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The Impact of Intercultural Communication Competence on Academic Advising at an American-
Style University in West Africa

by

Tara Pylate

A Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Major: Leadership and Policy Studies

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Dedication

While it had been my fervent hope that I could finish this study at the university I called home for three years, the American University of Afghanistan (AUAF), this was not to be. Following the withdrawal of American troops in the country in summer 2021, the Taliban quickly regained power and many students, including those at AUAF, were forced out of their schools and into hiding or, in some cases, out of their homeland altogether. This dissertation is dedicated to them and all who came before to guide the way for higher education and a better future for those in Afghanistan and beyond, for education always prevails, even in the darkest times.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my appreciation to all who have supported me during my dissertation journey. I would especially like to thank my dissertation committee members, Dr. Platt, Dr. Xu, Dr. Akey, and Dr. Zanskas, for their help and guidance. I would also like to thank my family, friends, and colleagues, my biggest cheerleaders at every stage, for their words of encouragement throughout this arduous process.

Abstract

While the internationalization of American higher education has seen significant growth in the past decade, little is known about the advisor-advisee relationship in American transnational institutions and, more specifically, at American-style institutions abroad. This quantitative study examined students' expectations of and satisfaction with academic advising, and investigated whether students' intercultural communication competence (ICC) predicted student satisfaction at an American-style university in West Africa. Research concerning international students in the United States provides an outline for examining academic advising abroad. Academic advisors play a vital role in motivating and empowering students. Cultural and academic challenges that international students face impact their advising experiences. The existing literature shows that international students' lack an understanding of academic advising which creates confusion and, oftentimes, negatively impacts advising satisfaction. Additionally, studies suggest that preference towards a particular advising model are mixed, with elements of both prescriptive and developmental advising being seen as valuable by international students. The present study is guided by ICC which has been shown to impact satisfaction in advisor-international advisee relationships. With the expansion of transnational education, this study is timely and provides useful information geared towards student affairs professionals abroad. The current study found statistical significance for advising expectations based off of gender and advising satisfaction based off of number of yearly appointments, approximate time spent per session, and where students obtained the majority of their information.

Keywords: academic advising, advising expectations, advising satisfaction, transnational higher education, American-style universities, intercultural communication competence

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List of Abbreviations

AHE	American Higher Education
AUAF	American University of Afghanistan
AUB	American University of Beirut
AUC	American University of Cairo
AUN	American University of Nigeria
HEI	Higher Education Institution
IAAF	Inventory of Academic Advising Functions
IBC	International Branch Campus
ICC	Intercultural Communication Competence
IRB	Institutional Review Board
NUC	National Universities Commission
OBHE	Observatory on Borderless Higher Education
TNE	Transnational Education
TNHE	Transnational Higher Education

Chapter One

Introduction

May 26, 2012 – The sound of a hundred foreign words echo throughout the city – each one competing with the next. “Allahu Akbar, Ash-hadu an-la ilaha illa llah” ... (God is the greatest, I bear witness that there is no deity except God ...). It is Salah – time for prayer. The sun is high in the sky. It is warm today with only a slight breeze. The smell of honeysuckle and dust fill my nose. Spring is in full swing. The ivy is sprouting on the blast walls at the university where I work. The students are eager to see the end of another semester and the faculty even more so.

In 2011, I began a journey which would completely alter the course of my life. Jaded by the humdrum of my role as a twenty-something Financial Aid Advisor at a community college in Arkansas, I yearned to make a new life for myself. In May, I vacationed in Dubai, visiting a Chinese friend I had met while briefly serving as an English instructor at a university in Shanghai after my undergraduate studies. The trip renewed my craving to live and work overseas, and I immediately began applying for jobs in the area upon returning home. When I was offered a position as a Student Development Specialist at an American university, I accepted straightaway and was shortly off to Dubai for orientation. Only, it was not my final destination. The truth, which only a handful of people knew, was far more difficult to explain, even to myself. When I arrived at the Memphis International Airport, my life crammed into two large suitcases, nervous excitement overcame me. I had no idea what to expect. A week later I reached the country I would call home for the next three years: Afghanistan.

Outwardly, the students in Afghanistan were not unlike those you might encounter on any given day at universities across the United States. However, inwardly, many were fighting their own battles. In 2011, the U.S. military involvement in the country had entered its tenth year. Many of the students had only ever known conflict. Afghanistan, supported by the international community, was still coping with its seemingly indomitable reconstruction task. Education was

one of the many areas which had to be built from the ground up, and I was now part of that effort.

With no formal training in academic advising, it did not take me long to recognize that I was in over my head. Of course, I soon realized that the students were just as confounded as I was, as nearly all of them had miniscule knowledge of liberal arts or experience with the American academic system. With no time to brush up on student affairs theory, I dove in headfirst. The learning curve was steep, and I spent most of the first semester in a daze. I had not quite factored in how profoundly my new living situation would impact every aspect of my life. On my first full day in the country, the Taliban attacked the British Council, killing a dozen people. Jetlagged, I had listened to it all unfold from the rooftop of my guesthouse across town. What had I gotten myself into? The weight of it all was immense. Some did not make it past the first few weeks. Others lasted several months. But I stayed. I pushed forward – advising, teaching, and learning.

It was during my time in Afghanistan and at AUAF that I first started to question the impact of one's background and culture on the academic advising relationship. The bonds I built with my own advisees in those years were at the same time consequential and complex. After three years in Afghanistan, I found myself in Qatar at another American-style institution. While there, I continued to reflect on the genuine purpose of American-style education abroad and comprehend the influence of intercultural relationships in the context of advising, teaching, and learning. As so often happens, it seems the more I have learned, the less I know. This research has become a part of me and has grown from my own commitment to better understand the diverse populations I have and will work with in higher education and to add to the literature so that we are all able to become better practitioners in the field and make meaningful contributions.

The Internationalization of American Higher Education

It is estimated that 8 million students will study in countries outside of their own by 2025, with the majority going from the south's developing countries to the affluent countries in the north (Altbach, 2004a). Students leaving their home countries in pursuit of higher education abroad is not a new trend. Universities have been international since their inception, hosting both international students and professors (Altbach, 2002; Altbach, 2004a). Students go abroad for many reasons, including limited higher education capacity, to explore alternatives to competitive domestic admission systems, unavailability of high-quality and/or specialized academic programs (particularly specialized graduate curricula), and to increase their competitiveness in the job market after graduation (Altbach, 2004a; Altbach, 2016).

Today, the United States boasts the majority of the top universities in the world and is the most sought-after destination for international students and scholars (Bok, 2013; Cohen & Kisker, 2010). This is not only due to academic quality in the country but to America's hospitable culture, a fairly open labor market, and its existing diversity in higher education which is second to none (Altbach, 2004a; Charles & Stewart, 1991; Zong & Batalova, 2018). Globalization has also contributed to the worldwide rise in international students in the U.S. and other countries (Altbach, 2002). Increased student mobility and the rise of English as the academic language of choice has made Western universities popular among international students.

Hosting international students on American campuses is just one way that higher education in the country has been internationalized. Transnational institutions of many shapes and sizes have also played a role, extending the reach of American higher education (AHE) globally (Altbach, 2002; Kleypas & McDougall, 2012). This development has brought what

many students once went in search for at universities in the U.S. to their own doorsteps, making the dream of an American-style education more accessible to thousands. As of 2017, there were 77 American branch campuses and 80 American-style universities in operation globally (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017; Long, 2018). At that time, American-style campuses alone were educating an estimated 150,000 students in 55 countries (Long, 2018).

Though international students at higher education institutions (HEIs) in the United States as well as American campuses and programs abroad have grown tremendously over the years, our knowledge of them still leaves much to be desired. This is especially true in the area of academic advising.

Higher Education in Nigeria

As the country in Africa boasting both the largest economy and biggest population, as well as a high percentage of college-aged individuals, Nigeria is a good location for considering the impact of transnational higher education (TNHE). Described as the “awakening giant” of Africa, Nigeria is making a name for itself in higher education at home and abroad, both in its work in growing the sector and in the number of international students it is sending outside to study (Tobenkin, 2019). In 2021, a reported 170 universities were operating in Nigeria, including 79 private and 48 state universities (Sasu, 2022). However, even with the increased efforts to prioritize higher education and grow the number of academic institutions in existence, Nigeria has not been able to keep up with student demand.

With around two million students pursuing admission into higher education yearly, lack of space has meant that less than 50 percent are able to secure a spot (Suleiman, 2022). Many of these students find themselves looking for options abroad. According to data from Open Doors (2022), in the 2020-21 school year, nearly 13,000 Nigerian international students studied in the

United States, the largest population from Africa and 10th largest worldwide, yet many do not have the ability to pursue degrees in the West, with a greater majority choosing to stay closer to home, attending institutions in countries such as Ghana and South Africa. Other problems that have plagued higher education in the country, driving students out, include funding problems, poor infrastructure, instability and the threat of violence as well as mass displacement (caused by the insurgence of Boko Haram), corruption, persistent teacher strikes, and poor learning environments (Suleiman, 2022; Tobenkin, 2019).

The private sector is seen as one way to provide more higher education opportunities and make equitable access a possibility for Nigerians without the need for them to travel abroad for opportunities (Mitchell, 2021). Transnational higher education in Nigeria has mostly been dominated by the United Kingdom, the country from which it gained its independence in 1960. Some of the oldest institutions were founded under the British High Commission, including University of Ife (now known as Obafemi Awolowo University), University of Ibadan, and University of Lagos (Tobenkin, 2019). Dozens of universities have already established some type of transnational education partnership with a foreign institution. American-style education is still fairly new in the country, with the American University of Nigeria, founded in 2004, being the first of its kind.

Recently, the National Universities Commission (NUC), established new guidelines for transnational ventures to grow higher education in the country through joint partnerships with Nigerian institutions and outside universities as well as through allowing international universities to launch their own campuses, including franchises, branch campuses, articulation programs, distance learning, and other models (Suleiman, 2022). New ventures like these are expected to increase supply for the growing demand in higher education, limiting brain drain

(Mitchell, 2021). Part of NUC's plan for the educational system released in 2018 included the Blueprint on the Rapid Revitalisation of University Education in Nigeria 2018-2023. This plan for higher education improvement incorporates strategies to improve higher education access and funding and to work on quality ratings and the adequacy of teachers in the field; in addition, NUC announced a plan for the development of 290 new universities (Tobenkin, 2019). Consequently, there has never been a better time to consider the expectations and needs of TNHE students in the country.

Problem Statement

The internationalization of higher education has meant an increased multinational presence at HEIs in the United States as well as a move to establish more American and American-style programs abroad. While a fair amount is known about international students at universities in the U.S., little is known about students studying in American programs overseas. Research has found that academic advisors play a vital role in the lives of international students studying in America (Bista, 2015; Charles & Stewart, 1991; Saha, 2018). Conversely, next to nothing is known about the advisor-advisee relationship at external American and American-style institutions.

The existing literature on American TNHE centers primarily on branch and/or offshore campuses and concerns obstacles and challenges as well as quality assurance and regulation issues encountered when bringing American programs to locations abroad (Altbach, 2004a; 2010; Boubsil et al., 2011; Healey, 2015; Long, 2018; Wilkins, 2017; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018). Though research on American-style education in an international context is limited, similarities can be seen between American-style institutions and other types of American TNHE institutions. Nevertheless, there are few similarities to be made in academic advising, as the field has been

broadly overlooked in the transnational literature. This fact alone makes this research of utmost importance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand the academic advising experiences of students at an American-style university in West Africa. Literature on the advisement of international students at institutions in the United States shows that students face many cultural and academic challenges which have an impact on their academic advising experiences. While a few studies have highlighted student affairs overseas, including two at American branch campuses and another at an American-style university, these studies produced insufficient information and more research is needed to develop a better understanding of the field (Cicchetti & Park, 2018; Sengupta, 2017; Telfici et al., 2014). Furthermore, no studies have been found which specifically address academic advising at American or American-style institutions abroad. Given the growing importance of the internationalization of higher education and the expansion of transnational education, this gap must be addressed for student affairs professionals to provide students with the support needed to be successful.

Research Questions

This study focused on the following research questions:

1. What are undergraduate students' expectations of academic advising at an American-style university in the West Africa?
2. How satisfied are undergraduate students with their academic advising experience at an American-style university in West Africa?
3. Does intercultural communication competence (ICC) predict undergraduate students' satisfaction with academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

Conceptual Framework

This study examined academic advising through an intercultural communication competence (ICC) lens. Studies concerning cultural competence can be found as far back as the 1950s. Chen (1989) defined communication competence as “the ability of an interactant to execute communication behaviors to elicit a desired response in a specific environment,” with effectiveness and appropriateness being important measurements of communication proficiency (p. 131). Chen and Starosta (1996) later provided a more all-encompassing description of the term, described by Zhang (2015) as the ability to “interact effectively, appropriately, and meaningfully across different cultures” (p. 49). In an analysis of early literature in the field, Chen (1989) noted the existence of four distinct areas of ICC, including: personal attributes, communication skills, psychological adaptation, and cultural awareness. After empirical testing a new five-component model emerged, including: self-disclosure, self-consciousness, social adjustment, communication competence, and interaction involvement (Dai & Chen, 2014).

According to the Chen and Starosta (1996), “To understand and accept cultural differences becomes imperative to be effective in intercultural communication in a global society” (p. 27). Because cultural interactions are inherent when transferring American programs abroad, using intercultural communication to explore interactions between academic advisors and advisees from differing backgrounds is fitting and builds on the work of Zhang and Dinh (Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Dinh, 2017). Chen and Starosta’s (1996) model of ICC includes three parts: intercultural sensitivity (affective domain), intercultural awareness (cognitive domain), and intercultural adroitness (behavioral domain). Proficiency in each part must be gained for ICC to occur.

Definitions Of Terms

The following definitions will apply to this study:

- *Academic advising*: Academic advising exists in “situations in which an institutional representative gives insight or direction to a college student about an academic, social, or personal matter. The nature of this direction might be to inform, suggest, counsel, discipline, coach, mentor, or even teach” (Kuhn, 2008, p. 3).
- *International/foreign student*: International students are those “who undertake all or part of their higher education experience in a country other than their home country or who travel across a national boundary to a country other than their home country to undertake all or part of their higher education experience” (Project Atlas, 2020, para. 3). The terms international and foreign are used interchangeably in this research.
- *Transnational higher education*: Transnational education occurs when institutions travel outside of national borders to deliver educational programs. Miller-Idriss and Hanauer (2011) pinpoint seven categories, including: 1. Replica campuses, 2. Branch campuses, 3. Old-turnkey-foreign style independent institutions, 4. New-turnkey-foreign style independent (affiliated) institutions, 5. Offshore/transnational programmes, 6. Foreign style, and 7. Virtual branch campuses.
- *Branch/offshore campus*: The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (OBHE) defines an international branch campus (IBC) as “an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; and provides an entire academic program, substantially on site, leading to a degree awarded by the foreign education provider” (Garret et al., 2016, p. 3). The terms branch and offshore are used interchangeably within.

- *Intercultural communication competence*: erected from Chen and Starosta's (1996) research, it is, in the words of Zhang (2015) the ability to “interact effectively, appropriately, and meaningfully across different cultures” (p. 49); intercultural communication consists of three main domains: intercultural sensitivity (affective domain), intercultural awareness (cognitive domain), and intercultural adroitness (behavioral domain) (Chen & Starosta, 1998-1999).
- *American-style institution*: institutions which include the name American as a brand and are often accredited or in the process of accreditation by agencies in the United States (Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011). Miller-Idriss and Hanauer (2011) divide these into two groups: old turnkey-foreign style independent institutions and new turnkey-foreign style independent (affiliated) institutions. These universities may or may not have affiliations with universities in the United States.
- *Developmental advising*: an advising style in which advisors play a collaborative role with students, sharing in both responsibility and learning; students are viewed as maturing individuals with unlimited potential who are able to find fulfillment in setting goals and achieving them in partnership with their advisor who serves as a teacher and guide, providing them with problem-solving and decision-making skills (Crookston, 1972).
- *Prescriptive advising*: coined by Crookston (1972) this advising style is often compared to the doctor/patient relationship with advisors serving as “information booths,” with advisors taking the initiative and holding most of the control and students labeled as unmotivated and immature young adults in need of incentives and supervision (Crookston, 1972; Walsh, 1979).

Delimitations

Participants in this study were limited to undergraduate students being primarily advised by academic advisors in an academic advising office as opposed to faculty advisors. Hence, the findings may not be applicable to upper-classman and/or graduate students who have already confirmed a major and are advised by faculty in their respective areas of interest or those receiving advising from a combination of places. Additionally, due to the assorted styles of academic advising utilized at American universities globally, as well as other demographic and academic factors at play, these findings may not be generalizable to students studying at American-style institutions in other geographical areas. Similarly, the outcomes may not be translatable to other kinds of American transnational HEIs.

Limitations

There were several limitations for this study. Firstly, it was not known how many respondents would complete the questionnaires or if some respondents would choose to complete some parts while skipping others. The number of students who participated in the research had an impact on the results and the statistical power to detect meaningful relationships. Additionally, the close-ended questions present in this quantitative study only provided a general picture of the research questions being addressed. Follow-up qualitative measures are necessary in the future to gain a more in-depth understanding of the identified patterns. Lastly, there was nearly no research found on the research area being addressed, academic advising at American-style transnational HEIs; therefore, it was necessary to look at the literature for international students studying in the United States to draw comparisons.

Assumptions

It is assumed that data collected in this study are true representations of the opinions of the students that participated in the study. Furthermore, it is believed that students involved in the study understood all statements/questions in the survey instruments.

Summary

As indicated above, most of the research regarding TNHE deals with challenges and regulation issues which arise from bringing American programs to foreign soil. Some studies highlight student and faculty experiences at these institutions; however, the overarching theme is that the unknown far outweighs the known. This research hopes to look at a microcosm of TNHE to highlight pertinent issues in academic advising. Information collected from this study can aid student affairs professionals understanding of students' academic advising expectations and satisfaction as well as help them consider the role that ICC plays in students' fulfillment with advising.

This dissertation is composed of five chapters. Chapter one provided a study overview. Chapter two reviews the relevant literature and contains an important look at international students at American institutions which is the backbone of the present study. Chapter three outlines the methodology, including study participants, instruments, and procedure. Chapter four provides results of the study. Finally, chapter five offers further discussion and concluding thoughts.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

The purpose of this study is to understand the academic advising experiences of undergraduate students at an American-style university in the West Africa. This chapter provides an overview of international students in AHE, includes a snapshot of TNHE, provides the history of academic advising in the United States, examines academic advising for international students on United States campuses, discusses ICC theory and, lastly, delves into student affairs research at TNHE institutions.

Though the focus of this research is on students at an American-style university abroad, major emphasis is given to the literature on international students studying at HEIs within the United States. This is largely due to a lack of research on student affairs in TNHE which is a relatively new area. Understanding the academic advising experiences of international students in the U.S. will allow us to better grasp the experiences of students studying at American TNHE institutions and provide a starting point for further investigation into this overlooked student population.

This approach to transfer knowledge is justified by similarities between the American international student population and American transnational student population. Both U.S. international students and students at American TNHE institutions come primarily from non-American backgrounds and study at universities with an American-style academic system where the principal language of instruction is English, and a large percentage of academic staff and faculty may come from the West. Research has shown that international students studying at HEIs in the U.S. face cultural difficulties such as problems with English language and communication, parental pressure, and gender role differences, as well as academic hindrances due to unfamiliarity with the American system. It is proposed that students at American

transnational universities have similar encounters and obstacles which impact their academic advising experiences.

Overview of International Students in the United States

Before World War II, foreign students came to the U.S. for higher education in small numbers. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, students from mission schools in Asia and later Africa were sent to study at religious institutions in hopes that they would take back ideas of Americanism and Christianity on their return to their native lands (Kramer, 2009). By the 1930s, international student numbers had already reached around 10,000 in the U.S. which was on its way to building a reputation as an appealing player in student migration, with most of the students hailing from Asian countries like China, Japan, and the Philippines and European countries such as Russia, Germany, and Britain (Kramer, 2009). After World War II, the presence of international students on American campuses became more notable. This was a result of increased internationalization of higher education, including the recruitment of foreign students and collaborations with academic institutions globally (Altbach, 2002; Hser, 2005).

After the war, educational and cultural expansion emerged from the newly established hegemonic role of the U.S. and the realization that Americans, including leaders, had little knowledge about other countries and cultures which threatened to jeopardize American worldwide influence, living standards, and economic competition (Hser, 2005). Before the Cold War, the United States had remained mostly isolated from other countries and depended mainly on their own natural resources and domestic markets; however, there was a broad consensus that the new U.S leadership role could only be secured in the long-term with more internationalization efforts (deWit, 2002; Hser, 2005). By 1967, there were over 100,000 students studying at HEIs in the country (Enrollment Trends, 2018).

