CHAPTER 13.

"IT'S COMPLICATED": SCHEDULING AS AN INTELLECTUAL, NETWORKED SOCIAL JUSTICE ISSUE FOR WPAS

Julia Voss and Kathryn Bruchmann
Santa Clara University

Scheduling isn't a task most rhetoric and composition program administrators (hereafter WPAs) enjoy (Crowley, 2002; Holmstein, 2002). The Portland Resolution (Hult et al., 1992) buries scheduling toward the bottom of its list of WPA responsibilities, signaling its low status by grouping it with mundane bureaucratic work. Scheduling is the ultimate managerial task, connecting WPAs to local institutional networks populated with upper administrators, instructors, and students, linked together by policies and resources. The responsibilities and priorities of these stakeholders and the values built into the policies that guide their work—shaped by the financial, labor, and space resources available in the local institutional ecology—determine the conditions for writing instruction, helping dictate the extent to which writing programs can provide the just and effective teaching and learning conditions that define disciplinary best practices.

Despite the role scheduling plays in constituting institutional networks and enacting disciplinary knowledge about writing instruction, the process of course scheduling has not been systematically examined in the WPA literature (Voss, 2020). To begin filling this gap, this study reports on survey data on course scheduling from 120 North American colleges and universities, providing preliminary findings about the impacts of different network configurations on the course scheduling process and the types of classrooms in which writing courses are taught. We also consider how institutional and student body characteristics affect these outcomes. Our findings begin to outline current practices, suggesting avenues for intervention at the local, disciplinary, and professional levels.

REAPPRAISING COURSE AND CLASSROOM SCHEDULING FROM A NETWORK PERSPECTIVE

Course Scheduling

Our field's lack of knowledge about course scheduling raises questions about how these managerial systems affect writing programs' ability to deliver instruction that meets disciplinary standards and ideals. Despite the research on the impact of class size and course load on outcomes (Farrell & Jensen, 2000; Haswell, 2004; Horning, 2007), WPA scholars have not yet researched how decisions about course scheduling and classroom placement are made or how these decisions affect instruction. Although WPAs are responsible for ensuring the working conditions the Wyoming Resolution (Robertson et al., 1987) and Indianapolis Resolution (Cox et al., 2016) articulate, their ability to do so has been hampered by the framing of managerial work as non-bureaucratic (Strickland, 2011). While labor-focused WPA scholarship has addressed managerial concerns like staffing, it has typically done so through case studies of individual programs and accounts from contingent faculty, attending to the qualitative but lacking a quantitative perspective. As a result, writing studies' tendency to dismiss the managerial aspects of WPA by reconceptualizing them theoretically or framing them locally/anecdotally fails to account for its structural, systematic nature and its effects on writing instruction. Scheduling is a task that is institutionally embedded and connected to other stakeholders through local networks, but guided by disciplinary knowledge and local data, making it a complex intellectual task.

Classroom Scheduling

In addition to developing the schedule of courses, scheduling also includes the placement of courses into classrooms, another neglected aspect of WPA work that draws writing programs into other networks of stakeholders. The Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) Position Statement on the Principles for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing (2015) asserted that reasonable working conditions are an integral part of writing pedagogy: "Instructors also require adequate resources—including (but not limited to) time, reasonable class sizes, and physical surroundings—to provide sound writing instruction" (Adler-Kassner et al., para. 28). Advocacy relating to physical working conditions has focused on faculty offices, computers, and copy machines (LaFrance & Cox, 2017). However, less attention has been paid to the working conditions found in teaching spaces. There has been little published on classrooms more broadly, especially the traditional classrooms in which most writing classes are taught, featuring stationary desks set in rows and a front "stage" area for the

teacher containing the room's display technologies. As Bre Garrett and Matthew Dowell argue in their collection chapter on accessible conference design, the design of physical spaces like classrooms is an essential consideration for writing studies and writing programs.

Considering classroom design specifically, Todd Taylor (2006) links the design of the traditional classroom to a teacher-centered, lecture-based pedagogy, where passive students listen to an instructor occupying a position of focus and authority at the front of the room. As Garrett and Dowell remind us in their chapter, this design and respective pedagogies makes numerous able-bodied assumptions about how—and even whether—students will enter and navigate the classroom and how they will create and consume knowledge within it. On the other hand, process-oriented writing instruction, Taylor argued, is "student-focused" and engages students in small group work, group and solo composing, and large group discussion, with the instructor serving as a guide and mentor who works as much with individual students and small groups as with the class as a whole, aligning with "active learning" pedagogies advocated throughout higher education in the twenty-first century.[1] While process-oriented teaching and active learning have often failed to explicitly address accessibility, there are strong parallels between the problematic normative ability assumptions made by teacher-centered instruction and the traditional classrooms designed to facilitate it.

While the small body of work on classrooms in writing studies discusses the benefits of active learning for all students,[2] scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) research on active learning in science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) suggests that these methods are particularly important for students marginalized because of their gender, race, and class, resulting in improved self-concept (Colbeck et al., 2001) and narrowed achievement gaps (Phuong et

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1   Michael Prince (2004) characterizes active learning pedagogy as defined by a) low-stakes activities where students think about what they're learning and take responsibility for clarifying their understanding, b) collaborative/cooperative group work in which students work together on a structured learning task, and c) problem-based approaches that use a problem throughout a learning cycle to provide context and practice as students are introduced to content knowledge. These principles align closely with the process-based writing Taylor (2006) and others describe as best practices in writing pedagogy.

2   Scholarship in computers and composition and writing centers provides the most robust discussion of design and creation of writing labs/studios (see Carpenter, 2016; Charlton, 2014; Kim & Carpenter, 2017; Purdy & DeVoss, 2017). Most of this literature, however, is focused on one-off, specially-designed classrooms, studios, and centers, which are not representative of the classrooms in which most writing courses are taught. According to this study, the percentage of writing courses taught in computer classrooms ranges from 12% (advanced writing courses) to 36% (technical writing courses) and the percentage of writing courses taught in active learning classrooms ranges from 4% (basic, English Language Learning, and technical writing courses) to 18% (rhetoric/writing major courses).

al., 2017), especially when taught in classrooms designed specifically to facilitate active learning (Brooks, 2012). Merging writing studies' and SoTL's traditions of pedagogical research, unanswered questions emerge for WPAs: to what extent is writing being taught in classrooms designed for active learning that support process-based writing pedagogy? How do different network configurations of scheduling stakeholders and institutional ecologies affect the classrooms in which writing is taught?

