for quality advising through the
shared responsibility of campus-wide professionals, the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) was chartered in 1979 following the National Conference on Academic Advising, which was held in 1977 (National Academic Advising Association). The professional association published their first journal, *The Journal of the National Academic Advising Association* in 1981 (Tuttle, 2000). Today with over 10,000 members, NACADA continues to be instrumental in leading the enhancement efforts of advising and has kept its commitment to the profession by being dedicated to the improvement of advisement services.

In addition, the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) was founded in 1979 to promote standards and values for varying functional parts of higher education. The CAS is responsible for developing standards and guidelines that foster student growth and development as well as protecting the professional integrity and efficacy of advising professionals (White, 2006). Commonly used for self-assessment and for the improvement of programs, the CAS standards contain thirteen standards, ranging from mission to assessment that set the criteria to ensure that institutions are structuring their advisement programs to demonstrate the highest quality of advising and commitment to student success in academia (White, 2006).

Amid growing concerns relating to student adjustment and success in college, advising has proven to be an essential factor that leads to increased student retention. It is important not to underestimate or ignore the role of advising in student retention because degree completion is the true bottom line in higher education (Hale et al., 2009). Student retention is to advising as advising is to the core of student support services. College advisement centers are where goal-setting typically begins in higher education
Advising programs with effective delivery methods can strengthen student retention in higher education. Wilder (1981) cited earlier studies that found positive correlations between academic advisement and student success. In particular, he referenced a study in which over 200 male students from North Carolina State University were examined to determine whether or not there was a relationship among the number of hours spent with advisors in an advising center and increased grade point average over an academic year. The results verified that higher averages could be attributed to many hours spent in direct contact with advisors in the college advising center. Specifically, in the study, students who had spent 50 hours or more during the semester with advisors in both group meetings and individual sessions had higher grade point averages.

As higher education demographics change, student support services must continue to cater their missions to serve diverse populations. To support the mission of advisement services, many colleges have implemented student success courses, orientation courses, or freshman seminars as requirements for new incoming students (Duggan & Williams, 2010; O’Gara, Karp, & Hughes, 2009). O’Gara et al. (2009) explained that student success courses, which may also be known as College 101, introduction to college, student orientation, or freshman experience are mainly designed to teach students about the institution and provide them with insight on how to be successful. In addition to providing information about the college, the courses also focus on career guidance and tutorial services for students who need remedial courses by providing tips for improving study habits and time management (O’Gara et al., 2009). The courses are typically taught by academic advisors and have been found to be highly beneficial to college students (O’Gara et al., 2009).
In conducting a qualitative study measuring positive student outcomes and participation in a student success course at two different community colleges, O’Gara et al. (2009) found that students benefitted greatly from participation in a student success course by gaining information about the college in a one-stop shop setting, establishing important relationships with peers and faculty through in and out of class educational experiences, and developing stronger study skills that would aid in their academic success.

Duggan and Williams (2010) engaged in a deep exploration of orientation course delivery and the enhancement of student success. Their investigation found several modes of delivery formats for orientation courses including seminars and workshops prior to the start of classes, full semester traditional face to face classes, and online delivery modes. Duggan and Williams (2010) noted that regardless of the mode for delivery, all orientation courses are concerned with college survival and refining student confidence. The primary goals of orientation are enhancing academic skills, study skills, and time management, providing orientation to campus resources and functions of various college personnel, and easing the transition to postsecondary education.

Results from a qualitative study conducted by Duggan and Williams (2010) found that the information presented in orientation courses was useful to students overall, but among the 60 students who had completed an orientation course at the 10 community colleges from across two states selected for this study, students reported that usefulness of topics in orientation courses varied among students. Duggan and Williams (2010) reported that students identified techniques for maintaining balance/home/work/school, studying, note taking, test taking, Blackboard, financial aid, and job search as the most
useful topics in orientation courses, and students favored lecture and guest speakers as the most helpful instructional techniques. No topics were deemed non useful; however, several students did complain that the course information was common sense and too elementary for college students and that it was a waste of time for such a simple class to be required (Duggan & Williams, 2010). Furthermore, their findings implied that college orientation courses are beneficial, but they are not panacea for increasing student success and retention because some students who take orientation courses persist and some do not (Duggan & Williams, 2010).

Anger-Jessup (2011) detailed the history and objectives of freshman seminars. He stated that first year/freshman seminars were introduced to postsecondary institutions in the mid-1980s to assist in transitioning students out of high school into college. Out of concern for low undergraduate retention, administrators and policy makers envisioned freshman seminars as being a proactive intervention tool that would motivate students, acclimate them to the academic setting and introduce them to organizations and resources within the institution (Anger-Jessup, 2011). Strictly focused on enhancing the academic and social integration of first-year students, freshman seminars are aimed toward introducing students to topics relative to a college student’s experience, presenting recipes for college student success, and providing peer support to newly enrolled college students (Anger-Jessup, 2011). Illustrating that many positive outcomes had been associated with first-year seminars in relation to the improvement of retention from the first to the second year, Anger-Jessup (2011) was interested in finding out whether experiences in a first-year seminar affected student motivation to learn and work harder in college. One freshman seminar class was selected at a large research-extensive
university in the Midwest, and through classroom observations, personal interviews with students, a separate personal interview with the instructor, and written copies of student’s course evaluation, Anger-Jessup (2011) concluded her study. In conclusion, she explained that students in a 10-week, one-credit, pass or fail freshman seminar reported feeling a personal connection to the subject matter, and they gave personal accounts during the interviews of how the course topics motivated them to prioritize and become more academically focused. Additionally, students reported that freshman seminar motivated them to improve their writing and analytical skills to be better prepared for what was to come in pursuit of their educational endeavors (Anger-Jessup, 2011).

Meanwhile, there was a bit of negative feedback obtained from her study because students voiced disagreement for the pass/fail grade system and would have rather been graded on a scale of A-F. In personal interviews with the researcher, students admitted that they had done the bare minimum and had not put forth a lot of effort into the coursework because they knew they would only end up with a grade of pass or fail. Also students admitted that prior to the start of class, they did not expect to learn nor did they expect to work hard. Anger-Jessup (2011) also reported that a freshman seminar instructor admitted that she had failed to be innovative and put a considerable amount of planning into the 10-week course because there was no compensation for teaching it, and the duties were in addition to her duties as a full-time staff member at the college. In concluding the study, she encouraged higher education administrators to pay careful attention to the organizational structure of seminars because course details can help or hinder students’ and instructors’ motivation (Anger-Jessup, 2011).
Types of Advising

Advising and support services are integral parts of the educational process and advisors in campus advising centers play a critical role in fostering student engagement to support the attainment of educational goals (Campbell & Nutt, 2008). Hollis (2009) explained that advising centers hold the keys to educational progress and mis-advisement can negatively impact student attitudes toward higher education and cause them to make uninformed academic choices. Tuttle (2000) listed typical duties of advisors in today’s college and university settings: prepare registration material, evaluate transfer credit, advise on general education requirements, serve as liaisons to academic departments, coordinate orientation programs, maintain graduation audits, assist with scheduling, drop and add, declare and change majors, interpret academic policy for students, participate on policy-making committees, and refer students to other campus services. Advisors are integral to higher education, and they wear many hats. In fact, Noonan, Sedlacek, and Veerasamy (2005) argued that advising profoundly impacts campus climate. The skill, knowledge, expertise, and professionalism of advisors is critical to student success (Freeman, 2008; Hester, 2008; Tuttle, 2000).

While all higher education professionals have an obligation to helping students recognize and attain higher educational goals to their desired career pathways, advisors are strategically positioned at the intersection of all educational experiences that students will encounter as they strive to reach the larger purpose of their education (White & Schulenberg, 2012). All outcomes of advising are guided by a college’s mission, goals, and curricula, yet the universal objective of advising is to support student achievement through connecting diverse learning experiences, engaging advisees in dialogue about the
purpose and meaning of required courses, and creating individualized courses of study for advisees (White & Schulenberg, 2012). It is through advisement services that students are challenged to meet their educational goals, and advisors have the primary role of observing student success toward educational plans (Drake, 2011; White & Schulenberg, 2012). Regardless of institutional type or student body make-up, Drake (2011) explained that solid relationships with advisors cause students to be happier, more successful in their academics, and better connected to the institution. According to Drake, solid advising relationships also enable college students to discover their potential, purpose, and passion. There is no blueprint for academic advising, however; advising programs that place emphasis only on record keeping and registration are inefficient and are missing the opportunity to aid students in becoming more self-aware of their distinctive interests, talents, values, and priorities (Drake, 2011).

Developmental Advising

According to Crookston (1972), developmental advising focuses on student potential, growth, and maturity. Consistent with Crookston, Ender (1997) defined developmental advising as an advising relationship that helps students achieve academic and personal goals by focusing on academic competence, personal involvement, and developing long term life goals through ongoing, purposeful student-advisor interactions. Developmental advisors guide students to take ownership and become independent problem-solvers in the learning process. This method of advising encourages relationships to be built between advisors and advisees, and King (2005) argued that it stretches far beyond signing registration forms, making students follow program guidelines, and maintaining students’ files and other paperwork.
Developmental advising is grounded in cognitive developmental theory, psychosocial theory, and person-environment interaction theory; thus, it focuses on the whole person and works with the student at his or her own life stage of development (King, 2005). Developmental advising empowers students to set goals and take action toward attaining the desired goals (King, 2005). O’Banion (1972) suggested that it is important for developmental advisors to not only have academic backgrounds in psychology and sociology, but also to be skilled in counseling techniques in order to use reflective and non-judgmental language, respect and appreciate individual differences, and appreciate the student’s life goals even if the advisor disagrees with the student. Ultimately, O’Banion (1972) concluded that developmental advising should not consist of telling students what to think or feel, but instead it should guide the student through the process of holistically developing and attaining life and career goals.

Prescriptive Advising

In prescriptive advising, students generally come to advisors for specific questions to be answered, and advisors give advice that the students are expected to follow (King, 2005). In the prescriptive advising method, students rely heavily on advisors’ recommendations for course selection, registration procedures, major change processes, institutional procedures for dropping courses, and graduation requirements for degree completion (Crookston, 1972). In contrasting developmental and prescriptive advising, Habley (2004) suggested that students prefer direct, timely, and accurate information which follows the prescriptive advising continuum and poses a hindrance for students’ development of exploration and critical thinking skills.
Earl (1987) criticized prescriptive advising for simply being concerned with students meeting graduation requirements rather than being concerned with helping the student to work through academic, personal, financial, and family concerns that may impede academic progress. Nineteen years later, Smith (2007) explained that prescriptive advising does not focus on helping students identify their strengths and weaknesses, and it fails to encourage students to develop plans for academic and social improvement.

**Faculty Advising**

Higbee (1979) characterized academic advising on university campuses as a hit-or-miss affair since students are typically assigned a departmental faculty advisor upon entrance. This professor is usually expected to fill the role of advisor until the student graduates from the college or decides to transfer to another department. However, when the student seeks out his or her assigned faculty advisor, one of the following occurrences is likely to take place: the advisor is teaching a class, the advisor is in a meeting, or the advisor is out of town. In like manner, if the student is fortunate enough to catch the advisor in the office, it is highly likely that the student will encounter one of the following: the advisor is not up-to-date on the most current general education requirements, the advisor is unaware of university policies and resources that may be available to help the student with personal or academic problems, or the advisor is too busy preparing a lecture, researching, or writing an article to spend time conversing with the advisee (Higbee, 1979).

Kadar (2001) criticized faculty advising by arguing that faculty members lack professional counselor training and are not equipped to understand other issues important to students. Allen and Smith (2008) argued that faculty members need to do better
advising and blamed their ineffectiveness and shortcomings on the fact that they are too engaged in conducting research, maintaining participation in institutional governance, contributing to their discipline, and sometimes fundraising. It was also argued that in many cases faculty members disdain advising, seeing it as a low-status activity and “an add-on to their teaching load, research and service obligations for tenure” (Allen & Smith, 2008, p. 398). Furthermore, it is assumed that faculty members fail to hold advising in high regard because they know it does not carry much weight in promotion, tenure, and salary decisions. It is not valued by upper administration, and there is no compensation for it (Allen & Smith, 2008; Swanson, 2006). Carduner (2005) referred to findings from the American College Testing (ACT) Program’s Fifth National Survey of Academic Advising, which showed that only 35% of the surveyed institutions offered training to faculty advisors and 31% of the institutions surveyed provided compensation or recognition.

Habley (2004) reported that 75% to 90% of all academic advising was the responsibility of faculty in American colleges and universities, yet faculty continue to be dedicated more to teaching and research and less concerned with student advising. McArthur (2005) attempted to justify faculty reluctance to invest time in academic advising on the idea that faculty believe that out of class contact with students was too casual. McArthur (2005) further argued that faculty typically will view advising as a low priority when institutions place little to no importance on effective practices.

Student Satisfaction with Academic Advising and Usage of Services

In 1989, Metzner argued that advising was essential in the retention of undergraduate students, and advising practices must be improved to ensure high-quality
service delivery. Student retention is a by-product of any successful advising program. It is to an institution’s advantage to assess the outcomes and satisfaction within the advisement center (Campbell & Nutt, 2008). Colleges and universities are responsible for developing their own academic advising structure depending on the type of school, size of the college, and its overall mission (Tuttle, 2000). For decades, researchers have been concerned with investigating student attitudes toward advisement services at higher education institutions (Habley, Grites & Associates, 2008). Students develop positive attitudes toward the institution and their studies when they feel supported and receive insightful information, along with meaningful services delivered with exceptional customer service (Freeman, 2008; Tuttle, 2000). Additionally, the formation of positive attitudes displayed by college personnel and students regarding school leads to a sense of belonging and student integration in academic settings (O’Gara et al., 2009).