In the 2017-18 school year, the Institute of International Education reported that over one million international students, the majority from China and India, were enrolled at U.S. HEIs, accounting for 5.5% of the total enrollment in the country (Enrollment Trends, 2018). These students play a valuable role in the U.S. economy, contributing around \$37 billion in 2016-17, and benefit their host colleges and universities which see billions in payments primarily from the foreign students' own pockets (Peterson, Briggs, & Dreasher, 1999; Rice et al., 2016; Zong & Batalova, 2018). This is the main reason that international students are often looked to in times of economic hardship (including decreased funding) and declines in college-aged individuals as experienced in the 1980s and 1990s (Altbach, 2004a; Brennan & Dellow, 2013; Cohen & Kisker, 2010; Solorzano, 1985; Zong & Batalova, 2018). In fact, according to Altbach (2004b), "The money spent abroad by students from some developing countries more than equals incoming foreign aid" (p. 12). Monetary contributions are not the only enrichment international students bring. According to Weill (1982), international students help American students "gain a healthy perspective on [their] heritage ... learn to appreciate other cultures and traditions ... [and] add breadth and quality of education by drawing into classroom discussion personal experiences and historical perspectives unique to their home countries ..." (p. 52)

Meaningful exchanges between domestic and international students on American campuses transcend the time students spend at university, having a profound impact on both participants and the academic culture on campuses (Chow, 2015). Moreover, international students contribute to positive intercultural relationships, increase the quality and prestige of institutions, contribute to research and global competitiveness, and increase diversity and global perspectives (Altbach, 2004a; Brennan & Dellow, 2013; Heyward, 2002; Higbee, 1961; Hser, 2005; Wagner, 2004). While there are many positive aspects to hosting international students on

American campuses, nuisances such as rising tuition, visa restrictions, and an emerging negative view of international students, have hampered internationalization efforts (Hser, 2005). Lack of funding and increased competition among countries like Australia, Britain, and Canada have also contributed to the recent decline in student enrollment (Hser, 2005). Nonetheless, it is anticipated that this population will maintain its importance in the coming years.

Transnational Higher Education

During the colonial times, universities often sponsored or set up schools in their overseas territories. In the 19th century, institutions based on the U.S. model were created in countries such as Lebanon, Egypt, Turkey and beyond by American missionaries, initially starting as religious institutions but later transforming into advocates of liberal arts education (Altbach, 2004b; Anderson, 2019). However, internationalization efforts of AHE was not a high priority until the late 1940s. As mentioned above, after World War II, lack of knowledge about other countries and cultures was seen as a hindrance to the worldwide influence of the U.S., emphasizing a need for internationalization efforts; this was followed by the Cold War which further stressed the importance of internationalization in order for America to compete globally and continue to lead as a world power (deWit, 2002; Hser, 2005).

Though many notable initiatives were launched during the time after WWII such as an increase in funding for international education programs at home, the National Defense Education Act, the creation of exchange programs such as Fulbright and other study abroad opportunities, and the establishment of UNESCO, transnational education efforts had not yet come to fruition (Altbach, 2002; Milana, 2012; Ping, 1999). While some American universities established campuses on foreign soil between 1950 to 1990, American transnationalism did not see much growth until the 1990s, followed by more accelerated increases in overseas campuses

in the early 2000s (Branch, 2019; Wilkins, 2016). This expansion saw a significant push after the terror attacks of September 11th, 2001, a time when international students wishing to study in the U.S. faced additional scrutiny and heightened immigration procedures (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). According to Cohen and Kisker (2010) while this event did not have a great overall impact on the numbers of students studying in the U.S., subsequently more American universities developed programs in other countries.

Like hosting international students in HEIs in the U.S., hosting them in transnational ventures is a multibillion-dollar industry (Alderman, 2001). Nonetheless, international projects have been shown to be risky for universities interested in amplifying institutional internationalization and are a less preferable option than hosting international students at the home campus. According to Wilkins (2016), “The diverse sets of regulative, normative, and cultural structures and processes that exist in different countries each present institutions offering transnational education with a unique set of challenges and risks” (p. 5). Even so, successful transnational programs can reap great benefits. Perhaps one of the main positives is that it allows institutions to boost their presence globally (Altbach, 2002). According to Altbach (2002), “The market and internationalization have close and complex relationships” (p. 30). Some see this aspect as a negative product of globalization and fear that it encourages marketization and neo-liberalism, further increasing inequality and the “McDonaldization” of higher education (Altbach, 2004b; Branch, 2019). Others argue that while the institutions may profit, those in the foreign country, especially the students, benefit as well.

Australia has produced a significant amount of research on the transnationalism of higher education and was one of the first countries to lay claim to the term TNHE which was originally used to describe international students studying in the country (Knight, 2005). Transnational

higher education has since evolved beyond its initial description with new definitions stressing its different aspects, using terms such as offshore, cross-border, and borderless education along with labels like branch campuses, cooperative and articulated degree programs, validation, franchises, corporate programs, online/distance/virtual learning, twinning, and double/joint degree among others (Altbach, 2002; Altbach, 2004b; Branch, 2019; Huang, 2007; Knight, 2005; Mok & Han, 2016). According to Van-Cauter, “[The British Council] found terminology chaos around the world with over 40 different terms used to describe TNE [transnational education] ...” (as cited by Mitchell, 2018).

For the purpose of this research, the criteria developed by Miller-Idriss and Hanauer (2011) for their research on the Middle East are used which pinpoint seven categories of TNHE, including: 1. Replica campuses, 2. Branch campuses, 3. Old-turnkey-foreign style independent institutions, 4. New-turnkey-foreign style independent (affiliated) institutions, 5. Offshore/transnational programmes, 6. Foreign style, and 7. Virtual branch campuses. Branch campuses, offshore/transnational programs, and turnkey-style institutions will be highlighted due to their applicability to the current study.

Branch Campuses

According to Miller-Idriss and Hanauer’s (2011) criteria, a branch campus is one set up by an institution based in the U.S. which supplies faculty (majority), curriculum, governance, and degrees. Similarly, the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (OBHE) defines an international branch campus (IBC) as “an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign education provider; operated in the name of ... [that] provider; and provides an ... academic program ... leading to a degree awarded by the ... provider” (Garret et al., 2016, p. 3). These campuses generally focus on a few specific academic or professional areas (Miller-Idriss &

Hanauer, 2011). Branch campuses (sometimes referred to as offshore campuses) are one of the most observable and studied types of TNHE though they account for a small percentage overall (Wilkins, 2016).

A joint report based on data by OBHE and the Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) found that around 180,000 students were enrolled in nearly 250 IBCs at the end of 2015, with China being the biggest host followed by the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and the U.S. serving as the largest provider by far with 78 campuses (as cited by Crist, 2017b; Garrett, et al., 2016). As of January 2017, C-BERT reported 77 American campuses were still in operation (Baruch College in Singapore closed in 2016) with another 7 under development (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017). According to the OBHE report, motivations given for the establishment of IBCs include internationalization, revenue, status, and enhancing connections (Garrett, et al., 2016).

Like guest countries, host countries also benefit from transnational arrangements. The host countries in the OBHE report list a boost in economic competitiveness, an increase in reputation/awareness of the country's education system, and a greater influence of soft power as incentives (Garrett, et al., 2016, p. 10). Other benefits for the host country include increased access to education, enhanced skills and domestic innovation, decreased brain drain, lower unemployment, higher living standards, reduced currency outflows from those going abroad, and the opportunity for governments to grow higher education in their country with little to no cost for them (Branch, 2019; Wilkins, 2016). For developing countries, political and economic stability are also promoted through higher education. These positive points have appealed to many American institutions and their international counterparts abroad, persuading them to take the leap and open AHE campuses.

Offshore Programs

Another type of TNHE is offshore partnerships. There is no comprehensive data on offshore programs which are offered in conjunction with American institutions and foreign campuses. Further ambiguity exists due to the interchangeable nature of the term offshore with branch campus in the literature amongst other terms like TNHE, cross-border, and borderless education (Knight, 2016). According to Kosmutzky and Putty (2015), offshore and TNHE underscore the location of the students as opposed to that of the institution itself. This debate is not new as many scholars take different stances on the use of such terms. In 2005, Jane Knight published an article titled *Borderless, Offshore, Transnational and Crossborder Education: Definition and Data Dilemmas*. According to Knight (2005):

In a field that is changing as much as international education, the challenge of finding common meanings for the same and similar terms will continue. Each country, association, [and] government agency will use terms that make sense from their perspective. (p. 21)

Using Miller-Idriss and Hanauer's (2011) definition, offshore campuses differ from branch campuses in that they are partnerships with institutions abroad as opposed to operating as an arm of an institution in the U.S. and are located inside existing host institutions overseas. Because these programs align with branch campuses in two major ways, they use foreign curriculum and mostly foreign faculty, many of the positives mentioned above apply. For example, offshore campuses would likely see the areas of internationalization, revenue, status, and enhancing connections specified by OBHE as incentives for branch campuses as motivations for developing offshore partnerships (Garrett, et al., 2016, p. 9). Furthermore, these partnerships help the host nation by importing important and, often, needed programs to the country,

improving access to education and increasing local skills. This in turn reduces the need for students to go abroad, diminishing both brain drain and currency outflows.

American-style Institutions

A third type of transnational institution as defined by Idriss and Hanauer are those which include the name American as a brand and are often accredited or in the process of accreditation by agencies in the United States. These institutions have been around longer than branch and offshore campuses and consider these newer institutions to be a competitor (Long, 2018). According to Long (2018), an American university abroad is “any higher education institution located outside of the United States that labels itself ‘American’ and issues degrees at the bachelor’s level or higher” (p. 9). Miller-Idriss and Hanauer (2011) divide these into two groups labeled as old turnkey-foreign style independent institutions and new turnkey-foreign style independent (affiliated) institutions. Both types of institutions are based on foreign models, but are different in that old turnkeys were originally founded and accredited by foreign associations/individuals whom they later separated from while new turnkeys were/are founded in partnership/consultation with foreign institutions and have or are currently in the process of accreditation (Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011).

Roughly a quarter of American-style institutions are organized under the Association of American International Colleges and Universities which has 21 regular members and 7 associate members. According to the association’s bylaws, regular membership is available to U.S.-style tertiary education abroad delivered in English by “an independent, non-profit entity ... accredited as an independent institution by one of the regional associations in the United States” (among other characteristics); associate members include institutions who have “clear non-profit status ... recognition and acceptance in the country where they are physically located. Have

significant educational facilities ...Are committed to American-style education and curriculum and intend to move toward accreditation ... in the United States” (AAICU By-Laws, 2010).

According to Long (2018), in 2017 over 150,000 students were estimated to be attending 80 American-style institutions in 55 countries globally. Examples of old turnkey institutions include two of the oldest universities, the American University of Beirut (AUB) which was established in 1866 as the Syrian Protestant College (renamed in 1919) and the American University of Cairo (AUC) founded in 1919 (Long, 2018). Started by Christian missionaries, AUB has long been revered in the Arab world as a high-quality liberal arts institution and has served as a model for many of the existing American universities internationally. According to McGreevy (2012), “When new universities today use the word ‘American’ in their name, they are, in part, building upon the reputation of the American University of Beirut” (p. 44). Indeed, it was American-style universities such as AUB and AUC that educated many leaders of the region in the late twentieth century (Anderson, 2019). American institutions with their liberal-arts focus, flexible undergraduate system, and wide range of majors have long been leaders in higher education with former AUB President John Waterbury once noting “the word ‘American’ is to education what ‘Swiss’ is to watches” (as cited by Anderson, 2019).

The biggest distinction between American-style universities and branch and offshore campuses is their independence, despite occasional affiliations with American educational institutions and/or organizations. Like branch and offshore campuses, American-style institutions have similar advantages including growing educational access, skills, and innovation, reducing brain drain, currency outflows, and unemployment, and improving living standards (Branch, 2019; Wilkins, 2016). As mentioned above, for developing countries, political and economic stability are also promoted through American-style higher education.

Transnational Higher Education Research

Transnational higher education research focuses on a wide range of themes. The literature is dominated by Australia which is a pioneer in the area and the largest provider (Kosmutzky & Putty, 2016). Kosmutzky and Putty (2016) highlighted six common themes in their search of TNHE literature from 2004 – 2014 (terms: transnational, cross-border, borderless, and offshore education), including: a. overview and trends, b. quality assurance and regulation, c. teaching and learning, d. institutional and management perspectives, e. governance and policy, and f. student choice and mobility (pp. 16-17). A similar search with a special emphasis on American TNHE produced fewer results, indicating limited research in the area. Common underlying topics in the existing literature include obstacles and challenges and quality assurance and regulation and will be touched on in the following paragraphs.

Obstacles and Challenges

Transnational HEIs, in all forms, face cultural, religious, and political challenges within their host countries. According to Altbach (2004b) transnational universities follow the south to north trajectory, meaning that curriculum, language, faculty and staff, and other components are often dominated by the northern counterpart. “There is often little effort to adapt offshore programs to the needs or traditions of the country in which the programs are offered – they are simply exported intact” (Altbach, 2004a, pp. 22-23). Hence, branch or offshore campuses attempting to recreate their American campuses in foreign societies often face push-back. The American branch or offshore body must be apprehensive about what may be lost in transplantation, as the experience and culture on campuses in the U.S. are not easily transferable to campuses abroad, and institutions have sometimes been shown to stray from their academic

missions (Altbach, 2010). American-style institutions must be mindful of adapting programs to the needs of their host country while safeguarding AHE principles.

American TNHE institutions must walk a thin line when it comes to being mindful of the culture, religion, customs, and values of their host countries while also retaining the high quality and standards that personify AHE (Boubsil et al., 2011). Unfortunately, immense “cultural distance” often exists between the American campus and/or Western educators and processes and the host, as the foreign campus may be bound to religious and political systems which may be at odds with Western values (Healey, 2017, p. 624). It has been found that academic culture and standards at IBCs become harder to reproduce across borders when higher numbers of local staff are employed (Healey, 2015). It could be expected that the same would apply at offshore and American-style institutions. Despite this risk, institutions frequently choose to hire locally to ease financial constraints. Additionally, TNHE institutions are sometimes urged by stakeholders to alter programs to meet student needs. According to Healey (2015), “The more different the culture from that of the home country, and the more assertive the host government, the greater the pressure to localise the curriculum” (p. 402). While it is assumed that a certain amount of adaption is desired and necessary to meet the needs of the local community and students, institutions must avoid compromising quality in the process.

In the past, U.S. campuses and American-style institutions abroad have faced resistance to democratic ideas, autonomy, and academic freedom which are at the core of AHE. From the Western perspective, the latter is the most important ingredient for successful teaching and research. Nevertheless, many countries around the world operate in environments that threaten this fundamental idea. According to Anderson (2019), in the Middle East, public universities are highly monitored with “restrictions on political activity, censorship of research results, and

controls on classroom syllabi” being common occurrences (para. 10). A recent example of this can be seen with the barring of an NYU professor from the UAE over his work on the exploitation of migrants (Saul, 2015). This behavior is not limited to the UAE but can be observed in many other non-democratic countries. While private institutions typically have more reign in the foreign contexts in which they operate, they are still often subjected to governmental oversight (Anderson, 2019).

Some faculty and students at American institutions are vocal about their disapproval of opening branch and offshore campuses under repressive regimes (Wilkins, 2017). For instance, New York University in Shanghai, Yale-NUS in Singapore, and Carnegie Mellon University in Rwanda have all faced criticism for expansion plans in authoritarian countries (Hwang, 2013; Wilkins, 2017). “Ignoring ethical issues may deny institutions the achievement of legitimacy, which can result in financial losses and reputational damage” (Wilkins, 2017, p.1387). Despite the many problems that may arise when opening American and American-style institutions overseas in undemocratic states, shunning such countries may be counterproductive and a disservice to those communities

Financial problems are also a big concern for American TNHE. Branch campuses are especially problematic for both the provider and the host country because of the high investment needed to set them up and the incalculable risk of potential failure which can be detrimental for both if the venture is unsuccessful (Crist, 2017a). Institutions which underestimate the complexity of IBCs may not see financial returns on their investments (Wilkins, 2017; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018). Many American institutions have been confronted with financial impasse abroad and, in some cases, were forced to scale down programs or even close altogether. Carnegie Mellon in Greece (2010) and George Mason University in the United Arab Emirates

(2009) were both forced to close due to financial reasons (Healey, 2015). Similar fates were seen by many American IBCs in Japan which were forced to terminate operation in the late 1990s and early 2000s in big part to unstable financial agreements (McMurtrie, 2000). In fact, between the years 2004-2016, 25 American IBCs closed their doors (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017). American-style institutions often fall victim to financial worries as well, as many of them depend on individual, foundation, business, and government donors to operate (Long, 2018). However, Long (2018) notes that between 1991 and 2017, only one American-style university, the American University of Baku, closed.

Quality Assurance and Regulation

In addition to cultural, religious, and political challenges for TNHE institutions, there is an ongoing debate about securing quality and consistent policies and procedures. According to Altbach (2016), “Globalization, regional integration, and the ever-increasing mobility of students and scholars have emphasized the need for transparent quality assurance arrangements that can be understood across borders” (p. 21). Nonetheless, this can be difficult because of occasional inefficiencies among local accreditation agencies which impede their ability to regulate institutions overseas (Altbach, 2016). Additionally, unlike independent American quality assurance programs, programs in other countries are often tied to the government and can be more invasive (Noori & Anderson, 2013). Quality assurance and regulations are also tied to the category of the transnational institution (branch campus, offshore program, American-style institution, etc.). For example, agencies such as the New England Association of Schools and Colleges (NEASC) and the WASC Senior College and University Commission (WSCUC) require prior approval before American institutions can set up IBCs, and agencies in some countries abroad have similar guidelines (Ewell, 2015). Ewell (2015) found that inconsistencies

exist in quality assurance among TNHE institutions around the globe. There is not one universal standard that all American or American-style institutions follow. For private institutions especially, a lot of independence exists depending on the host country which increases the likelihood of poor-quality institutions in some locations (Altbach, 2016). This is noteworthy given the growing nature of internationalization and the exportation of American programs (plus those from other locales) across borders.

While in theory, branch and offshore campuses have a responsibility to uphold the value of their programs and/or partnerships abroad, in certain cases this may be a challenge to accomplish and fall outside of the home country's operational systems, hindering proper regulation (Wilkins & Juusola, 2018). Some argue that quality is sacrificed when more focus is placed on the bottom line and higher education is treated like a tradeable product which is often the case with TNHE, especially branch campuses (Altbach, 2010; Altbach, 2004a). Programs overseas often stray from their mission, as touched on above, and may struggle to maintain the same standards in the unfamiliar environment (Altbach, 2010; Baghdady, 2017; Wilkins, 2017). Those with partners in the host country may also find there is disconnect in objectives that may threaten program quality (Healey, 2015). This divide could diminish the control the home campus has over curriculum and policies at the foreign institution, threatening program quality.

American-style institutions overseas face similar problems and concerns about quality assurance and regulation as branch and offshore campuses. Conversely, aside from partnerships they may have with other campuses in the United States which may impact the regulation of certain programs, they mostly operate as independent entities. This means that they must not only secure accreditation in their home country, which is often complicated as a private player, but must seek accreditation through American agencies as well in order to be taken seriously by

the higher education community. As Noori and Anderson's (2013) look at the accreditation efforts of American-style institutions in the Middle East phrases it, it is mostly about "securing status and consolidating reputation" (p. 164). However, accreditors point out that while institutions often seek validation of their Americanness through the process of accreditation, protecting the American brand is not one of their functions (Noori & Anderson, 2013). Anderson (2019) adds that what makes institutions like AUB and AUC different and genuinely American "is not their names, their status as U.S. legal entities, their language of instruction, or even their commitment to civic engagement but the traditions of academic freedom, institutional autonomy, and shared governance they have embodied" (para. 11).

Whether in the form of branch or offshore campuses or as American-style institutions, it is important to point out that TNHE has the ability to raise the overall quality of education in the host countries in which they operate through competition and by serving as a role model for national institutions (Bok, 2013; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018). While these institutions may face a lot of red tape through national and international accreditation agencies, they have frequently been constructive and valuable contributors to host countries. This point will continue to be important in the coming years as good practices in both quality assurance and regulation remain essential challenges to TNHE (Kosmutzky & Putty, 2016).

