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Editor's Note

This issue, the first of volume 35, offers insights across several domains for communication administrators. Anderson, Gardner, Wolvin, Kirby-Straker, Yalcin, and Bederson's article explores the usefulness of learning analytics for basic course administration instruction and assessment. She recommends balancing the dialectic of multi-section course uniformity and instructor autonomy through practices of "collaborative consistency." Waymer, Cannon, and Street investigate the distribution of public relations teaching and club advisement loads across male and female faculty members at different academic levels, identifying patterns that call for further exploration. Agarwal's study provides communication administrators with potential student recruitment strategies based on the scholarship of engagement, capitalizing on one of our field's most attractive features: application of theory to lived human experience, with the potential to make a difference in the lives and well-being of others.

I offer many thanks to our reviewers for their faithful labors, and I extend special appreciation to Matthew Mancino, editorial assistant, upon whose reliable efforts I depend daily.

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Incorporating Learning Analytics into Basic Course Administration: How to Embrace the Opportunity to Identify Inconsistencies and Inform Responses

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Consistency is imperative to the success of a multi-section basic course. However, establishing consistent practices is a difficult task, especially when coupled with maintaining instructor autonomy. Learning analytics tools, designed to improve learning and teaching by collecting and analyzing pertinent information through interactive databases, can be used by basic course administrators to improve consistency. Using a reflective case study methodology we share our experience incorporating a learning analytics platform into our basic course. In doing so, we highlight the role this technology can play in terms of identifying areas of inconsistency as well as informing ways to improve overall course delivery. Three major areas of inconsistency were uncovered: (1) the use of online grade books; (2) utilization of course-wide rubrics; (3) and instances of grade inflation. Stemming from these findings is a set of very practical implications regarding the coupling of learning analytics and basic course administration. These include clarifying the two-step process of identifying inconsistencies and informing solutions as well as introducing the concept of collaborative consistency, the term we use to describe the co-construction of course materials (e.g., rubrics, schedules) and activities (e.g., norming). The case ultimately provides the opportunity for basic course directors to embrace the role of learning analytics technology.

Keywords: Basic communication course, consistency, learning analytics

Consistency is imperative to multi-section courses (Morreale, Worley, & Hugenberg, 2010). However, that is more easily said than done (Lawton & Braz, 2011), especially when there are multiple instructors and assignments to manage. Traditionally, instructors also value autonomy in their classroom and curriculum. Thus, one persistent challenge and question for course administrators becomes, how do you productively and responsibly navigate the tension between course consistency and instructor autonomy? This is an especially important question to answer within the context of multi-section courses given funding implications and/or general education requirements for consistency (Boyd, Morgan, Ortiz, & Anderson, 2013). And it is a question of concern for basic course directors across the country.

Consistency, especially when coupled with the desire to retain instructor autonomy, is a timely topic and was discussed by course administrators at the NCA Basic Course Director's regional workshops. The participating basic course directors discussed the need to be

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consistent and shared strategies for improving consistency across sections. Strategies for identifying problem areas included assessment work and research projects, which then informed changes to course design and instructor training.

There are, however, new avenues to improve consistency. "Big data," like those featured in learning analytics technology, offer opportunities for improving all dimensions of the educational process (Siemens & Baker, 2012; Romero & Ventura, 2010). Learning analytics is a teaching/learning technology that captures, organizes, and presents course data from multiple perspective (e.g., assignment, section, semester). Efforts to understand how students and instructors utilize a learning management system (LMS) (e.g., Blackboard, Canvas) demonstrate the utility of such platforms to support learning analytics as an increasingly sophisticated approach to evaluating curricular, instructional, and assessment consistency (Duval, 2011; Merceron, 2012).

Using our experience incorporating learning analytics into basic course administration, we highlight the role this technology can play in identifying areas of inconsistency in a multi-section course and informing overall course delivery as well as illuminating avenues to support instructors. To begin, we contextualize this conversation within the existing consistency literature before providing an overview of learning analytics. Next, we detail our case study methodology, which involves a reflective account of the development and use of our learning analytics technology. We then share our results, which focus on uncovering inconsistencies and informing course updates. We conclude with a discussion of the implications emerging from this research as it is applied to basic course administration.