NETWORK THINKING ABOUT SCHEDULING

Our field's lack of knowledge about administrative decision-making challenges our ability to translate writing studies' disciplinary knowledge into practice, especially when it comes to anticipating the impact that networks composed of policies and stakeholders will have on writing instruction. Working with institutional stakeholders in charge of enrollment, curriculum, facilities, staffing, budgets, and other infrastructural elements of writing instruction is a central feature of WPA work (Phelps, 1991, 2017; Porter et al., 2000), especially when it comes to delivering on the empowering and social justice goals our field espouses (Miller, 1998).

As Michelle Reiff et al. (2015) explained, to understand how writing programs operate and the constraints that often challenge the implementation of best practices, scholars must study writing programs as embedded in complex institutional ecologies and focus on interactions between writing programs and other institutional stakeholders, to which Bryna Siegal Finer and Jamie White-Farnham's (2017) architecture approach to WPA work adds an emphasis on transfer across institutions. While both collections take individual writing programs as the unit of analysis, our study adopts a similar focus on the networked position of writing programs within universities but shifts to a broad cross-section across institutions. Likewise, our study focuses on the interconnectedness of writing programs within institutions, linking network characteristics to scheduling outcomes that enable WPAs to a) see their own program's infrastructural position from this networked perspective and b) use our findings to argue for change based on institutional characteristics.

We also adapt the whole systems approach to WPA work developed by Michelle Cox et al. (2018) to "understand the system in order to focus on points of interactivity and change" (p. 65), breaking open what Douglas Walls and Leslie Wolcott (2017) describe as the black box constituted by a functioning writing instruction system to reveal the network's constituent actors and the connections between them to focus on network stakeholders, connections, and rules (Lin, 1999). While Cox et al. focus on understanding networks inside

institutions as a diagnostic activity to support the foundation of new writing programs/initiatives, our focus on scheduling applies network analysis to processes already underway, focusing on finding relationships between different configurations of stakeholders, institutional characteristics, and course/classroom scheduling outcomes.

METHOD

We surveyed North American WPAs (N=132 respondents representing 120 schools[3]) about a) writing course and classroom scheduling procedures and b) the types of classrooms used for different courses, as well as information about their institution and program. Participants were recruited via a) an open invitation on the Writing Program Administrators listserv (WPA-L) and b) direct email invitations to WPAs/English department chairs at a representative sample of North American higher education institutions including two-year, four-year, masters-granting, and doctoral-granting institutions.[4] Participants identified themselves as serving in roles such as director of first-year composition, WAC director, writing coordinator, department chair, and dean. The sizes of the programs participants reported on (as indicated by the number of sections offered per year) varied widely, ranging from ten sections to 1250 sections annually (mean=215 sections).[5] The institutions represented in the sample were also highly varied, based on data gathered from the National Center for Education Statistics. Student body size ranged from 270 to 75,486 (mean=16,625 students). Across all schools, 83.7% of students were traditionally-aged, 55.6% of students across all institutions were female (including two women's colleges), and 60% of students were White (including one historically Black university and 21 other minority-serving institutions). Seventy-two of the universities were doctoral granting institutions, 26 were masters-granting institutions, nine were bachelors-granting institutions, and 13 were associates-granting institutions. Tuition at institutions ranged from $956 annually to over $55,000 annually (mean=$17,232).

First, survey participants described the process through which courses were scheduled at their institution. In the survey, they were asked to

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3   Reconciling the number of respondents vs. number of institutions: five schools had more than one respondent complete the survey (all of these responses were kept in the data set); seven respondents completed less than 10% of the survey (these responses were dropped).

4   Direct invitation mailing list adapted from Wooten et al. (2016).

5   Many participants noted that the courses their program offered were not evenly distributed across the academic year, with many institutions prioritizing having (especially incoming) students complete English Language Learning and/or First-Year Writing courses in the fall term to serve as prerequisites for classes they would enroll in later in the year.

identify stakeholders and describe the scheduling process. These questions were open-ended because this work was exploratory (see Appendix A). Next, participants explained the process of room scheduling at their institutions. Two independent coders (the coauthors) identified stakeholders present in the course and classroom scheduling responses, beginning with an inductive coding approach (Miles et al., 2013) to look for patterns across responses, which we simplified to seven stakeholders: WPA, Department Chair, Office Administration, Non-Teaching Office, Upper Administration, Software, and Instructors. For a variety of reasons—because WPA was the most common stakeholder title among participants; because of the administrative-centric audience for this collection, and because our research and its implications concern those who direct writing programs, regardless of their title—we use the term WPA throughout, and invite readers to translate our terminology, findings, and recommendations into the structures and policies used at their own institutions.

We returned to the data with these seven stakeholder codes, identifying the stakeholders referenced in each response and the "decision flow" for scheduling: whether the process began inside the department/program, was a collaboration with the department/program and another university office, or began outside of the department/program (either in a non-teaching office or with an upper administrator). Both co-authors coded each response (all disagreements were reconciled via discussion and review of the data). Finally, participants indicated a) how many sections their institutions offered each year of common writing courses (first-year writing, basic writing, writing courses for English language learners, business writing, technical writing, advanced writing, digital writing, rhetoric/writing major courses, and other courses) and b) the classroom types (lecture halls, traditional classrooms, computer classrooms, active learning classrooms, online, or other) used for these courses and how many sections were offered in each type of room.

RESULTS

Note on Analyses

Coded survey data were analyzed by correlating variables with one another. Correlations (r values) and significance (p values) are reported in parentheses. The value of the correlation coefficient r can range from -1 to +1. The higher the absolute value of the coefficient (r value), the stronger the relationship (either positive or negative). Positive r values mean that as one variable increases, so does the other, showing a direct relationship. Negative r values mean that as one variable increases, the other decreases, indicating an inverse relationship. The

size of r coefficients also indicates the magnitude of an association: values of +/-.10 are considered small effects, values of +/-.30 are considered medium effects, and values of +/-.50 or greater are considered large effects. The p values indicate statistical significance. The conventional indicator of statistical significance is a p value less than or equal to .05, which suggests that there is a 5% or less chance that the relationships found are due to chance.