American Academic Advising

Academic advising has been around since the earliest days of higher education in the United States (Cook, 2009; Gillispie, 2003; McGill, 2018). From the colonial times when college presidents and faculty served as informal mentors paving the way for the future leaders of the country to the wide spectrum of institutions of the 21st Century, academic advising has been shaped and molded to match the changing times. The field of academic advising as we know it

today is not only multifaceted but is constantly evolving and still widely misunderstood. However, the consensus is that advising is a vital and defining component of U.S. higher education whether at home or abroad. What follows is a concise history of American academic advising, followed by a look at relevant theories and models for the field.

Overview of Academic Advising

During the colonial times, students often lived and studied alongside their teachers who served in a parental capacity acting *in loco parentis*, guiding them in day-to-day life. Student enrollments were low as few could afford higher education which had minimal course offerings and was not required for most occupations (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). Because academic programs were inflexible before the introduction of elective courses and the student population small, the advising seen today was not necessary (Grites, 1979). While the area of academic advising had not yet been defined during this era, college presidents, and later faculty, played a fundamental role as informal advisors, instilling students not only with knowledge but with discipline, morals, and character in an effort to prepare them to become respectable citizens, community leaders, and scholars (Cohen & Kisker, 2010; Gillispie, 2003). Hence, they served as some of the first academic advisors, paving the way for those who came after them.

While Kenyon College is noted by some as establishing the first formal system of advising in the late 1820s, the birth of academic advising is often credited to Johns Hopkins University which created a faculty advisor system in 1876 and was the first to coin the term “adviser” (Cook, 2009; Gordon et al., 2008; White & Khakpour, 2006). In 1889, Harvard University followed Johns Hopkins, initiated by Harvard President Charles W. Eliot who had introduced the elective system nearly two decades before, and founded the Board of Freshman Advisors for first-year students (Grites, 1979; Tuttle, 2000). By the 1940s, faculty academic

advising played a formal and systematic role at most colleges and universities in the country (Grites, 1979). This was followed by the addition of more student services in the 1950s as student-centered learning came into focus and intellectual relationships became more important for students (Gordon et al., 2008; Grites, 1979). Nevertheless, academic advising in the period from 1870 to 1970 is described as an unexamined activity as little afterthought was given to the services provided (Frost & Brown-Wheeler). Though specialization in the areas of psychological, vocational, and academic advising appeared in the 20th century, academic advising on most campuses served merely an administrative function responsible for student schedules until the 1950s (Grites, 1979; Gordon et al., 2008).

That all changed in the years after World War II as enrollment and diversity on college campuses grew, highlighting the need for additional student services (Grites, 1979; Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2008). Around this time, and in the following decade, faculty started to move away from advising toward what they perceived as more rewarding endeavors such as research, triggering the establishment of advising centers across the country to fill the gap (Grites, 1979; Harrison, 2009; Tuttle, 2000). At the same time, the first international students were arriving on American campuses as U.S. institutions experienced economic success after the war and the government began putting more funds toward research at universities, increasing the prestige of American academia (Thelin, 2014). Record enrollment numbers continued into the 1970s and students expected more personalized attention as the focus shifted to interpersonal relationships and away from what would later be termed prescriptive advising (Gordon et al., 2008; Grites, 1979). Academic advising was moving away from being just a clerical activity and more value was being placed on its necessity and impact on higher education, including its influence on a student's personal, academic, and career development (Grites, 1979).

Academic advising has become a more explored field and various theories and models in addition to measures of assessment have been formed and looked to concerning the practice (Frost & Brown-Wheeler, 2003). Advisors are no longer the glorified secretaries that they were in the past but have become vital actors of university campuses (Walsh, 1979). Even so, academic advising remains a complex field misunderstood by many, including advisors themselves (McGill, 2018). Schulenberg and Lindhorst (2008) assert the following:

As an integral part of higher education, the profession of academic advising will continue to grow in complexity and importance as higher education becomes more intricate and as the diversity of students increases. The body of scholarship concerning academic advising will also grow along with the increasing diversity and educational backgrounds of its practitioners ... (p.45)

As with all areas, academic advising continues to be shaped by the times. As the world becomes increasingly more diverse and society continues its advancement, especially in the area of technology, advising will be further molded to fit new demands placed on it and to fulfill many distinct roles for the students to come.

Academic Advising Theories and Models

In the 1970s, HEIs began comparing and analyzing advising practices and publishing research concerning the field with Crookston (1972) and O'Banion (1972) at the forefront of this initiative (Gordon et al., 2008). Previously, academic advising was predominantly restricted to aiding students in their selection of majors or occupations and maintaining records on students' academic progression (Crookston, 1972; Walsh, 1979). In the fall of 1977, the first meeting among academic advising practitioners took place which was followed by the establishment of the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) in 1979 formed with the purpose of

promoting quality within the profession and supporting the field as well as advisors in their professional progression (Beatty, 1999; Gordon et al., 2008; Grites, 1979).

Crookston (1972) and O'Banion (1972) were two of the first scholars to publish literature concerning the different theories of academic advising. The earliest forms of academic advising, alluded to above, followed the prescriptive model analogous to the doctor/patient relationship in which advisors served as "information booths" (Crookston, 1972; Walsh, 1979). It was not until the 1960s – the period where interpersonal relationships came into focus – when advising began to transition from a prescriptive relationship to one more developmental in nature (Grites, 1979). Later, other theories began to arise which combined the two or offered new paths altogether.

As chronicled above, for decades academic advising was viewed as an administrative task in which faculty made suggestions to students, and it was up to the student to decide whether to heed that advice or go in another direction. This advising style later came to be known as prescriptive advising, a term coined by Crookston (1972), which labeled students as unmotivated and immature young adults in need of incentives and supervision. In this archetype, the advisor takes the initiative and holds most of the control as both the teacher and evaluator of the student; meanwhile, it is the student's job to act on the advice given and develop a relationship with their advisor (Crookston, 1972). The student has little control in this relationship which some researchers say may leave them unaccountable for their failures or impede their ability to develop good critical thinking skills (Sanders & Killion, 2017). While many have argued against prescriptive advising, some feel it may be more suitable in certain situations (Robbins, 2012). Several researchers such as Thomas and McFarlane (2018) suggest that prescriptive advising is still alive and well at many institutions which depend on a "student-

deficiency paradigm” which has parallels to the doctor/patient relationship aforementioned (p. 101).

In the 1960s, student focus shifted away from the intellectual interactions of the 1950s and toward interpersonal relationships which resulted in academic advising taking on more of a counseling function, setting the stage for the developmental model (Grites, 1979). Unlike prescriptive advising, developmental advising is not only concerned with helping a student decide on a major and occupation but on the overall development of the individual student and the merging of one’s academic self with the other parts that make them who they are (Crookston, 1972; Walsh, 1979). In developmental advising, advisors play a collaborative role with students sharing in both responsibility and learning; furthermore, students are viewed as maturing individuals with unlimited potential who are able to find fulfillment in setting goals and achieving them in partnership with their advisor who serves as a teacher and guide, providing them with problem-solving and decision-making skills (Crookston, 1972). O’Banion’s five-step approach to advising using the developmental model includes the following steps: 1. exploration of life goals, 2. career exploration, 3. major selection, 4. course selection, and 5. course scheduling; this holistic template emphasizes the need to go beyond simple registration tasks concentrating instead on goals and values in search of an answer to the question, “How do I want to live my life?” (Gordon, et al., 2008; O’Banion, 1972, p. 64). According to Crookston (1972):

Higher learning is to be viewed as an opportunity in which the developing person may plan to achieve a self-fulfilling life; that the perspective of work and professional training more properly should be placed within the development of a life plan instead of the current tendency to prepare one’s life for a profession and then build one’s life around it. (p. 5)

When effective, developmental advising becomes an educational process which aids in the social and intellectual growth of students connecting them with the learning process itself (Cambell & Nutt, 2008). In this way, students can reach their highest potential and, hopefully in the process, flourish not only inside the college walls but beyond them (Grites, 1979; Walsh, 1979).

While developmental advising has been the go-to for most academic advisors for several decades, some scholars maintain that one must look to other theories in order to better understand the field and get a clearer overall picture (Gordon, et al., 2008). Listed below are additional systems currently utilized:

1. Praxis: combines prescriptive and developmental advising (Montag et al., 2012).
2. Intrusive: clearly lays out what is needed from students for them to meet their educational objectives and utilizes systems such as early warning notifications to address shortfalls (Gordon, et al., 2008; Sanders & Killion, 2017).
3. Friendship: combines communication and sociology to use information which is known about friendships to aid the field of advising (Gordon, et al., 2008).
4. Strengths-based: focuses on developing the strengths of students instead of focusing on their weaknesses (Schreiner & Anderson, 2005).
5. Socratic self-examination: focuses on equality between the advisor and advisee (Kuhmann, 2005).

Academic advising theories are largely dependent on the student body and campus characteristics. Gordon et al. (2008) remind us that advisors come from many disciplines, thus, embracing one theory must be avoided. It is hypothesized that in the future many new theories will come into existence that take these other fields into consideration.

Like academic advising theories, several organizational models have arisen over the years to fit the times. Advising at the earliest institutions focused on faculty-led systems stemming from the introduction of electives to higher education. Carstensen and Silberhorn (1979) noted that in the late 1970s, 79% of advising programs in the U.S. used a faculty advising structure. While many institutions still use faculty advising today, advising styles at institutions are largely dependent on a variety of factors including institutional characteristics and campus culture, as HEIs in the U.S. come in many forms and boast an assortment of programs and diverse student populations. All these physiognomies determine the most suitable advising approach, as using a one-size-fits-all method would be ineffective (Gordon et al., 2008).

Habley was the first to recognize various organizational models for the field in 1983, and in 2004, he described them in greater detail (Gordon et al., 2008). The models are as follows:

1. Faculty-only Model: students are assigned to a faculty advisor – no advising office
2. Supplementary Model: students are assigned to a faculty advisor – advising office provides general academic information and referrals, but all advising transactions must be approved by the faculty advisor
3. Split Model: a specific group(s) of students (e.g., undecided, underprepared, etc.) are advised by an advising office while other students are assigned to academic units or faculty advisors
4. Dual Model: students have two advisors – a faculty member advises on matters related to the major while an advising office advisor is responsible for general requirements, procedures, and policies

5. Total Intake Model: staff members of an administrative unit advise all students for a specified period or until some specific requirements have been met after which students are transferred to an academic subunit or faculty member for advising
6. Satellite Model: each school, college, or division within the institution has its own advising approach
7. Self-Contained Model: advising for all students from the point of enrollment to departure is performed by staff in a centralized unit (as cited by Gordon et al., 2008, p. 7)

The 2011 National Survey of Academic Advising showed that the most common academic advising model in higher education was the split model, and over 50% of institutions were using some type of shared model in their advising practices (as cited by Zarges et al., 2018). The split model is popular at public four-year colleges and is sometimes seen at community colleges as well (Gordon et al., 2008). Institutions with shared models use an amalgamation of professional and faculty advisors or centralized and decentralized constructs (Barker & Mamiseishvili, 2014). Big universities often employ a combination of various models while faculty-only models are more frequently found in liberal arts colleges, private four-year colleges, and are sometimes seen at community colleges (Gordon et al., 2008). According to Grites (1979), “Assistance cannot be provided by one person, office, or unit on the campus; only a cooperative academic and student affairs effort will result in better educated, more satisfied students” (p. 34). Since the optimal form of academic advising depends on the particularities of the institution and the preferences of the student, data-driven assessment mechanisms must be in place which allow for continuous monitoring and improvement.

Academic Advising and International Students at American Institutions

The ever-increasing diversity on American campuses, including women and minorities such as Hispanics and African Americans on top of nontraditional populations like first-generation, low-income, and developmental students, has amplified the importance of academic advising in the United States. International students are also diversifying American institutions and have substantially increased their presence over the years. Due to globalization, more people are demanding education and in a position to access it than ever before.

Academic advisors are among the first individuals to welcome international students to their new academic institutions and play a vital and central role in their lives (Bista, 2015; Charles & Stewart, 1991). They serve as an overall support system for students, making sure they receive the information and assistance needed for success. This includes advising them on both institutional and governmental policies and procedures as well as degree requirements, introducing them to academic and cultural norms, assisting them in defining their academic and professional goals, helping them choose degree plans and courses, providing emotional support, and linking them with other resources as needed (Bista, 2015; Saha, 2018; Weill, 1982; Zhang, 2018).

International student advisors have been found to go beyond fulfilling routine functions, serving as both friends and allies for their advisees (Weill, 1982; Zhang, 2016). According to Lee et al. (1981), students' relationships with their advisors are frequently seen as critical to their academic success. In fact, research has shown that closer advisor-advisee relationships resulted in higher persistence and a greater sense of belonging among international students (Mataczynski, 2013; Saha, 2018; Zhai, 2004). Saha (2018) found that academic advisors play a valuable role in the lives of their international advisees by motivating and empowering them,

aiding in their transition from their home countries. Moreover, it has been found that academic advisors are viewed by international students as one of their most crucial supporters, ranking closely behind family, friends, and international support offices (Zhai, 2004).

The importance of the advisor-advisee relationship is not unique to undergraduate students at four-year universities but applies to graduate and community college students as well. At community colleges, it has been found that advisors aid in students' sense of belonging and in their transition from their home countries (Zhang, 2016; Zhang, 2018). Additionally, the adjustment and success of international graduate students has been tied to the quality of the relationship between students and their advisors (Rice et al., 2009).

The continuing influx of foreign students at HEIs in the United States demands a better understanding of the motivation, background, needs, expectations, and challenges of these students and has implications for students at American TNHE institutions. Academia has responded with various initiatives through the establishment of units devoted to the support of international students and their studies, including visa and immigration services and specialized advising and orientations. Nevertheless, the literature relating to this special student population has not been adequate given its measurable and long-term impact on U.S. higher education. This is particularly true in the field of academic advising. The following paragraphs provide a more in-depth look at the academic and cultural obstacles and challenges that influence academic advising at American HEIs and highlight international students' advising expectations and satisfaction at these institutions.

Obstacles and Challenges Impacting International Student Advising

The struggles international students face in their new environment spill over into academic advising, making the advising process more demanding for this student population

than with domestic students. While many of the problems foreign students encounter are the same as national students like homesickness, financial concerns, academic challenges, and concerns about securing employment after graduation, additional issues such as cultural differences, language barriers, unfamiliarity with the AHE system, and visa and immigration requirements increase the level of culture shock international students are met with upon arrival, further affecting their advising experience. The most common difficulties impacting the advisor-advisee relationship fall under cultural and academic challenges.

Cultural challenges

One important contribution that international students bring to American campuses, as highlighted above, is cultural enrichment (Higbee, 1961; Weill, 1982). Culture includes one's religion and/or beliefs, norms/values, and language and communication style. Stark differences in these areas increase the pressure on foreign students and make their adjustment more challenging (Leong & Sedlacek, 1986). The majority of international students are not familiar with western culture and experience many firsts upon their arrival in America, including exposure to different food, religions, traditions, customs, and general ways of life which may be overwhelming (Saha, 2018). Even general information concerning etiquette and customs may be needed by foreign students (Zhang & Rentz, 1996). Additionally, some students may not have realistic views of the United States and its people (Weill, 1982). Feelings of confusion and embarrassment may arise due to a lack of knowledge about American culture, and students may have a tougher time adjusting if they are from countries far-removed from the U.S., making them more prone to stress and depression (Zhang & Rentz, 1996). According to Crockett & Hays (2011):

Despite their desire to study in the United States, the pursuit of a U.S. degree and improved vocational opportunities can present many challenges for international students. Many find their familiar ways of functioning are disrupted when exposed to U.S. norms and behaviors that contrast with their culture. (p. 66)

Students who struggle with integrating and engaging in their academic community may face setbacks in adapting to their new surroundings and experience feelings of isolation and depression.

One of the most documented cultural hindrances for foreign students is inefficiency with the English language (Abel, 2002; Andrade, 2006; Bista, 2015; Charles & Stewart, 1991; Crockett & Hayes, 2011; Newell, 2015; Rose-Redwood & Rose-Redwood, 2013; Selvadurai, 1992; Surdam & Collins, 1984; Trice, 2003; Wadsworth, Hecht, & Jung, 2008; Yeh & Inose, 2002; Zhang & Dinh, 2017). The adjustment process is more challenging for non-native students due to language barriers in combination with other cultural differences (Andrade, 2005; Newell, 2015). Even if students secure required language scores for admittance into American programs, they may still encounter problems (Charles & Stewart, 1991).

This obstacle not only hinders students academically, but prevents them from properly assimilating into their temporary homes and building relationships with fellow classmates and those in the community, activities which have been shown to be effective at improving social adjustment (Lee et al., 1981; Surdam & Collins, 1984). Additionally, it impedes their ability to adjust to their new environment which often causes frustration and disappointment and may even leave them feeling alienated and/or segregated (Andrade, 2006; Bista, 2015; Charles & Stewart, 1991; Rose-Redwood & Rose-Redwood, 2013; Surdam & Collins, 1984; Trice, 2003; Wadsworth, et al., 2008; Yeh & Inose, 2002).

A study which focused on South Korean doctoral students found that difficulties with English was the main barrier students faced in communicating clearly with their advisor (Kim, 2007). Kim (2007) found that this hindrance impeded effective advising which prevented students from understanding their advisors and conveying their own thoughts. Additionally, Zhang (2015) found that international advisors identified low English proficiency as a serious challenge impacting the overall advising experience, including their advisees' ability to understand certain procedures.

Because of its importance, insufficient English proficiency requires the attention of academic advisors and other academic staff and must be addressed early. Zhang (2018) discovered that advisors frequently cautioned themselves when talking to their advisees and used similar strategies like talking slowly and watching their language to help with student understanding; however, some advisors reported having feelings of helplessness as they believed language barriers prevented them from successfully advising students and offering proper assistance.

Differences in communication styles further hinder a fruitful advisor-advisee relationship. International students often interact quite differently from domestic students which may be problematic (Kim, 2007; Zhang & Dinh, 2017). Communication has a notable impact on the advisor-advisee relationship. For example, Kim (2007) found that "having a culturally different communication style is a serious hindrance to the exchange of ideas between Asian [doctoral] students and their American advisors" (p. 175). This stumbling block is expected to be even more pronounced among undergraduate students from similar backgrounds. One example of communication differences may be found in the use of tone which is used and interpreted differently across the globe. Students may come off as aggressive or brash, as they may believe

this behavior is appropriate, or they may use other tones which would not normally be acceptable in an American advisor-advisee relationship (Zhang & Dinh, 2017). Advisors must be mindful of communication differences to avoid taking offence and jumping to false conclusions about their advisees.

Facial expressions and/or other signals also leave room for miscommunication. For example, Kim (2007) found that South Korean doctoral students were often confused by their advisors' facial expressions and other nonverbal communication and felt building relationships with Americans was more arduous. Additionally, students expected and even desired the familiar authoritative and comforting mentor/elder/parent role from their advisors which they experienced from teachers in their home country (Kim, 2007). Cases of miscommunication have been shown to be high among student populations from Asian countries such as China, Korea, and Japan, having serious implications for their perception of acceptance (Alexander et al., 1976; Zhang & Rentz, 1996). Zhang and Dinh (2017) point out that one way advisors can improve relationships with their advisees is by identifying the strengths and weaknesses of their own communication style on top of acquiring additional details about their advisees' backgrounds such as educational requirements in their home countries, an area where studies have shown advisors have little information (Zhang, 2015; Zhang, 2016).

Another cultural difference of international students is the prominent role of their parents and/or relatives in academic and professional decisions throughout their studies and beyond. While family and friends have been found to be one of the top sources of support and motivation for international students, their expectations may cause additional strain (Saha, 2018; Zhai, 2004). The emphasis on family and collectivism in many cultures contravenes the individualism in the U.S. and may have implications for the student regarding adjustment to their new

environment and the roles advisors play. Advisors must consider culture, religion, and ethnic backgrounds as they apply to students' academic culture just as they would when reflecting on international students as a whole (Arthur & Popadiuk, 2010).

Different gender role conceptions are yet another possible impediment for student interactions with faculty and staff, including advisors (Hayes & Lin, 1994; Zhang, 2015; Zhang, 2018). For example, female students may not be comfortable with male advisors (and/or instructors) and vice versa (Charles & Stewart, 1991; Idowu, 1985). Multiple studies of academic advisors' experiences with international students found that many Middle Eastern females attended advising sessions with male chaperones who controlled the conversation, leaving the advisor unsure of their advisee's opinions (Zhang, 2015; Zhang, 2018). In addition, studies found that female advisors were frequently considered to be inferior by male advisees, which they managed in various ways, including getting assistance from male colleagues and/or altering their tone or assertiveness (Zhang, 2015; Zhang, 2018).