Academic advising has not received the credibility as being a key component in student services (Light, 2001; Pizzolata, 2008; White, 2006). Sloan, Jefferson, Search, and Cox (2005) reported that in response to advising, assessment results continued to yield evidence of inadequate academic advising services as a performance gap. Wilder (1981) cited data indicating that inadequate academic advising ranked first and highest among negative characteristics linked to drop-out rates in institutions of higher learning. Meanwhile, 27 years later, Freeman (2008) identified the following three services as most frustrating to undergraduate students on college campuses: parking, dining hall food, and advising. Freeman (2008) determined that lack of participation by faculty, large advisor-to-advisee ratios, and advisor inaccessibility were common reasons diminishing satisfaction with advisement. Likewise, Allen and Smith (2008) explained that academic
advising has continued to rank lowest among satisfaction with college services. All advising relationships should be built on trust as a foundation. If this is successfully accomplished, then students rely on advisors to provide up-to-date information, respect their individuality as students, and encourage them to become successful and independent (Allen & Smith, 2008).

Following years of continuous reports of student dissatisfaction with advisement, Tallahassee Community College restructured its academic advising program and designed it so that students would be led along a continuum from being dependent to becoming responsible, independent, self-directed learners (Sloan et al., 2005). Reportedly, their former advisement system failed to assist students in career planning options, lacked a combination of academic planning separate from schedule building during registration, and failed to provide adequate support to newly enrolled students. The college now utilizes an online program known as the Progressive Advising System, which automatically assigns students to faculty members who will familiarize them with the collegial system, advises them, and tracks their progress from the first semester through commencement and transfer to senior colleges or into the workforce (Sloan et al., 2005).

Additionally, the seven steps of the program are inclusive of (a) a communication component, which aids in making electronic appointments; (b) a records component, which keeps a log of mailing addresses and academic goals; (c) a to do list, which prioritizes follow up; (d) a self-assessment component, which provides self-help in the areas of study skills, organization, and time management; (e) a planning guide, which maintains student academic records consistent with the core curriculum guide; (f) an
academic planner, which gives course planning prior to the start of each semester; and (g) a registration planner connecting to the online student registration system (Sloan et al., 2005).

Despite the value that counseling and advising can add to effective collegial outcomes, the fact remains that there are substantially low rates of utilization in counseling and advising centers among minority students (Light 2001; Tuttle, 2000). Ashburn (2007) argued that lack of advising yields student confusion and discontentment with the academic environment. Ashburn also explained that many community college students slip through the cracks before they barely make it through the door to college because they fail to take advantage of advisement services. In the 2007 Community College Survey of Student Engagement, it was reported that half of the participating students failed to see their advisor within the first four weeks of school (Ashburn, 2007).

A quantitative study in which over 300 community college students were interviewed found that Caucasian and Asian students were reportedly more likely to see a counselor than students of color (Orozco et al., 2010). Minority students reported extreme difficulty in being able to access their counselors, and in the study accessibility was discussed as a problem due to high counselor-student ratios (Orozco et al., 2010). Limited time on campus and time constraints due to students’ employment schedules and counselor non-availability after normal business hours to accommodate working students who attended classes at night or enrolled in online courses were hindrances to the advisement process (Orozco et al., 2010). It was also discovered in this literature that Latino and African American students preferred having counselors of the same ethnic background and with similar cultural characteristics, yet they are in short supply.
Best Practices in Advisement Services

Johnson and Morgan (2005) discussed the transformation of advisement practices within the Psychology Department at the University of Wisconsin-LaCrosse. Amid growing faculty and student discontentment with interdepartmental advising, a strategic plan was invoked to improve faculty advisement for psychology majors. According to Johnson and Morgan, the multi-component plan was designed with the following seven priorities: (a) increasing the effectiveness of face-to-face advising by reducing time spent on basic information, (b) increasing the meaningfulness of advising interaction between faculty and students, (c) providing students consistent and correct information in a timely manner, (d) increasing the varying types of information-delivery systems, (e) focusing on program requirements and career planning, (f) improving the visibility of advising resources, and (g) evaluating the progression of advisement practices. As a result of the changes, the department was applauded for creating a quality advising culture and for urging faculty to commit to the objectives at the core of the departmental transformation (Johnson & Morgan, 2005). Additionally, it was reported that students feel more connected to their faculty advisors and given the wider range of resources provided on graduate school entrance and career exploration alternatives, students have gained an increased confidence about their futures (Johnson & Morgan, 2005).

West Oregon University’s Academic Advising and Learning Center (AALC) pledged that all newly enrolled students would receive an academic advising syllabus which outlines learner outcomes and responsibilities of both parties involved in the advising relationship (Vance, 2008). The belief was that this would lay the foundation for students to know and understand the role that advising will play throughout their
years at the institution. It was thought that this method of advisement would also encourage students to take an active role in their academic matriculation as early as the freshman year (Vance, 2008). Additionally, the AALC at West Oregon University provides outreach and intervention strategies for at-risk students who have received academic warnings and have been placed on probation; students can thus self-report or be referred to the outreach center by faculty as early warning to avoid failure (Vance, 2008). As a way of providing academic support, individualized success plans are created for each student consisting of weekly advisor meetings, required attendance at academic workshops and mandatory study hall hours, or any other reasonable approach recommended by the advisor to make the student successful (Vance, 2008).

Pedescleaux, Baxter, and Sidbury (2008) discussed the redesign of advisement services at Spelman College. The mission of the reconstruction was to implement an early warning system among entering freshmen and to provide more professional development training related to advisement to faculty and other campus professionals with a role in student support services. Advisors at Spelman College were strongly encouraged to structure interactions and informal gatherings with advisees outside of the campus setting. It was recommended that gatherings be in the form of lunch, dinner meetings, and attendance at cultural and educational events. Frequent communication via electronic mail and telephone systems were outlined in the redesign of student services at Spelman (Pedescleaux et al., 2008). As a result of the changes and implementations, these encounters with support personnel made students feel more welcomed and at ease with the collegial climate. Faculty members who serve in the capacity of advisors at Spelman received a wealth of training through attending extensive mandatory advisor
training sessions prior to the initial start of the fall semester when most new students arrive (Pedescleaux et al., 2008). Faculty advisors were given an advising handbook and a course sequence handbook containing information on the advising process, academic policies and procedures, as well as recommended courses for all majors and minors at the college (Pedescleaux et al., 2008).

Dahl (2004) concluded that academic advisement services must be of high-quality and accessible in order to reach the masses in higher education. She explained that advances in technology have fostered the implementation of online advising services to replace traditional paper-based methods for students who are challenged by utilizing advising services during regular business hours (Dahl, 2004). Dahl’s work went further to highlight several institutions that use online models for advising. Pima Community College District offers a virtual advising center which includes interactive video advising, a tool that students can use to make appointments with advisors, and a frequently asked questions link (Dahl, 2004). For colleges looking to expand their services to cater to a variety of student needs, Dahl explained that the evolution of advisement through distance education is an exceptional way to conveniently make information, resources, and advisors available to students.

Theoretical Framework

Over the last two decades, higher education research has been fueled by concerns involving student retention (Barbatis, 2010; Braxton, Hirschy, & McClendon, 2004; Harrison, 2009). The construction of models and theories to explain the combination of factors that impact persistence and college dropout has captured the interest of researchers, practitioners, and those with a general interest in higher education (Churchill
Jane Grosset (1991) argued that since many colleges are driven by enrollment or tuition, effective strategies to remediate student dropout should be considered in the educational process. She further noted that retention should be viewed as an issue of institutional effectiveness rather than the sole responsibility of enrollment management personnel.

To date, much of the discussion involving student attrition in higher education has continued to rely on the integration model of student attrition, which was published in 1975 by Vincent Tinto and has since laid the theoretical foundation for understanding the factors that lead to persistence or attrition in higher education (Ben-Tsur, 2007; Mannan, 2007). In particular, Tinto uses his model to argue that students who are less integrated into the academic and social communities at an institution are more likely to leave school without earning a degree (Elkins et al., 2000; Zea et al., 1997). Much of Tinto’s model places emphasis on student integration and commitment (Bean, 1985; Elkins et al., 2000; Grosset, 1991). Further, the model argues that the level of student integration into the social and academic systems of the college is a determinant of whether or not students will persist or drop out. The more integrated and involved an individual is with the collegial system, the more committed the individual will be to the institution and to the goal of degree completion (Elkins et al., 2000; Mannan, 2007; Tinto, 1975). According to Grosset (1991), academic integration is influenced by intellectual development, good study habits, low absenteeism, use of institutional resources, and grade performance. Grosset also explained that social integration is influenced by out-of-class activities, which encourage student participation in extracurricular activities and increase interaction among peer groups and, frequently faculty members outside of class. In
creating a linkage to Tinto’s model and present-day higher education, Fischer (2007) explained that the crux of the model places advising at an important juncture within the college integration process since it promotes social interaction and involvement.

Tinto (1975) criticized previous literature regarding higher education dropout by arguing that research on dropout behaviors failed to distinguish between student dropout rates due to voluntary withdrawal and dropout rates from academic dismissal. Previous literature failed to separate permanent college dropouts from those who leave temporarily from those who transfer to other colleges and universities. Bean (1985) explained that a student’s violation of social or academic standards at an institution would also be causes for involuntary withdrawal. Concurrently, theoretical frameworks provide a useful understanding of the issues surrounding student attrition. Failure to adequately define dropout can negatively impact policy making in higher education. This could impede the process of development and implementation of practices to improve retention and reduce dropout among the general student population (Tinto, 1975, 1982). It is impossible to totally eliminate dropout in higher education, but by the same token, institutions can seek to improve the total quality of their educational activities so that students may be more apt to stay in college and meet their career or degree goals. It is imperative for institutions to seek improvement in the ways that they effectively serve students both in and out of the classroom community (Tinto, 1982).

*Description of Vincent Tinto’s Student Integration Model (SIM)*

The work of Vincent Tinto is deeply rooted in the studies of Emile Durkheim (1897) and William Spady (1970). According to Tinto (1975), Durkheim proposed that suicide is more likely to occur when individuals lack moral integration and insufficient
personal affiliation with members of the collective society. When college is treated and viewed as a social system, dropout can be treated in an analogous manner to that of suicide. In essence, Tinto theorized that the social conditions which affect a student’s decision to withdraw from the social system of the college are analogous to the social conditions that result in the act of suicide in mainstream society (Carter, 2006; Elkins et al., 2000). In his theory of higher education dropout, known as the Student Integration Model (SIM), Tinto concluded that integration into the social and academic realms of the institution affects a student’s decision to leave or stay at an institution (Ben-Tsur, 2007; Carter, 2006; Elkins et al., 2000; Tinto, 1975). By and large, students are least likely to persist when they feel ostracized at the college.

Tinto’s work reaches over into the field of social anthropology by exploring the work of Arnold Van Gennep (Carter, 2006; Elkins et al., 2000; Tinto, 1988). He explained that Van Gennep was concerned with the study of the membership rites among tribal societies from birth, marriage, and death, including the ceremonies and rituals that were employed in these relationships over time across communities and societies (Carter, 2006; Elkins et al., 2000; Tinto, 1988). When a student leaves home and enters a collegiate environment, they abandon their culture, entering a new setting to assimilate into the cultural heritage of the college or university (Carter, 2006; Maldonado, Rhoads, and Buenavista, 2005). From his observation, Van Gennep identified three stages for groups and societal relationships: separation, transition, and incorporation, which he referred to as The Rites of Passage (Tinto, 1975; 1988).

On the whole, students move through the separation stage when they leave home, enter college, and are forced to separate themselves from their families, friends, past
communities, and high schools. The transition stage goes hand in hand with the separation stage because students become engaged in the new environment and the present community, resulting in some students making a smooth transition while others find it very difficult to embrace their new community and more likely end up departing from school. The final stage that students move through is incorporation, which is when students work to become actual members of the new community and seek to adopt the norms of their new society. College norms are communicated in extracurricular activities, Greek letter organizations, student leadership clubs, dormitory associations, and intramural athletics (Tinto, 1988). Moreover, when students do not establish membership within their new communities, they are left to feel their own way, and they never integrate within the norms of the institution, leading to low commitment and loyalty to the institution (Ben-Tsur, 2007). In many cases, students lack the knowledge of the resources available to aid them in being successful and, at times, depart from college before degree completion.

In 1975, Tinto identified several predictors that lead to student dropout in higher education. Among the reasons, he acknowledged family background, pre-college experience, and expectations of the collegial environment as predictors of persistence (Fischer, 2007). Tinto cited existing research by Sewell and Shah (1967) arguing that students from lower SES have higher rates of dropout than students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds. Also, Tinto pointed out that students from more educated families have a greater rate of persistence in collegial settings than do students from families that are less affluent. Further, in this respect, parental levels of expectations influenced persistence (Tinto, 1975). Tinto (1975, 1988) asserted that higher educational
professionals need to be concerned with what students expect to gain from college, as this is an indicator of what attracted them and may serve as a determinant of how hard the student plans to work at attaining their educational goals (Tinto, 1975).

*Research Studies Using SIM*

Maldonado et al. (2005) proposed criticism for Tinto’s model, arguing that the theory focuses only on individual students and their ability to make campus connections rather than group identification with the collective institutional system. Additionally, Tinto (1982) pointed out the following limitations of his own theory. First, the model fails to explain the extent to which finances may impact a student’s decision to leave an institution. Second, there is no clear distinction concerning student transfer and permanent dropout. Third, the model fails to provide an in-depth understanding of how dropout differs among people of differing gender, race, age, and family backgrounds. Lastly, the model fails to bring recognition to the differing forms of student disengagement that can potentially lead to dropout in the community college system. In discussing the latter limitations, Tinto (1982) and Grosset (1991) both illustrate that the SIM model was designed to identify and understand the notions of academic and social integration that facilitate or impede degree completion at four-year residential colleges. Much inconsistency exists in empirical findings from studies at community colleges. Therefore, researchers have had to modify the SIM model to better reflect community college demographics, be more reflective of nontraditional students, and alleviate a great deal of focus on social integration while placing even greater emphasis on academic integration and its impact on student retention.
Grosset (1991) argued that much of the empirical studies done that employed Tinto’s model focused only on four-year colleges whose primary populations were traditionally aged undergraduates, but failed to include nontraditional students ages 24 years and older. For this reason, she proposed a research design with the main goal of exploring the components of Tinto’s SIM model to exploring the differences in persistence in comparison of older and younger college students in a two-year collegial setting (Grosset, 1991). All in all, while some insight was provided relating to the differences in persistence among two-year institutions and four-year institutions, her findings yielded conclusions consistent with previous literature. Among students younger than the age of 24 years, academic integration influenced their decision to persist more than social integration. Institutional commitment was not an important factor in deciding persistence among younger students as it was to students who were 24 years of age and older (Grosset, 1991).