WHO ARE THE STAKEHOLDERS IN COURSE SCHEDULING?

Responses typically discussed seven stakeholders typically involved in course scheduling (see Table 13.1 and Figure 13.1): WPA (60.00%), department chair (49.16%), office administrators (e.g., non-teaching staff working in writing program or English department, 21.67%), non-teaching offices (e.g., registrar's office, 30.00%), upper administration (typically the dean's office, 30.83%), software programs (e.g., Banner, Courseleaf, or homemade applications/databases; 9.17%,), and instructors (30.83%). The breakdown of these stakeholders across each university appeared to be fairly idiosyncratic: the only significant relationship was that if office administrators are involved in course scheduling, upper administrators are also more likely to be involved (r=.20, p=.033).

## WHAT IS THE COURSE SCHEDULING PROCESS?

62.20% of respondents reported that the decision flow for course scheduling started in the program/department, 18.40% reported that the process was an equal collaboration between the department and an outside office, and 19.40% reported that the process was started outside of the department, either with a non-teaching office or an upper administrator. The greater the total number of stakeholders in course scheduling, the more likely the decision flow started outside of the department (r=.35, p<.001).

WHO ARE THE STAKEHOLDERS IN CLASSROOM SCHEDULING?

The same seven stakeholders emerged for classroom scheduling, although in different proportions (see Table 13.1 and Figure 13.1): WPA (17.5%), department chair (16.67%), office administrators (16.67%), non-teaching offices (50.83%), upper administrator (6.7%), software programs (10%), and instructors (62.5%). We found that the involvement of individual instructors was positively associated with WPA involvement (r=.18, p=.046) and non-teaching office involvement (r=.24, p=.008), but negatively associated with office administrator involvement (r=-.24, p=.014).

Table 13.1. Percent of Respondents with Stakeholders Involved in Course and Room Scheduling

	WPA	Department Chair	Office Admins	Non-Teaching Office	Upper Admin	Software	Instructors
Course Scheduling	60.00%	49.16%	21.67%	30.00%	30.83%	9.17%	30.83%
Room Scheduling	17.50%	16.67%	16.67%	50.83%	6.70%	10%	62.50%
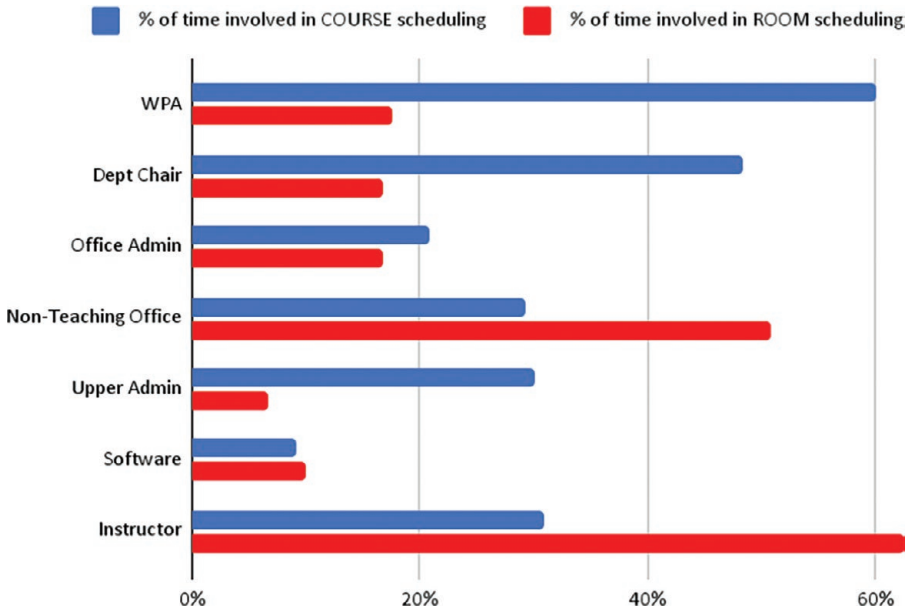
Figure 13.1. Percent of respondents with stakeholders involved in course and room scheduling.

WHAT TYPES OF CLASSROOMS ARE USED?

Writing courses were taught in all types of classrooms (see Table 13.2 and Figure 13.2 for proportions of each writing course taught in each classroom type). Across all types of courses, traditional classrooms were the most common.

What Predicts the Kinds of Classrooms Used for First-Year Writing?

To determine what predicted the use of different types of classrooms for first-year writing (FYW) courses (the most common course offered by the programs

included in this study), we ran a series of correlations between the other variables and classroom type. We describe significant predictors related to characteristics of the universities, their student bodies, and their course and room scheduling procedures.

Table 13.2. Percent of Courses Taught in Each Type of Classroom*

	Basic Writing	First-Year Writing	English Language Learning	Advanced Writing	Business Writing
	N=1377	N=12070	N=756	N=2188	N=357
Lecture Hall	0.22%	3.99%	0.26%	6.44%	0.56%
Traditional Classroom	49.82%	57.59%	65.87%	51.87%	47.06%
Computer Classroom	35.08%	19.42%	25.00%	12.25%	24.93%
Active Classroom	3.56%	6.40%	4.10%	5.07%	10.92%
Online	5.45%	10.79%	1.32%	10.19%	12.89%
Other Classroom	5.88%	1.82%	3.44%	14.17%	3.64%

	Technical Writing	Digital Writing	Rhetoric/ Writing Major	Other
	N=487	N=528	N=174	N=1520
Lecture Hall	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.26%
Traditional Classroom	34.29%	56.82%	58.05%	67.37%
Computer Classroom	35.52%	30.30%	16.67%	11.38%
Active Classroom	4.31%	9.85%	17.82%	5.20%
Online	20.94%	3.03%	7.47%	7.96%
Other Classroom	4.93%	0.00%	0.00%	7.83%