Academic challenges

Students not only face challenges with American culture but with the higher education system as well. According to Wadsworth, et al. (2008), one must be mindful of academic acculturation, as many students from abroad are not accustomed to American-style education which may be vastly different from the systems they encountered in their home countries. AHE culture, as well as the expectations of faculty and other academic staff, is frequently misunderstood by foreign students (Bista, 2011; Bista, 2012; Zhang & Dinh, 2017). This lack of understanding of the education structure brings its own complications for students (Charles & Stewart, 1991; Saha, 2018; Selvadurai, 1992; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Dinh, 2017). Bista (2015) points out the importance of making international students aware of American academic culture

during the critical first year, including topics like classroom participation, assignments and grading, and the avoidance of cheating and plagiarism.

Students may find many new aspects which do not match their previous experiences. For instance, they may find projects and homework along with time spent outside of the classroom challenging, believe grades are negotiable, not understand certain procedures such as the transfer process, not be familiar with classroom customs, be inadequately prepared or unused to the competitiveness and independence of the U.S. system, not understand the purpose of liberal arts, and expect more formal relationships with professors (Abel, 2002; Charles & Stewart, 1991; Newell, 2015; Wadsworth, et al., 2008; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Dinh, 2017; Zhang, 2018). An unfamiliar academic setting may create identity gaps in how the student views themselves versus how they express themselves which in turn creates a negative experience (Wadsworth, et al., 2008).

Students' inexperience with U.S. academic culture has important implications for host universities and is especially important for academic advisors to contemplate. This unfamiliarity can only be compensated with additional advising and referrals to other offices as necessary (Charles & Stewart, 1991). According to Zhang and Dinh (2017):

Advisor[s] ... acknowledged that students from other regions of the world have studied in a very different educational system, engage in conversational styles and processes unlike native speakers, and likely express different expectations of learning and living in the United States than their native peers. (p. 37)

International academic advisors must recognize the cultural and academic challenges their advisees face and adjust their advising accordingly.

International Undergraduate Students' Expectations and Satisfaction with Advising

Academic advising is one of the defining characteristics of American academic culture, distinguishing it from its international counterparts. As detailed above, international students encounter many cultural and academic obstacles when pursuing higher education in the U.S. that affect their expectations for academic advising and, ultimately, their satisfaction with the advising they receive. These students often face difficulties understanding the usefulness of advisors and the role advising plays in their academic career at both HEIs and American TNHE institutions abroad. International advisees may view advisors and advising styles through the lens of their home countries which may be at odds with the realities they encounter at American institutions (Charles & Stewart, 1991).

The research on international undergraduate students' expectations and satisfaction with academic advising is scarce; however, advisors have noted evident gaps between the expectations of domestic and international students which have potential consequences for the field (Zhang & Dinh, 2017). International students are often ill-informed about the purpose of academic advising and have a lack of understanding about advisor roles and procedures, leading to confusion and irritation (Zhang, 2016). For example, foreign students have displayed inappropriate behaviors such as shopping around for advisors to receive more agreeable answers or attempting to give advisors prohibited gifts (Zhang & Dinh, 2017). In addition, some students have been found to put a lot of onus on their advisors for having a successful relationship and viewed their advisors as too busy or indifferent to them (Kim, 2007). International students have also been found to have incorrect beliefs about advisors' power, believing they could circumvent rules and policies among other things (Zhang, 2018). These types of misunderstandings

inevitably shape the expectations that international students have for advisors and their resulting satisfaction from the advising process.

The research findings are mixed on U.S. international students' expectations pertaining to advising strategy. While at least one study found that foreign students prefer prescriptive advising activities (Chemishanova, 2018), an older study found these students to show an alignment to developmental advising functions (Cadieux & Wehrly, 1986). Chemishanova (2018) found that international students at a southeastern community college placed more importance on prescriptive than developmental advising. For instance, students felt that things such as receiving accurate information, understanding academic policies and procedures, and choosing courses in the major, all considered prescriptive advising functions on Smith and Allen's Academic Advising Inventory, were very important; however, both prescriptive and developmental advising were seen as important (Chemishanova, 2018). According to Chemishanova (2018), "International students ... expect academic advisors to operate from a position of authority and expertise and to direct them rather than guide them on their educational path" (pp. 97-98). Chemishanova (2018) also found that international students were less predictable than domestic students in advising satisfaction based on demographic data.

In contrast, Mataczynski (2013), in her study at a private western university, found that students favored developmental advising. Unlike Chemishanova's study which included mostly Asian students, Mataczynski's study included participants holding citizenship from 40 countries which could explain the differences in the findings. A negative correlation was found with developmental advising and time in the current degree program while a positive correlation was found with developmental advising and the frequency of advisor-advisee activities (Mataczynski, 2013).

Mixed findings were also discovered relating to advising satisfaction with international students. Mataczynski (2013) found that students reported higher satisfaction when developmental advising was utilized. This is in line with Cadieux and Wehrly (1986) who pointed to international student's inclination toward the developmental approach. In addition, satisfaction increased along with advisors' cultural familiarity with their advisees and as students became more integrated within their campus environment (Mataczynski, 2013). This finding draws a parallel with Wadsworth et al. (2008) which found that acculturation to the host country was a predictor of overall international student satisfaction. In Chemishanova's study, advisees linked advising satisfaction with their perceived importance of specific advising tasks, with those tasks falling under prescriptive advising garnering both higher importance and satisfaction. Despite this, student expectations were higher than satisfaction levels across the board.

The limited research on international students' expectations and satisfaction with academic advising speak to the necessity for more studies on the area. Moreover, the mixed results of the existing literature does not allow a clear picture of the topic at hand.

Intercultural Communication Competence Theory

This section is adapted from Pylate, T., & Menke, D. (2020, December). Advising international students using intercultural communication competence. *Academic Advising Today*, 43(4).

There are many important qualities, knowledge, and skills that academic advisors should have when advising international students. Among them are a passion for helping students, counseling abilities, effective communication skills, information about visa and immigration matters, knowledge of international regulations and procedures, awareness of campus resources, and an understanding of foreign student challenges (Chow, 2015; Davis, 2011; Wood & Kia, 2000; Sparaco, 2012; Zhang, 2015). Most importantly, advisors must be open to working with

and learning about diverse people and cultures. This includes meeting students with an open-mind and a willingness to accept them as they are – individuals with unique cultural and academic backgrounds (Bista, 2015; Davis, 2011).

Despite the importance of academic advising, the literature suggests that many international study advisors still lack sufficient knowledge and skills for effective advising. For instance, studies have found that advisors were unknowledgeable about educational requirements in foreign students' home countries, did not understand basic immigration rules and regulations, and had little support from their institutions with no opportunities to advance their own intercultural literacy (Zhang, 2015; Zhang, 2016). Identifying the right theoretical foundation is a good starting point for improving academic advising. Intercultural communication competence theory is appropriate for helping academic advisors lay the groundwork for their time with students from divergent backgrounds than their own.

Building from the work of Zhang (Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Dinh, 2017), ICC can serve as a framework for academic advisors working with international students. Building from the work of Chen and Starosta (1996), ICC is defined as the ability to “interact effectively, appropriately, and meaningfully across different cultures” (Zhang, 2015, p. 49). ICC consists of three main domains: Intercultural Sensitivity (affective domain), Intercultural Awareness (cognitive domain), and Intercultural Adroitness (behavioral domain) (Chen & Starosta, 1998-1999). Successful international student advising will include each of the three areas.

Intercultural Sensitivity

The affective domain focuses on one's motivation toward intercultural communication. According to Dai and Chen (2014), the “willingness to learn, appreciate, and even accept cultural differences ... to bring forth a positive outcome of interaction” is inherent in intercultural

sensitivity and is perhaps the greatest quality that international advisors should display (pp. 20-21). Academic advisors must be welcoming of students with different cultural and religious backgrounds. One must undertake an honest examination of their personal biases. Intolerance to different sociocultural backgrounds and/or ethnocentric views are extremely counterproductive to international academic advising and could even cause irreparable damage to the advisor-advisee relationship (Charles & Stewart, 1991; Zhang & Dinh, 2017).

Empathy is also a key component of intercultural sensitivity (Chen & Starosta, 1997). Zhang (2015) found that international students required more patience and understanding from their advisors than domestic students. Similarly, Kim (2007) recognized that compassion was necessary for advisors to display when working with South Korean students. Advisors must safely examine their own prejudices and put themselves in their advisees' shoes to better understand their challenges and needs (Zhang, 2015).

Intercultural Awareness

An understanding of international students' unique needs falls under the cognitive area of ICC. In this domain, advisors must show patience, cultural understanding, and consideration to students' distinctive needs (Charles & Stewart, 1991; Zhang, 2015). Cultural dissimilarities can make the advisor-advisee relationship more demanding and can be one of the biggest hurdles advisors face (Charles & Stewart, 1991; Zhang, 2015). Advisors should not only be aware of their advisees' culture but possess a self-awareness of their own culture and the differences which exist between the two (Dai & Chen, 2014).

Zhang and Dinh (2017) found that students' different communication styles, unfamiliarity with American academia, and unrealistic expectations of advisors were major obstacles for the advisor-advisee relationship, emphasizing a need for developing a deeper and more holistic

approach to international student advising. Advisors must acknowledge that each of their foreign students have a unique background which requires individualized advising (Chow, 2015). Students attribute bad advising experiences to their advisor's lack of understanding of their cultural backgrounds and past experiences (Zhang, 2016; Zhang, 2018). Therefore, opportunities to expand on this knowledge are imperative. Additionally, stereotyping students from certain countries and/or regions must be pushed aside (Weill, 1982). Congruent to this is the notion that the advisor-advisee relationship is not a one-way street but requires the engagement of both parties. As the integration of students in their new social environment demands curiosity and broadmindedness, advisors can contribute to the advising experience with hospitality, impartiality, and respect (Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Dinh, 2017).

Intercultural Adroitness

Proficiency in intercultural communication is addressed in the behavioral aspect of ICC. Advisors must often deal with students using a variety of techniques to facilitate clear communication (Zhang, 2015). When one can successfully communicate with an individual from a different cultural background using accurate messaging, interaction, and flexibility as well as suitable levels of self-disclosure, they have achieved effective intercultural communication (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Chen and Starosta (1996) described this domain as “the ability to get the job done” (p. 367).

According to Zhang and Dinh (2017), “[Intercultural communication] skills take on increased importance when academic advisors interact with students who come from different cultural backgrounds, speak nonnative languages, or transfer from overseas education systems” (p. 33). One of the earliest studies to look at both international advisor and advisee perceptions found that the greatest problem pinpointed by both students and advisors as a hindrance to

effective communication was insufficient English language skills (Hart, 1974). More recent studies have confirmed this observation. The significance of English language barriers on the advisor-advisee bond should not be underestimated, as effective communication is a critical component of this relationship (Harrison, 2009; Heisserer & Parette, 2002). This observation highlights the need for better communication. For instance, to overcome language barriers, advisors are directed to keep their language simple and clear, exercise caution with humor which could easily be misunderstood, and utilize more open-ended questions which require more elaboration and help better understand the perspective of the advisee (Saha, 2018; Zhang, 2016; Zhang & Dinh, 2017). Advisors should ask thoughtful questions and be mindful of differing cultural customs and beliefs (Lowell, 2016).

Academic advising will remain a critical area in the coming years as the internationalization of higher education persists, drawing students to American institutions globally and further diversifying American academia. Looking ahead, using an ICC approach with academic advising will allow advisors to consider their own sensitivity toward and awareness of intercultural communication and better support them in focusing on the unique needs of international students at home and at TNHE institutions abroad.

Research on Student Affairs in Transnational Higher Education

Though the general research on American TNHE has grown over the last 10 years, the field of student support services and academic advising has been widely ignored. As previously discussed, studies on international students in the U.S. have found that academic advisors play a vital role in students' lives and are a key component to their success (Bista, 2015; Charles & Stewart, 1991). One can postulate that academic advisors play an equally important role in the lives of students at American TNHE institutions. While the cultural and academic obstacles

discovered among international students at HEIs give us an insight into this population inside the U.S., little is known about the academic advising experiences of advisors or their advisees in American and American-style TNHE institutions abroad.

A search of the literature using the keywords: transnational, offshore, cross-border, borderless, branch campus, global, and American-style higher education along with student affairs or academic advising as subject/key terms (or in two cases as terms in the title) was performed on the following databases: ERIC, Education Full Text, Academic Search Complete, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, Humanities Full Text, OpenDissertations, eBook Academic Collection, eBook Collection, Project Muse, Wiley Online Library, and JSTOR. There was one search result matching the designated categories. A follow-up search using the keywords: academic advising and student affairs along with conflict zone/area was done on the same databases and produced one additional article.

Student Affairs and offshore Branch Campuses: A Case Study looks at the experiences of employees at an American offshore branch campus in South Korea. Cicchetti and Park (2018) found that the respective student affairs professionals struggled to outline the functions of student affairs in higher education in general and saw their own office as a “one-stop center” which helped students solve problems and respond to various other student needs and questions both of an academic and nonacademic nature (p. 241). The study suggests that a lack of purpose by both the staff and overall unit concerning the role of student affairs could have negative implications for retention (Cicchetti & Park, 2018). According to Cicchetti and Park (2018), at a time when branch campuses are increasingly being launched, this finding has significance in that institutions may not be giving student affairs the attention it deserves which can have further

implications on the student experience. The main limitation of this study was that it was very small in scope, only looking at one branch campus in one country.

The Role of Student Affairs in a New University in a Conflict Zone looks at the role of student affairs at an American university in Iraq to see if the typical roles of managers in the field are different in a conflict area. The study shows that the majority of the students felt that the role of student affairs was “holding all students to high expectation for engagement and learning, in and out of class, on and off campus;” however, around 40% of the students surveyed had never had any experience with the office (Sengupta, 2017, p. 1059). Three important themes were identified from student focus groups, including: a perceived need for more direct involvement in activities organized by the office beyond the usual calls for volunteers, annoyance by lectures about cultural norms, and an expectation for more job and financial aid opportunities (Sengupta, 2017). For instance, nearly 60% of students in the study saw employment support as one of the core functions of student affairs (Sengupta, 2017). While this study focuses on an American-style university (and is also in a conflict zone like the institution in the current study), it offers little insight into the academic advising process and the experiences of both students and advisors in this interaction.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, no study to date has been done which specifically looks at academic advising of international students at American TNHE institution. However, in their paper concerning AHE branch campuses in the Gulf, Telafici et al. (2014) offer some thoughts concerning the area. “Concomitantly, U.S. academic advisors moving to an IBC must prepare for the ways in which their professional paradigm will be fundamentally and irrevocably altered by the newfangled relationship” (Telafici et al., 2014, p. 190). It is assumed that this also applies to offshore partnerships and American-style institutions employing Western

staff, especially those with a small student population. At small campuses, staff often fill many different roles in the lives of students while also navigating new terrain, compelling them to internally reflect on their own cultural assumptions and how they align with the academic relationships they forge (Telafici et al., 2014). “If the U.S. model of higher education inculcates liberal ideas and critical thinking in its students both through its curriculum and through faculty relationships, then it also informs and affects academic advising” (Telafici et al., 2014, p. 190).

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of international students in AHE, discussed TNHE and research in this area related to student affairs, looked at the theoretical framework of ICC, and outlined the history of academic advising in the United States with an exploration of academic advising for international students on United States campuses.

In the examination of advising for international students on U.S. campuses, several studies have confirmed a relationship between academic advising and the expectations (Chemishanova, 2018) and/or satisfaction (Chemishanova, 2018; Crawford, 2018; Mataczynski, 2013; Saha, 2018) of international undergraduate students in the United States and have described how ICC shapes the academic advising relationship (Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Dinh, 2017). However, little is known about these variables for academic advising at American and American-style universities abroad and, specifically, no research has been located which addresses these topics in West Africa. This study hopes to fill the gap in the current literature.

As American and American-style institutions continue to spread across the globe and increasing numbers of western higher education are employed abroad, it is important to pay more attention to this particular student population in order to provide advisors with the tools needed

to better serve their respective advisees. A quantitative research design is most suitable for this study, as it will allow the researcher to look at the relationship between two or more variables.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study and their hypotheses are as follows:

Research Question 1: What are undergraduate students' expectations of academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

Hypothesis 1a: Undergraduate students' expectations of academic advising are more aligned with prescriptive than developmental advising.

Research Question 2: How satisfied are undergraduate students with their academic advising experience at an American-style university in the West Africa?

Hypothesis 2a: Undergraduate students are satisfied with their academic advising experiences.

Research Question 3: Does intercultural communication competence (ICC) predict undergraduate students' satisfaction with academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

Hypothesis 3a: Intercultural communication competence (ICC) does predict undergraduate students' satisfaction with academic advising.

Chapter Three

Methodology

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine students' expectations of and satisfaction with academic advising, and to investigate whether students' intercultural communication competence affects student satisfaction at an American-style university in West Africa. The following chapter addresses the research setting and participants, highlights the data collection and instrumentation, discusses the analysis, and mentions study limitations as well as reliability and validity.

Research Setting

Research was conducted at the American University of Nigeria (AUN) in Yola. AUN is a private, not-for-profit, independent, and co-educational university accredited by the National Universities Commission (NUC) which was established in 2004 by former Vice President Atiku Abubakar (American University of Nigeria, 2022). The university is the first American-style institution of its kind in the country and offers undergraduate degrees in five schools, leading to Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, Bachelor of Engineering, and Bachelor of Laws degrees. The university also offers several graduate degrees.

In Spring 2022 (the start of data collection), the undergraduate enrollment at the university was 1037 students, including 514 males and 523 females, and 20 international students from seven countries (Cameroon, Ivory Coast, Cote D'Ivoire, Niger, Rwanda, Sudan, and the United States); they represented the following majors: Accounting (44), Business Administration (65), Chemical Engineering (11), Communications and Multimedia Design (86), Computer Engineering (15), Computer Science (79), Economics (38), Electrical/Electronic Engineering (11), English Literature and Language (8), Entrepreneurship (3), Finance (1),

Information Systems (106), International and Comparative Politics (87), Law (169), Management/Entrepreneurship (29), Marketing (1), Natural/Environmental Sciences (107), Petroleum Chemistry (27), Software Engineering (144), Telecommunication Engineering (3), and Telecommunications and Wireless Technologies (3) (J. Olumoh, personal communication, August 13, 2022).

In Fall 2022 (the end of the data collection), the undergraduate enrollment at the university was 1035 students, including 509 males and 529 females, and 17 international students from six countries (Burundi – 1, Cameroon – 12, Ivory Coast (Cote D’Ivoire – 1, Niger – 1, Rwanda – 1, Sudan – 1); they represented the following majors: Accounting (40), Business Administration (70), Chemical Engineering (9), Communications and Multimedia Design (80), Computer Engineering (22), Computer Science (81), Economics (38), Electrical/Electronic Engineering (11), English Literature and Language (9), Entrepreneurship (3), Finance (1), Information Systems (100), International and Comparative Politics (75), Law (184), Management/Entrepreneurship (29), Marketing (2), Natural/Environmental Sciences (103), Petroleum Chemistry (27), Software Engineering (144), Telecommunication Engineering (4), and Telecommunications and Wireless Technologies (2), and undeclared (1) (J. Olumoh, personal communication, October 12, 2022).

Participants

The participants in this study were students being advised by academic advisors at AUN. Students at AUN are assigned an advisor from the Office of Academic Advising and Retention during their first semester at the university. The academic advisor plays an active role in students’ early university years, primarily the first and second year, and are their first point of contact regarding all university-related matters. Students walk into the office daily to get

clarifications, share concerns, and ask questions in order to get direction as they navigate through their academic life. The advising office is currently staffed by five full-time academic advisors who are all Nigerian nationals.

Students require their advisor's approval to register for courses and advisors are their first point of contact regarding all university-related matters, such as introducing students to the American higher education system, helping them understand institutional rules and policies, making them aware of degree requirements and prerequisites, and giving other advice and assistance as needed. Students remain with the assigned advisor until they become juniors and seniors and are required to meet with faculty advisors in their degree programs for academic guidance.