Literature Review

Consistency across Sections

The importance of establishing consistency in multi-section courses cannot be overstated. Morreale, Worley, and Hugenberg (2010) recognized this imperative as well as the accompanying difficulties associated with developing consistency. As the authors explained, "administrators and professors in higher education do face challenges to the consistent delivery of high quality communication instruction" (p. 98). This statement is especially true when applied to the basic course context where multiple sections are often taught by a number of instructors, adjuncts, graduate teaching assistants (GTAs), and/or faculty all with varying levels of experience and autonomy.

Previous research has examined the relationship between consistency and individual instructor factors. For example, Stitt, Simonds, and Hunt (2003) demonstrated the positive impact of instructor training on evaluation and grading consistency. Grading in a consistent manner was also at the heart of Dunbar, Brooks, and Kubicka-Miller's (2006) work where they observed that the development and use of an evaluation rubric can "increase consistency in teachers' evaluations of student competency" (p. 126).

Research on multi-section courses identifies other strategies for achieving consistency such as, increasing the amount (and probably quality) of dialogue among instructors (Dunbar, Brooks, & Kubicka-Miller, 2006); engaging core constituencies in course design (Valenzano, 2013); adopting a blended-learning structure (Perrin, Rusnak, Zha, Lewis, & Srinivasan, 2009); utilizing a common spreadsheet grading tool (Mountain & Pleck, 2000); and conducting regular course assessment (Preston & Holloway, 2006).

With that said, there are a variety of variables and relationships to explore that can impact consistency. However, the fact remains that creating and maintaining a uniform

experience is paramount in required, multi-section courses (Mountain & Pleck, 2000). Learning analytics tools equip course directors to examine these variables of course consistency more closely. These tools can allow course directors to capture a snapshot of this type of course and then zoom-in and out on particular components, gaining meaningful insights that aid in meeting the consistency challenges faced by basic course administrators in many institutions.

Learning Analytics

A major platform for tracking and measuring the impact of assessment, curriculum design, and training is learning analytics technology (Dyckhoff, Lukarov, Muslim, Chatti & Schroeder, 2013). Learning analytics is "the collection, analysis, use, and appropriate dissemination of student-generated, actionable data with the purpose of creating appropriate cognitive, administrative, and effective support for learners" (Slade & Prinsloo, 2013, p. 1512). In other words, a learning analytics tool takes a snapshot of a given course by mining data from campus-wide LMS.

And while course information can be accessed through other avenues (e.g., university offices of undergraduate education), learning analytics provides a centralized space for information across semesters, sections, instructors, students, and assignments. With that said, the learning analytics process is unique in that it links large quantities of learner-generated data to produce metrics or visualizations that can be used to enhance the educational experience (Clow, 2012). Indeed, learning analytics are reshaping higher education by "altering existing teaching, learning and assessment processes, academic work, and administration" (Siemens & Long, 2011, p. 5). This type of data collection and analysis further enhances the understanding of consistency in the basic course.

Consistency of curriculum, instruction, and assessment in the basic communication course is critical to an enhanced educational experience for students enrolled in general education offerings. Data retrieved from our LMS provides a case study as to how learning analytics can be used to determine the level of educational consistency we have developed and need to address in our multi-section basic course.

Based on the preceding literature, we have developed two broad research questions that guide our reflective case study.

RQ1: How can learning analytics technology be used to identify areas of inconsistency in a multi-section course?

RQ2: How does learning analytics technology inform strategies for improving instructional delivery of a multi-section course?

Method

In order to answer these overarching research questions, we (the authors and basic course directors of COMM 100—pseudonym) employed a case study methodology. A case study is a detailed account of a given topic that portrays a problem and resolution or possible solutions (Ellet, 2007). Tracy (2013) described this approach to research as a "descriptive narrative" (p. 265). Employing a case study format "produces the type of context-dependent knowledge" that allows readers to develop their understanding of a given topic (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 221). Here, we detail our experience adopting a learning analytics platform into our

basic course program. Specifically, we provide a reflective account of instances when the technology helped us uncover inconsistencies in the course and then informed our approaches to improvement. This reflective component is coupled with the large amount of data captured through our learning analytics program (see "Revealer" subheading for numbers). With that said, the context of the situation is fundamental in case study research.