Kevin Dougherty (1992) outlined three general obstacles encountered by community college students aspiring to attain bachelor’s degrees. He identified community college survival, transferring to a four-year college, and surviving in a four-year college as the three main challenges that community college students encounter in achieving a baccalaureate degree. In addition, he cited the elements of the SIM model to prove that a gap exists between students who begin their studies at the community college level versus students who enter at the four-year level. Specifically, community colleges fail to integrate their students into the academic and social life of the college. This lack of integration is evident because community college students are much less involved in extracurricular activities and make far less contact with faculty and peers. This
observation may be attributed to a vast majority of community colleges that are strictly commuter campuses with no on-campus housing. Dougherty cited past research, which found a positive correlation between residential living and student persistence from the freshmen year to the sophomore year. Furthermore, he illustrated that only 8.9% of entering community college students live on campus compared to 38.8% of entering students at four-year universities. It was argued that if community college students survive the two-year system, then the next obstacle lies within the transfer process. He added that moving to a new school and possibly a new community may be a tremendous challenge. Nevertheless, surveys of community college students found that many students had been given inadequate transfer advice, and they received minimal information on encouragement for their intent to transfer. Finally, to demonstrate the need to apply Tinto’s SIM model to community college attrition, Dougherty (1992) outlined several other factors that contribute to the failure of community college students to attain baccalaureate degrees. In this case, he pointed out that many students fail to complete degree requirements at the two-year or four-year college level as a result of their exhaustion of financial aid eligibility, loss of transfer credits, and lack of academic preparation.

Hu and Huh (2002) explained that encouraging higher levels of student engagement must be the responsibility of enrollment management and institutional research auspices. As follow-up to Tinto’s student integration model, Carter (2006) found student orientation, learning communities, first-year experience seminars, and advisement centers to positively impact student persistence and promote integration into the collegial environment. Campbell and Nutt (2008) urge higher education stakeholders to place
academic advising at the core of initiatives for student success. If this suggestion is implemented, advising will undoubtedly address the key conditions for academic persistence as noted by Tinto (1975).

Synopsis of Literature Review

This research study seeks to explore community college students’ reported levels of satisfaction with academic advising and to further determine whether reported satisfaction levels are affected by race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential student status. An additional aim of this research is to determine whether reported satisfaction levels are affected by race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential student status. A review of the literature warranted a need to encompass many necessary themes analogous to the practice of advising.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Open access two-year and four-year institutions allow diverse populations to enter college in search of upward mobility and educational attainment; therefore, innovative strategies for institutional productivity must be permeated throughout postsecondary institutions (Ayers, 2002; Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Valadez, 2002). Today, students in higher education face insurmountable barriers to college completion and several uncertainties that can arise to impede their academic progression while in pursuit of a college degree (McArthur, 2005). Ben-Tsur (2007) explained that students are forced to withdraw from their studies because of varying difficulties with finances, off-campus employment, family commitments and obligations, poor grades, and social integration at the institution. Additionally, Hu and Huh (2002) discussed several risk factors that pose a threat to college completion. They further argued that delaying college entrance after high school, being academically underprepared, being a single parent, working 30 hours or more per week, being a first-generation college student, caring for children at home, being financially independent or relying on their own income, and attending college part-time are conditions that contribute to student departure from higher education prior to degree completion. Despite limited time on campus to attend functions outside of class time, non-residential commuter students need to feel a sense of belonging and connectedness to institutional resources and student support services (Levin, 2000). There are no set guidelines and one-size-fits-all clear-cut strategies for promoting academic success among the distinct populations in higher education (Clark & Kalionzes, as cited in Habley, Grites and Associates, 2008).
Community colleges currently lead the nation in postsecondary enrollment and they function as catalysts for educational, economic, and social change within their respective communities (Bastedo & Gumport, 2003; Boone, 1992; Brint, 2003; DeWitt, 2010; Kirkman, 1969; Levin, 2000; Shannon & Smith, 2006). However, these institutions have been continuously criticized for failing to move large numbers of enrollees toward degree completion (Boggs, 2004; Cohen & Brawer, 2008). Ayers (2002) argued that community college leaders must articulate learner needs and provide strategic responses to all facets of the educational environment to ensure student success.

The purpose of this study was to explore the level of satisfaction with advisement among community college students in Mississippi. An additional aim of this research was to further determine if advisement satisfaction was related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and residency status. Studying advisement satisfaction among community college students may be explored through several methods of research including phone interviews, face-to-face interviews, observations, or focus groups. However, for the purpose of this research study, the survey method was used. The research questions were addressed through the distribution of the Survey of Academic Advising, a product of the American College Testing (ACT) Evaluation/Survey Service.

Research Questions

Achieving student success and increasing student retention are crucial responsibilities of student support service auspices in higher education (Nitecki, 2011). Higher education leaders have sought to enhance the mission of advisement centers and to refine the academic, social, and cultural needs of students to promote degree
attainment (Carter, 2006). The emergence and continual evolution of academic advising has been deemed a vital force in refining and improving the collegiate educational experience (Morris, 2009). Bland (2004) described advising as a lifeline leading to the development of human relationships surpassing course scheduling but focusing on the personal and holistic growth and development of students.

A major goal of this study was to provide evaluative data representing the advisement satisfaction among community college students in Mississippi. These data provide feedback that can lead to improvements in the advising experience for students attending community colleges in the state of Mississippi. Furthermore, the overall purpose of this study was to assess community college student satisfaction with academic advising services and to serve as a foundation for the future development and implementation of an effective community college advising model template.

This study was guided by the following questions:

1. What are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising?

2. Are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential student status?

Research Design and Data Collection Procedures

This quantitative study used survey methodology. The independent variables relating to the survey included race (African American, Caucasian, Asian, Hispanic, Multicultural), gender (male or female), age (traditional or non-traditional age), first-generation or continuing generation, residential status (commuter or on-campus
residential), and employment status (working off-campus or unemployed). A cluster-sampling method was used in the mode of administration for this survey.

Written permission to conduct this research was granted by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board prior to beginning the study (Appendix A). Also, the researcher submitted an application to conduct statewide research on Mississippi Community and Junior Colleges (MACJC) to the President’s Association for the Mississippi Community College Board (Appendix B). According to Dr. Debra West (personal communication, March 14, 2012), the application is required for the following purposes: (a) it requires the researcher to summarize the proposed research and provide supporting documentation ensuring that research is performed in compliance with all applicable laws, regulations, and institutional and federal policies regarding human subjects research; (b) it ensures the proposed research has institutional support through IRB approval and the endorsement of a qualified research advisor (i.e., faculty member) who assumes responsibility for the project; and, (c) it provides the applicant with appropriate documentation that the MACJC President’s Association has reviewed the proposed study. The President’s Council is made up of each president from all 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi. Written permission to survey students attending Mississippi community colleges was granted by the President’s Council, and the researcher received signed documentation from the President of the President’s Association to conduct survey research at the main campuses of the colleges (Appendix C).

The researcher used the college websites to identify academic deans, who were then contacted via telephone or electronic communication and asked to assist in the
identification and accessibility of *Public Speaking/Oral Communications* sections for the purpose of survey administration. In some cases, the academic dean immediately referred the researcher to a faculty member, but in some of the schools the researcher was redirected either to a department chair or an individual working in institutional research for further explanation of the study. The researcher secured contacts at 12 of the 15 community colleges and was able to work alongside instructors who served as liaisons for survey administration. Data were collected from October 1 through November 18, 2012. ACT (2007) warns users to avoid survey administration just before or after vacations and during exam weeks because these times can yield very low response rates. Participation was on a voluntary basis and survey completion did not exceed 30 minutes. The researcher guaranteed total confidentiality, and there were no psychological, social, physical, economic, or legal risks posed to the participants. No monetary or extra credit compensation was provided to participants for participation in this study.

Prior to send-off, surveys and materials had to be packaged and careful measures were taken to ensure that the packages were secure and all materials were enclosed. The researcher obtained a definite number of students on rosters for survey packaging, obtained the addresses to where surveys would be sent, packaged and shipped all materials needed for successful administration, and confirmed receipt of packaging. ACT instruments are designed to be self-explanatory, but it is recommended to include basic directions outlining completion procedures for surveys (ACT, 2007). The researcher did not provide specific training for survey administration; however, a written checklist was provided, which listed a strategically numbered guide and script designed to aid instructors in survey administration. For this study, instructors from the selected Public
Speaking sections were provided a scripted letter from the researcher (Appendix D). The letter was to be read to the class prior to survey administration. It briefly explained the following: purpose of the study, amount of time required to complete the questionnaire, the confidentiality of the data, and voluntary consent to participate in the study. The scripted letter also explained that students could discontinue participation at any time. Per ACT’s request, the scripted letter stressed the use of soft-lead, number 1 or 2 pencils to complete the survey. Number 2 pencils were included in the packaging materials sent by the researcher. The script also stressed to participants that they were not to fold, tear or spill any liquids on the survey, as this may result in the documents being unable to be scanned. At the conclusion of reading the script, the instructor was asked to allow students to ask questions. In addition, students were given a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, informed consent, final disposition of data, researcher’s contact information, and the Human Subjects Review Committee statement.

Once the in-class surveys were completed by students, the instructors were asked to collect all material as outlined in the script and follow the instructions for returning the documents back to the researcher using the return pre-paid envelopes provided. All completed surveys as well as any unused surveys were returned by the instructors to the researcher. No surveys were to be taken out of class. Upon receipt of returned materials, the researcher provided package confirmation to the instructor through an email. Also, upon receiving completed surveys, the researcher carefully checked and edited the surveys. To avoid instruments from being eliminated, the researcher checked for stray markings, ovals gridded in too lightly, responses gridded in ink, spills, folds and creases, and staples. The researcher had to also ensure that the first page of each instrument was
facing up in the same direction as requested by ACT (2007). Once surveys were properly packaged, the researcher completed the required ACT data forms and returned the package to the address specified by ACT. Data collection officially ended December 4, 2012 and on December 7, 2012 all completed surveys were packaged and shipped to ACT by the researcher for scanning.

Description of Research Environment

Mississippi has 15 publicly supported two-year institutions within its community college system. The 15 colleges provide quality educational opportunity and training to residents of 82 counties as well as neighboring states (Young & Ewing, 1978). Under the coordination and directorship of the Mississippi Community College Board (MCCB), all 15 public community colleges provide the opportunity for an excellent education at a low cost to Mississippians. Mississippi community colleges aim to teach a wide spectrum of subject areas, including university-track academic classes, career and technical skills, workforce education directed toward specific jobs, as well as adult basic education and GED preparation. Community college enrollment is projected to continue increased growth, and if Mississippi community colleges will offer stellar services to their constituents, then students must be met upon entrance and supported to the fullest throughout their matriculation (Ayers, 2002; Green, 2006).

Mississippi is recognized as the first state in the United States to legally establish a state system of public junior colleges and a commission to oversee the institutions (Young & Ewing, 1978). Young and Ewing (1978) discussed that community college campuses are intentionally centrally located within commuting distance to virtually all Mississippians and close proximity to senior colleges, based on counties assigned to
proposed zoning standards. The research for this project was conducted within the community college system in the state of Mississippi. According to the 2011 Annual Report published by the Mississippi Community College Board, there was a total headcount of 83,210 students in the Fall 2010 semester, with 14,074 Associate of Applied Science and Associate of Arts degrees awarded by two-year colleges in 2010. Table 1 provides a list of the community college names and the counties served by each.

Table 1

*Community Colleges in Mississippi in Relation to Service Area by County*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community College</th>
<th>Service Area by County</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coahoma Community College</td>
<td>Bolivar, Coahoma, Quitman, Tallahatchie, Tunica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copiah-Lincoln Community College</td>
<td>Adams, Copiah, Franklin, Jefferson, Lawrence, Lincoln, Simpson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Central Community College</td>
<td>Leake, Neshoba, Newton, Scott, Winston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Mississippi Community College</td>
<td>Clay, Kemper, Lauderdale, Lowndes, Noxubee, Oktibbeha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinds Community College</td>
<td>Claiborne, Copiah, Hinds, Rankin, Warren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holmes Community College</td>
<td>Attala, Carroll, Choctaw, Grenada, Holmes, Madison, Montgomery, Webster, Yazoo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itawamba Community College</td>
<td>Chickasaw, Itawamba, Lee, Monroe, Pontotoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jones County Junior College</td>
<td>Clarke, Covington, Forrest, Greene, Jasper, Jefferson Davis, Lamar, Marion, Perry, Smith, Wayne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meridian Community College</td>
<td>Lauderdale, Newton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi Delta Community College</td>
<td>Sunflower, Leflore, Humphreys, Washington, Issaquena, Sharkey, Bolivar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College</td>
<td>Harrison, George, Jackson, Stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northeast Mississippi Community College</td>
<td>Alcorn, Prentiss, Tippah, Tishomingo, Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northwest Mississippi Community College</td>
<td>Benton, DeSoto, Lafayette, Marshall, Tate, Yalobusha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearl River Community College</td>
<td>Jefferson Davis, Forrest, Marion, Lamar, Pearl River, Hancock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southwest Community College</td>
<td>Amite, Pike, Walthall, Wilkinson</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Description of the Participants

The participating subjects in this study were students currently enrolled in one of Mississippi’s 15 community colleges in the Fall 2012 semester. Participation was voluntary, and students were taking classes at the main campus of their college. Due to a highly diversified student population among community colleges, the researcher assumed the participating subjects to be heterogeneously mixed based on age, gender, race, first-generation student status, and residential or commuter student status. To ensure that students had met with an advisor, and to ensure that the study included academic transfer students and career and technical education students, a general education core class was selected for survey completion in the study. The Mississippi Community College Board requires 15 core academic hours for all students regardless of major. According to the Board website, English Composition I, Public Speaking, a Fine Arts elective, a Social or Behavioral Science, and College Algebra are the required academic core for graduation criteria in Mississippi community colleges for academic majors and career-technical majors (Mississippi State Board for Community and Junior Colleges).