Data Collection

After this proposal was approved by the University of Memphis and American University of Nigeria institutional review boards (IRB), all undergraduate students were invited to participate. While all students studying at AUN were sent the email about participating in the study, the study was designed to exclude those who indicated that they were not undergraduate students and those who said they had no experience with academic advising. Purposive sampling was most applicable for this study since the researcher was concerned with the advising experiences of students being advised by trained advisors as opposed to faculty advisors. All students at AUN are advised by the advising office at the beginning of their program; however, depending on how much time has passed, students who were not currently being advised by the office during the study were not the focus, as they could provide an inaccurate reflection of their experience.

An initial email inviting undergraduate students at AUN to participate in an online Qualtrics survey was sent out May 7, 2022, during the Spring 22 semester, which highlighted the importance of participation and provided students with information concerning confidentiality and the method for data collection (Appendix A). Several follow up emails were sent to encourage additional students to participate. Because an appropriate sample size could not be met before the end of the Spring 22 semester, additional surveys were collected at the start of the Fall 22 semester, which was longer than the original dates proposed. The survey closed on September 15, 2022. Students that completed the survey were eligible to participate in a randomized lottery with fifteen winners selected to win cash prizes ranging from \$10-\$20.

The study collected data electronically because it was the quickest, easiest, and cheapest approach, especially since the research participants were in a different country than the researcher. While online tools are widely accessible and easy to use, online surveys have varying, and at times low, response rates, and online surveys have not been shown to be significantly better than other data collection methods (Ceder & Nordh, 2019). All students have access to computers and wireless internet on the AUN campus. AUN students are familiar with online surveys, e.g., they are required to evaluate their instructors online at the end of each semester.

A cross-sectional survey design was used for the study because it was not only the most appropriate format for recording the attitudes and opinions of the students but was seen as useful for evaluating the current program (Creswell, 2012). Access to the questionnaire was contingent on the students signing an informed consent form which included further information on their rights as well as how the collected data would be used (Appendix B). The survey sample size

was calculated based on a 5% significance criterion, 80% statistical power, and anticipated effect size. For confidentiality purposes, only the main researcher had access to the raw data.

Instrumentation

The assessment was divided into four parts: 1) student expectations, 2) student satisfaction, 3) demographic and advising information, and 4) intercultural communication competence. Any complex language in the questions was simplified to make sure they were fully understood and answered as accurately as possible and to minimize misinterpretation which can hinder research reliability (Creswell, 2012). A survey design was most fitting for data collection because it allows the researcher to induce the attitudes and opinions of the larger population from a small sample (Creswell, 2012). Information concerning the specific instruments that were used for the study are described below.

Inventory of Academic Advising Functions

Student expectations and satisfaction with academic advising as well as demographic and academic information was measured using a modified version of Smith and Allen's (2006) Inventory of Academic Advising Functions (IAAF)-Student Version (Appendix C). Though other instruments exist, such as the American College Testing's (ACT) Survey of Academic Advising and Winston and Sandor's (1984) Academic Advising Inventory, the IAAF was optimal for the proposed study because of its focus on expectations and satisfaction in an easy-to-read and straightforward format. This was important as complicated language could be confusing to students taking the survey. Additionally, it was believed that brevity would help with the accuracy of the responses.

The original IAAF included 48 items with part one relating to demographics and background and part two concerning expectations and satisfaction. The demographics and

background information section was slightly altered to align with the location under investigation and, particularly, to pay careful consideration to cultural applicability, i.e., the remaining questions were carefully analyzed to determine sensitivity in the current context. In addition, the name of the institution was included in the survey, the question regarding past status as a foster child was removed as well as the questions about languages spoken in the home. Other questions were added such as citizenship, age, previous college/university experience, and previous experience abroad which were thought to have a bearing on students' expectations and satisfaction as well as ICC. While questions regarding academic information was included at the beginning of the survey, the remaining demographic questions were moved to the end.

Part two of Smith and Allen's (2006) IAAF survey focuses on student expectations and satisfaction using 12 academic advising functions in five concepts, including: 1. Integration (advising connecting academic, career, and life goals), 2. Referral (advising which refers students to on-campus resources for academic and nonacademic issues), 3. Information (advising which gives students important and accurate information about degree programs, policies, procedures, etc.), 4. Individuation (advising where the advisor gets to know the student personally and advises them based on their skills and abilities), and 5. Shared responsibility (advising which pushes students to take responsibility for their own education) (Smith & Allen, 2006, p. 59).

According to Smith and Allen (2006) these five concepts are important to advising and congruent with the characteristics of developmental and prescriptive advising.

The inventory used a six-point scale to measure student expectations (importance placed on a function), where 1 = *not important* and 6 = *very important*, with statements such as “[advising] helps students connect their academic, career, and life goals” and “[advising] helps students decide what degree program to pursue.” Student satisfaction used the same statements

where 1 = *very dissatisfied* and 6 = *very satisfied*. Though the researcher was mindful to leave the language in part two of the current instrument largely unchanged for the sake of validity and reliability, statements were somewhat reworded to clarify that students were rating their expectations and satisfaction for academic advising taking place in the Academic Advising and Retention Office and not with any other office or individual.

A third part of Smith and Allen's (2006) IAAF focused on the learning outcomes of advising. In this section, students were asked to rate their level of agreement with various learning outcomes using a six-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 6 = *strongly agree*. Though the researcher believed that these questions could provide additional information that may be useful at a later time, these statements did not directly coincide with the current research questions and were removed since the survey was already longer than anticipated.

Smith and Allen's (2006) original study was administered to a sample of 2,193 undergraduate students at an urban university in the United States, including 419 (19%) international students. It noted high levels of reliability with the original version of the IAAF recording a .90 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for expectations/importance and a .94 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for satisfaction. An additional study by Chemishanova (2018), which focused on 240 international students at a community college in the U.S., found an alpha coefficient of .94 for expectations/importance and .98 for satisfaction. To date, the survey has been administered to thousands of students at multiple universities which further speaks to its reliability.

Intercultural Communication Competence Instrument

Students' ICC was assessed using Arasaratnam et al. (2010) ICC instrument (Appendix D). This instrument has been shown to be promising in diverse groups of people and, like the

proposed research setting, was originally used among undergraduate students at an English-based HEI outside of the United States (Arasaratnam, 2009).

Intercultural communication refers to communication between individuals from distinct groups or cultures (Arasaratnam & Doerfel, 2005; Gudykunst & Kim, 2003; Zhang, 2015). Intercultural communication competence relates to the ability of individuals to “interact effectively, appropriately, and meaningfully across different cultures” (Zhang, 2015, p. 49). Arasaratnam et al.(2010) instrument measures individuals on the cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions of communication competence which have been identified as the three key areas of ICC. The following aspects are addressed in each area: 1) cognitive domain – differentiating meaning in intercultural contexts, 2) affective domain – being emotionally able to connect with individuals from diverse cultures, and 3) behavioral domain – the ability to display intercultural and interpersonal behaviors (Arasaratnam, 2009). Statements in the instrument measure responses for each area.

Arasaratnam’s original instrument was composed of 15 questions with five queries for each of the three dimensions, but it was reduced to 10 after factor analysis, with three items each for the cognitive and behavioral dimensions and four items for the affective dimension remaining (Arasaratnam, 2009). The modified instrument is composed of 22 questions (Arasaratnam et al., 2010). The instrument uses a seven-point scale to measure each statement, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. In Arasaratnam’s (2009) study, attitudes toward other cultures, motivation, interaction involvement, and ethnocentrism were measured alongside the ICC instrument to test for validity, and it was determined that the instrument was theoretically dependable. The alpha coefficient for the final instrument was .77.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data for this study was analyzed with the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Cronbach's alpha were used to evaluate the internal consistency of the IAAF and ICC questionnaires for the AUN population. In order to gather sufficient information to answer the research questions, it was important that students completed the majority of the survey questions; therefore, any students which Qualtrics determined had not gone through all questions to the end were eliminated.

For research questions one and two, student expectations and satisfaction, as measured with part two of Smith and Allen's (2006) IAAF survey, was used. For analysis, student expectations coded from 1 to 6 where 1 = *not important* and 6 = *very important* and satisfaction coded from 1 to 6 where 1 = *very dissatisfied* and 6 = *very satisfied* were aggregated for each student. Descriptive statistics were performed on the collected data and expectations for (importance) and satisfaction with academic advising was compared across demographic and academic groups to look for differences using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Research question three used aggregated information gathered in the satisfaction portion of the IAAF along with averaged results from Arasaratnam et al. (2010) ICC instrument. For analysis, ICC was coded from 1 to 7 where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. Regression was used to determine whether ICC (independent variable) predicted student satisfaction (dependent variable).

All tests were based on a 5% alpha level which is typical. Diagnostic tests were used to assess the adequacy of the results for the utilized models. For one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA), Shapiro-Wilks test was used to assess the assumption for normality. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was assessed using Levene's test. Influential observation and outliers

were checked by visually observing the normal Q-Q plot graph. For the regression analysis, homoscedasticity was visually assessed using a scatterplot, normal distribution was looked at with the P-P plot of standardized residuals, and the assumption of independent errors was evaluated using the Durbin-Watson test.

Limitations

The main limitation of the current study was that the close-ended questions, like those in all quantitative studies, only provided a general picture of the research questions being addressed. Follow-up qualitative measures are necessary to gain more in-depth understanding of the identified patterns.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are crucial concepts in quantitative research. According to Creswell (2012), reliable quantitative instruments show scores which are “stable and consistent,” and validity exists when one can show that the explanation of the instrument matches its use (p. 159). Although all of the survey instruments being used for the proposed survey have been found to have clear questions which align with the purpose of the proposed study and have been shown to be both reliable and valid in previous studies as outlined above (Arasaratnam, 2009; Smith and Allen, 2006), Cronbach’s coefficient alpha were used to display the internal consistency and reliability for the questionnaire items in the proposed study for applicability to the sample population.

Summary

This chapter provided a look at the quantitative research design for this study, focusing on the research setting, data collection, and data analysis. Limitations as well as reliability and

validity for the study were also discussed. Chapter four will describe the findings of the analyses in detail.

Chapter Four

Findings

Chapter three provided an overview of the proposed quantitative research design for this study. Specifically, the research setting, participants, data collection methods, survey instruments, data analysis, and limitations were detailed. Validity and reliability were also mentioned. Chapter four will present the results of the study. Following that, chapter five will include additional discussion and conclusions.

The purpose of this study was to examine students' expectations of and satisfaction with academic advising, and to investigate whether students' intercultural communication competence predicts student satisfaction at an American-style university in West Africa. This study focused on the following research questions:

1. What are undergraduate students' expectations of academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?
2. How satisfied are undergraduate students with their academic advising experience at an American-style university in West Africa?
3. Does intercultural communication competence (ICC) predict undergraduate students' satisfaction with academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

In this chapter, descriptive statistics for the study sample and variables related to expectations, satisfaction, and intercultural communication are presented. In addition, the results for each of the three research questions are addressed. A summary is provided at the end.

Sample Characteristics

A total of 314 participants (30% of undergraduate students based off of Spring 2022 numbers) responded to the survey. Out of the 314 participants, 117 students (37%) had to be eliminated from the study in the preliminary stage due to their failure to meet the necessary

criteria for participation in the study. Specifically, students were eliminated for the following reasons: 13 did not consent, 3 were not undergraduate students, 39 were under the age of 18 (students often start university in Nigeria as young as 16 years old), 25 had no advising experiences, and 37 abandoned the survey before completion. The final number of viable surveys for the analysis was 197 (19% of undergraduate students based off of Spring 2022 numbers and 63% of initial responses).

Of the remaining 197 participants, 155 (78.7%) indicated they were advised by an advisor in the Academic Advising Center and the remaining 42 (21.3%) were advised primarily by faculty, with some specifying advising came from both faculty and advising staff and/or other students/friends, self-advising using the catalog/degree audit, or some combination of these. Given the focus of this study, statistical analyses were performed to look specifically at the 155 students advised by an academic advisor. This number accounted for 14.9% of the total undergraduate student population in Spring 2022 which was 1037. Demographic information for the participants can be found in Table 1.

The analysis found that 84 participants (54.2%) were male, and 70 participants (45.2%) were female. These numbers varied slightly to the student numbers seen in the Spring 2022 semester where males accounted for 45.6% (514) of the student population and females accounted for 50.4% (523) of the population. The majority of the participants were between the ages of 18 to 20, comprising a total of 104 individuals (67.1%), and most said they had been attending the university for 5 or more semesters, 90 (58.1%). While 148 students (95.5%) indicated that their country of citizenship was Nigeria, 5 students (3.2%) selected other and listed Britain (1), Cameroon (3), and Niger (1) for citizenship; this percentage was slightly higher than

Table 1. Demographics of Participants

Variables	<i>n</i>	%
Overall	155	
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	84	54.2
Female	70	45.2
<i>Age</i>		
18-20	104	67.1
21-23	37	23.9
24 and over	14	9
<i>Semesters Attending AUN</i>		
1-2	20	12.9
3	24	15.5
4	21	13.5
5 or more	90	58.1
<i>Country of Citizenship</i>		
Nigeria	148	95.5
Other	5	3.2
<i>Highest Academic Level Completed before AUN</i>		
High School Diploma	135	87.1
Bachelor's Degree	9	5.8
Other	10	6.5
<i>Main Reason for Attending AUN</i>		
To Earn Credit Towards a Bachelor's Degree	77	49.7
To Study in an American-style Education System	52	33.5
Other	26	16.8
<i>Degree Program</i>		
Law & Politics	14	9
Business	35	22.6
Communications	11	7.1
Computer Science/Information Systems/Software and Computer Engineering	73	47.1
Natural & Environmental Science/Petroleum Chemistry	11	7.1
Other	11	7.1

the total number of international students at the institution for the Spring 23 semester which was 1.93% (20 students).

The majority of participants noted that their highest academic level completed before coming to the university was a high school diploma, with 135 responses (87.1%). Ten students (6.5%) indicated “other” for highest academic level and mentioned *secondary school* (2), *national diploma* (2), *none* (2), and Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination - *SSCE* (1) in the comments. Two additional students were recoded as other, including one associate degree

student and one doctorate student. The majority of students, 134 (86.5%), stated that they had never studied in another country and/or participated an exchange program abroad; however, 21 participants (13.5%) noted that they had studied and/or participated in this type of program. In addition to the international students studying in Nigeria, other countries mentioned as part of a student's abroad experience included the United Kingdom, South Africa, Canada, Malaysia, United States, Cote d'Ivoire, France, and Ghana, with two students (one international and one Nigerian) noting multiple experiences. As far as degree programs, the most common majors were computer science, information systems, software engineer, and computer engineering at 73 participants (47.1%). In Spring 22, these majors accounted for 344 of 1037 undergraduate students (33%).

The majority of the participants, 77 (49.7%), indicated that their primary reason for attending the university was to earn credit towards a bachelor's degree. Twenty-six students (16.8%) fell into one of eight additional categories which were recoded to be included with "other." Those categories included: to take a course of personal interest (7, 4.5%), to improve writing, reading, or math skills (2, 1.3%), to learn skills to get a job or a promotion (2, 1.3%), to explore a new career area (6, 3.9%), to increase chances for going abroad (4, 2.6%), and other (5, 3.2%) where students added comments, including "I don't have a choice," to "earn a degree, develop leadership skills, gain opportunities for personal growth," "it was a highly recommended university and also, my three siblings were here in earlier years," "I came because my sisters graduated from AUN," and my "parents thought it was a better option."

Academic Advising Variables

Descriptive statistics for factors related to academic advising were also performed. The majority of participants, 61 (39.9%), said they sought advising advice at least twice per year on

average. The approximate time spent in each advising session for 80 participants (51.6) was noted as 15-30 minutes while 66 individuals (42.6%) said they spent less than 15 minutes. When participants were asked where they obtained the majority of their information about class requirements, 93 (60%) said it came from their academic advisor. Academic advising information for the participants can be found in Table 2.

Table 2. Participants' academic advising

Variables	<i>n</i>	%
Overall	155	
<i>Advising Advice Sought Per Year On Average</i>		
At least once	47	30.7
At least twice	61	39.9
At least three times	29	18.9
Four or more times	16	10.5
<i>Approximate Time Spent in Advising Session</i>		
Less than 15 minutes	66	42.6
15-30 minutes	80	51.6
31-60 minutes	9	5.8
<i>Majority of Information about Class Requirements Obtained</i>		
Academic Advisor	93	60
Friend(s)/Other Student(s)/Family Member(s)	50	32.3
Online	12	7.7

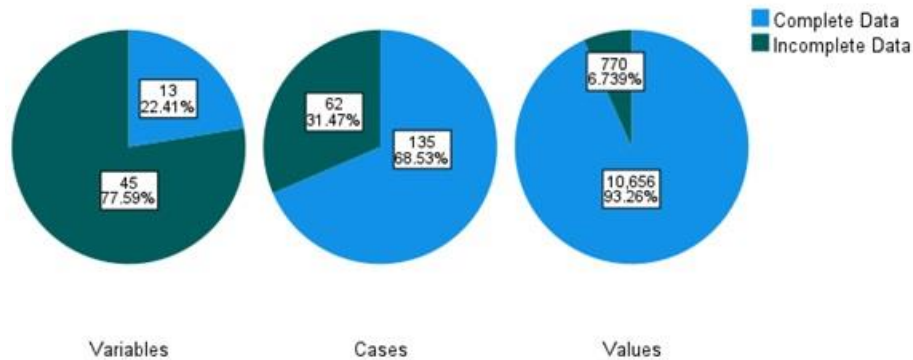
Multiple Imputation

Before progressing to the next stage of data analysis, missing data was addressed. From the original dataset, only 9 values were missing from demographic and/or background information, including four values from gender, two values from highest academic degree completed before enrolling at AUN, two values from country of citizenship, and one value from whether or not the students had ever studied in another country. The majority of the missing data came from the two main survey instruments, Smith and Allen's (2006) Inventory of Academic Advising Functions (IAAF)-Student Version and Arasaratnam et al.'s (2010) ICC instrument. The overall summary of missing values found a total of 770 (6.74%) values scattered in 45 survey items from the two survey instruments, including the following for those participants

primarily advised by an advisor in the academic advising office: 73 missing values from advising expectations, 389 from advising satisfaction, and 141 from intercultural communication (603 total accounting for 78.3% of all missing values).

A missing value analysis and multiple imputation pattern analysis were performed in SPSS, and it was determined that the absent values were missing at random and had no correlation with other information in the survey. It was assumed that data was missing based on survey fatigue. After selecting the Mersenne Twister, multiple imputation was performed to impute missing values at a rate of 5 imputations. After the imputation was completed, the imputed datasets were pooled using the output management system to better analyze the remaining research questions. Graph 1 shows an overall summary of missing values.

Graph 1. Overall summary of missing values



RQ1: Academic Advising Expectations Results

RQ1: What are undergraduate students' expectations of academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

Student expectations were assessed using part two of Smith and Allen's (2006) IAAF. Cronbach's alpha for expectations on the academic advising inventory was found to be good at

.86. Students completing the survey were asked to determine the importance of the twelve academic advising functions using a 6-point scale from *not at all important* (1) to *very important*

(6). A breakdown of the ratings for academic advising expectations can be found in Table 3.

Table 3. Academic Advising Expectations – How important is this advising function to you?

	Not At All Important n (%)	Not Very Important n (%)	Somewhat Unimportant t n (%)	Somewhat Important n (%)	Importan t n (%)	Very Importan t n (%)	Mean
<i>Connect academic, career, and life goals</i>	2 (1.3)	5 (3.2)	5 (3.2)	31 (20)	65 (41.9)	47 (30.3)	4.89
<i>Choose courses in major</i>	0 (0)	7 (4.5)	3 (1.9)	24 (15.5)	66 (42.6)	55 (35.5)	5.03
<i>Choose general education classes</i>	0 (0)	8 (5.2)	9 (5.8)	41 (26.5)	66 (42.6)	31 (20)	4.67
<i>Decide which degree program to pursue</i>	8 (5.2)	8 (5.2)	14 (9)	25 (16.1)	59 (38.1)	41 (26.5)	4.56
<i>Choose out-of-class activities</i>	11 (7.1)	13 (8.4)	15 (9.7)	39 (25.2)	50 (32.3)	27 (17.4)	4.19
<i>Refers you to campus resources for academic problems</i>	6 (3.9)	3 (1.9)	7 (4.5)	31 (20)	67 (43.2)	41 (26.5)	4.76
<i>Refers you to campus resources for nonacademic problems</i>	7 (4.5)	12 (7.7)	11 (7.1)	27 (17.4)	60 (38.7)	38 (24.5)	4.52
<i>Understand how things work at AUN</i>	3 (1.9)	3 (1.9)	6 (3.9)	31 (20)	60 (38.7)	52 (33.5)	4.93
<i>Give Accurate information about degree requirements</i>	2 (1.3)	3 (1.9)	4 (2.6)	15 (9.7)	63 (40.6)	68 (43.9)	5.19
<i>Considers skills, abilities, and interests when helping choose courses</i>	3 (1.9)	5 (3.2)	3 (1.9)	23 (14.8)	71 (45.8)	50 (32.3)	4.96
<i>Get to know you as an individual</i>	11 (7.1)	10 (6.5)	16 (10.3)	28 (18.1)	54 (34.8)	36 (23.2)	4.37
<i>Encourages you to assume responsibility for your education</i>	2 (1.3)	5 (3.2)	4 (2.6)	27 (17.4)	58 (37.4)	59 (38.1)	5.00

Descriptive Statistics

For all but two of the twelve academic advising functions, *important* and *very important* accounted for the majority of the responses. A look at these categories combined found that

“give accurate information about degree requirements” was rated the highest with 131 students

(84.5%) rating it as *important* to *very important*. This advising function was rated as most essential overall with 68 participants (43.9%) rating it as *very important*. Following this function in necessity among participants was both “choose courses in major” with 121 participants (78.1%) rating it as *important* to *very important* and “considers skills, abilities, and interests when helping choose courses” which was also rated as *important* to *very important* by 121 students (78.1%).