* While basic writing, first-year writing, and English language learning courses are lower division courses (typically taken in students' first year at the university), advanced writing, business writing, technical writing, digital writing, and rhetoric/writing major courses might be either upper or lower division courses.
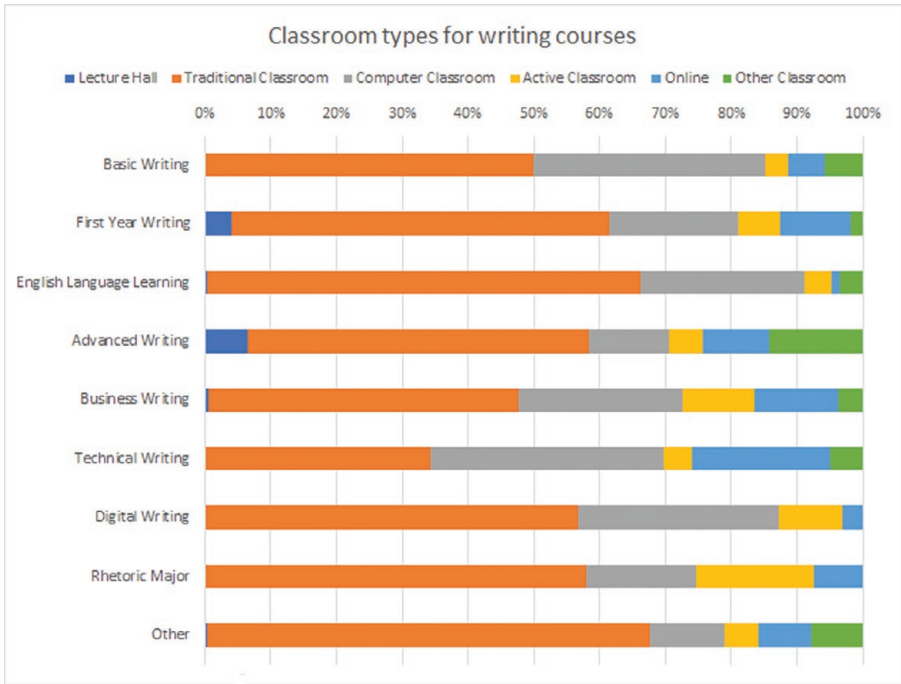
Figure 13.2. Percent of courses taught in each type of classroom.

INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Interestingly, the student body size of an institution was not associated with the type of classroom used for FYW courses. However, the higher the institution's admission rate, the more likely that FYW classes are taught online ($r=.27$, $p=.02$).

Faculty appointment type also predicts classroom usage. The higher the percentage of full-time instructors at a university,[6] the more likely FYW courses are taught in traditional classrooms ($r=.36$, $p=.001$), and the less likely FYW courses are taught in computer classrooms ($r=-.24$, $p=.027$) or online ($r=-.36$, p=.001).

STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

In general, the racial demographics of the student body seem to be related to the types of classrooms used for FYW courses. Online classes are more likely for

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6   Faculty appointment type data was obtained from the National Center for Education Statistics for the institution as a whole; these statistics are not specific to the writing program, which categorizes faculty in terms of part-time or full-time employment, meaning that "full-time instructor" includes both tenure-track faculty and full-time non-tenure-track faculty.

schools with higher percentages of Native American (r=.29, p=.006) and Native Hawaiian students (r=.22, p=.036). A higher proportion of Black students is also associated with increased chances of teaching FYW in lecture halls (r=.49, p<.001), and lower chances of using traditional classrooms (r=-.31, p=.003). And the greater the proportion of White students, the more likely traditional classrooms are used for FYW courses (r=.22, p=.004). Taken together, these findings suggest that the more Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) students are enrolled at an institution, the more likely FYW courses are to be taught in rooms that challenge many best practices in writing pedagogy.

Features indicating the wealth of both universities and students are also related to the types of FYW classrooms used. For example, the higher a school's annual tuition, the more likely FYW will be taught in active classrooms (r=.31, p=.004), the less likely it will be taught online (r=.26, p=.015), and the more likely it will be taught in "other" classrooms such as seminar rooms (r=.26, p=.015). Students at institutions with larger Pell Grant-eligible populations are also marginally less likely to take FYW in active classrooms (r=-.20, p=.066). In other words, classrooms designed to promote process-based, active learning pedagogies are used more often for writing instruction at institutions with Whiter and wealthier student populations.

COURSE AND ROOM SCHEDULING CHARACTERISTICS

In general, course scheduling stakeholders were not related to the types of classrooms used for FYW courses, barring two exceptions:

- When department chairs were involved with scheduling courses, FYW was less likely to be taught in traditional classrooms (r=-.22, p=.043) and more likely to be taught in "other" classrooms (r=.37, p=.005).
- When office administrators were involved in course scheduling, FYW was less likely to be taught in lecture halls (r=.31, p=.004).

DISCUSSION

Taken together, our findings draw important parallels between the configurations of stakeholders involved in scheduling networks, showing the benefits of involving WPAs and department chairs, including a smaller number of scheduling stakeholders, and pointing to the problematic outcomes associated with involving both non-teaching stakeholders and individual instructors in making course and classroom scheduling decisions. Troublingly, our findings about the relationship between institutional/student characteristics and classroom type also illustrate how inequality manifests materially in different institutional ecologies.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COURSE SCHEDULING PROCESSES

When it comes to course scheduling, although WPAs were the most frequent stakeholders found in scheduling networks, they were involved only 60% of the time. The roles played by upper administrators and non-teaching offices (especially the registrar) were expected, as well as instructors. However, the significant role played by office administrators—administrative staff who work in writing programs, English departments, dean's offices, and other campus units—was surprising and somewhat troubling. Participants described office administrative staff playing a variety of roles in course scheduling, listed here from exerting least to most influence on the process:

- Submitting course schedule to upper admin/non-teaching office/ scheduling software (schedule created by WPA/department chair).
- Assisting WPA/department chair in creating course schedule.
- Creating template adapted by WPA/department chair to build each year's course schedule.
- Creating course schedule.

While the labor involved in scheduling certainly encourages the involvement of office administrative staff, the survey results question what role these stakeholders should play, especially in light of Deborah Bickford's (2002) caution that when non-teaching staff are responsible for making decisions that impact pedagogy, their experience and job priorities may guide them to privilege efficiency and economy over student learning.