The Context

The course. This case study is specific to a basic course program at a large, mid-Atlantic university. Here, the basic course, COMM 100, utilizes a hybrid structure that covers presentational speaking, interpersonal, and group communication. A combination of 55 graduate students and instructors teach over 100 sections of this course per semester. Two faculty members and two doctoral students oversee the administration of the course (e.g., training, assessing, mentoring). As a result of these efforts, more than 4,500 undergraduate students enroll in COMM 100 every year.

The course was not always such a large enterprise. In 2012 COMM 100 was added to the university's general education curriculum and, as a result, grew very quickly. With this new status, came the request for additional seats to be provided as well as the assurance of a consistent experience for each of the undergraduate students enrolled in COMM 100. Moreover, there was increased pressure to assess the course and report the findings to multiple levels of the university's administration.

"Revealer". As a result of this responsibility to our constituents (e.g., students, administration), we partnered with the director of the university's teaching center and a graduate student in computer science. In the fall of 2014, we worked collaboratively to apply and refine a learning analytics program to the context of COMM 100. In order to differentiate learning analytics technology in general and our specific program, we have developed a pseudonym that will be used throughout the remainder of the case (Revealer).

Revealer is an interactive data analysis program that pulls information from our campus-wide LMS and organizes it into an interactive interface that allows users to see a visual representation of data trends. At this point we have three semesters (spring 2013, fall 2013, spring 2014) of data captured within Revealer. This total includes over 300 sections of the course where each section has approximately 19 students resulting in 5,310 students. The course consists of four major assignments—the informative briefing, informational interview, group discussion, and persuasive speech—all of which have scaffolded tasks that build up to the final presentation (e.g., topic selection, outline, interview plan, self-evaluation). In more specific terms, the data represent more than 69,000 student assignment/task submissions that can be viewed from multiple perspectives (e.g., student, section, semester). While this is a large amount of data to be sorted through, it is easily organized through the learning analytics functions featured in Revealer. By using learning analytics, we can zoom in to specific semesters and/or assignments and/or sections or zoom out to see a broad picture of the data over time. And the program is evolving in nature; it will continue to grow as more data is added.

Results

This data has yielded interesting findings, especially in terms of developing course consistency. Our results will be organized by identified inconsistency and will address each of

the two overarching research questions in order. The first research question asked, *how can learning analytics technology be used to identify areas of inconsistency in a multi-section course?* We found three ways in which the course demonstrated inconsistency among sections, including: (1) the use of online grade books, (2) utilization of course-wide rubrics (3) and instances of grade inflation. Research question two then built on the identification as it was concerned with the ways in which learning analytics technology informed strategies for improving instructional delivery of a multi-section course.

Inconsistency One: The Use of Online Grade Books

Our basic course uses the university's LMS in a variety of ways, including posting assignments, turning in written work, and posting grades. Students frequently turn to the campus-wide LMS to check on grades. With that in mind, the COMM 100 leadership team created a grade book template that can be copied from the master LMS course to each instructor's individual LMS sections. The grade book template provides assignment titles, related tasks (e.g. Informative Briefing Topic Proposal, Informative Briefing Outline), and details the assignment point values. However, through Revealer, we found that not every instructor uses the online grade book. This finding raises questions about the consistent and optimal use of our available technology resources since some instructors may not be comfortable with the available teaching/learning technologies. There were also other instances of inconsistencies that were uncovered and centered on the use (or lack thereof) of the online grade book, including how assignments are grouped/labeled and varied point distributions.

Lack of an online grade-book. There were differing levels of LMS instructor use. Some instructors used the LMS for almost every aspect for the course—posting additional readings, providing feedback, and viewing sample presentations. On the other end of the continuum, there was one person who did not use the LMS at all. The lack of complete course data ultimately required us to remove this instructor's sections from our overall data pool, but it also led us to question what degree of LMS usage is essential and how it contributes to the consistent delivery of COMM 100.