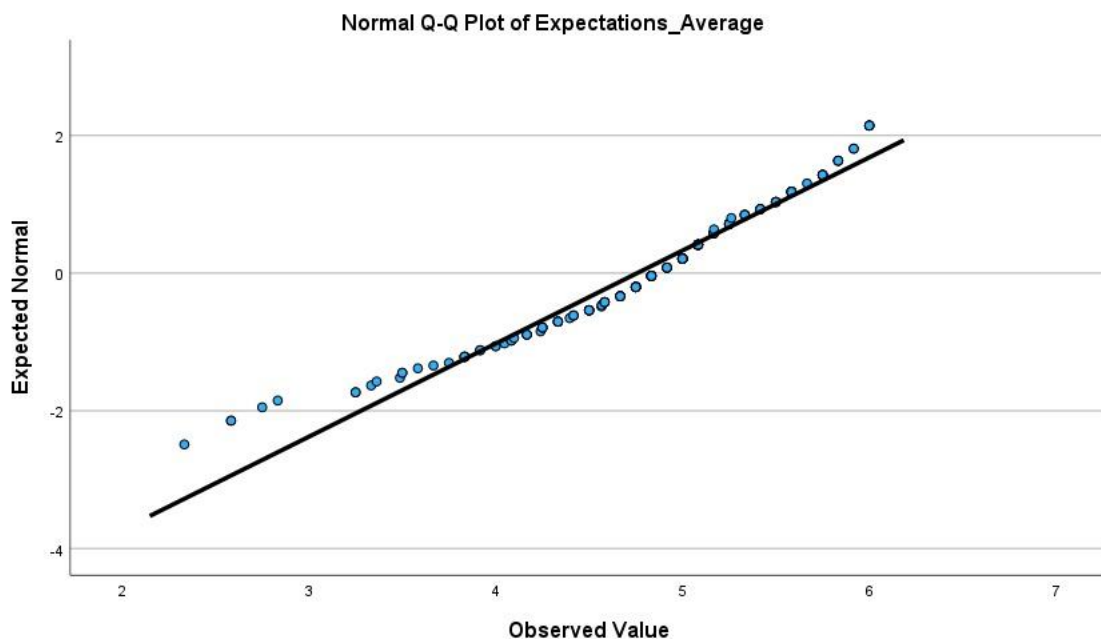
Some outliers among the groups between *somewhat important* and *very important* were found. Both “choose out-of-class activities” and “choose general education classes” had a higher number of participants select *somewhat important* than *very important*. For “choose out-of-class activities,” 39 participants (25.2%) selected *somewhat important* while only 27 participants (17.4%) chose *very important*, which was the lowest rating for that category. For “choose general education classes,” 41 participants (26.5%) marked *somewhat important* while only 31 participants (20%) selected *very important*, which was the second lowest rating for that category.

At the other end of the scale, looking at a combination of *not at all important*, *not very important*, and *somewhat unimportant*, the function with the highest number of responses was “choose out-of-class activities” with 39 participants (25.2%) rating this function as *not at all important* to *somewhat unimportant*. This was followed by “get to know you as an individual” with 37 participants (23.9%) rating it as *not at all important* to *somewhat unimportant*. Both of these functions had the most ratings for *not at all important* at 11 participants (7.1%) each. The category with the lowest rating from *not at all important* to *somewhat unimportant* was “give accurate information about degree requirements” at 9 participants (5.8%).

Demographic Factor Analyses

Following descriptive statistics, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to compare how academic advising expectations vary across gender, age, and program degree. Prior to the analyses, averages were calculated for each of the 155 sets of academic advising expectation data. For expectations, the assumption for normality was not met based off of the Shapiro-Wilk test, which showed a significant result at $p < .001$. However, because the sample size was large enough for the analysis to tolerate this violation, no changes were made. Additionally, the Q-Q plot indicated a fairly normal distribution of the data. Graph 2 shows the Normal Q-Q Plot of Expectations.

Graph 2. Normal Q-Q Plot of Expectations.



First, gender was looked at in regard to expectations to see if it had a measurable difference. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was met at $F(1,152) = .76, p = .386$. A one-way analysis of variance showed that the differences between the two genders on advising expectations was significant, $F(1,152) = 6.39, p = .012$. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Secondly, age was looked at in regard to expectations to see if it had an obvious differentiation. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(2,152) = 1.11, p = .329$. An analysis of variance showed that the result of age on advising expectations was not significant, $F(2,152) = .02, p = .983$. Lastly, degree program was looked at as to expectations to see if there was a noticeable distinction. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was met at $F(5,149) = .40, p = .850$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences in advising expectations was not significant across degree programs, $F(5,149) = 1.08, p = .374$. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis. A breakdown of the figures for academic advising expectations can be found in Table 4.

Advising Factor Analyses

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were also conducted to compare the differences of three advising variables on advising expectations, including advising advice sought per year on average, approximate time spent in each advising session, and where the majority of information about class requirements was obtained, on academic advising expectations. First, advising advice sought per year on average was looked at in regard to expectations to see if it had a measurable difference. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(3,149) = .70, p = .557$. An analysis of variance showed that advising expectations found no statistically significant differences across the number of times advice was sought per year on average among students, $F(3, 149) = 1.15, p = .330$. Next, approximate time spent in each advising session was looked at in regard to expectations to see if it had a significant contrast. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(2,152) = .65, p = .526$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences in approximate time spent in each advising session on advising expectations was not statistically significant, $F(2,152) = .92, p = .399$. Last, where the majority of information about class

requirements was obtained was looked at in regard to expectations to see if it had a measurable result. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(2,152) = 1.46, p = .234$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences in where the majority of information about class requirements was obtained had on academic advising expectations was not statistically significant, $F(2,152) = .92, p = .401$. All three analyses failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 4. Advising Expectations

Variables	n	Mean	SD	p-value
<i>Gender</i>				.012
Male	84	4.62	0.75	
Female	70	4.91	0.70	
<i>Age</i>				.938
18-20	104	4.78	0.77	
21-23	37	4.77	0.74	
24 and over	14	4.73	0.57	
<i>Degree Program</i>				.374
Law & Politics	14	4.75	0.80	
Business	35	4.67	0.70	
Communications	11	5.13	0.68	
Computer Science/Information Systems/Software and Computer Engineering	73	4.70	0.78	
Natural & Environmental Science/Petroleum Chemistry	11	5.04	0.57	
Other	11	4.78	0.65	
<i>Advising Advice Sought Per Year On Average</i>				.330
At least once	47	4.69	0.82	
At least twice	61	4.71	0.75	
At least three times	29	4.81	0.61	
Four or more times	16	5.06	0.70	
<i>Approximate Time Spent in Advising Session</i>				.399
Less than 15 minutes	66	4.67	0.78	
15-30 minutes	80	4.81	0.71	
31-60 minutes	9	4.94	0.70	
<i>Majority of Information about Class Requirements Obtained</i>				.401
Academic Advisor	93	4.82	0.67	
Online	12	4.57	0.79	
Friend(s)/Other Student(s)	50	4.69	0.84	
Family Member(s)				

RQ2: Academic Advising Satisfaction Results

RQ2: How satisfied are undergraduate students with their academic advising experience at an American-style university in West Africa?

Student satisfaction was assessed using the same academic advising functions from part two of Smith and Allen's (2006) IAAF. Cronbach's alpha for satisfaction on the academic advising inventory was found to be good at .90. Students completing the survey were asked to rate their satisfaction with each of the twelve academic advising functions using a 6-point scale, ranging from *very dissatisfied* (1) to *very satisfied* (6). A breakdown of the ratings for academic advising satisfaction can be found in Table 5.

Descriptive Statistics

The categories with the majority of the responses for student satisfaction were *somewhat satisfied* and *satisfied*. A look at these categories combined found that students were most satisfied with the academic advising function "choose general education classes" with 117 participants (75.5%) rating their satisfaction as *somewhat satisfied* to *satisfied*. Next, was "refers you to campus resources for academic problems," which 103 participants (66.4%) said they were *somewhat satisfied* to *satisfied* with. Third, was a three-way tie between "connect academic, career, and life goals," "choose courses in major," and "understand how things work at AUN" which each had 101 participants (65.1%) say they were *somewhat satisfied* to *satisfied*. The function which the most participants said they were *very satisfied* with was "give accurate information about degree requirements" with 26 (16.8%) responses. This was closely followed by "refers you to campus resources for academic problems" with 24 students (15.5%) selecting *very satisfied*.

At the opposite side of the scale, looking at a combination of very *dissatisfied*, *dissatisfied*, and *somewhat dissatisfied*, the academic advising functions with the lowest satisfaction among students were “considers skills, abilities, and interests when helping choose courses” and “gets to know you as an individual” both with 55 participants (35.5%) selecting *very dissatisfied to somewhat dissatisfied*. The advising function with the most responses of *very dissatisfied* was “choose out-of-class activities” with 14 responses (9%).

Table 5. Academic Advising Satisfaction – How satisfied are you with this advising function?

	Very Dissatisfied n (%)	Dissatisfied n (%)	Somewhat Dissatisfied n (%)	Somewhat Satisfied n (%)	Satisfied n (%)	Very Satisfied n (%)	Mean
<i>Connect academic, career, and life goals</i>	8 (5.2)	14 (9)	21 (13.5)	47 (30.3)	54 (34.8)	11 (7.1)	4.02
<i>Choose courses in major</i>	5 (3.2)	11 (7.1)	21 (13.5)	40 (25.8)	61 (39.4)	17 (11)	4.26
<i>Choose general education classes</i>	0 (0)	11 (7.1)	11 (7.1)	51 (32.9)	66 (42.6)	16 (10.3)	4.42
<i>Decide which degree program to pursue</i>	4 (2.6)	17 (11)	23 (14.8)	46 (29.7)	53 (34.2)	12 (7.7)	4.06
<i>Choose out-of-class activities</i>	14 (9)	17 (11)	19 (12.3)	42 (27.1)	46 (29.7)	17 (11)	3.89
<i>Refers you to campus resources for academic problems</i>	2 (1.3)	11 (7.1)	15 (9.7)	49 (31.6)	54 (34.8)	24 (15.5)	4.38
<i>Refers you to campus resources for nonacademic problems</i>	7 (4.5)	18 (11.6)	24 (15.5)	48 (31)	40 (25.8)	18 (11.6)	3.97
<i>Understand how things work at AUN</i>	4 (2.6)	10 (6.5)	22 (14.2)	48 (31)	53 (34.2)	18 (11.6)	4.24
<i>Give Accurate information about degree requirements</i>	7 (4.5)	14 (9)	19 (12.3)	33 (21.3)	56 (36)	26 (16.8)	4.25
<i>Considers skills, abilities, and interests when helping choose courses</i>	8 (5.2)	17 (11)	30 (19.4)	38 (24.5)	46 (29.7)	16 (10.3)	3.96
<i>Get to know you as an individual</i>	9 (5.8)	24 (15.5)	22 (14.2)	33 (21.3)	51 (32.9)	16 (10.3)	3.91
<i>Encourages you to assume responsibility for your education</i>	7 (4.5)	11 (7.1)	19 (12.3)	45 (29)	54 (34.8)	19 (12.3)	4.21

Demographic Factor Analyses

Like with advising expectations, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to compare the differences of gender, age, and degree program on academic advising satisfaction. Prior to the analyses, averages were calculated for each of the 155 sets of academic advising satisfaction data. For satisfaction, the assumption for normality was met based off of the Shapiro-Wilk test which did not show a significant result, $p = .06$. Additionally, the Q-Q plot indicated a normal distribution of the data.

First, gender was looked at concerning satisfaction to see if it had a measurable difference. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was met at $F(1,152) = 2.10$, $p = .149$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences between the two genders on advising satisfaction was not statistically significant, $F(1,152) = .60$, $p = .439$. Secondly, age was looked at in respect to satisfaction to see if it had a measurable result. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(2,152) = .04$, $p = .958$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences in age on advising satisfaction was not statistically significant, $F(2,152) = .52$, $p = .596$. Lastly, degree program was looked at in regard to satisfaction to see if it had a measurable finding. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(5,149) = 1.28$, $p = .277$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences between degree programs on academic advising satisfaction was not statistically significant, $F(5,149) = 1.89$, $p = .100$. A breakdown of the figures for academic advising satisfaction can be found in Table 6. All three analyses failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Advising Factor Analyses

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were also conducted to compare the differences of three advising variables on advising satisfaction, including advising advice sought per year on

average, approximate time spent in each advising session, and where the majority of information about class requirements was obtained, on academic advising expectations.

Table 6. Advising Satisfaction

Variables	n	Mean	SD	p-value
<i>Gender</i>				.439
Male	84	4.08	0.85	
Female	70	4.19	0.97	
<i>Age</i>				.596
18-20	104	4.11	0.92	
21-23	37	4.11	0.90	
24 and over	14	4.37	0.82	
<i>Degree Program</i>				.100
Law & Politics	14	4.23	1.02	
Business	35	3.94	0.70	
Communications	11	4.58	1.07	
Computer Science/Information Systems/Software and Computer Engineering	73	4.12	0.91	
Natural & Environmental Science/Petroleum Chemistry	11	3.66	1.02	
Other	11	4.48	0.85	
<i>Advising Advice Sought Per Year On Average</i>				.003
At least once	47	3.83	0.93	
At least twice	61	4.12	0.87	
At least three times	29	4.29	0.79	
Four or more times	16	4.75	0.90	
<i>Approximate Time Spent in Advising Session</i>				<.001
Less than 15 minutes	66	3.84	0.88	
15-30 minutes	80	4.29	0.86	
31-60 minutes	9	4.87	0.84	
<i>Majority of Information about Class Requirements Obtained</i>				<.001
Academic Advisor	93	4.35	0.85	
Online	12	3.83	0.72	
Friend(s)/Other Student(s)	50	3.79	0.94	
Family Member(s)				

First, advising advice sought per year on average was looked at in respect to satisfaction

to see if there were noticeable differences. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(3,149) = .61, p = .612$. An analysis of variance showed that the result of advising advice sought per year on average on advising satisfaction was statistically significant, $F(3,149) = 3.68, p = .003$. The null hypothesis was rejected. Tukey's post hoc analyses were conducted and indicated that the mean score for students who reported advising that happened at least once per year ($M =$

3.83, SD = 0.93) was significantly different than advising that happened four or more times per year ($M = 4.75$, $SD = 0.90$, $p = .002$); however, there was not any significance among the remaining groups.

Next, approximate time spent in each advising session was looked at in regard to satisfaction to see if there was a measurable difference. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(2,152) = .09$, $p = .916$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences in approximate time spent in each advising session on advising satisfaction was significant, $F(2,152) = 8.34$, $p < .001$. The null hypothesis was rejected. Tukey's post hoc analyses were conducted and indicated that the mean score for students who reported advising that lasted 31-60 minutes ($M = 4.87$, $SD = 0.84$) was significantly different than advising that happened for less than 15 minutes ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 0.88$, $p = .003$). Additionally, advising that lasted from 15-30 minutes ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 0.86$) was significantly different from advising that happened for less than 15 minutes ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 0.88$, $p = .006$). There was not any significance among advising lasting 15-30 minutes and advising lasting 31-60 minutes.

Lastly, where the majority of information about class requirements was obtained was looked at in regard to satisfaction to see if it had a measurable difference. The assumption of equality of variance was met at $F(2,152) = .69$, $p = .504$. An analysis of variance showed that the differences in where the majority of information about class requirements was obtained on academic advising satisfaction was significant, $F(2,152) = 7.63$, $p < .001$. The null hypothesis was rejected. Tukey's post hoc analyses were conducted and indicated that the mean score for students who reported getting the majority of their information about class requirements from an academic advisor ($M = 4.35$, $SD = 0.85$) was significantly different than students who reported

getting this information from friend(s)/other student(s)/family member(s) ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 0.94$, $p < .001$).

RQ3: Intercultural Communication Competence Results

RQ3: Does intercultural communication competence (ICC) predict undergraduate students' satisfaction with academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

Intercultural communication competence was assessed using Arasaratnam et al. (2010) ICC instrument. Cronbach's alpha for the intercultural communication scale was found to be questionable at .67. Consequently, five items were removed from the scale to increase internal consistency. Following this, Cronbach's alpha was reported as acceptable at .74. Students completing the survey were asked to rate their satisfaction with each of the twelve academic advising functions using a 5-point scale, selecting from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). A breakdown of the ratings for ICC can be found in Table 7.

Table 7. Intercultural Communication Competence Ratings

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
I feel that people from other cultures have valuable things to teach me.	2 (1.3)	5 (3.2)	24 (15.5)	80 (51.7)	44 (28.3)	4.02
I feel a sense of belonging to a group of people based on relationship instead of cultural identity.	4 (2.6)	6 (3.9)	50 (32.2)	62 (40)	33 (21.3)	3.73
I feel more comfortable with people from my own culture.	17 (11)	41 (26.4)	56 (36.1)	26 (16.8)	15 (9.7)	2.88
I usually change the way I communicate depending with whom I am communicating.	3 (1.9)	16 (10.3)	30 (19.4)	76 (49)	30 (19.4)	3.74
I feel closer to people with whom I have a good relationship, regardless of whether they belong to my culture or not.	0 (0)	3 (1.9)	18 (11.6)	57 (36.8)	77 (49.7)	4.34
When I interact with someone from a different culture, I usually try to adapt some of his/her ways.	5 (3.2)	15 (9.7)	64 (41.3)	61 (39.4)	10 (6.5)	3.36
I often notice similarities in personality between people who belong to completely different cultures.	2 (1.3)	9 (5.8)	46 (29.7)	77 (49.7)	21 (13.5)	3.69

Table 7 Continued

I usually feel closer to people who are from my own culture.	10 (6.5)	29 (18.7)	55 (35.5)	48 (31)	13 (8.4)	3.16
I usually look for opportunities to interact with people from other cultures.	4 (2.6)	10 (6.4)	51 (33)	61 (39.4)	29 (18.7)	3.65
I feel more comfortable with people who are open to people from other cultures.	2 (1.3)	3 (1.9)	36 (23.2)	70 (45.2)	44 (28.4)	3.98
I enjoy getting to know people from other cultures.	2 (1.3)	4 (2.6)	35 (22.5)	72 (46.5)	42 (27.1)	3.95
I usually relate better to people with whom I have similar experiences, regardless of their cultural background	1 (0.6)	3 (1.9)	26 (16.7)	82 (53)	43 (27.7)	4.05
When I interact with someone from a different culture, I usually look for feedback/cues.	6 (3.9)	13 (8.3)	40 (25.8)	75 (48.4)	21 (13.5)	3.60
I feel it is important to have friends from different cultures.	1 (0.7)	2 (1.2)	27 (17.3)	65 (42)	60 (38.7)	4.17
I find that people from another country are similar to others from that country.	5 (3.2)	21 (13.5)	60 (38.7)	51 (33)	18 (11.6)	3.36
When I communicate with someone from a different culture, I usually listen more than talk.	2 (1.3)	10 (6.5)	55 (35.5)	58 (37.4)	30 (19.3)	3.67

Descriptive Statistics

The majority of the responses for ICC came from *agree* on the scale. Overall, students' ICC was rated as high; in total, 14 ICC statements had ratings of *high*, 4 statements had ratings of *moderate*, and one was rated as *very high*. Table 8 displays the ICC statements which were indicated as *moderate* or *very high*.