Thinking about scheduling in network terms also draws our attention to the configuration of the network as a whole. Cox et al. (2018) call on WPAs to identify and leverage the multiple stakeholders invested in writing across campus to tap into additional resources. If we read drafting the initial version of the course schedule as a sign of the writing program's authority to implement (at least some) instructional best practices, the involvement of department chairs in the scheduling process (49% of cases) makes this more likely. Conversely, if a non-teaching office (like the registrar or enrollment management office, 31% of cases) or scheduling software (9% of cases) is involved, the schedule of courses is less likely to begin inside the writing program or department. Furthermore, the more stakeholders included in the scheduling network, the more likely the initial schedule of writing courses is to be created outside of the department. Taken together, these findings suggest potential costs to expanding the network of campus writing stakeholders, an issue John Tassoni, in this collection, also considers when tracing the cross-institutional circulation of discourse about basic writing and how these competing and often problematic views have permanently

relegated basic writing to marginal, invisible status. While writing programs' networked connections with other campus stakeholders may provide opportunities for advocacy and shaping policy, the location of and competing demands on these many stakeholders may impede writing instruction.

Our data are also somewhat ambivalent about the significance of writing programs developing the initial course schedule, given scheduling networks' guiding logics. Although the writing program/department drafts the initial version of the schedule for writing courses in a majority of cases (62%), many respondents explained that the scheduling choices they made were dictated by the requirements of outside stakeholders to optimize space/staff utilization rather than pedagogical best practices. Accounts like these call into question how much autonomy network-embedded writing programs have in scheduling, even when they draft the initial course schedule, given that writing programs often operate according to the enrollment-driven logics set by other network stakeholders. The amount of influence WPAs exert within the scheduling system varied widely. On the one hand, cases where WPAs play a primary role in scheduling or negotiating the schedule with other stakeholders illustrate ways WPAs can promote effective and equitable conditions for writing instruction by working with other network stakeholders and ecological resources. On the other, cases where WPAs have limited power show how their exclusion from the scheduling process impedes the kinds of writing instruction endorsed by the CCCC Position Statement on the Principles for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing (Adler-Kassner et al., 2015).

Our findings map out the typical stakeholders included in scheduling networks, noting their impact on scheduling processes, especially the unexpected role played by office admin staff. Returning to Cox et al.'s (2018) argument for seeking out campus writing stakeholders, we found that WPAs are already connected via scheduling networks to numerous stakeholders, but that the influence of some of these stakeholders can have negative consequences for the delivery of writing instruction. This suggests that WPAs might use the work of scheduling—in addition to negotiations over funding, curriculum change, assessment, and other institutional processes—as another opportunity to educate other local stakeholders about writing studies' pedagogical knowledge and shift the campus writing culture.

IMPLICATIONS OF CLASSROOM SCHEDULING PROCESSES

Many of the same stakeholders are involved in both course and classroom scheduling, but the proportions are often reversed. Most WPAs (82% of cases) did not have a role in assigning classrooms to writing courses. The 18% of cases where

WPAs did play an active role in classroom scheduling show the amount of labor some devote to this work, often because WPAs lack a formal role in the room scheduling process and rely on modifying room assignments made by other primary stakeholders:

> A staff member in our Registrar's office assigns classrooms. . . . I review their locations in an online "Class Search" utility. If I don't recognize a room, I walk over to the building and look in the classroom. If it's locked, I do my best to look in the windows. If it's open, I go in and count chairs, determine how much flexibility the instructor might have (e.g., can chairs and tables be moved for group work?), etc. If anything's unworkable or objectionable, I contact the Registar's [sic] staff member to see if we have any wiggle room. Classroom space can be surprisingly tight, which can get pretty frustrating.

This reference to the limited availability of alternate classrooms reflects a related institutional ecology issue many respondents raised about classroom shortages and their effect on writing instruction. This finding adds criteria that should be considered in campus occupancy rates: rather than focusing only on general room availability, reporting on the availability of *appropriate* classrooms would better illustrate the (unmet) spatial needs of the writing program as an ecological constraint on writing instruction. Furthermore, in cases where classroom occupancy rates are high and competition for rooms is fierce, as illustrated in the quote above, lacking a formal place in the classroom scheduling process excludes many WPAs from the (partial) agency many exert over course scheduling, forcing WPAs to forge weak, informal, or unsustainable connections to scheduling network stakeholders.

Many WPA respondents who did report working on room scheduling selected courses not based on the rooms' suitability for writing instruction, but based on their locations, prioritizing placing instructors in the same room or building to accommodate back-to-back teaching schedules. While these logistical considerations are important, this view of classrooms as an insignificant aspect of teaching was also reflected in the fact that instructors (63% of cases) and non-teaching offices (51% of cases) play a larger role in classroom scheduling than in course scheduling. These findings suggest that classroom placement is other viewed either as

- A matter of individual instructor preference, rather than a systematic programmatic effort to match pedagogy to classroom infrastructure,

typically communicated by instructors directly to the room scheduler as a classroom change request (a retrofit), or

- A non-pedagogical issue appropriate to a non-teaching office (such as the Registrar) that prioritizes efficient matching of class size and room capacity, often without considering the room's material affordances for teaching and learning.

The combined effects of scheduling networks not designed to account for pedagogy are reflected in responses like the following: "Lisa our admin [handles classroom scheduling], but then there's another process where you ask Lisa to help you find a different (a "smart") room. She is good friends with Angela in scheduling" (names have been replaced with pseudonyms). This response highlights the lack of systematic attention to classroom conditions within the writing program, and how systems that downplay the importance of learning spaces place classroom scheduling decisions in the hands of instructors and office admin staff. Another response illustrates the sustainability issues created by relying on such workarounds to official systems: "The person who assigned the rooms just retired two days ago, so we don't know what's going to happen." Without a structural role in an institution's classroom scheduling network, programs will be unable to systematically advocate for classrooms that promote active, process-based writing instruction.