The cluster sampling method was chosen for the student survey process in an attempt to obtain consistent student representation from each community college in Mississippi. By surveying an equal number of randomly selected clusters of students from each community college in Mississippi, it is likely that the opinions and views of individuals from each community college will be equally represented in the research results. It was presumed that the use of the cluster sampling method would result in a higher rate of survey returns because requiring that students complete the survey at the
same time in a closed classroom setting may possibly result in a higher response rate. Additionally, the researcher believed that selection of SPT 1113 as a course to administer the survey instruments would add variance in student demographics, such as age, ethnicity, educational goals, and residency status, to this study because public speaking is a uniform course across each Mississippi community college that all students are required to take in fulfillment of graduation requirements.

Population and Sampling

A primary goal of this research was to assess satisfaction of advisement services among Mississippi community college students. The target sample was students currently enrolled in one of Mississippi’s 15 community colleges in the Fall 2012 semester and currently taking public speaking. One public speaking class per college was identified to be surveyed and the researcher did not specify whether the surveys were to be administered during day or evening classes; however, all participants were enrolled in a traditional face-to-face section of the course. Where possible, survey instruments were distributed to 30 students at each main campus of each community college in Mississippi.

Instrumentation

The Survey of Academic Advising was used to gather the needed data for completion of this study. The researcher purchased 500 surveys from ACT for data collection. Surveys were shipped from ACT through UPS ground mail. This survey was among several surveys developed by the Evaluation Survey Service (ESS) for ACT in the 1970s. Produced, distributed, and analyzed by ACT, the specific aim of the Survey of Academic Advising is to measure students’ opinions, attitudes, goals, and impressions of an institution’s academic advisement services (Mittelholtz & Noble, 1993).
The standardized, scantron-like form is four pages in length, requires approximately 20 minutes to complete, and contains a total of seven sections of questions (ACT, 2007). As a basic service for using the survey, ACT offers optical scanning to provide institutions and researchers with formatted data. The researcher paid the additional fees to utilize the scanning feature for completed surveys. According to the ACT User Guide, the seven sections appearing on the instrument are as follows:

Section I—Demographic and Background Information contains 15 items including age, classification, race, enrollment status, overall grade point average, college major, marital status, and sex. This information provides nominal data that can be used to identify and make comparisons of responses to items among subgroups within the study.

Section II—Advising Information contains 4 items requesting information about the student’s academic advising experience including questions identifying the type of advisor, student roles in choosing advisors, and perception of the institution’s advising system.

Section III—Academic Advising Needs has two parts which contain 18 items on topics such as academic progress, scheduling/registration procedures, and improving study skills/habits. Part A gathers information about the type of advisor, the amount of time spent in advisor meetings, and how well the advisement experience has met the student’s need. Part B of Section III asks students to rate their satisfaction with information received from advisors on topics that were discussed. The satisfaction rating uses a 5-point Likert scale with 1(very dissatisfied) to 5(very satisfied).
Section IV-Impressions of Your Advisor requires students to evaluate their advisors in the areas of listening ability, punctuality for appointments, and genuine concern for student’s personal growth and development. This section determines student impressions of advisors. A 5-point Likert scale is used on this section with 1(\textit{strongly disagree}) to 5(\textit{strongly agree}).

Section V-Additional Advising Information contains 5 items regarding information about the academic advising experience. Section II and section V of the instrument mimic one another in terms of similarity.

Section VI-Additional Questions contains answer spaces for up to 30 additional questions, with up to 12 possible responses for each. This section allows institutions to personally individualize the survey by adding their own questions which may include tailored, campus-specific items.

Section VII-Comments and Suggestions provide lined spaces for students to write or list comments or suggestions concerning the college or the advisement program. If the researcher chooses to include open-ended questions, responses can be written in this space. No open-ended questions were added to the instrument (ACT, 2007, p.8).

It should be noted that one of the independent variables used in this study was first-generation student status and since the survey did not contain an item addressing this population. The following two questions were added as additional questions to Section VI of the ACT Survey of Academic Advising: 1) “What is your mother’s HIGHEST education level?” 2) “What is your father’s HIGHEST education level?” A single handout was distributed containing these two questions and their answer choices.
Students were asked to indicate their response by darkening the oval on the ACT survey so that responses could be included in the scan with all other items.

*Psychometric Properties*

*Development.* The Survey of Academic Advising is norm referenced, valid and reliable (ACT, 2007). The ACT User Guide (2007) provided a detailed explanation of the development, reliability, and validity of the ESS instruments. All ESS instruments were developed following strict guidelines and procedures aiding in ensuring their accuracy and usefulness. Furthermore ACT explained that the development of all ESS instruments consisted of the following 11 comprehensive steps: (a) thorough and extensive review of pertinent and applicable literature; (b) consultation with experts; (c) review of similar survey instruments; (d) preparation of preliminary items and scales; (e) internal review of items for content and lucidity; (f) preparation of draft instruments; (g) review of draft instruments by college personnel, content experts, graduate students, and other interested parties; (h) preparation of pilot instruments; (i) review of pilot instruments by a sample of students; (j) pilot administration to several hundred students; (k) analysis of pilot data to determine response patterns within and between institutions and to determine which sections and items appeared to confuse students; and (l) preparation of the final forms of the 16 ESS survey instruments (ACT, 2007, pp. 11-12).

*Reliability and validity.* Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) described measurement as the assigning of numbers to observations in order to “quantify phenomena” (p. 2276). Measurement involves defining variables, and developing and applying instruments or tests to quantify variables (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Reliability and validity are crucial indicators in psychometrics and the development of
quality measurement instruments applicable to research (Bannigan & Watson, 2009; Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Reliability and validity are essential elements in research techniques because they both play a role in assessing the accuracy of measurement scales (Bannigan & Watson, 2009; Giacobba, 2002; Lewis, 2009). Bannigan and Watson (2009) argued that in understanding the relationship between validity and reliability, it is important to understand that validity is totally predicated upon reliability, and reliability in itself is insufficient. Once an instrument has proven to be reliable over time, it should be assessed to determine whether or not it measures what it is intended to measure (Bannigan & Watson, 2009). ACT instruments have been shown to produce valid and reliable scores. Reliability and validity of this instrument has already been established; therefore, there is no need to conduct a pilot study for the purposes of this research design.

Reliability in quantitative research is synonymous to the concept of consistency (Lewis, 2009). The reliability of an instrument is “the extent to which a measurement procedure is free from error” (ACT, 1998, p. 6). Further, reliability refers to stability, internal consistency and equivalency of individual measurement scales; moreover, reliability is concerned with whether or not the instrument consistently and accurately captured the variables that it was designed to measure and whether the instrument yields the same results each time it is performed and by whomever utilizes it (Bannigan & Watson, 2009; Lewis, 2009). According to ACT (2007), most of ESS reliability is based upon the test-retest reliability method and examined through the use of the generalizability and stability indices. The test-retest approach for determining the reliability of an instrument is most commonly used on ESS surveys. According to ACT
(2007), this requires administering the instrument to a group of subjects on two separate occasions and making a comparison of the responses to reconfirm the accuracy of the data.

The validity of an instrument can be defined by whether or not it is truthful and how well it measures what it intends to measure. Validation of an instrument is concerned with reducing error in the measurement process (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). ACT (2007) confirms that items on the ESS instruments are validated through literature reviews, pilot testing, consultation with content experts, and ACT’s experience in instrument design and construction. ACT insists that the most direct evidence of the face validity and content validity is due to the items being straightforward and easy-to-read. Additionally, ACT highlights that self-reported student information provides accuracy; thus, in many sections on ESS instruments it is impossible for anyone other than the student to provide accurate answers. Questions about the reactions and evaluations of differing aspects of the college on ACT surveys require the student’s own responses and provide valid results. ACT instruments have been deemed very useful in helping colleges explore the importance of, use of, and satisfaction with their respective services and programs (ACT, 2007).

Analysis of Data

As previously stated, surveys were packaged and returned to ACT for scoring and analysis. As requested by ACT, the researcher completed the ESS Postsecondary Data Form and included it in the return material to ACT at the time of scanning. After scanning the surveys, ACT generated a scanned data CD that was formatted in Microsoft
Excel. The data from the CD was exported into SPSS where it was checked for accuracy and analyzed.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

Mississippi lacks a formal unified method for evaluating academic advising programs and offices within its 15 community colleges (Mississippi State Board for Community and Junior Colleges). Due to the lack of an evaluative method for community college advisement, it is unclear whether students attending Mississippi community colleges are satisfied with their advising experience. This study attempted to fill the gap by providing data indicating satisfaction or dissatisfaction with academic advising in Mississippi community colleges. The purpose of this dissertation was to ascertain students’ satisfaction with advisement.

Students from each of the 15 public community colleges in the state of Mississippi were asked to participate in the study. The data collection process began on October 1, 2012 and was ongoing through November 30, 2012. The researcher purchased 500 surveys from ACT, and the original intention was to survey students at each of the 15 colleges in the state of Mississippi. Three colleges failed to reply to phone calls and emails requesting their participation, thus yielding 12 colleges as participants in this study. Survey instruments were sent to 12 community colleges, and 11 colleges returned completed surveys prior to the cut-off for data collection as selected by the researcher with guidance from the methodologist facilitating this study. A cut-off for data collection was strictly enforced due to the December 2012 phasing out of survey services offered through ACT.

A total of 416 students elected to participate in this study. SPSS software was used in analyzing the quantitative data for this study. This chapter includes information
relating to the findings of this study. Most of the frequencies and demographics are presented in table format. The researcher elected to use all five sections of the ACT Survey of Academic Advising. Survey results are explained as follows: demographics, discussion of research question one, discussion of research question two, and a conclusion that summarizes the results of the study.

Demographics

Section I of the ACT Survey of Academic Advising collected demographic data for participants in this study. Section I provided the researcher with information on participants’ age, race, purpose for attending the institution, gender, marital status, enrollment status, employment status, residency status, and grade point average. The majority of the students who participated in the study were white, unmarried, female, traditional age students (between the ages of 18 and 24).

Student Race

Race was used as an independent variable in this study because it was important to determine whether or not Mississippi community college students’ race was related to their satisfaction with advisors. Table 2 illustrates that a majority of the respondents in this survey reported Caucasian as race, while 38.5% of the respondents in this survey were African American. Two people did not indicate race.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Race</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native American (Indian, Alaskan, Hawaiian)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian or White</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican American, Mexican Origin</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian American, Oriental, Pacific Islander</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican, Cuban, Other Latino or Hispanic</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer not to respond</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Student Gender**

Gender was used as an independent variable in this study because it was important to determine whether or not Mississippi community college students’ gender was related to their satisfaction with advisors. Male and female students participated in this study and, as shown in Table 3, more females participated than did males.

Table 3

**Student Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Student Age

This study was concerned with whether advisement satisfaction was related to traditional student age and non-traditional student age. In this study, traditional students were defined as college students between 18 and 22 years old. The majority of the respondents were traditional college students. Table 4 describes the ages of the participants.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 or Under</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 to 25</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 to 29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 39</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 to 61</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First-Generational or Continuing Students

This study was concerned with whether first-generation or continuing-generation student status was related to advisement satisfaction among students attending Mississippi community colleges. For this study, a first-generation student was defined as a student whose parents have no formal education beyond high school (Gibbons & Borders, 2010). The ACT Survey of Academic Advising did not address this independent variable and, as a result, the researcher added an additional section to the survey to address this variable. To distinguish first-generation students and continuing-generation students in this study, the researcher created two questions. Participants were asked to indicate their mother’s highest level of education in question one and their father’s highest level of education in question two. Table 5 explains how the participants reported their mother’s highest level of education and Table 6 explains how the participants reported their father’s highest level of education.

Table 5

Mother’s Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than high school</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School or GED</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate degree</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters degree</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specialist degree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>416</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6

*Father's Education*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than high school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School or GED</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate degree</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters degree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist degree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>416</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For this study, neither parent could have any formal education beyond high school in order for the student to be categorized as a first-generation student. If students reported that at least one parent had any formal education beyond high school or GED, then the student did not count as a first-generation student; instead they were categorized as a continuing-generation student. Based on the respondents’ indications of their mothers’ and fathers’ highest education level, the majority of the participants in this study were not first-generation students. Of the total participants in this study, 124 indicated that only their mother had no formal education beyond high school, 171 indicated that their father had no formal education beyond high school, and 77 indicated that both of their parents had attained some type of formal education beyond high school. Table 7 shows that 81.5% of the participants were continuing-generation students because at least one parent had been to college. Additionally, Table 7 shows that 18.5% of the respondents in this study were first-generation students.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First-Generation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Commuter or Residential Students

This study was concerned with whether commuter or residential status was related to advisement satisfaction among students attending Mississippi community colleges.
Table 8 shows how students reported their college residence. A majority of the students reported living in a residence hall. Table 8 shows the participants’ responses to residency status. Two people did not indicate residency status.

Table 8

*Commuter or Residential Status*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College Residence</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residence hall</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraternity or Sorority House</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Off-campus room or apartment</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home of parents or relatives</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own home</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question One

Research Question One: What are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising? Sections two (II) and three (III) of the ACT Survey of Academic Advising were used to determine whether or not community college students in Mississippi were satisfied with academic advising.

Section II contained four questions specifically about the advising system within the participant’s institution. The statistical procedures used to determine Research Question One included descriptive statistics of frequencies, means, and standard
deviations. These procedures were used to describe how satisfied the students were with advisors’ assistance on topics discussed. Participants reported the following information from the four questions in section II.