While this finding was troubling, it helped us identify instructors who are struggling with the use of technology. For example, one instructor entered and published the "Persuasive Speech" assignment four times, but, again, this LMS usage skewed course data and confused students. In order to overcome these technology hurdles, we paired the instructor with a member of the COMM 100 leadership team who specializes in education technology to teach the instructor about the uses and advantages of LMS. These meeting took place in a one-on-one setting where specific and individual questions could be asked in a non-threatening environment. To date, our technology expert reports that this instructor is effectively using the LMS during the spring 2015 semester.

Assignment names and groupings. We attempted to create a common vocabulary surrounding the basic course that is framed in a more practical and career-oriented manner. With this goal in mind, we made the effort to adjust the titles of our assignments to be more aligned with professional settings (e.g., "Informative Speech" to "Informative Briefing"), yet this change is not mirrored in all of our instructors' language choices and uses. For example, the labeling of assignments in the grade books range substantially, such as using "Speech 1" as the title for the "Informative Briefing."

Besides the common vocabulary, the inconsistency in labeling assignments makes it difficult to organize all of the data. For instance, when trying to find average scores on "Exam 1", we had to scour the data for misnomers like, "Exam #1", "Class 10-8 / Exam 1", "Midterm Exam 1", and "The Exam: Episode One".

However, by engaging in this critical process of parsing out inconsistent grade book labels, we found that some instructors added extra layers to the overarching assignments, which could be the reason for some of the name variation. In one instance, an instructor added a grading column for the PowerPoint slides used in the "Group Discussion" assignment. This finding uncovered possibilities for redesigning the major assignments to include additional scaffolded tasks. In a similar vein, it caused us to pay greater attention to the need for additional layered tasks that add to the complexity and contribute to the successful completion of the major assignments.

Varied point scales. Besides having multiple names for the same assignment, we also found that instructors used varied point distributions for individual assignments as well as the overall course. We identified data from instructors who used different point scales from the one detailed in the common course documents (e.g., syllabus, assignment descriptions) and rubrics. Most often, the points would be redistributed to make assignments worth more. For one assignment, the "Informative Briefing", we found that for the actual presentation the points available ranged from 24-40 depending on the instructor. However, the actual amount of points allotted in the course-wide syllabus, assignment description, and rubric was set at 29.

In another case, an instructor gave 50 points for the written "Informative Interview Reflection" assignment. This was a shocking discovery since, as detailed in the course documents, the assignment should be worth only 8 points. Based on the number of points available in the course, which is set at 200, we believe that this instructor might be using a 1,000-point scale. Even more problematic for questions of consistency is that the 50 to 8 point variation does not translate equally when turned into a percentage of total course points (5% and 4% respectively).

Again, this point variation skews the weight of the assignment for certain students who are enrolled in specific sections of COMM 100. In addition, it created a new agenda item for our returning instructor meeting held at the beginning of the fall semester as well as our new instructor orientation. We will highlight the importance of keeping the course-wide use of the LMS grade book (including assignment titles and point distributions) consistent. During this point of orientation, we will be able to show de-identified data that visually illustrates the range of inconsistency in this facet of the course.

Inconsistency Two: Utilization of Course-Wide Rubric

The second overarching theme we uncovered through Revealer was the inconsistent use of course-wide grading rubrics. We developed grading rubrics for each of the major assignments and the tasks that build up to the formal presentation. The creation process was integrative in nature and is still ongoing. In the past, we actively sought feedback from instructors to align the rubrics with grading needs and actual classroom practices. Even with this instructor involvement in the design and development of the rubrics, we still see that some instructors are not regularly using the common rubrics.