The effects of deferring classroom scheduling decisions to instructors' preferences helps account for one of our surprising findings: the more full-time instructors at an institution, the more likely FYW courses are to be taught in traditional classrooms. This is somewhat surprising because higher proportions of full-time instructors are typically linked with the kinds of improved teaching and faculty development opportunities described in the criteria for the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) Writing Program Certificate of Excellence (2018). Respondents suggest one reason why more full-time instructors may result in more traditional classrooms and fewer computer classrooms: some noted that instructors in their programs prefer to teach in traditional classrooms because instructors find it easier to curb digital distraction and side conversations (that is, police student behavior) in this environment, despite the obstacles these rooms can pose to active, process-based writing instruction. As more firmly situated institutional citizens, full-time instructors are more likely to have the local knowledge and capital required to request preferred classrooms. Mara Lee Grayson's chapter in this collection offers a cautionary parallel, describing how non-tenure track instructors' deficit thinking about BIPOC students circulated within a writing program, running parallel to and undermining the efforts of the network of tenure track faculty and other institutional

stakeholders working to reform the program's curriculum. When WPAs concentrate on working with external stakeholders across their institutions, they ignore in-program networks at their peril. Where classroom scheduling is concerned, when WPAs don't work to connect themselves to in-program networks that circulate information among instructors, they miss opportunities to draw teachers' attention to the relationship between space and learning. In such cases, accepted practice and lore can guide instructors to select classrooms that do not facilitate social, embodied, process-based approaches to writing instruction. The local policies that determine which stakeholders populate classroom scheduling networks—especially when combined with institutional characteristics like available classroom resources and procedures like rigid performance evaluation metrics—can promote classroom placements that do not support best practices in writing instruction.

Scheduling networks that exclude the WPA defer classroom placement decisions to those without pedagogical expertise or to instructors who may be motivated by concerns that don't align with disciplinary best practices. The current composition of most scheduling networks requires writing programs to rely on workarounds and instructor preference to access effective writing classrooms, an unreliable and unsustainable tactic.

INSTITUTIONAL AND STUDENT EQUITY CONCERNS RELATING TO ACCESS TO APPROPRIATE WRITING CLASSROOMS

Considering institutional and student body characteristics highlights the extent to which the local scheduling networks we focus on here are embedded within larger racial and economic systems that structure access to resources. Overall, our respondents reported that traditional classrooms were the most common classroom type for FYW (58% of cases), followed by computer classrooms (20% of cases). However, the absence of network logics that prioritize classrooms supporting interactive, process-based writing instruction was most strongly felt at institutions with larger proportions of Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) students and poor students, where lecture halls and online instruction were more common. This data points to a clear social justice issue, calling WPAs to assume more central and formal roles in classroom scheduling (see Voss, 2020 for recommendations) and that organizations like CCCC and the Council of Writing Program Administrators (CWPA) to better support these local efforts through advocacy at the disciplinary level. Our findings about the unequal distribution of active learning classrooms, lecture halls, and online instruction across institutions offer a cautionary tale of the costs to marginalized student populations when WPAs are not part of classroom scheduling networks.

Active Learning Classrooms

The use of active learning classrooms for FYW is linked to students' race and wealth: the wealthier and Whiter its population, the more likely FYW is to be taught in active learning classrooms. Although it's still rare for FYW to be taught in active learning classrooms (only 6% of cases), this finding suggests that, without the systematic intervention of WPAs, ecological conditions and the low institutional status of writing courses combine to exert considerable influence on the delivery of writing instruction, accumulating educational advantages for students already occupying positions of racial and economic privilege.

Lecture Halls

The classroom types associated with FYW taught at institutions with larger Black student populations were more problematic and show how institutionalized racism can manifest in educational infrastructure when unchecked by WPA advocacy in scheduling networks. While universities with a higher proportion of Black students were less likely to teach FYW in traditional classrooms, they were more likely to teach FYW in lecture halls, arguably the worst environment for writing instruction due to lecture halls' barriers to peer collaboration and promotion of a teacher-centered, passive mode of learning and their encouragement of extremely large class sizes.[7] Similarly, the higher the proportion of low-income students at an institution, the more likely FYW was to be taught in lecture halls. Taken together, these findings suggest that institutional context is an important factor for WPAs to consider when strategically meting out their scheduling labor: WPAs at institutions whose populations include more Black students and more low-income students may need to prioritize developing and gaining access to appropriate writing classrooms. These findings also show how familiar trends of racial and economic inequality surface when considering the physical infrastructure for writing instruction, marking this as an equity issue WPAs and the CWPA should act on. As Sehoya Cotner et al. (2013) argued, a significant body of evidence shows improved learning outcomes associated with active learning practiced within purpose-built classrooms, but due to the increased costs of building/renovating such spaces, institutions (especially the most financially-strapped ones) will require warrants to invest in active learning classrooms and allocate them to writing instruction.

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7   This finding was driven primarily by the single historically Black university in our sample: when this was removed, this correlation disappeared. This finding suggests the need to study classroom infrastructure and scheduling at HBCUs specifically (echoing calls by Sias & Moss, 2011; Jackson et al., 2019; and others to correct the underrepresentation of HBCUs in writing studies research overall), to investigate whether the tendency to teach writing in lecture halls is characteristic of HBCUs generally or whether the institution included in our sample is an anomaly.

Online Classes[8]

While Black students and low-income students are more likely to take FYW in lecture halls, our findings about the use of online FYW instruction raise questions for other racially marginalized groups. The association we found between school selectivity and online FYW instruction runs contrary to research-based recommendations for online education: well-prepared students and White students tend to do as well or better in online classes compared to in-person classes (Cavanaugh & Jacquemin, 2015). However, we found that schools with larger Native American and Native Hawaiian student populations (which don't map onto selective institutions) offer more online FYW courses. This delivery format makes sense, given a) the "education deserts" (Hillman, 2016) found in rural areas of the US where many reservations are located and b) Hawaii's small number of colleges. These conditions may encourage Native American and Native Hawaiian students to enroll in distance learning FYW courses to compensate for the lack of higher education opportunities near home. However, while online delivery addresses the lack of local options, research on distance learning outcomes (Xu & Jaggars, 2014) suggests that BIPOC students in online courses tend to fare worse than their White peers, likely because remote instruction strips away the on-campus community support that can counter the White supremacist norms that implicitly or explicitly underpin most college curricula.

In cases where in-person FYW courses are not an option, our findings suggest that WPAs carefully attend to which students are enrolling their online FYW courses and make sure curricula are designed and instructors are trained to support marginalized student populations where they represent important populations of online students (see Davila et al., 2017). This is especially important for FYW courses, which are often the only small, interactive course first-year students take, raising the stakes for online FYW instruction even higher. In light of this information, WPAs may need to seek out new campus stakeholders, for example, working with offices of institutional research to assess the effects of different educational delivery formats on different student demographics in order to redesign curricula to support student success and with teaching centers to fund targeted faculty development. This finding illustrates how engaging substantively with one local network (scheduling) might result in WPAs becoming a central nexus point linking together multiple additional local networks of information flow and decision making.