Section II- Question A

Question A asked students to respond to how well academic advising at their institution met their needs. Table 9 illustrates that 41.8% of the respondents reported that the advising system within their college adequately meets their needs, 21.4% reported that the advising system within their college more than adequately meets their needs, and 30.3% reported that the advising system within their college meets their needs exceptionally well. On the other hand, 4.8% of the respondents reported that advising less than adequately met their needs and 1.2% of the respondents reported that advising was very poor and did not meet their needs. Two people did not indicate whether academic advising met their needs.

Table 9

Student Needs Met

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Advising Met Needs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequately</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>41.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than Adequately</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exceptionally Well</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than Adequately</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Poorly</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section II-Question B

Question B asked students to best describe their current academic advisor. Table 10 points out that 57.9% of the respondents identified their advisor as a faculty member and 26.9% of the respondents identified their advisor as a member of the advising center staff. Additionally, 6.3% of the respondents indicated that their advisors were other college staff members, 2.9% of the respondents indicated that their advisors were college appointed peer counselors, and 4.6% of the respondents indicated that they did not have an advisor. Six people did not answer this question.

Table 10

Description of Advisor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advisor Description</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Member</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advising Center Staff Member</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other college staff member</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College appointed peer counselor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have an advisor</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>416</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section II-Question C

Question C asked students to indicate how much input that they had in the selection of their advisor at their college. Table 11 explains that 35.3% of the respondents reported that they had little or no input, 32.7% of the respondents reported having a great
deal of input, and 27.4% of the respondents reported having only some input regarding the selection of their advisor. Nineteen people did not indicate how much input they had in the selection of their advisor.

Table 11

*Input into Selection of Academic Advisor*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Input</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A great deal of input</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some input</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little or no input</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Section II-Question D*

Question D asked students to indicate the approximate length of time they have had their advisors. Table 12 indicates that 55.3% of the respondents reported that they have had their advisor for 0 to 6 months, 11.1% of the respondents reported that they have had their advisors from 7 months to 1 year, 19% of the respondents reported that they have had their advisor for 1 to 1 ½ years, 7.2% of the respondents reported that they had their advisors for 1 ½ years to 2 years, and 2.4% of the respondents reported that they had their advisors for over 2 years. Twenty-one people did not report the length of time they have had their advisors.
Table 12

*Time Having Current Advisor*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Time</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 to 6 months</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 months to 1 year</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 1 ½ years</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 ½ to 2 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 2 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section III of the survey contained 18 items with two part responses labeled as Part A and Part B. Part A of section III listed potential topics for discussion between an advisor and his or her advisees, and students were asked to indicate whether they had discussed each issue/topic with their academic advisor. In turn, for each topic that students reported as having been discussed with their advisor, part B asked participants to indicate their level of satisfaction with the assistance their advisor had provided. The satisfactions were rated on a 1-5 scale, with 5 being very satisfied and 1 being very dissatisfied.

*Section III-Part A*

Analysis of part A found that many of the respondents indicated that most topics and issues had been discussed with advisors. Respondents reported that topics and issues relative to their academic progress, scheduling and registration, course drop and add
procedures, and major change procedures within the institution were issues that had been discussed in advisement sessions. Conversely, respondents rated issues of obtaining tutorial and remedial assistance, improving study skills and habits, coping with academic difficulties, obtaining on-campus employment and job placement after college as topics that had not been discussed with their current academic advisors.

Section III-Part B

For each item reported as having been discussed with advisors in part A of section III, respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with the discussion. Areas in section III where participants reported being the least satisfied with advisors assistance included (a) obtaining course credit through nontraditional means including CLEP and workforce experience programs, (b) obtaining tutorial and remedial assistance, (c) job placement after college, and (d) obtaining on campus employment. As shown in Table 13, participants’ satisfaction ranged from a low of 3.43 for obtaining campus employment to a high of 4.06 for scheduling and registration. Students indicated a high level of satisfaction with advisors’ assistance.

Table 13

Students’ Satisfaction with Advisors’ Assistance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scheduling/registration</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting requirements for graduation</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop/add</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select/change major</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obtaining financial aid</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuing education after graduation</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life and career goals</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying career areas</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic progress</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with personal problems</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving study skills</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matching learning styles with courses/instructors</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawing or transferring</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coping academically</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLEP and other credits</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutoring/remedial assistance</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job placement after college</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtaining campus employment</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1 = very dissatisfied; 2 = dissatisfied; 3 = neutral; 4 = satisfied; 5 = very satisfied;

Research Question Two

Research Question Two: Are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising influenced by race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential student status? Using Pearson Correlations, the researcher found there was a small positive correlation between being Caucasian and being satisfied with the advisor (p < .05). The correlation indicated that Caucasians are more satisfied with their advisors than African American students. Table
14 shows the correlations reported in this study. The research question was not significant, $F(7,374)=1.234$, $p=.278$, $R^2=.023$.

Table 14

**Relationship Between Students' Satisfaction and Independent Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>PR</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race African American</td>
<td>-.104</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race Caucasian</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race Other</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td>.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.059</td>
<td>.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-traditional</td>
<td>-.038</td>
<td>.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-generation</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residential Status</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.763</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table of coefficients (students satisfaction) is given in Table 15. None of the predictors were significant.

Table 15

**Coefficients (Students’ Satisfaction)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients B</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients Beta</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>4.044</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race Afr. Amer.</td>
<td>-.214</td>
<td>-.136</td>
<td>.783</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

Sections I, II, and III were used to answer the research questions that guided this study. From the findings, the researcher was able to conclude that Mississippi community college students are generally satisfied with academic advising. The majority of the participants were Caucasian female students. Participants’ satisfaction with advising ranged from a low of 3.43 for obtaining campus employment to a high of 4.06 for scheduling and registration. Students were most satisfied with advisors’ knowledge of scheduling/registration, graduation requirements, drop/add procedures, and selecting and changing majors. Students were least satisfied with advisors’ knowledge of obtaining course credit through nontraditional means, including CLEP and workforce experience programs, obtaining tutorial and remedial assistance, job placement after college, and obtaining on-campus employment. Students indicated an overall high level of satisfaction with advisors’ assistance.

Survey findings showed that satisfaction is unrelated to race, gender, nontraditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential
student status. Satisfaction was only slightly significantly related to race. The research showed a small positive correlation between Caucasian students and satisfaction with advising. In this study, Caucasians were slightly more satisfied with their advisors than African Americans and other students.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

As higher education has been viewed as a catalyst for helping people transcend class strata in search of upward mobility, student support services has the primary objective of promoting student success (Brock, 2010; Pizzolato, 2008). Auspices operating under student support services must provide stellar customer service to promote the holistic intellectual and social development of all students in postsecondary education and to ensure that the missions of colleges and universities are being met (Rogers, 2002; Sharkin, 2004).

Academic advising is deeply woven into the fabric of higher education. It is positioned at the forefront of student support services and plays an indispensable role in student success (Pizzolato, 2008). Advisors must deliver the highest caliber of knowledge and service to foster student engagement to support the attainment of educational goals (Campbell & Nutt, 2008). Ultimately, student attitudes concerning higher education can be negatively impacted, and they can be led to make uninformed academic choices if they are not provided quality advisement services (Hollis, 2009).

Researchers argue that much of the existing literature on advising fails to focus on advisement within the community college system, and information regarding student satisfaction with advisement satisfaction is scarce (Light, 2001; Smith et al., 2004; Templin, 2011). Smith et al. (2004) encouraged higher education administrators to be in tune to student voices concerning advisement. They explained that hearing what students had to say about advisement processes is a guaranteed way to gain a sense of what their experiences and their attitudes concerning the advisor/advisee relationship might be
(Smith et al., 2004). Moreover, Mississippi lacks a formal unified method for evaluating academic advising programs and offices within the 15 community colleges governed by the Mississippi Community College Board (Mississippi State Board for Community and Junior Colleges). Due to advisement not being assessed in Mississippi community colleges, the efficiency of services cannot be determined. Additionally, because students are not able to provide evaluative feedback on advisement experiences in Mississippi community colleges, it is unclear whether advisement practices are satisfactory and aiding in student success. This chapter provides a summary of this study, a discussion of the conclusions, an explanation of the limitations placed on the study, a discussion of implications for policy and practice, and recommendations for future research. The chapter concludes with some final thoughts on academic advising.

**Summary**

This study was designed to explore the level of satisfaction among Mississippi community college students with advisement. An additional aim of this study was to determine if advisement satisfaction was related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and student residency status. This study was guided by the following two research questions:

1. What are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising?

2. Are community college students’ reported satisfaction levels with academic advising related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, commuter or residential student status?
The researcher purchased the ACT Survey of Academic Advising to collect data from students attending 11 of the 15 community colleges in Mississippi. Students who were enrolled in Public Speaking classes during the Fall 2012 semester were asked to participate in this study. Surveys were packaged by the researcher and mailed to speech instructors at all participating schools. A total of 416 students voluntarily consented to participate in this study.

Conclusions and Discussions

*Research Question One*

The majority of the participants reported being satisfied with their advisor. A majority of the participants were Caucasian female students. Students indicated an overall high level of satisfaction with their advisors’ assistance. These findings were contradictory to Allen and Smith (2008) and Freeman (2008) who both, in separate studies, concluded that college students were not satisfied with advisement practices. Freeman (2008) identified advisor inaccessibility and large advisor-advisee ratios as the main reasons for disgruntlement with undergraduate advisement services. Allen and Smith (2008) encouraged advisors to provide up-to-date information, respect students’ individuality, and encourage students to become successful and independent and build a foundation of trust. Interesting to note is the fact that, like Freeman (2008) and Allen and Smith (2008), many researchers concerned with advising have focused their attention only on advisement in four-year institutions. Much of the research on higher education advising overlooks the two-year college population. Students in community colleges may report higher satisfaction with academic advising services because of smaller student populations and smaller advisor caseloads, which may make advising more personable
and intimate. Also, many community colleges rely on a centralized method of advisement, which means that advising centers are housed in a central location, usually in counseling centers or student affairs offices and advisors work on a walk-in basis. In contrast, most universities rely on faculty advisement, and faculty members are housed in their specific schools and colleges and are often available for advising only during advisement periods or office hours.

The participants’ satisfaction with advising ranged from a low of 3.43 for obtaining campus employment to a high of 4.06 for scheduling and registration. Students were most satisfied with advisors’ knowledge of scheduling/registration, graduation requirements, drop/add procedures, and selecting and changing majors. Students were least satisfied with advisors’ knowledge of obtaining course credit through nontraditional means, including CLEP and workforce experience programs, obtaining tutorial and remedial assistance, job placement after college, and obtaining campus employment.

Findings from this study are consistent with the prescriptive method of advising. The results showed that students are most concerned with what classes to take, how to drop or add a course, which teacher would provide the most effective instruction, and selecting a major. According to King (2005), students come to advisors with specific questions to be answered and advisors give advice that the students are expected to follow. Since the 1970s researchers have asserted that in the prescriptive advising method, students rely heavily on advisors’ recommendations for course selection, registration procedures, major change processes, institutional procedures for dropping courses, and graduation requirements for degree completion (Crookston, 1972). From these areas yielding a greater level of student satisfaction in this study, it may be
determined that these are the most common areas with which advisors assist and these are the areas in which advisors are most knowledgeable.

Students were less satisfied with advisors’ knowledge of obtaining course credit through nontraditional means, including CLEP and workforce experience programs, obtaining tutorial and remedial assistance, job placement after college, and obtaining on-campus employment. These findings are similar to findings Sloan et al. (2005) reported, citing students’ discontentment with parts of the advising process at Tallahassee Community College. Students complained that advisors at Tallahassee Community College failed to assist in career planning options and failed to provide adequate support and success strategies to newly enrolled students. The similarity among the two studies further shows that advising may be failing to provide community college students with reliable and up-to-date information on key issues related to student success.

Findings from this study suggest that students are not adequately oriented on all auspices that make up the total college system, along with their functioning purposes. If students had a clearer understanding of where to go for specific information, then there would not be such a great expectation placed on advisors to have knowledge of all campus entities. Students expect advisors to be a knowledge base for aiding in navigating the total higher education system, and this is an unrealistic expectation. Community college students expect advisement centers to be one stop shops, but in actuality there are different offices that function with varying missions and purposes. Campus offices within institutions have student service as the core of their existence but the functions vary by auspice (King, 2005).
Research Question Two

Survey findings showed that satisfaction was unrelated to gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status, and commuter or residential student status. However, satisfaction was significantly related to race. In this study, Caucasians were slightly more satisfied with advising than African Americans and other students. This small significance may be because of the race of advisors, diverse needs among varying student populations, and cultural differences at community colleges across the state of Mississippi.

This finding augments past arguments posed by researchers concerned with higher education catering to diverse populations in higher education. As higher education demographics change, student support services must continue to refine their missions to serve diverse populations, and Dean and Meadows (1995) predicted that changing student demographics, increasing health and safety needs of students, financial needs for students, budget cuts, staffing cuts, higher levels of assessment standards and accountability, increased focus on retention and accountability, and increasing competition for resources are external forces that would cause continuous transformation of the dynamics of student support services. Dean and Meadows (1995) also predicted that internal forces, such as increased enrollment of multicultural and nontraditional students and students with disabilities and varied therapeutic needs, would create constant reformation of student support services in postsecondary education institutions. Ten years later, Rankin and Reason (2005) explained that campus climate influences educational and social outcomes for students, and higher education professionals must recognize the different experiences of underrepresented students on campus. Additionally, the authors
added that there must be a transformative change that encourages the formation of positive relationships among diverse populations throughout the fabric of the institution.

Limitations

One limitation of this study was that the setting was very specific. The researcher limited this study to students enrolled in Mississippi community colleges. It was further limited to students enrolled only at the main campus of each community college in Mississippi. These results are not reflective of satellite campuses and smaller branches. A study inclusive of student reported levels of advisement satisfaction from satellite campuses and smaller branches might produce different results.