We found instances where the rubrics were not used for all of the scaffolded levels of assignments (e.g., topic selection, outline, presentation, and self-evaluation). For example, one person did not use the rubric to grade the "Persuasive Speech." When we zoomed in on this

major assignment we uncovered additional cases of inconsistency as several other instructors emerged who did not use the "Persuasive Speech Self-Evaluation" rubric. Ultimately, this decision on the part of instructors leaves room for confusion concerning what concepts, skills, and demonstrated knowledge should emerge as part of the assignment as well as for inconsistency in the weighting of various components of the assignment.

The good news is that through Revealer we can easily identify instructors who are not incorporating the rubric in their grading and have individual conversations about the importance of consistency after just one semester. These one-on-one discussions open up space for the leadership team to hear back from specific instructors, and in the past, this type of dialogue has led us to alter and improve the master course setup. For example, formerly we established a "Topics and Purpose" rubric leading up to both the Informative Briefing and the Persuasive Speech. After conversations with instructors (some of whom had already opted to not use the provided rubric), we recognized that this setup failed to reflect active and productive classroom practices, and consequently, we altered the master course space. Therefore, these type of findings through Revealer lead us to question the usefulness/purpose of the rubrics while also encouraging us to engage in additional conversations about utility and design.

Number of assignments/tasks. Rubrics are an important instructional tool that detail expectations for student work and allocate points to specific course items (Goodrich, 2005) (e.g., physical delivery, oral citations). The COMM 100 leadership team created rubrics for each assignment/task (except the three major exams) in order to clearly detail the grading criteria. In all, we have 13 rubrics that correspond to the 13 major assignments and tasks. While this does not seem like an excessive amount, the end of the semester course evaluations completed by students often state that there are too many assignments in COMM 100.

The Revealer platform allowed us to weigh this feedback in relation to the number of assignments in each section. Again, we found that the amount of student work ranged widely. For instance, 21 sections had between 40 and 60 assignments per semester, including the major course assignments plus participation assignments, and one section had between 80 and 90 for each of the three semesters of data. In comparison, the median number of assignments was 27 over the course of the three semesters, with a majority of sections including between 17 and 31 items. We attributed the range in the number of assignments to the ways in which instructors distribute the available 24 participation points (12% of total course grade). However, it is potentially problematic that some instructors are including an extra 40 to 70 tasks in addition to the core 13 assignments.

By looking at the data housed in Revealer, we can coax out best practices regarding the amount of student work expected. To do this, we can learn about productive uses of our LMS while simultaneously layering this data with course evaluations. The hope is to see how students report the amount of work required in the class as well as the overall evaluation of the course (e.g., "there was a lot of assignments, but this was a useful course" or "too many assignments for a 100-level class"). These data can make a case for why the skill of the instructors—in terms of establishing a rationale for the assignment/task and motivating students, rather than the number of assignment—is at the heart of receiving positive student evaluations.

Participation point distribution. This difference in number of assignments also led us to ask how people are distributing participation points. In COMM 100 each instructor has 24 points they can dole out as desired. Once again, we found that the means for distribution varied widely. Some instructors gave their students homework and/or extra speaking

assignments (e.g., elevator pitches, impromptus, critiques) while others rolled it into daily activities that were completed in class as part of our active learning format.

We now need to initiate a discussion about guidelines for distributing the 24 participation points in a format that avoids frustrating students with a multitude of tiny assignments. To do this, we are going to engage in conversations with current instructors who receive high course evaluations to determine best practices for assigning and assessing participation points.