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8   This survey was conducted in 2017–2018, before the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has dramatically changed students' exposure to online instruction and sparked an explosion of work developing online pedagogies designed for equity and inclusion.

Attending to the relationships between student/institutional characteristics and classrooms highlights several equity concerns relating to the physical environment for FYW instruction. Our findings suggest courses of specific action for WPAs, based on local data, and a larger, network-based role for WPA work within the institution to advocate for classroom space as an educational justice issue.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROGRAM ADMINISTRATORS

Our data on the networks and network logistics shaping the delivery of writing instruction connects writing program management to writing studies' disciplinary knowledge and commitments, suggesting ways to implement the field's liberatory ideals in the institutional ecologies within which writing is taught. We tease out the effects of institutional policies and habits on course scheduling and go beyond anecdotal senses of the connections between student characteristics and course delivery to draw correlations to suggest courses of action to WPAs that are specific to the student populations they serve. As Louise Phelps (2017) argued, extending WPAs' work from basic management of program logistics to working across institutional levels assumes the full responsibility of administration as intellectual labor that WPA work *should* entail, positioning WPAs to occupy a central role in institutional scheduling networks. Working across these institutional levels necessitates that WPAs see themselves as significant stakeholder-nodes, and calls WPAs to attend to things like network composition, density, and logic. Furthermore, our findings about classroom scheduling underscore the importance of recognizing these decision-making networks as located within larger local, regional, and national ecologies shaped by the characteristics of institutions and their students.

Our findings recommend actions for individual WPAs and rhetoric and composition administrators to take in course and classroom scheduling and pose questions for future administrator scholars. These findings also have implications for disciplinary organizations, suggesting revisions to existing position statements and/or the drafting of new position statements to help WPAs educate scheduling stakeholders and shift local network logics. Therefore, we offer recommendations for individual WPAs, WPA researchers, and disciplinary organizations like CCCC and CWPA.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR WPAS IN LOCAL SCHEDULING NETWORKS

Stakeholders Outside the Writing Program: as one stakeholder among many, WPAs will not be able to single-handedly change problematic policies like reliance on scheduling software or enrollment-driven economizing. However,

returning to Cox et al.'s (2018) network approach to WPA work, WPAs can conceive of these other actors as stakeholders in the campus writing infrastructure and work with them to embed the disciplinary knowledge and best practices of writing studies into scheduling logics. To do this, WPAs can initiate conversations—supported by local data, disciplinary guidelines, and empirical research—about the goals and competing demands of scheduling outside the fraught, hectic scheduling process, investing in such conversations in the long term to strengthen their network connections to other stakeholders in the hopes of shifting the logics that drive scheduling.

Where classroom scheduling is concerned, WPAs' work to place FYW into computer classrooms (19% of cases) is instructive, reflecting the tradition within the computers and composition subfield of working within local institutional networks to develop and maintain digital writing labs and studios (see McAllister & Selfe, 2002; Purdy & DeVoss, 2017; Selfe, 2005). Reflecting learning outcome commitments described in the computers and composition literature, survey respondents described developing scheduling policies with other network stakeholders (such as computer science departments or the registrar) to place FYW courses in computer labs in exchange for committing to digital literacy learning outcomes for FYW. This example illustrates how WPAs can—in collaboration with other stakeholders—introduce new policies into scheduling networks by enacting changes within their programs. For example, WPAs could argue for access to writing-conducive classrooms in exchange for committing to more capacious writing-related learning outcomes—such as accreditation standards related to teamwork and public speaking—facilitated by active learning classroom features.

Stakeholders Inside the Writing Program: because of the labor course scheduling entails, involving office admin staff makes sense, but—especially when they take a leading role in developing the course schedule—WPAs need to provide guidelines and background information about how to balance competing demands to ensure that things like class sizes, course loads, and teaching schedules reflect the CCCC guidelines for effective and ethical writing instruction.

The role instructors play in classroom scheduling, especially, points to the connections between larger institutional scheduling networks/logics and program-specific policies for instructor training and evaluation. At the programmatic level, the changes recommended above involve substantial infrastructural changes to the schedules, classrooms, and outcomes of writing courses. WPAs will need to support instructors throughout this process of programmatic change with transparency, professional development opportunities, changes to evaluation procedures, and other measures to help instructors buy into and thrive in the new teaching and learning conditions WPAs are working to promote.

Recommendations for Future WPA Research

Replication Studies: while this study has mapped out typical stakeholders and procedures involved in course and classroom scheduling via open-response questions, future research can create a controlled vocabulary of scheduling network stakeholders and logics and for future research, enabling greater consistency and scope for data collection.

More Information about Writing Program Ecologies: we did not ask about campus classroom inventory/access, class size, teaching load, or instructor population, all of which shape campus writing ecologies. We also did not directly examine the relationship between institutional wealth and course or classroom scheduling. Given the high cost required to build and maintain new and existing classrooms (especially computer classrooms, active learning classrooms, and other innovative learning spaces), factoring institutional wealth measures like endowment size into analyses of course and classroom scheduling processes (especially in tandem with institution type) will add valuable theoretical and practical information to our findings here. Future research should account for these and other ecological conditions, especially to interrogate their connections to racial and economic inequality.

Linking Instructional Delivery to Student Learning: local assessment data is needed to further understand the impact of course and classroom scheduling. What impact do course and classroom scheduling procedures, classroom type, and other ecological factors have on student learning, measured in terms of FYW learning outcomes and student performance, especially when student and institutional characteristics are taken into account?

Recommendations for Future WPA Disciplinary and Policy Work

Address Course and Classroom Scheduling in Position Statements: as noted above, while existing CCCC and CWPA position statements briefly or implicitly reference the administrative and intellectual labor of scheduling, no position statement yet addresses these issues substantively. CWPA should draft a position statement or revise existing position statements to assert WPAs' centrality in institutional scheduling networks, similar to the way such documents already specify the responsibilities and authority WPAs should have within their own programs and departments. Similarly, statements like the Principles for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing (Adler-Kassner et al., 2015) that outline best practices in writing instruction should be expanded to discuss physical classroom infrastructure as a factor affecting social, process-based writing instruction.