Another limitation of this study included the inability to include four out of the fifteen Mississippi community colleges in this study. The researcher was unable to solicit participation from students at three community colleges in the state, and surveys from one of the community colleges could not be used because they were returned to the researcher three days beyond the date specified as the cut-off for data collection. The researcher was responsible for sending all completed surveys to ACT for tabulation prior to a specific date.

Recommendations for Policy or Practice

Since students reported overall satisfaction with advising and the topics discussed in advisement sessions, Mississippi’s community colleges seem to do an exceptional job at training counselors on graduation requirements, course selection and transfer processes, and articulation agreements. To continue improving advisement services, one recommendation is to provide training that will highlight workforce training programs
and credit substitutions for these programs, as well as training in other areas where satisfaction was lower.

There is a need for advisors who are trained in meeting the needs of all students. Student support services must meet the needs of diverse student populations in postsecondary education. Furthermore, it is important that advisors become knowledgeable about workforce programs and credentials needed for employment because the Bureau of Labor Statistics predicted that by 2014 a large proportion of job openings will require some level of skill training or certification and critical to this prediction is American community colleges (Porchea et al., 2010). In the summer of 2009, President Obama identified community colleges as critical resources for training and retraining the workforce (Lester & Bers, 2010). Therefore, if Mississippi community colleges wish to meet the challenge of the American Graduation Initiative, the needs of diverse populations need to be assessed, the need for more minority advisors must be addressed, and advisors must receive workforce training to be able to serve this student populace.

Advisement serves as the hub of student development and success in higher education (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Rogers, 2002; Sharkin, 2004). In a quantitative study involving over 300 community college students, it was discovered that Caucasian and Asian American students were reportedly more likely to see a counselor than students of color; also, Latino and African American students preferred having counselors of the same ethnic background and with similar cultural characteristics (Orozco et al., 2010). To ensure that African American advisors are available to African American students, higher education administrators should look closely at diversity among student populations and
consider recruiting more minority advisors. In this study on Mississippi community colleges, minority students may have been slightly less satisfied with advisement because minorities may be underrepresented in faculty and administrative positions in Mississippi community colleges, and students may not identify with or relate to their advisors. African American students attending community colleges in Mississippi may have a hard time communicating with their advisors and feeling connected to them.

Domina (2009) encouraged higher education administrators to consider making the path to higher education smoother for underrepresented populations in higher education, including poor students, minority students, and first-generation students. He argued that if these students are offered outreach programs to engage them and provide academic support, then they will be better equipped and their chances for enrolling and graduating from college will be increased.

Recommendations for Future Research

Community colleges in Mississippi evolved out of a commitment to providing access to public postsecondary education to the citizens of the state across all 82 counties. Community college campuses are intentionally centrally located within commuting distance to virtually all Mississippians (Young & Ewing, 1978). Young and Ewing (1978) recognized Mississippi as being the first state in the United States to legally establish a state system of public junior colleges and a commission to oversee the institutions. Further, Howell (1996) explained that public community and junior colleges in Mississippi developed out of an urgency to meet the educational needs in the state. Thus, it is important that practitioners remain aware of those changing educational needs and continue to reshape the mission of higher education as student demographics in
higher education evolve. Higher education practitioners should remain concerned about the effectiveness of academic and student affairs. Opportunities for future research are plentiful.

Important to this study would be a follow-up study that measures the demographics, race, opinions, and perceptions of Mississippi community college advisors and their training and style of advising, as those factors relate to student satisfaction of advising. It would also be interesting to see if the racial and ethnic make-up of community college advisors in Mississippi reflects the racial and ethnic make-up of community college students in Mississippi.

Mississippi community college advisors could also provide valuable insight indicating whether advisors are properly trained and equipped to address common topics that arise in advisement sessions. As students reported slight dissatisfaction with topical areas such as course substitutions, job placement, on-campus employment, and obtaining financial aid, it would be useful to assess whether advisors feel well-versed in these areas and what could be done to improve the delivery of advisement services and to ensure that students are receiving valid, factual and consistent information.

It would also be important to interview community college students in Mississippi to identify specific areas of concern with academic advising. Interviews would indicate the specific needs and expectations for the advising process. Student needs and expectations of advising warrant the attention of further analysis that extends beyond the scope of this study. Qualitative analysis addressing specific needs would be beneficial to student support services in Mississippi community colleges. Additionally, future
qualitative study on advising may seek to gain insight on how much advising aids in the
development of the total person and contributes to productive citizenship.

If future quantitative study is attempted to explore advisement satisfaction, a final
recommendation for future research is to include variables that might be associated with
advisor satisfaction that may not have been included in this study. This study was
concerned with race, gender, non-traditional student status, first-generation student status,
and commuter or residential student status as predictors of advisement satisfaction, but it
may be beneficial for future studies to include grade point average, employment status,
marital status, current class level, and part-time or full-time enrollment status as variables
that might influence advisement satisfaction among community college students.

Concluding Thoughts

Good advising is about engaging students, supporting their intellectual
development and raising questions to help them reflect on their goals, skills, and abilities
(Freije, 2008). Advising is an important component of a student’s academic career and
advisor responsibilities go beyond the typical duties of preparing registration material,
evaluating transfer credit, advising general education requirements, serving as liaisons to
academic departments, coordinating orientation programs, maintaining graduation audits,
assisting with scheduling, drop and add, declaring and changing majors, interpreting
academic policy for students, participating on policy-making committees, and referring
students to other campus services. There is no blueprint for academic advising, and
advisors are strategically positioned at the intersection of all educational experiences that
students will encounter as they strive to reach the larger purpose of their education.
APPENDIX A

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER

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: 12062701
PROJECT TITLE: Assessing Student Impressions of Advisors and Satisfaction with Advisement in MS Community Colleges
PROJECT TYPE: Dissertation
RESEARCHER/S: LaToya Jones-Reed
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Education & Psychology
DEPARTMENT: Educational Studies & Research
FUNDING AGENCY: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval
PERIOD OF PROJECT APPROVAL: 07/25/2012 to 07/24/2013

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board Chair
APPENDIX B

APPLICATION TO MACJC TO CONDUCT STUDY

Mississippi Association of Community and Junior Colleges (MACJC) - Presidents' Association

Application to Conduct Statewide Research on MACJC Institutions

DIRECTIONS: Individuals conducting statewide research on Mississippi's community and junior colleges must complete this application and email to dwest@macjc.edu. Individuals should also review the checklist following this application for more details.

Purpose - Individuals conducting statewide research on Mississippi's community and junior colleges must complete this application and obtain approval from the MACJC Presidents' Association prior to conducting any research. This Application serves the following purposes:

1. requires the researcher to summarize the proposed research and provide supporting documentation ensuring that research is performed in compliance with all applicable laws, regulations, and institutional and federal policies regarding human subjects research,
2. ensures the proposed research has institutional support through IRB approval and the endorsement of a qualified research advisor (i.e., faculty member) who assumes responsibility for the project,
3. provides the applicant with appropriate documentation that the MACJC Presidents' Association has reviewed the proposed study.

Principal Investigator (PI) Contact Information – The PI for the purposes of this application is the individual who will personally conduct this research study. Under most circumstances, the PI will be the student researcher.

Name: LaToya Jones-Reed
Email: Latoya.reed@hindsc.edu
Address: 1516 Tracewood Drive
City: Jackson
State: MS
Zip: 39211
Phone: 601.813.4805

Research Advisor (RA) Contact Information – The RA for the purposes of this application is the individual who will personally supervise and oversee this research study. Under most circumstances, the RA will be the faculty member working with the student researcher.

Name: Dr. Lillian Hill
Email: Lillian.hill@usm.edu
Address: 118 College Drive
City: Hattiesburg
State: MS
Zip: 39406
Phone: 601.266.4622
Fax: 601.266.4233

Sponsoring Institution or Agency: The University of Southern Mississippi
Sponsoring Academic Division/Department: Education Leadership and Research (ELR)

Has the study obtained IRB approval from sponsoring institution?
- Yes, Approval Date: 07-25-12
- Yes, Exempt or Expedited (deemed minimal risk to human subjects)
- No, Full Board (deemed greater than minimal risk or work with special populations of human subjects)
- Not Applicable, Explain:
I. Title. Provide the title of the research study.
Assessing Advisement Satisfaction and Student's Impressions of Advisors among Community College Students in Mississippi

II. Research Summary. Provide a brief, non-technical description of the study. Typical summaries are less than 150 words. This summary should readily identify the following:

(a) Purpose and Rationale. State research questions and/or hypotheses and tell why the study is needed.

This project will contribute to a limited body of research focusing on advisement satisfaction and students' impressions of advisors within two-year higher education institution. As there has not been a one-size fits all model to apply to academic advising, the outcomes from this study may serve as a useful foundation for the development and implementation of an effective community college advising model template. This research will additionally contribute to a very limited body of knowledge regarding community college advisement because it may yield best practices for community college advisement centers to implement for the improvement of student support services.

The purpose of this research study is to explore the level of satisfaction among Mississippi community college students with advisement and to assess student impressions of their advisors. This research is important because scant attention has been rendered in regard to community college students' satisfaction with advisement. Also, the Mississippi Community College Board has not implemented a mode of assessment concerning student viewpoint and impressions relating to the process of advisement systems. Further, it is important to determine if advisement satisfaction and students impressions of advisors is related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, marital status, first-generation student status, and among students who reside in campus housing or off-campus commuter students across Mississippi community college student populations.

(b) Participants. Provide a brief summary of study participants.

As a focus, this study will seek data from the student populations at all 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi, so that there will be no need to generalize the results for the overall community college population in the state. This study will offer a refined understanding of community college advisement in Mississippi. The participating subjects in this study will be students currently enrolled in one of Mississippi's 15 community colleges in the Fall 2012 semester. To ensure that students will have met with an advisor, and to ensure that the study will include academic transfer students and career and technical education students, a general education core class will be selected for survey completion in the study. Public speaking also named oral communication (SPT 1113) is a uniform course across each Mississippi community college that all students are required to take in fulfillment with graduation requirements. Selection of SPT 1113 as a course to administer the survey instrument will add variance in student demographics such as, age, ethnicity, educational goals, and residency status to this study. The researcher will not specify whether the survey will be administered during day or evening classes, however all participants will be enrolled in a traditional face-to-face section of the course.
(c) Procedures and Methods. Provide a brief summary of research methods and procedures.

This project has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at The University of Southern Mississippi. The researcher has purchased the ACT Survey of Academic Advising. The researcher has also used websites for each of the 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi to identify personnel in the Speech department of each school. These individuals are being contacted to confirm the date and time of their SPT 1113 class for the Fall 2012 semester. Currently fall classes have started at each community college in Mississippi. This study will be conducted once the drop/add period is over for the Fall 2012 semester.

Note: Section III below applies to survey, interview, and other research methods that include direct or indirect contact with human subjects. Researchers using data limited to databases may skip Section III and move on to Section IV.

III. Participants. Provide a brief, non-technical description of the human subjects of the study. This summary should readily identify the following:

(a) Participants. Specify number of participants and their gender, ethnicity, race, and age. Clearly state any inclusion/exclusion criteria as well as identify any select populations such as minors, pregnant women, non-English speaking, remedial, elderly, specific major, etc.

Across the 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi, the researcher will survey approximately 450 students. In surveying 450 students across 15 colleges, the researcher will administer the survey to 30 students per college. In classes that have fewer than 30 students on one section roster, the researcher will identify another section to make up the difference. Overall, the researcher intends to survey 30 students at each college. For this study, the researcher has chosen to randomly select sections of Public Speaking/Oral Communications classes at only the main campuses of the 15 community colleges. Administration of this survey will be limited to Public Speaking classes to ensure that the community college students in this research project represent academic transfer majors as well as career and technical majors at each college. Public speaking is a core academic requirement for all students attending community colleges in Mississippi.

(b) Recruitment. Describe how potential subjects will be made aware of the study and outline any recruitment procedures (email, letters, class announcements, newspaper ads, etc.), including any compensation or incentives.

The researcher has used each of the 15 community colleges websites to identify the names of Public Speaking instructors as well as academic deans. Pending approval through MCCB Presidents Council, the researcher will send a statement of explanation to the Deans announcing the exact date that surveys will be completed on their respective campuses. Also, the researcher will make phone contact to the instructor for the selected section to confirm attendance and to verify that the actual course roster aligns with enrollment numbers appearing on the college website/registration tool. If, for any reason a particular instructor declines to have their class surveyed, the researcher has a list of alternative public speaking instructors at each campus. It will be explained that there are no incentives provided to the instructor, nor to the students for participation.

(c) Informed Consent. Identify the process of gaining participant consent. Attach a copy of any consent forms used in the study. Provide any necessary explanation if informed consent is waived or not applicable.
The researcher will report to the designated Public Speaking classes on the day of survey administration. Once the instructor yields to the researcher, students will be given a letter that explains the general purpose of the research, the research procedures, time requirements, voluntary nature of participation, that participants must be at least 18 years old to participate, right to discontinue participation, confidentiality and final disposition of data, contact information of researcher and the Human Subjects Review Committee statement. Participants will be informed that by completing a survey, they are granting consent for their anonymous and confidential data to be used for the purposes described in the cover letter. The researcher will obtain a duplicate copy of a consent letter which will be signed by students and kept in confidence until completion of this research study. A copy of the consent letter is attached to this proposal.

(d) Risks and Deception. Describe any immediate or long-term risks to participants that may arise from participation in this study (physical, emotional, social, occupational, financial, legal, etc.). Indicate if these risks are greater than those faced in normal life, and provide justification for any deception of participants.

This study will be conducted without the possibility of any physical, psychological or social risks to the participants. The overall possibilities of any risks are minimal. Participation in this research is totally voluntary and participants may decline to participate at any point without consequence. Strict measures will be taken to ensure anonymity of all participants in the study. Participants will not be identified by name or any title that may reveal their identity. Names, social security numbers, and any other identifying information will not be placed on the questionnaires. Any information inadvertently obtained will be kept confidential. Finally, the participants will not incur any financial obligations as a result of their participation in this study.