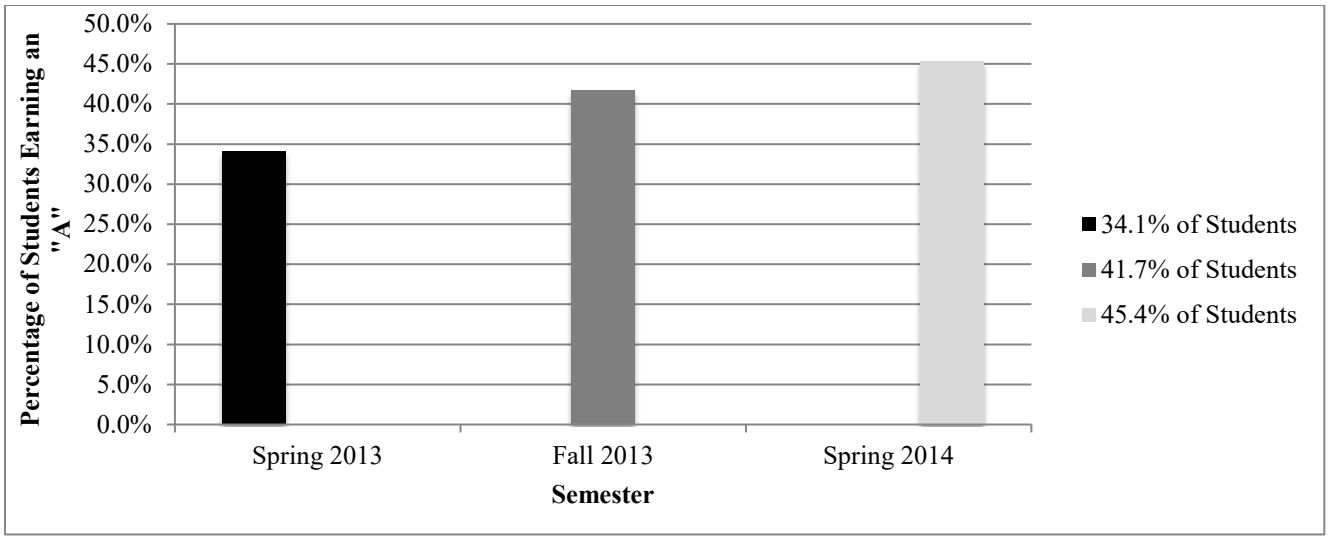
Inconsistency Three: Grade Inflation

A third theme of inconsistency with course expectations that we uncovered through Revealer was grade inflation. There are various approaches to grading that instructors can choose to take—some instructors may prefer to rely on criterion-based grading while others may take context into account (e.g., first versus last presentation). And these approaches not only impact individual student scores, but can contribute to grade inflation. With that said, it becomes difficult to establish consistency among grades in a large multi-section course. This assumption was found in our data as final student grades varied, but were overall higher than we expected. Specific assignments also showed grade inflation that we want to address as course administrators.

Final grade inflation. The final average grade across all three semesters and all sections was an 88.4%. With 70% of all students earning an 84% or above. With these numbers in mind we decided to further explore the topic of grade inflation through Revealer. While parsing out this information, we found an instructor who gave 88 students a final grade of 95-100% over the three semesters. In all, 84% of the instructor's students received an "A" in the course (234 out of the 278 students). By zooming in on this data and corresponding course evaluations, we saw that the same instructor's class average has risen from a 90.5% to a 94.4% in the most recent semester of data. Given the predominately freshman composition of the course, this success rate is unlikely.

Taking a broader view in Revealer, we can see if and how median grades shifted by semester. In Graph 1 we show how the number of "As" earned in COMM 100 has increased significantly over recent semesters; 34.1% (544/1,594) of student in the spring of 2013 and 45.4% (812/1,789) in the spring of 2014 received an "A". Through Revealer, we are able to visually see this marked difference in the number of "As."

Graph 1
Percentage of Students Earning an "A" (90-100%) by Semester



Failed intervention. Besides showing trends, Revealer illuminates outcomes of our intervention efforts. In this case, we contextualized the jump in number of "As" between spring 2013 and fall 2013 with the implementation of an ultimately failed policy. When we first noticed grade inflation in the course in the fall of 2012, one of the course directors implemented a required grade distribution that limited the number in "As" that could be earned in COMM 100 in the spring of 2013. While the policy worked in terms of decreasing grade inflation, there was backlash from instructors who were upset because of the top-down mandate. The feedback we received from instructors was mostly negative, as they felt the required grade distribution was an arbitrary and unfair rule. With the instructors' autonomy in mind, we dissolved the policy. In looking at the data from subsequent semesters, though, we believe that we are seeing some re-inflation following the failed attempt to regulate grade inflation.