Bolster Position Statements with Empirical Research: scheduling-related (and other) position statements should leverage empirical research more explicitly,

to strengthen them as warrants for making change in institutional scheduling networks. As McClure et al. (2017) argued, one reason for the uneven impact of existing position statements is that they don't uniformly draw on empirical data to support their assertions about best practices, enabling upper administrators and other outside stakeholders to dismiss the statements' recommendations as claims without evidence.[9] Empirical research is certainly not the only kind of valuable research, however, its absence is often used as a rationale in the 21st century university for dismissing proposals for change. The *CCCC Statement on White Language Supremacy* (Baca et al., 2021) models this integration of a reference list that includes empirical research alongside theoretical, cultural studies, and other research methodologies, offering a guide that can help fill in some of the methodological gaps around existing position statements, increasing their persuasive power.

CONCLUSION

Our findings about network stakeholders and logics can inform the kind of institutional landscape survey Cox et al. (2018) call for by documenting the variety of systems used at different institutional types to deliver writing instruction, noting more and less effective approaches to guide WPAs advocating for decision-making power and resources. The systems for course planning and classroom assignment described here articulate typical models and categories/types into which WPAs can place their programs, allowing for benchmarking with peer institutional standards when negotiating with upper administrators over scheduling questions. As this study's preliminary findings indicate, answering these questions facilitates not only best instructional practices but also the necessary first steps toward connecting equity measures like student learning outcomes and retention to administrative structures and material infrastructures. These findings also provide warrants within our own discipline for why WPAs should approach scheduling (and other administrative work) as a meaningful intellectual activity, similar to what Asao B. Inoue's (2022) race-conscious studies of grading have done for the work of writing assessment.

This chapter's data on the scheduling networks shaping the delivery of writing instruction connects program management to the kinds of disciplinary threshold concepts that Emily Isaacs (2018) argued WPAs, and rhetoric and composition administrators more broadly, should advocate for. While Isaacs points to

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9   Some position statements (such as the Committee on CCCC Students' Right to Their Own Language [1975] or Elder et al.'s CWPA Position Statement on Bullying in the Workplace [2019]) do include a robust reference list of peer-reviewed research supporting the claims made in the statement. Many NCTE, CCCC, and CWPA statements, however, lack such explicit linking to their supporting research.

mission statements, course descriptions, and placement procedures as evidence of programmatic (mis)alignment with disciplinary values outlined in the CWPA et al.'s Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (2011) and the CWPA WPA Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition (2014), we invite rhetoric and composition administrators to approach their scheduling work with this question: does the program's scheduling system create conditions conducive to teaching writing as a rhetorical, social, material, embodied process in ways that are inclusive of and accessible to all students? Theorizing Isaacs's recommendations in network terms, Cox et al. (2018) call rhetoric and composition administrators to "be aware of systems beyond your institution and connect those that are beneficial to the program" (p. 189-191) reminding us that we exist in three-dimensional networks where the horizontal links that constitute institutional networks are overlaid with vertical networks connecting the program and institution to outside organizations like accrediting bodies and professional organizations. We can and should mobilize these outside organizations (making changes within them as needed) to support campus-level efforts to secure effective classrooms for writing classes.

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APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONS[10]

- Name of your institution:
- Name of the program you direct:
- How many sections does the program offer each academic year?
- What types of courses does your program teach? (check all that apply; please write in any that are missing)
  - Basic/developmental writing
  - First-year writing
  - Writing for English language learners
  - Advanced writing
  - Business writing
  - Technical writing
  - Digital/multimodal writing
  - Writing/Rhetoric major courses
  - Other (please specify)
- How are courses scheduled in your program? Who is involved? What systems, metrics, etc. are used? "Scheduling" defined as
  - Determining number of courses offered
  - Distributing courses across terms of the academic year
  - Assigning meeting days/times to courses
  - Staffing courses with instructors
- How are courses assigned to classrooms? Please consider:
  - Who places courses into specific rooms?
  - Do faculty have input on the classrooms they teach in?
  - Does this vary across courses taught in the program?
  - Does this vary across types of classrooms where program courses are taught?
- What kinds of classrooms do program courses meet in? (Select all that apply by clicking on image. Sample images included to illustrate different classroom types.) [Figure 13.3 and Figure 13.4]
- Is there anything else important to know about the rooms where writing courses meet? For example:
  - Schedules in which courses meet in different rooms on different days of the week
  - Pedagogical practices that effectively convert one of type of classroom

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10   The survey also included questions about ownership and scheduling privileges for classrooms used for writing courses (for example "Are these classrooms used exclusively for writing program courses? If not, what other courses are taught in these rooms? If users vary for different types of classrooms, please differentiate"), but because this data is not discussed in this chapter, we don't include those questions here.

into another type of classroom
- ◦ Features/affordances that are present in rooms but are broken, unreliable, or which instructors lack permission to use
- ◦ Plans to build/remodel/etc. new classrooms for writing program use

[For each writing course that respondents indicated was taught in their program, they were asked the following questions]

- • How many sections of _____ are taught each year?
- • How many _____ sections are taught in each type of classroom used by your program? (ignore any classroom types not used)
  - ◦ Lecture halls:
  - ◦ "Traditional" classrooms:
  - ◦ Computer classrooms:
  - ◦ Active learning classrooms:
  - ◦ Online:
  - ◦ Other (please specify): _____
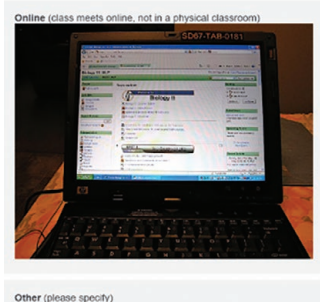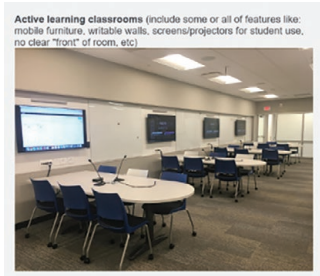
*Figure 13.3 and Figure 13.4. Sample images included
to illustrate different classroom types.*