IV. Procedures and Methods. Provide a brief, non-technical description of the research methods and procedures of the study. This summary should readily identify the following:

(a) Data Collection. Describe the data collection procedures and provide any necessary supporting documentation (surveys, interview questions, etc.). Explain when and where data will be collected, specifying if class time and/or institution facilities will be used to collect data. If databases will be used specify the exact data needed (file layouts, data elements, etc.), the timeframe, and identify the agency or agencies housing the data. (Note: Researchers using databases should ensure the necessary data are available from the appropriate source.)

The researcher has identified September 4-11, 2012 as the dates for surveys to be completed at the main campus of each of the 15 community colleges. The researcher will hand deliver surveys and facilitate completion within SPT 1113 classes in which instructors have given approval for their students to participate. ACT instruments are designed to be self-explanatory but it is recommended to include basic directions outlining completion procedures for surveys. All participants will be at least eighteen years of age. Students will be given two copies of an informed consent letter that explains the purposes of the study, the voluntary nature of participation in the study, and the participant's right to refuse to participate or withdraw their participation at any time without prejudice or penalty. The letter will require students to sign and date both copies, hence one copy will be kept by the researcher in strict confidence until after the study is completed and participants will keep the additional copy for their own personal record.
Prior to survey completion, students will be informed of the following:

1. Purpose of the study
2. Participation is voluntary
3. Participants may decline or discontinue participation at any time without prejudice or penalty
4. Approximately 30 minutes will be required for completion of the questionnaire
5. Only soft-lead, number 2 pencils will be used to complete the survey.
6. Students are not to fold, tear or spill any liquids on the survey as this may result in the documents being unable to be scanned by ACT.
7. All data is confidential and will be collected anonymously
8. Any identifying information inadvertently obtained will be kept confidential
9. There will be no psychological, social, physical, economic, or legal risks posed to the participants
10. No monetary or extra credit compensation will be given to participants for participation in this study
11. By returning the completed questionnaire to the instructor, the respondent gives permission for this anonymous and confidential data to be analyzed and submitted to fulfill requirements for a doctoral dissertation.
12. Findings will possibly be used in submission for a peer-reviewed journal article.
13. Findings will possibly be shared at meetings or conferences where student affairs, student support services, and retention issues are addressed.

A letter for student consent is attached to this proposal. Also the ACT Survey of Academic Advising has been attached to this electronic communication. It appears in the form of a separate pdf file due to ACT copyright laws.

(b) Personal Identifiers. Identify any of the following personal identifiers that the study will collect or receive:

- [ ] No, the study will not use identifiers
- [ ] Names
- [ ] Birthdates
- [ ] Other Dates (admission, graduation)
- [ ] Social Security Numbers
- [ ] Student ID Numbers (used by school)
- [ ] Academic (GPA, major, classification)
- [ ] Photos (full face or other image)
- [ ] Internet Protocol (IP) Addresses
- [ ] Any Account Number
- [ ] Telephone Numbers
- [ ] Fax Numbers
- [ ] Other (Explain Below)

**Per request of the University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board, a letter of consent will be signed by students and kept confidential by the researcher until completion of the survey; however, this property will remain in the sole possession of the researcher and will not be made public during this study. These letters will be discarded by a shredder upon completion of this study.**

(c) Confidentiality and Anonymity. Describe procedures for maintaining participant confidentiality and/or anonymity.

Once the in-class surveys are completed, the researcher will collect all material. Once all questionnaires are collected, they will be placed in a manila envelope which will be sealed. Once all 15 colleges have been surveyed, the researcher will examine questionnaires in preparation for returning them to ACT to be scanned. ACT specifies that in order to avoid instruments from being eliminated, surveys are checked stray markings, ovals gridded in too lightly, responses gridded in ink, spills, folds and creases, and staples. Additionally, prior to placing the surveys in a cardboard box for send-off, the researcher will ensure that the first page of each instrument is facing up in the same direction as requested by ACT. Once surveys have been properly packaged,
the researcher will complete the required ACT data forms and return the package to the address specified by ACT to be scanned and so that data reports may be generated.

(d) Data Security. Describe procedures for protecting the data from unauthorized use. This should include any security or encryption measures used for the collection, transmission, and storage of any electronic or print data. Researchers using databases should state how the data will be securely transmitted.

The researcher will be the sole handler in packaging materials to be returned to ACT for scoring and analysis. As requested by ACT, the researcher will complete the ESS Postsecondary Data Form to be submitted to ACT with instruments for scanning. After scanning the surveys, ACT will generate institutional reports, specified on the Postsecondary Data Form by the researcher.

ACT offers nine types of institutional reports. The researcher will work alongside the statistician to determine which specific report options will need to be selected so that the goals and objectives of the study are achieved. Reports to be requested have not been determined at this time. The researcher and statistician, Dr. JT Johnson are communicating on this matter and will reach a decision prior to package send-off. No identifying information will be used in data reporting. ACT will optically scan surveys and generate reports to be returned to the researcher.

The office of Survey Services under ACT offers a variety of options for survey reporting formats, including graphical reports as well as files on a secured data CD. The research team will determine the appropriate reporting format to request from ACT prior to returning the completed questionnaires. Once scanning is complete and reports are generated through ACT, data files will be a direct transaction solely between ACT, the research and the research team.

(e) Data Sharing. Explain whether or not the collected data will be shared with other individuals. Specify if identifiable records (at the individual student level) will be shared with anyone other than the immediate researcher or research team. Include any confidentiality measures or data use agreements. External parties may include statisticians, consultants, sponsors, journals, etc.

The data obtained from this research will be used for the purpose of a dissertation and the researcher along with members of the dissertation committee will have access to the data files provided by ACT following survey scanning and analysis. Results will be included in the findings section of the dissertation. No identifying information will be used in the findings section of the dissertation. The researcher ensures that student’s identity will be kept confidential.
Steps for Research Proposal Approval

(1) COMPLETE APPLICATION – Principal Investigator shall complete this application and submit it and all supporting documentation (surveys, file layouts, interview questions, etc.) electronically to dwest@mccp.edu at least three weeks prior to the desired date of approval.

(2) VERIFICATION OF APPLICATION - Once application is received and reviewed for completeness, the SBCJIC staff will forward all application materials electronically to the Chair of the MACIC for appropriate MACIC action.

(3) MACIC ACTION – The Chair of the MACIC will forward all application materials electronically to the other fourteen members of the Association for approval and/or recommendation. The Chair will then notify the SBCJIC staff within 10 working days as to the disposition of the application.

(4) NOTIFICATION OF PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR – SBCJIC staff will notify the principal investigator and provide signed documentation of the MACIC’s action.

Signatures

Principal Investigator - I certify that the information in this application is complete and correct. As Principal Investigator, I have the ultimate responsibility for protecting the rights and welfare of human participants, secure conduct of the research, and the ethical performance of the project. I will comply with all applicable federal, state, and local laws regarding the protection of participants in human research.

[Signature of Principal Investigator] 8/24/2012

Research Advisor – I certify that the information in this application is complete and correct, and that this proposed research has been approved by the IRB of the sponsoring institution. As Research Advisor, I confirm that the student researcher under my guidance is knowledgeable about the regulations and policies governing research with human subjects, and has sufficient training and experience to conduct the research outlined in this application.

I further agree to regularly meet with the student researcher to monitor his or her progress; and if problems arise, I will become personally available to help the student researcher resolve those problems. As an advisor on this project, I will assure the protection of the rights and welfare of human participants, secure conduct of the research, and the ethical performance of the project. I will comply with all applicable federal, state, and local laws regarding the protection of participants in human research.

[Signature of Research Advisor] 8/24/2012
Department Chair - I acknowledge that this research is in keeping with the standards set by our department and our institutional IRB or its equivalent. I also certify that the Principal Investigator has met all the departmental and institutional requirements for approval of this research.

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MACJC Chair - I acknowledge on behalf of the MACJC Presidents' Association that this research has been reviewed and has subsequently received the following recommendation by consensus of the Association membership:

- [ ] Approved
- [ ] Tabled for Further Review
- [ ] Not Approved
- [ ] Approved with Stipulations:

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APPENDIX C

PERMISSION FROM MACJC TO CONDUCT STUDY

Reed, Latoya T.

From: Debra West [dwest@sbcjc.cc.ms.us]  
Sent: Monday, September 10, 2012 12:53 PM  
To: Reed, Latoya T.  
Subject: Fw: LaToya Jones-Reed Research Approval

LaToya,

Congratulations! You have received the necessary MACJC approval to proceed with your research. This email will serve as your official notice of approval, until I can obtain Dr. Lewis’s signature on the paper form. (Hopefully at the next President’s meeting.) Good luck with your dissertation! We look forward to seeing your results.

Sincerely,

Debra

Debra West  
Deputy Executive Director for Programs & Accountability  
Mississippi Community College Board  
3825 Ridgewood Road  
Jackson, MS 32211  
Phone: 601-432-6251  
Fax: 601-432-6363

From: William Lewis [mailto:wlewis@srcc.edu]  
Sent: Monday, September 10, 2012 9:39 AM  
To: Debra West  
Subject: RE: LaToya Jones-Reed Research Approval

Debra: I am in agreement with allowing the Ms. Reed to proceed with her study. This is an important issue for all of our colleges.

William
Application to Conduct Statewide Research on MACJC Institutions

Purpose - Individuals conducting statewide research on Mississippi's community and junior colleges must complete this application and obtain approval from the MACJC Presidents' Association prior to conducting any research. This Application serves the following purposes:

1. requires the researcher to summarize the proposed research and provide supporting documentation ensuring that research is performed in compliance with all applicable laws, regulations, and institutional and federal policies regarding human subjects research,
2. ensures the proposed research has institutional support through IRB approval and the endorsement of a qualified research advisor (i.e., faculty member) who assumes responsibility for the project,
3. provides the applicant with appropriate documentation that the MACJC Presidents' Association has reviewed the proposed study.

Principal Investigator (PI) Contact Information — The PI for the purposes of this application is the individual who will personally conduct this research study. Under most circumstances, the PI will be the student researcher.

Name: LaToya Jones-Reed  Phone: 601.813.4805
Email: Latoya.reed@hindscc.edu  Fax:
Address: 1516 Tracerwood Drive  City: Jackson
State: MS  Zip: 39211

Research Advisor (RA) Contact Information — The RA for the purposes of this application is the individual who will personally supervise and oversee this research study. Under most circumstances, the RA will be the faculty member working with the student researcher.

Name: Dr. Lillian Hill  Phone: 601.266.4622
Email: Lillian.hill@usm.edu  Fax: 601.266.4233
Address: 118 College Drive  City: Hattiesburg
State: MS  Zip: 39406

Sponsoring Institution or Agency: The University of Southern Mississippi
Sponsoring Academic Division/Department: Education Leadership and Research (ELR)

Has the study obtained IRB approval from sponsoring institution?
☐ Yes, Approval Date 07-25-12  If Yes, was Study Exempt or Expedited (deemed minimal risk to human subjects)
☐ No  ☐ Full Board (deemed greater than minimal risk or work with special populations of human subjects)
☐ Not Applicable, Explain:
I. Title. Provide the title of the research study.

Assessing Advisement Satisfaction and Student's Impressions of Advisors among Community College Students in Mississippi

II. Research Summary. Provide a brief, non-technical description of the study. Typical summaries are less than 150 words. This summary should readily identify the following:

(a) Purpose and Rationale. State research questions and/or hypotheses and tell why the study is needed.

This project will contribute to a limited body of research focusing on advisement satisfaction and students’ impressions of advisors within two-year higher education institution. As there has not been a one-size fits all model to apply to academic advising, the outcomes from this study may serve as a useful foundation for the development and implementation of an effective community college advising model template. This research will additionally contribute to a very limited body of knowledge regarding community college advisement because it may yield best practices for community college advisement centers to implement for the improvement of student support services.

The purpose of this research study is to explore the level of satisfaction among Mississippi community college students with advisement and to assess student impressions of their advisors. This research is important because scant attention has been rendered in regard to community college students’ satisfaction with advisement. Also, the Mississippi Community College Board has not implemented a mode of assessment concerning student viewpoint and impressions relating to the process of advisement systems. Further, it is important to determine if advisement satisfaction and students impressions of advisors is related to race, gender, non-traditional student status, marital status, first-generation student status and among students who reside in campus housing or off-campus commuter students across Mississippi community college student populations.

(b) Participants. Provide a brief summary of study participants.

As a focus, this study will seek data from the student populations at all 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi, so that there will be no need to generalize the results for the overall community college population in the state. This study will offer a refined understanding of community college advisement in Mississippi. The participating subjects in this study will be students currently enrolled in one of Mississippi’s 15 community colleges in the Fall 2012 semester. To ensure that students will have met with an advisor, and to ensure that the study will include academic transfer students and career and technical education students, a general education core class will be selected for survey completion in the study. Public speaking also named oral communication (SPT 1113) is a uniform course across each Mississippi community college that all students are required to take in fulfillment with graduation requirements. Selection of SPT 1113 as a course to administer the survey instrument will add variance in student demographics such as, age, ethnicity, educational goals, and residency status to this study. The researcher will not specify whether the survey will be administered during day or evening classes, however all participants will be enrolled in a traditional face-to-face section of the course.
(c) Procedures and Methods. Provide a brief summary of research methods and procedures.

This project has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at The University of Southern Mississippi. The researcher has purchased the ACT Survey of Academic Advising. The researcher has also used websites for each of the 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi to identify personnel in the Speech department of each school. These individuals are being contacted to confirm the date and time of their SPT 1113 class for the Fall 2012 semester. Currently fall classes have started at each community college in Mississippi. This study will be conducted once the drop/add period is over for the Fall 2012 semester.

Note: Section III below applies to survey, interview, and other research methods that include direct or indirect contact with human subjects. Researchers using data limited to databases may skip Section III and move on to Section IV.