Several statements had their highest ratings in the *neutral* category, including "I feel more comfortable with people from my own culture" at 56 responses (36.1%), "when I interact with someone from a different culture, I usually try to adapt some of his/her ways" at 64 responses (41.3%), "I usually feel closer to people who are from my own culture" at 55 responses (35.5%), and "I find that people from another country are similar to others from that country" at 60 responses (38.7%). One statement, "I feel closer to people with whom I have a good relationship, regardless of whether they belong to my culture or not," had more responses indicating *strongly agree* at 77 (49.7%). This statement was also rated the highest for that particular category and for *agree* and *strongly agree* combined at 134 responses (86.5). The

statement with the second most responses for *agree* to *strongly agree* was “I feel it is important to have friends from different cultures” with 65 individuals (42%) selecting *agree* and 60 individuals (38.7%) selecting *strongly agree* for a total of 125 responses (80.7%).

Table 8. ICC statements indicated as moderate or very high

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean	Interpretation
I feel more comfortable with people from my own culture.	17 (11)	41 (26.4)	56 (36.1)	26 (16.8)	15 (9.7)	2.88	Moderate
I feel closer to people with whom I have a good relationship, regardless of whether they belong to my culture or not.	0 (0)	3 (1.9)	18 (11.6)	57 (36.8)	77 (49.7)	4.34	Very High
When I interact with someone from a different culture, I usually try to adapt some of his/her ways.	5 (3.2)	15 (9.7)	64 (41.3)	61 (39.4)	10 (6.5)	3.36	Moderate
I usually feel closer to people who are from my own culture.	10 (6.5)	29 (18.7)	55 (35.5)	48 (31)	13 (8.4)	3.16	Moderate
I find that people from another country are similar to others from that country.	5 (3.2)	21 (13.5)	60 (38.7)	51 (33)	18 (11.6)	3.36	Moderate

At the opposite end of the scale, the majority of the responses were indicated in the *disagree* category. The statement with the most responses for *disagree* was “I feel more comfortable with people from my own culture” at 41 responses (26.4); this statement also had the most responses for *strongly disagree* at 17 (11%). The statement with the second most responses for the category *disagree* was “I usually feel closer to people who are from my own culture” with 29 responses (18.7%); this category had 39 total responses (25.2) for *strongly disagree* and *agree*. The statements with the lowest number of participants selecting *strongly disagree* and *disagree* were “I feel closer to people with whom I have a good relationship,

regardless of whether they belong to my culture or not” and “I feel it is important to have friends from different cultures” which both received 3 total responses (1.9%).

Regression Analysis

In order to determine whether ICC predicts undergraduate students’ satisfaction with academic advising, simple linear regression was used. Prior to the analyses, averages were calculated for each of the 155 sets of intercultural communication data. This was used along with the averages for academic advising satisfaction to run the analysis. An analysis of standard residuals was completed to identify possible outliers and showed that none existed (Std. Residual Min = -2.61, Std. Residual Max = 2.21). A look at the scatterplot found that homoscedasticity was also met. The data met the assumption of independent errors (Durbin-Watson value = 1.87). In addition, the normal P-P Plot of standardized residuals indicated that the data contained approximately normally distributed errors. After it was determined that all assumptions for the analysis were met, the regression data was evaluated. A simple linear regression was calculated to predict undergraduate students’ academic advising satisfaction based on their ICC. The regression found that the results were not statistically significant ($F(1,153) = .99$, $p = .321$, $R^2 = .006$), suggesting that ICC does not predict academic advising satisfaction at AUN.

Summary

To summarize, for research question number one which looked at academic advising expectations, statistical significance was found for expectations between genders. However, age and degree program were not found to produce statistically significant results. Additionally, the outcomes of three advising variables on advising expectations, including advising advice sought per year on average, approximate time spent in each advising session, and where the majority of information about class requirements was obtained, did not produce any statistically significant

results. Research question two looked at academic advising satisfaction in relation to the same factors as expectations. Gender, age, and degree program did not produce any statistically significant results. However, the remaining variables, including advising sought per year on average, approximate time spent in each advising session, and where the majority of the information about class requirements was obtained, all produced statistically significant results. Finally, research question three found that ICC was not a statistically significant predictor of academic advising satisfaction.

Chapter Five

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to better understand students' expectations of and satisfaction with academic advising, and to probe whether students' intercultural communication competence predicts academic advising satisfaction, at an American-style university in West Africa. The following chapter discusses the results of this quantitative investigation for the three research questions presented. Relevant literature is referenced alongside the results in order to draw conclusions and make interpretations, limitations are discussed, implications for advising students in TNHE are made, and recommendations for further study are provided.

Summary of the Findings

Chapter four presented the findings of the three research questions at hand. While ICC was, surprisingly, not found to be a predictor of academic advising satisfaction, at least in the current study, other important findings resulted. The study found statistical significance for advising expectations based off of gender. In addition, expectedly, several advising-related variables were statistically significant and provide an insight into the importance of factors such as the number of advising appointments one has per year, the approximate time one spends in each session, and where students obtain the majority of their information for class requirements.

Key Findings and Conclusions

An examination of the research on student affairs in TNHE found nearly no research at these institutions. The literature that does exist is limited in scope, touching on issues of student affairs at a branch campus in South Korea (Cicchetti & Park, 2018) and at an American university in Iraq (Sengupta, 2017), as well as academic advising at AHE branch campuses in the Gulf (Telafici et al., 2014). For this reason, the literature concerning international students

studying at AHE institutions and their expectations and satisfaction concerning academic advising, as well as the impact of ICC on their advising experience, are relied upon more readily when examining the results of all three research questions.

RQ1: Academic Advising Expectations Discussion

RQ1: What are undergraduate students' expectations of academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

Academic advising is distinctive to American academic culture and is seen as essential to student's academic success. Most of the current advising models stem from the early work of Crookston (1972) and O'Banion (1972) and come from the prescriptive and, later, developmental models. While prescriptive advising has often been compared to that of the doctor/patient relationship with advisors serving as "information booths," developmental advising is considered more personal in nature (Crookston, 1972; Walsh, 1979).

The literature shows that TNHE students have some confusion regarding the aim of student affairs offices and the roles of professionals working in the field (Cicchetti & Park, 2018) as well as the purpose advisors serve in their academic lives (Sengupta, 2017). Similarly, international students are not particularly knowledgeable about the intent of academic advising and the roles advisors have in academia (Zhang, 2016). However, limited findings suggest that international students favor elements from both of the early advising styles. The expectations observed in this study confirm that notion; however, it also suggests that students lean toward advising functions which are more prescriptive in nature which support the posited hypothesis.

A look back at the results presented in chapter four shows that the top five academic advising functions according to student's expectations were those more closely aligned with prescriptive than developmental advising. While the advising functions are open to

interpretation, eight of them are more aligned with developmental advising and four are more aligned with prescriptive advising. Due to the fact the more functions align with developmental advising, it is not hard to believe that those in the top five mainly fall into this category. However, it is worthy of note that the advising function with the highest score, “gives students accurate information about degree requirements” (M = 5.19), falls under prescriptive advising. The second highest score is seen with the advising function which “helps students choose among courses in their major that connect their academic, career, and life goals” (M = 5.03), which is developmental. The bottom two rankings are both developmental, including “knowing the student as an individual” (M = 4.37) and advising that “assists students when choosing out-of-class activities that connect their academic, career, and life goals” (M = 4.19). Overall, the average rating for prescriptive advising (M = 4.85) is slightly higher than that for developmental advising functions (M = 4.71).

Chemishanova (2018) noted that international students at a southeastern community college gave nearly all prescriptive and developmental advising functions *important to very important* ratings, which is mirrored in the current study. Additionally, four of the top functions found among students in Chemishanova’s (2018) study were also found in the present study, including “receive accurate information,” “understand policies and procedures,” “choose courses in major,” and “connect academic and career goals.” Similarly, two out of the three functions that students rated the lowest in importance in Chemishanova’s (2018) study were also rated in the bottom among the AUN population, including “choose out of class activities” and “nonacademic referrals.” Two stark differences were found among the AUN population and Chemishanova’s (2018) student population. While AUN students found “advising that gets to know you individually” as one of the least important functions, those in Chemishanova’s (2018)

international student population found it to be among the top five; additionally, one of the most important advising functions in the current study, “encourages you to assume responsibility for your education (problem solving),” was ranked near the bottom by the other student population.

In contrast to the current study and Chemishanova’ (2018) findings, Mataczynski’s (2013) study at a private western university indicates that international students favor developmental advising. However, there is no breakdown in this study which designates the advising functions which students found more or less important. Mataczynski’s (2013) study is supported by an earlier study by Cadieux and Wehrly (1986) which also points to international students’ inclination toward the developmental approach. Differences in findings may be attributed to sample populations. Unlike Chemishanova’s study which included mostly Asian students, and the current study which includes mainly Nigerian students, Mataczynski’s study included participants holding citizenship from 40 countries.

The original sample population shows that a mix of students (American nationals and international students) appreciate aspects of both developmental and prescriptive advising, suggesting that both are vital for effective advising to occur (Smith & Allen, 2006). Additionally, Smith and Allen’s (2006) findings, like those in the present study and in Chemishanova’s (2018) study, show “accurate information” as the most important advising function among them all. Additional top functions among all three studies include “understand policies and procedures,” “choose courses in major,” and “connect academic and career goals.” Furthermore, all three studies ranked “choose out of class activities” and “nonacademic referrals” among the least most principal functions.

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to compare the differences of several demographic and academic factors on academic advising expectations. Only gender was

found to produce a statistically significant result. Mataczynski (2013) and Chemishanova (2018) did not look at the disparities of other factors on expectations. Smith and Allen's (2006) study found that gender significantly predicated expectation ratings on 11 out of 12 advising functions, with women rating them more important than men. Correspondingly, women ($M = 4.97$) had higher expectations than men ($M = 4.67$) in the current study. These similarities, along with the parallels seen among the advising expectations of the sample population in the current study and those in Chemishanova (2018) and Smith and Allen's (2006) studies are noteworthy. The results suggest that student populations want many of the same things, regardless of their institution locations, institution types, and their demographic factors.

RQ2: Academic Advising Satisfaction Results

RQ2: How satisfied are undergraduate students with their academic advising experience at an American-style university in West Africa?

Academic advisors are often a first point of contact for students on university campuses, and have been found to play a leading role in the lives of international students (Bista, 2015; Charles & Stewart, 1991). As we know, these roles are often all-encompassing and ill-defined, making the experiences that students have more difficult to quantify. Nevertheless, research has shown that these advising relationships serve to motivate and empower international students, leading to higher persistence and a greater sense of belonging when strong advisor-advisee bonds exist (Mataczynski, 2013; Saha, 2018; Zhai, 2004).

Unlike national students, international students face many cultural and academic challenges that extend into their advising exchanges. These obstacles, including language and communication differences and inexperience with American-style higher education, among

others, ultimately influence their overall satisfaction, that is, not only their satisfaction with the academic institution but their contentment with their academic advisor.

The results presented in chapter four show that, overall, students were more satisfied with academic advising functions that were prescriptive in nature. On average, students' satisfaction with the academic advising functions were ranked lower than advising expectations which indicated the importance they placed on the function. Like with advising expectations, the advising function that students were the most satisfied with, "choose general education courses" (M = 4.42) was more aligned with prescriptive advising as was the second ranked function "academic referrals" (M = 4.38). When looking at these functions in relation to student expectations, they were rated 8th (M = 4.67) and 7th (M = 4.76) respectively. The third ranked function for satisfaction was "choose major courses" (M = 4.26), which was rated the 2nd most important function (5.03). The bottom two rankings, like with advising expectations, were developmental functions and included "gets to know you individually" in the 11th position (M = 4.21) which was also the 11th ranked function in expectations (M = 4.37), and "choose out-of-class activities" in the 12th position (M = 3.89), which was also ranked 12th in expectations (M = 4.19).

When comparing the current study to the findings in Chemishanova's (2018) study, four out of five of the top advising functions for satisfaction are the same, including "choose general education classes," "choose major courses," "accurate information," and "how things work (policies and procedures)." Students were most satisfied with "academic referrals" in the current study; however, Chemishanova's (2018) found that students were most satisfied with "how things work (policies and procedures)," ranking referrals as ninth.

In Smith and Allen's (2006) study, three of the top five advising functions for satisfaction matched those in the current study, including "accurate information," "academic referrals," and "choose major courses." Conversely, "general education," which was found in the top five for satisfaction in both the current study and that by Chemishanova (2018) was ranked at 11th for Smith and Allen's (2006) study. Remarkably, all three studies ranked the function "advising that helps you choose out of class connections" as 12th for satisfaction.

Like with expectations, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to compare the differences of several demographic and academic factors on academic advising satisfaction. While no demographic factor analyses produced significant results, all of the advising factor analyses produced statistically significant outcomes, including advising advice sought per year, approximate time spent in each advising session, and where the majority of information about class requirements were obtained.

Like the current study, Chemishanova (2018) found no statistical significance among demographic variables, including age, gender, and degree program, on students' level of satisfaction (using expectation disconfirmation theory); other variables were not considered. Similar to the current study, Mataczynski (2013) found positive associations between satisfaction and the frequency of advisor-advisee activities. No other variables from the current study were explored. Unlike the current study, Smith and Allen (2006) found that age did significantly predict advising satisfaction on all but two of the functions; advising factors were not considered.

Findings for satisfaction among the current sample population and previous studies are mixed. Many of the factors looked at for the current study were not analyzed in the other studies. Positive associations between satisfaction and the frequency of advisor-advisee activities as seen in the current study as well as Mataczynski's (2013) study are expected. There are a couple of

reasons that Smith and Allen's (2006) finding of age as a significant predictor of advising satisfaction was not seen in the current study. Firstly, many students in Nigeria start college as young as 16 in Nigeria; this could have implications for both expectations and satisfaction for the various age groups. Secondly, many of those completing the survey were ages 18-20, with students 24 and over accounting for only a small percentage which would have an influence on the results.

RQ3: Intercultural Communication Competence Results

RQ3: Does intercultural communication competence (ICC) predict undergraduate students' satisfaction with academic advising at an American-style university in West Africa?

Intercultural communication competence is defined as the ability to “interact effectively, appropriately, and meaningfully across different cultures” and consists of three spheres: intercultural sensitivity, intercultural awareness, and intercultural adroitness (Zhang, 2015, p. 49). Successful academic advising between advisors and international students depends on both advisors' and their advisees' realization of these three domains.

Findings presented in chapter four show that when AUN students rated their agreement with the 16 statements for ICC, they displayed *moderate* to *very high* ratings across the board. The only category which students received a *very high* rating for was “I feel closer to people with whom I have a good relationship, regardless of whether they belong to my culture or not” (77, 49.7%). Ranked closely behind this category with a rating of *high* was, “I feel it is important to have friends from different cultures” (60, 38.7%). Both of these statements show a sensitivity and openness toward other cultures which is found in the affective domain of ICC. Additionally, for *agree*, students' top-rated statements were “I usually relate better to people with whom I have similar experiences, regardless of their cultural background” (82, 53%), and “I feel people from

other cultures have valuable things to teach me” (80, 51.7%); both of these statements were rated as *high* and align with intercultural sensitivity. Furthermore, “I often find similarities in personality between people who belong to completely different cultures” (77, 49.7%), which aligns with awareness, was ranked third, and “I usually change the way I communicate depending with whom I am communicating” (76, 49%), which aligns with adroitness in ICC, ranked fourth. On the opposite end of the scale, the two statements that had the majority of responses for *disagreed* to *strongly disagreed* were the similar statements “I feel more comfortable with people from my own culture” (58, 37.4%) and “I usually feel closer to people who are from my own culture” (39, 25.2%).

There were large percentages noted in many ICC statements for *neutral* on the scale. It is generally expected that neutral is chosen when one does not necessarily disagree with a statement but does not entirely agree with it either. It is also a common response for those less inclined to give their opinion. On the current survey, four variables were ranked highest overall in this category, including: “I feel more comfortable with people from my own culture,” “when I interact with someone from a different culture, I usually try to adapt some of his/her ways,” “I usually feel closer to people from my own culture,” and “I find that people from another country are similar to others from that country.” Answers in the surrounding categories indicate that the majority of these answers if *neutral* was not an option would likely lean toward *somewhat agree* except for the first statement which would likely favor *somewhat disagree*. Irrespective of high instances of neutral responses, ICC was still found to be high overall among the population.

Ratings observed on the ICC statements reinforce the idea that students at AUN, in general, are sensitive and empathetic toward cultural differences, are motivated to interact with others from different cultures than their own, have an acceptable level of self-awareness related

to their own culture and the differences it has with other cultures, and have some level of proficiency in communicating with individuals from different backgrounds. These findings are not surprising as many students that attend AUN, which is a private institution and one of the most expensive in the region, come from affluent families and may have more diverse experiences than other students in the region. Additionally, five students (3.2%) who completed the study also indicated that they held citizenship from countries other than Nigeria, including Britain (1), Cameroon (3), and Niger (1). Moreover, 21 participants (13.5%) noted that they had studied and/or participated in some type of exchange/abroad program. Countries mentioned as part of this experience included the United Kingdom, South Africa, Canada, Malaysia, United States, Cote d'Ivoire, France, and Ghana, with two students (one international and one Nigerian) noting multiple experiences. These factors likely had a minor influence on ICC scores.

English language difficulties is one of the biggest problems international students face when studying in AHE institutions, and this is likely the case in many TNHE institutions as well. In fact, one of the earliest studies to look at both international advisor and advisee perceptions found that insufficient English language skills was the greatest impediment to effective communication (Hart, 1974). As an American-style institution, the language of instruction at AUN is English. However, since English is the official language in Nigeria, this issue is not a factor. As such, it is expected that intercultural communication may be higher among this particular population because students are more adept at communicating with many diverse kinds of people due to their knowledge of English.

For research question three, a simple linear regression was calculated to determine whether undergraduate students' academic advising satisfaction could be predicted based on

their intercultural communication competence. The regression found that the results were not statistically significant, and the study failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Though very limited research exists on the impact of ICC on advising satisfaction, some factors related to ICC which can have a negative effect on student satisfaction are cultural dissimilarities (Zhang, 2015), differences in communication styles (Zhang & Dinh, 2017), and a lack of understanding regarding one's cultural background and past experiences (Zhang, 2016; Zhang, 2018). Literature suggests that pronounced cultural differences between advisors and advisees may impact advising relationships negatively. At many other TNHE institutions globally, academic advisors may come from many different countries outside of the country in which they work. This is especially true for branch campuses and, to some degree, universities bearing the American brand in their titles. All of the academic advisors at AUN are Nigerian nationals as was the majority of the sample population, suggesting limited impact in this area. However, the present study had a small sample size and background was not a variable which was looked at in the analysis; therefore, this conclusion cannot be substantiated.

Other factors such as transferring from overseas education systems and unfamiliarity with the American higher-education system also play a role in student satisfaction and ICC (Zhang & Dinh, 2017). While the sample population included few international students, the difference in the American academic system with the Nigerian academic system is worth considering. Wadsworth, et. al. (2008) mentions the importance academic acculturation plays when students encounter a new education system. Additionally, according to Bista (2015) it is critical to address misunderstandings international students have about AHE in the first year. Literature about this process can serve as a model for TNHE and American-style institutions abroad.

Limitations

Though the current study adds to the scarce literature concerning academic advising in TNHE, it is not without limitations. Those which are most notable include difficulties understanding academic advising at TNHE institutions and describing the findings due to a lack of literature in the field, the small sample size, the length of the survey instrument, and missing data.

Perhaps the biggest limitation to the current research is the difficulty understanding the population and explaining the findings due to lack of research in the field. Though the absence of research in the area created a unique opportunity to be a pioneer, paving the way for future researchers, it also posed unique challenges. For one, it required the researcher to find areas of commonality from which to pull literature which could be applicable and/or useful to the intended study. In this particular study, it was determined that the field which could best help the researcher attempt to understand the sample population was international students studying at AHE institutions in the United States. Inherently, this created some difficulties, and, in some areas, it was hard to make connections between the international student population and the population at AUN. This was especially true given that so many of the cultural and academic challenges that international students in the U.S. face are due to communication and English language deficiencies, a point that was not applicable to the AUN student population. However, given other options, this was the one that made the most sense and provided the most relevant information for a possible understanding of academic advising in TNHE.

Second, the sample size is small and due to its purposive nature, cannot be generalized to similar populations in the region, and especially not to the wider TNHE student population which is composed of a diverse set of students globally. The data was gathered at a small, private

university with an undergraduate population of around 1,000 students per semester so, although the sample was acceptable given the total population, a bigger sample size utilizing probability sampling methods would have produced a more powerful and generalizable study and a smaller standard error.