III. Participants. Provide a brief, non-technical description of the human subjects of the study. This summary should readily identify the following:

(a) Participants. Specify number of participants and their gender, ethnicity, race, and age. Clearly state any inclusion/exclusion criteria as well as identify any select populations such as minors, pregnant women, non-English speaking, remedial, elderly, specific major, etc.

Across the 15 community colleges in the state of Mississippi, the researcher will survey approximately 450 students. In surveying 450 students across 15 colleges, the researcher will administer the survey to 30 students per college. In classes that have fewer than 30 students on one section roster, the researcher will identify another section to make up the difference. Overall, the researcher intends to survey 30 students at each college. For this study, the researcher has chosen to randomly select sections of Public Speaking/Oral Communications classes at only the main campuses of the 15 community colleges. Administration of this survey will be limited to Public Speaking classes to ensure that the community college students in this research project represent academic transfer majors as well as career and technical majors at each college. Public speaking is a core academic requirement for all students attending community colleges in Mississippi.

(b) Recruitment. Describe how potential subjects will be made aware of the study and outline any recruitment procedures (email, letters, class announcements, newspaper ads, etc.), including any compensation or incentives.

The researcher has used each of the 15 community colleges websites to identify the names of Public Speaking instructors as well as academic deans. Pending approval through MCCB Presidents Council, the researcher will send a statement of explanation to the Deans announcing the exact date that surveys will be completed on their respective campuses. Also, the researcher will make phone contact to the instructor for the selected section to confirm attendance and to verify that the actual course roster aligns with enrollment numbers appearing on the college website/registration tool. If, for any reason a particular instructor declines to have their class surveyed, the researcher has a list of alternative public speaking instructors at each campus. It will be explained that there are no incentives provided to the instructor, nor to the students for participation.

(c) Informed Consent. Identify the process of gaining participant consent. Attach a copy of any consent forms used in the study. Provide any necessary explanation if informed consent is waived or not applicable.
The researcher will report to the designated Public Speaking classes on the day of survey administration. Once the instructor yields to the researcher, students will be given a letter that explains the general purpose of the research, the research procedures, time requirements, voluntary nature of participation, that participants must be at least 18 years old to participate, right to discontinue participation, confidentiality and final disposition of data, contact information of researcher and the Human Subjects Review Committee statement. Participants will be informed that by completing a survey, they are granting consent for their anonymous and confidential data to be used for the purposes described in the cover letter. The researcher will obtain a duplicate copy of a consent letter which will be signed by students and kept in confidence until completion of this research study. A copy of the consent letter is attached to this proposal.

(d) Risks and Deception. Describe any immediate or long-term risks to participants that may arise from participation in this study (physical, emotional, social, occupational, financial, legal, etc.). Indicate if these risks are greater than those faced in normal life, and provide justification for any deception of participants.

This study will be conducted without the possibility of any physical, psychological or social risks to the participants. The overall possibilities of any risks are minimal. Participation in this research is totally voluntary and participants may decline to participate at any point without consequence. Strict measures will be taken to ensure anonymity of all participants in the study. Participants will not be identified by name or any title that may reveal their identity. Names, social security numbers, and any other identifying information will not be placed on the questionnaires. Any information inadvertently obtained will be kept confidential. Finally, the participants will not incur any financial obligations as a result of their participation in this study.

IV. Procedures and Methods. Provide a brief, non-technical description of the research methods and procedures of the study. This summary should readily identify the following:

(a) Data Collection. Describe the data collection procedures and provide any necessary supporting documentation (surveys, interview questions, etc.). Explain when and where data will be collected, specifying if class time and/or institution facilities will be used to collect data. If databases will be used specify the exact data needed (file layouts, data elements, etc.), the timeframe, and identify the agency or agencies housing the data. (Note: Researchers using databases should ensure the necessary data are available from the appropriate source.)

The researcher has identified September 4-11, 2012 as the dates for surveys to be completed at the main campus of each of the 15 community colleges. The researcher will hand deliver surveys and facilitate completion within SPT 1113 classes in which instructors have given approval for their students to participate. ACT instruments are designed to be self-explanatory but it is recommended to include basic directions outlining completion procedures for surveys. All participants will be at least eighteen years of age. Students will be given two copies of an informed consent letter that explains the purposes of the study, the voluntary nature of participation in the study, and the participant’s right to refuse to participate or withdraw their participation at any time without prejudice or penalty. The letter will require students to sign and date both copies, hence one copy will be kept by the researcher in strict confidence until after the study is completed and participants will keep the additional copy for their own personal record.
Prior to survey completion, students will be informed of the following:

1. Purpose of the study
2. Participation is voluntary
3. Participants may decline or discontinue participation at any time without prejudice or penalty
4. Approximately 30 minutes will be required for completion of the questionnaire
5. Only soft-lead, number 2 pencils will be used to complete the survey.
6. Students are not to fold, tear or spill any liquids on the survey as this may result in the documents being unable to be scanned by ACT.
7. All data is confidential and will be collected anonymously
8. Any identifying information inadvertently obtained will be kept confidential
9. There will be no psychological, social, physical, economic, or legal risks posed to the participants
10. No monetary or extra credit compensation will be given to participants for participation in this study
11. By returning the completed questionnaire to the instructor, the respondent gives permission for this anonymous and confidential data to be analyzed and submitted to fulfill requirements for a doctoral dissertation.
12. Findings will possibly be used in submission for a peer-reviewed journal article.
13. Findings will possibly be shared at meetings or conferences where student affairs, student support services, and retention issues are addressed.

A letter for student consent is attached to this proposal. Also the ACT Survey of Academic Advising has been attached to this electronic communication. It appears in the form of a separate pdf file due to ACT copyright laws.

(b) Personal Identifiers. Identify any of the following personal identifiers that the study will collect or receive:

- No, the study will not use identifiers

- Names
- Birthdates
- Other Dates (admission, graduation)
- Social Security Numbers
- Academic ID Numbers (used by school)
- Academic [GPA, major, classification]
- Photos (full face or other image)
- Internet Protocol (IP) Addresses
- Any Account Number
- Telephone Numbers
- Fax Numbers
- Other [Explain Below]

**Per request of the University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board, a letter of consent will be signed by students and kept confidential by the researcher until completion of the survey; however, this property will remain in the sole possession of the researcher and will not be made public during this study. These letters will be discarded by a shredder upon completion of this study.**

(c) Confidentiality and Anonymity. Describe procedures for maintaining participant confidentiality and/or anonymity.

Once the in-class surveys are completed, the researcher will collect all material. Once all questionnaires are collected, they will be placed in a manila envelope which will be sealed. Once all 15 colleges have been surveyed, the researcher will examine questionnaires in preparation for returning them to ACT to be scanned. ACT specifies that in order to avoid instruments from being eliminated, surveys are checked stray markings, ovals gridded in too lightly, responses gridded in ink, spills, folds and creases, and staples. Additionally, prior to placing the surveys in a cardboard box for send-off, the researcher will ensure that the first page of each instrument is facing up in the same direction as requested by ACT. Once surveys have been properly packaged,
the researcher will complete the required ACT data forms and return the package to the address specified by ACT to be scanned and so that data reports may be generated.

(d) Data Security. Describe procedures for protecting the data from unauthorized use. This should include any security or encryption measures used for the collection, transmission, and storage of any electronic or print data. Researchers using databases should state how the data will be securely transmitted.

The researcher will be the sole handler in packaging materials to be returned to ACT for scoring and analysis. As requested by ACT, the researcher will complete the ESS Postsecondary Data Form to be submitted to ACT with instruments for scanning. After scanning the surveys, ACT will generate institutional reports, specified on the Postsecondary Data Form by the researcher. ACT offers nine types of institutional reports. The researcher will work alongside the statistician to determine which specific report options will need to be selected so that the goals and objectives of this study are achieved. Reports to be requested have not been determined at this time. The researcher and statistician, Dr. JT Johnson are communicating on this matter and will reach a decision prior to package send-off. No identifying information will be used in data reporting. ACT will optically scan surveys and generate reports to be returned to the researcher. The office of Survey Services under ACT offers a variety of options for survey reporting formats, including graphical reports as well as files on a secured data CD. The research team will determine the appropriate reporting format to request from ACT prior to returning the completed questionnaires. Once scanning is complete and reports are generated through ACT, data files will be a direct transaction solely between ACT, the research and the research team.

(e) Data Sharing. Explain whether or not the collected data will be shared with other individuals. Specify if identifiable records (at the individual student level) will be shared with anyone other than the immediate researcher or research team. Include any confidentiality measures or data use agreements. External parties may include statisticians, consultants, sponsors, journals, etc.

The data obtained from this research will be used for the purpose of a dissertation and the researcher along with members of the dissertation committee will have access to the data files provided by ACT following survey scanning and analysis. Results will be included in the findings section of the dissertation. No identifying information will be used in the findings section of the dissertation. The researcher ensures that student’s identity will be kept confidential.
Steps for Research Proposal Approval

(1) COMPLETE APPLICATION – Principal Investigator shall complete this application and submit it and all supporting documentation (surveys, file layouts, interview questions, etc.) electronically to dwest@mccc.edu at least three weeks prior to the desired date of approval.

(2) VERIFICATION OF APPLICATION – Once application is received and reviewed for completeness, the SBCJC staff will forward all application materials electronically to the Chair of the MACJC for appropriate MACJC action.

(3) MACJC ACTION – The Chair of the MACJC will forward all application materials electronically to the other fourteen members of the Association for approval and/or recommendation. The Chair will then notify the SBCJC staff within 10 working days as to the disposition of the application.

(4) NOTIFICATION OF PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR – SBCJC staff will notify the principal investigator and provide signed documentation of the MACJC’s action.

Signatures

Principal Investigator – I certify that the information in this application is complete and correct. As Principal Investigator, I have the ultimate responsibility for protecting the rights and welfare of human participants, secure conduct of the research, and the ethical performance of the project. I will comply with all applicable federal, state, and local laws regarding the protection of participants in human research.

[Signature of Principal Investigator] 8/24/14

Research Advisor – I certify that the information in this application is complete and correct, and that this proposed research has been approved by the IRB of the sponsoring institution. As Research Advisor, I confirm that the student researcher under my guidance is knowledgeable about the regulations and policies governing research with human subjects, and has sufficient training and experience to conduct the research outlined in this application.

I further agree to regularly meet with the student researcher to monitor his or her progress; and if problems arise, I will become personally available to help the student researcher resolve those problems. As an advisor on this project, I will assure the protection of the rights and welfare of human participants, secure conduct of the research, and the ethical performance of the project. I will comply with all applicable federal, state, and local laws regarding the protection of participants in human research.

[Signature of Research Advisor] 9/24/2012
Department Chair - I acknowledge that this research is in keeping with the standards set by our department and our institutional IRB or its equivalent. I also certify that the Principal Investigator has met all the departmental and institutional requirements for approval of this research.

Signature of Department Chair

MACIC Chair - I acknowledge on behalf of the MACIC Presidents’ Association that this research has been reviewed and has subsequently received the following recommendation by consensus of the Association membership:

☐ Approved
☐ Tabled for Further Review
☐ Not Approved
☐ Approved with Stipulations:

Signature of MACIC Chair
APPENDIX D

SCRIPTED LETTER FOR SURVEY ADMINISTRATION

Survey Administration Procedures

Instructor: Thank you for allowing your class to take part in this research. To ensure successful completion of this survey please read the bold statements aloud to the students.

Say:

Today I am administering the ACT Survey of Academic Advising. The purpose of this survey is to determine if undergraduate students are satisfied with their academic advising experiences and to learn undergraduate students' impressions of their academic advisors. There are no known risks associated with this study. The data obtained will remain anonymous and will be used for a dissertation project.

Completion of this survey is optional. If, for any reason, you feel uncomfortable about completing the survey, please do not participate. If a single question causes you concern, simply leave it blank. Please do not complete this survey if you are under 18 years of age. This survey will be completely anonymous.

Use a number 2 pencil, do NOT use a pen. If you do not have a pencil, I can provide you with one. Darken the spaces completely. Be careful not to write or make any marks outside the spaces provided for your answers. Do not fold, tear, or spill any liquids on the survey. Some items may not apply to you. If this is the case, skip the item or mark the "Does Not Apply" option. If you wish to change your response to an item, erase your first mark completely and then mark the correct oval. Please select only ONE response for each item.

Are there any questions?

At this time, distribute the following materials to students:

- Student Consent Letter (2 per student; they will sign both letters and submit only one back)
- List of College Majors and Occupational Choices (yellow)
- Survey of Academic Advising (green)
- Additional Questions (pink)

Now, turn to page 1-section I of the survey. Skip Block A. Complete Blocks B-N on page 1. Use the list of College Majors and Occupational Choices (yellow sheet) to complete Block N. Skip Block O.

Allow students time to complete and darken the circles for this section of the survey.

Say:

Now, turn to page 2. Direct your attention to section II. Read the information under the heading ‘Advising Information’. Complete Blocks A-D.

Continue to section III on page 2. Read the information under the heading ‘Academic Advising Needs’ and complete parts A and B according to the instructions given for items 1-18.

Allow students time to complete and darken the circles for this section of the survey.
Say:

Go to page 3, section IV. Read the information under the heading ‘Impressions of Your Advisor’. Complete items 1-36 according to the instructions provided under the heading.

Allow students time to complete and darken the circles for this section of the survey.

Now, turn to page 4, section V of the survey. Read the information under the heading ‘Additional Advising Information’ and complete Blocks A-E.

Continue to section VI on page 4. Read the information under the heading ‘Additional Questions’. Use the pink sheet labeled ‘Additional Questions’ to complete this section.

Data Collection Procedures

Students will keep one consent letter, and the other consent letter will be collected, along with the List of College Majors and Occupational Choices (yellow), Survey of Academic Advising (green) and the sheet with Additional Questions (pink). Also, collect all #2 pencils that were provided to students.

Once all documents have been collected, place the materials in the manila envelope provided. Seal the envelope and return it to the primary contact person at your campus (____________) to be returned to the researcher.

Thank you for participating in this survey.
REFERENCES


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