The third and fourth limitations, length of the survey and missing data, are thought to be directly linked to one another. The two survey instruments themselves, which made up the greater part of the survey, equaled 40 questions (after removing questions to increase reliability). When combined with additional demographic questions, academic questions, and advising-specific questions, the survey had 53 total questions, not considering those questions which qualified students to complete the survey (consent, 18 or older, undergraduate students at AUN, experience with academic advising at AUN). It is also believed that the length of the survey instruments made them harder to view for students using their smartphones though it is not clear how many students used their phones versus laptops, desktops, or some other type of device. Out of the 197 participants that made it past the preliminary stage of the survey, 770 values were missing from the data (6.74%) with the majority coming from the 155 used for the final analysis. While multiple imputation solved the problem of missing data and allowed the study to continue successfully, in hindsight, it would have been better to take steps to minimize missingness to begin with, i.e., a shorter survey.

Implications for Advising Students in Transnational Higher Education

Above all, the results of this study shed light on the importance of knowing one's audience. While academic advisors can always postulate about what students want, the only definite way to understand the importance of various advising functions is through posing the question to students in the first place. As Smith and Allen (2006) highlight, the importance lies in

giving students good advising on those functions they see as most important. Once the expectations students place on various academic advising functions is known, advisors can then use it as a guide in their work moving forward. This basic premise is an easy place to start and can help lay the groundwork for a successful advisor-advisee relationship.

Secondly, it is important not to discount the importance of prescriptive advising functions. A lot of research has been done since the 1970s in an attempt to move beyond this advising style into a more developmental and/or holistic approach (Gordon, et al., 2008; Kuhlmann, 2005; Montag et al., 2012; Sanders & Killion, 2017; Schreiner & Anderson, 2005). However, the findings in this study, and others that have been mentioned within, are clear in that there is not a one-size-fits-all approach. Students are different, and that cannot be overstated when looking at the many kinds of TNHE spread across the world. Because it is not black and white, we have to be open to exploring the gray areas and to switching between various advising styles, including others which have only been touched on briefly, to find what works best for each student population.

Recommendations for Future Research

As alluded to several times throughout this study, more research is needed on academic advising and the advisor-advisee relationship at TNHE institutions and, specifically, at American-style institutions abroad. As this study pointed out, though the general research on American TNHE has grown in the last 10 years, overall, very little is known about this particular sphere of higher education. As the field continues to expand, this understanding is vital at helping student affairs professionals abroad have the information and tools they need to be effective and help students achieve academic success. This includes helping students have a

clearer understanding of the purpose of academic advising, so they can curb their expectations and, in the long run, find satisfaction with the advising they receive.

Future studies on this topic should explore expectations of and satisfaction with academic advising at TNHE institutions in countries where the first language is not English. As language difficulties and miscommunication stemming from this factor are so broadly discussed in the literature concerning challenges faced by international students and their advisors, it is expected that looking at these factors in this context will produce different results more closely aligned with that particular student population. Furthermore, more research is warranted in TNHE institutions where advisors come from different cultural backgrounds than the majority of the students, as it has been shown that like communication difficulties, background differences also may impact the advisor-advisee relationship. In line with the literature, it is assumed that intercultural communication findings would be slightly different than with the current student population. As we know, certain ICC domains, such as intercultural adroitness, or the capabilities one has in getting their message across, developing relationships, and interacting appropriately with those from other cultures, is based on students' backgrounds and experience. As the majority of students studying at TNHE institutions abroad do not speak English as a first language and may have different communication styles and background experiences than advisors coming from Western countries, the implications for the findings of such research are great.

In addition to more quantitative studies on academic advising in TNHE institutions, more work is needed to explore findings of this research and similar research through qualitative analysis. While quantitative analyses are great at providing a starting point for this particular topic, qualitative research would offer a more thorough understanding of the selections students

made on measurements of expectations of and satisfaction with academic advising and provide an invaluable understanding of students' ICC. While quantitative research does offer a glimpse into these areas, qualitative research is needed to add depth to that understanding.

Conclusion

This study explored students' expectations of and satisfaction with academic advising, and investigated whether students' intercultural communication competence predicted student satisfaction at an American-style university in West Africa. Although ICC was not found to be a predictor of academic advising satisfaction, overall, this study revealed that some similarities can be seen between students at an American-style TNHE institution in West Africa and international students in AHE. For instance, likenesses were seen in preferred advising styles, with both prescriptive and developmental advising finding importance among the two populations. The present study leaned toward prescriptive advising which has been found in one similar study as well as in the original study. Other parallels were found in the significance of gender on student advising expectations and with the importance of various advising functions to advising satisfaction. Specifically, the study underscored the fact that females have higher expectations for academic advising than their male counterparts. Additionally, it reinforced ideas about the importance of the number of advising appointments students have per year, the approximate time spent in advising sessions, and where students receive the majority of their information about class requirements.

The current study reminds student affairs practitioners of the importance of flexibility and thinking outside of the box when advising diverse student populations and encourages them to not fall victim to the idea of a one-size-fits-all approach. It also emboldens academic advisors to

actively pursue the answer to the question, what do students want out of their academic advising experience? Because without asking students what they want, we can never really know.

It is hoped that the study presented here is only the beginning of the research that will be gathered in the coming years regarding academic advising at TNHE and American-style institutions abroad.

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Appendix A

Dear AUN Students,

My name is Tara Pylate, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Higher & Adult Education Program at the University of Memphis (Tennessee, USA).

For my dissertation, under the supervision of my faculty advisor Dr. R. Eric Platt, I am conducting a study on students' experiences with academic advising at American-style institutions abroad. The purpose of my study is to shed more light on academic advising and, ideally, to suggest improvements to better support students globally. I invite you to participate in my research if you are an undergraduate student at AUN.

The study consists of a questionnaire which will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. The survey is voluntary, and your participation is anonymous. The data collected is confidential and will be used for research purposes only. At the completion of the survey, students can enter a drawing to win one of 15 prizes, ranging from \$10-\$20 USD.

Please click on the link below to complete the survey. Thank you for your participation!

Survey Link: https://memphis.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_1Nvzak1XhAp8WPz

Best,

Tara Pylate

Appendix B

Project Title: The Impact of Intercultural Communication Competence on Academic Advising at an American-style University in West Africa

Principal Investigator: Tara Pylate, University of Memphis (Tennessee, USA), tpylate@memphis.edu

You are being asked to participate in a research study. The purpose of the research is to understand the academic advising experiences of undergraduate students. This includes understanding the expectations students have for their advising experience as well as their advising satisfaction. Additionally, the study will investigate whether students' intercultural communication (communication between individuals from different groups or cultures) affects student satisfaction. The findings may be published. The expected duration of your participation is a one-time survey last approximately 10-15 minutes.

The procedures of the research will be as follows: You will be asked to fill out a one-time survey rating your academic advising experiences and satisfaction and your intercultural communication competence.

There will not be any risks or discomforts associated with this research.

There will not be benefits to you from this research.

Participants in this study will be entered into a lottery with the possibility of winning the following:

1. One of ten gift certificates for \$10
2. One of five gift certificates for \$20

After 100 students have completed the survey, a randomized lottery will be conducted using the university email addresses submitted. The fifteen winners selected will be contacted via email with information concerning their prize. Students have a 15% chance of winning a cash prize. Each student is only eligible to win once.

The information you provide for purposes of this research is anonymous. We promise to protect your privacy and security of your personal information as best we can. Although you need to know about some limits to this promise. Measures we will take include:

- No personal information such as name or student ID number will be collected during the survey. The university email address will be collected for participation in the lottery but will not be used for any other purpose.
- The raw data collected will be stored by the primary researcher and not accessible to other parties.

Before you decide to volunteer for this study, please ask any questions that might come to mind. Later, if you have questions, suggestions, concerns, or complaints about the study, you can contact the investigator, Tara Pylate, at tpylate@memphis.edu or the faculty advisor, Dr. R.E. Platt at replatt@memphis.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer in this research, contact the Institutional Review Board staff at the University of Memphis at 901-678-2705 or email irb@memphis.edu.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or the loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Signature _____

Printed Name _____

Date _____

Appendix C

Inventory of Academic Advising Function Student Version

© Cathleen L. Smith and Janine M. Allen

Instructions: Please answer the following questions according to your experiences at Name of Institution.

What is your main reason for attending Name of Institution? (community college students only)

- To earn credit toward a bachelor's (four-year) degree
- Learn English
- Take a ABE/GED class
- Complete a certificate or career technical program at Name of Institution
- Take a course for personal interest
- Explore educational opportunities at Name of Institution
- Take a class for high school credit
- Improve writing, reading, or math skills
- Learn skills to get or keep a job
- Explore a new career area

Which of the following best describes where at Name of Institution you get your PRIMARY academic advising, i.e., the advising you consider most central to your academic progress? (Choose one)

I have not received academic advice from faculty or staff at Name of Institution*

List should include all places at the institution where students might receive advising. Options might refer either to actual persons or to offices where students could interact with faculty or professional advisors.

Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

*A skip pattern is inserted here so that students who select this option are not asked how often they get advice or how satisfied they are with the advising they receive on each of the 12 advising functions.

On average, how often do you get advice from your primary source of advising, i.e., the advising you consider most central to your academic progress?

I'm not currently getting academic advising from faculty or staff at Name of Institution

- At least once per term**
- At least twice per year
- At least once per year

**These should be modified for institutions on a semester rather than a quarter calendar.

Note: Students who indicated they had not received advising from faculty or staff at the institution were not asked this question.

Please select the circle that best describes where you get most of your information about classes to take to meet requirements.

- List should include places at the institution listed above in the first question
- List should also include tools students might use, i.e., automated degree audit system, Bulletin (University Catalog), Undergraduate Advising Website, Departmental Website
- Friend(s)/Other Student(s)
 - Family Member(s)

Overall, I am satisfied with the academic advising I receive at Name of Institution.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

It is important for me to graduate from college.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I am confident that I made the right decision in choosing to attend Name of Institution.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I have a plan to achieve my educational goals.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I have had at least one relationship with a faculty or staff member at Name of Institution that has had a significant and positive influence on me.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I plan to graduate from Name of Institution.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

Overall, I am satisfied with my educational experience at Name of Institution.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

The following questions refer to various kinds of help that academic advisors might provide to students. Given your experience with your PRIMARY source of academic advising at Name of Institution, i.e., the advising you consider most central to your academic progress, make two ratings for each advising function.

- a. its importance to you
- b. your satisfaction with the advising you receive

Note: Students who indicated they had not received advising from faculty or staff at the institution were not asked to rate their satisfaction with the advising they received. Alternative language for these students is “The following questions refer to various kinds of help that academic advisors might provide to students. Given your experience with your PRIMARY source of academic advising at Name of Institution, i.e., the advising you consider most central to your academic progress, indicate how important each advising function is to you.

Advising that helps students connect their academic, career, and life goals.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4

- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Advising that helps students choose among courses in their major that connect their academic, career, and life goals.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Advising that assists students with choosing among the various general education options (e.g., examples unique to each institution) that connect their academic, career, and life goals.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4

- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Advising that assists students with deciding what kind of degree to pursue (Examples for universities include: Bachelor of Science, Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Music. Examples for community colleges include: transfer degree, career technical degree, certificate) in order to connect their academic, career, and life goals.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Advising that assists students with choosing out-of-class activities (e.g., part-time or summer employment, internships or practicum, participation in clubs or organizations) that connect their academic, career, and life goals.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

When students need it, referral to campus resources that address academic problems (e.g., math or science tutoring, writing, disability accommodation, test anxiety).

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

When students need it, referral to campus resources that address non-academic problems (e.g., child-care, financial, physical and mental health).

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Assisting students with understanding how things work at Name of Institution (understanding timelines, policies, and procedures with regard to registration, financial aid, grading, graduation, petitions and appeals, etc.).

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3

- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Ability to give students accurate information about degree requirements.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Taking into account students' skills, abilities, and interests in helping them choose courses.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

6 Very Satisfied

Knowing the student as an individual.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

Encouraging students to assume responsibility for their education by helping them develop planning, problem-solving, and decision-making skills.

How important is this advising function to you?

- 1 Not Important
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Important

How satisfied are you with the advising you receive on this function?

- 1 Not Satisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Very Satisfied

For the next series of questions, indicate your level of agreement.

It is important to develop an advisor/advisee relationship with someone on campus.

- 1 Strongly Disagree

- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

There should be mandatory academic advising for students.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

43) I know what requirements (e.g., major, general education, other university requirements) I must fulfill in order to earn my degree.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I understand how things work at Name of Institution (timelines, policies, and procedures with regard to registration, financial aid, grading, graduation, petition and appeals, etc.)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I understand how my academic choices at Name of Institution connect to my career and life goals.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

When I take a new course I think about how what I am learning in that course to what I have learned in other courses. ***

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3

- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

***This is a new learning outcome added in 2014, subsequent to the publication of our article in the NACACDA Journal on learning outcomes of advising.

When I have a problem, I know where at Name of Institution I can go to get help.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I have used the Degree Audit Reporting System (DARS) (or another system if applicable).

- No
- Yes

DARS (or another system if applicable) is helpful in understanding academic requirements at Name of Institution and tracking progress toward my degree.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6 Strongly Agree

I believe I have been accurately advised by faculty or staff at Name of Institution.

- Yes
- No

If no, what consequences resulted from the advising inaccuracy? (check all that apply)

- I have had to delay my graduation in order to take one or more additional classes.
- I have petitioned for an exception to an academic requirement.
- I have had to take one or more classes that I later discovered I didn't need (for university students "to graduate" was added).
- I took a course that did not transfer as I expected. (an option for community college students)
- I was placed in a course for which I was unprepared.
- Other (please specify)

If you selected other, please specify

51) Please use the space below to comment about any aspect of advising at Name of institution:

Appendix D

ICC Modified Instrument: 22 items

(Original: Arasaratnam 2009; Modified Arasaratnam, Banerjee, Dembek, 2010)

Each item should be accompanied by a 5-point Likert-type scale (as below) or a 7-point scale where '4' is the neutral number.

Strongly Disagree (1); Disagree (2); Neutral (3); Agree (4); Strongly Agree (5)

I often find it difficult to differentiate between similar cultures (Ex: Asians, Europeans, Africans, etc.)

I feel that people from other cultures have many valuable things to teach me.

Most of my close friends are from other cultures.

I feel a sense of belonging to a group of people based on relationship (family, friends) instead of cultural identity (people from my culture, people from other cultures).

I feel more comfortable with people from my own culture than with people from other cultures

I usually change the way I communicate depending with whom I am communicating

I find it easier to categorize people based on their cultural identity than their personality

I feel closer to people with whom I have a good relationship, regardless of whether they belong to my culture or not

When I interact with someone from a different culture I usually try to adapt some of his/her ways

I often notice similarities in personality between people who belong to completely different cultures

I usually feel closer to people who are from my own culture because I can relate to them better

Most of my friends are from my own culture

If I were to put people in groups, I will group them by their culture than their personality

I usually look for opportunities to interact with people from other cultures

I feel more comfortable with people who are open to people from other cultures than people who are not

I enjoy getting to know people from other cultures.

I usually relate better to people with whom I have similar experiences, regardless of their cultural background. (addition)

When I interact with someone from a different culture I usually look for feedback/cues to monitor whether I am communicating clearly

I feel it is important to have friends from different cultures

In my experience, I find that people from another country are similar to others from that country, but people from my country are quite different from one another

When I communicate with someone from a different culture I usually listen more than talk

References:

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Appendix E

Date: 2-2-2022

IRB #: PRO-FY2021-200

Title: The Impact of Intercultural Communication Competence on Academic Advising at an American-style University in the Middle East

Creation Date: 12-8-2020

End Date:

Status: **Approved**

Principal Investigator: Tara Pylate

Review Board: University of Memphis

Sponsor:

Study History

Submission Type	Initial	Review Type	Exempt	Decision	Exempt
Submission Type	Modification	Review Type	Exempt	Decision	Exempt

Key Study Contacts

Member	Ronald Platt	Role	Co-Principal Investigator	Contact	replatt@memphis.edu
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Member	Tara Pylate	Role	Principal Investigator	Contact	tpylate@memphis.edu
Member	Tara Pylate	Role	Primary Contact	Contact	tpylate@memphis.edu

Thank you for sending your relevant application documents to the AUN IRB.
The AUN IRB assessment process for your application is now complete. Your study with the title "The Impact of Intercultural Communication Competence on Academic Advising at an American-style University in West Africa" *has* been approved.

CONGRATULATIONS!!!!!!!

Please find below, relevant details regarding the approval:

Protocol Title: The Impact of Intercultural Communication Competence on Academic Advising at an American-style University in West Africa.

Protocol Number: PRO-22-04-03

Approval Code: AUN-22-05-01

Effective Date: 05-05-2022

Expiration Date: 05-05-2023

AUN IRB Review Action: APPROVED with minimal revisions requested.

In addition, please note the following conditions associated with the approval:

1. *The Approval by the AUN IRB for this protocol will lapse after one year, on 05-05-2023.*

2. Approval by the AUN IRB does not guarantee access to any particular site, individual, or data. It is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to make the appropriate contacts and obtain written permission(s) from any cooperating institutions and the consent of study subjects before conducting your research. Participation in this research must be strictly voluntary, and the informed-consent document and process, as approved by the AUN IRB, must be followed.

3. You must conduct your research in accordance with this AUN IRB-approved protocol. An amendment must be submitted to the AUN IRB and approved *prior* to making any changes to your research.

4. The AUN IRB has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

We wish you the best of success as you conduct your research.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the AUN IRB office at irb@aun.edu.ng.

Sincerely,

Philip Shallsuku, PhD
Chair, AUN IRB

Appendix F

Institutional Review Board
Division of Research and Innovation
Office of Research Compliance
University of Memphis
315 Admin Bldg
Memphis, TN 38152-3370

January 25, 2022

PI Name: Tara Pylate
Co-Investigators:
Advisor and/or Co-PI: Ronald Platt
Submission Type: Modification
Title: The Impact of Intercultural Communication Competence on Academic Advising at an American-style University in the Middle East
IRB ID: #PRO-FY2021-200
Level of Review: Exempt

Approval: January 25, 2022
Expiration: --*

The University of Memphis Institutional Review Board, FWA00006815, has reviewed your submission in accordance with all applicable statuses and regulations as well as ethical principles.

The modification is approved.

Approval of this project is given with the following obligations:

1. This IRB approval for modification has an expiration date, an approved renewal must be in effect to continue the project prior to that date. If approval is not obtained, the human subjects consent form(s) and recruiting material(s) are no longer valid and any research activities involving human subjects must stop.
2. When the project is finished a completion form must be submitted.
3. No change may be made in the approved protocol without prior board approval.
4. Human subjects training is required every 2 years and is to be kept current at citiprogram.org.

**Modifications do not extend the expiration of the original approval*

Thank you,
James P. Whelan, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board Chair
The University of Memphis.

Appendix G

Survey Instrument Permission

2 ✓ 🔍 ✓ ☰



Janine Allen <allenjm@pdx.edu>

To: You
Cc: Cathleen Smith

← ↶ ↷ ...

Wed 12/9/2020 4:31 PM



2 attachments (75 KB) ☁ Save all to OneDrive ↓ Download all

Dear Tara,

Thank you for your interest in our research. You have our permission to use our survey - Inventory of Academic Advising - Student Version - in your dissertation research. We ask only that you credit us for the survey's development. We have attached a copy of the instrument and a list of articles from refereed journals which describe studies that used the instrument and/or its companion survey.

Good luck with your research. Let us know if you have any questions.

Best Regards,

Janine Allen and Cathleen Smith

...

Janine M. Allen, Ph. D.
Professor Emerita
Graduate School of Education
Portland State University

allenjm@pdx.edu

Survey Instrument Permission

1 ✓ 🔍 ✓



Lily Arasaratnam-Smith <lily.arasaratnam-smith@ac.edu.au>

To: You

← ↶ ↷ ...

Wed 12/9/2020 12:42 AM



Dear Tara,

Thank you for your email. As this is a published instrument, you are welcome to use it with the relevant citation. I have attached its latest iteration, although a more recent study was done in Portugal with the instrument translated into Portuguese. However, the attached contains all the key items. Wish you all the best with your research!

Lily Arasaratnam-Smith



ALPHACRUCIS COLLEGE

Professor Lily A. Arasaratnam-Smith
Deputy Vice President Student Affairs
Chair of Academic Board

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