Collaborative intervention. As we approach the problem of grade inflation now, we will utilize the data gathered through Revealer as well as the lesson learned from the failed policy to address grade inflation in a collaborative manner. We are going to show visually the grade inflation to instructors to bolster our argument that, as a course, we need to develop and implement more critical grading standards. In order to achieve this goal, we plan to hold group norming sessions in which instructors can debate the quality of presentations using the department-wide rubric. We hope this process will develop better grading skills in terms of critically evaluating the demonstration and application of course concepts as well as improve the use and refinement of our rubrics.

Specific assignment/task grade distribution. Through the learning analytics program, we noticed some assignments appear to have higher than expected scores as well. For example, the three exams that are given over the course of the semester averaged a low "A" (90.5%). This discovery has informed another approach that we are taking to combat grade inflation, which is to redesign our testing mechanism.

Currently, students take three exams per semester. Instructors are given autonomy in terms of writing the exams, which means students can take widely different tests. We have a question bank available to all instructors, but build in flexibility so that instructors can develop their own test items. Some instructors create higher order questions (see Bloom, 1956) where

students are asked to apply the concepts learned, others draw communication models (e.g., transmission, interactive, transaction) and have students label parts (e.g., sender, receiver, channel, noise), and still others use basic, definitional, multiple-choice questions to test understanding.

Even with the range of available test items, we are seeing higher than expected scores. Based on this information, one of the basic course directors suggested that we pilot the administration of daily quizzes rather than three larger exams. The hope is that this structure will hold the students accountable for the reading assignments as they are due rather than cramming for an exam at three points in the semester.

Moreover, the quiz format ensures that students are engaging with the course content that is relevant for that day of class and upcoming assignments. For example, students would read the chapter on persuasive speech organizational patterns before class. Then, in class, the students will take a brief quiz about that material (currently three one-point items). The questions are then debriefed after the quizzes are turned in. This debriefing serves as the brief lecture/discussion portion of class that informs an active-learning exercise. The quiz format then leaves a majority of class time to participate in a learning activity that revolves around that material (e.g., Monroe's Motivated Sequence). Besides holding students accountable for the daily reading assignments, the quiz structure facilitates the active-learning format the COMM 100 course adopted in the fall of 2012. As our team moves forward with this shift, Revealer will allow us to take a broad view and to assess (in conjunction with feedback from our instructors) whether the change is achieving our desired end.

Discussion

By incorporating Revealer into our basic course, we were able not only to identify areas of inconsistency, but also to inform responses to improve COMM 100. We found that inconsistency manifested in a multitude of ways, such as the use (or lack thereof) of the course-wide grade book, utilization of the course rubrics, and grade inflation. By zooming in on these larger themes, we uncovered other instances where consistency could be improved (e.g., higher than expected exam scores) and developed informed changes in these areas in order to increase the overall level of consistency in the course (e.g., adopting a quiz format).

Stemming from these findings is a set of very practical implications regarding the incorporation of learning analytics into basic course administration. Two of the lessons we have drawn from this project are the concept of collaborative consistency and the process of identifying inconsistencies and informing solutions.

Implications

Establishing consistency in a large multi-section course is a balancing act between complete control/standardization and providing instructor autonomy. Learning analytics provides an outlet to address this tension through what we term as, *collaborative consistency*. We define collaborative consistency as the co-construction of course materials (e.g., rubrics, schedules) and activities (e.g., norming). Through the data we can see areas where inconsistencies are emerging. Rather than enacting a top-down approach to resolve the consistency concerns (which has failed in the past), we can mine the data to enhance understanding of the root sources and encourage instructors to be active participants in establishing course-wide consistency. Ultimately, this process affords the opportunity to engage with instructors to better adjust to their classroom needs, so that they might be more

likely to follow course procedures and utilize course materials. While time consuming, collaborative consistency, of course, would be completed with the expectations that any co-constructed changes would be implemented across all sections.

The second practical implication that emerged is highlighting the importance of the dual-step process associated with identifying inconsistencies and using data to inform responses. While our case is context-specific, the process we used of identifying and informing can be adopted by other basic courses. One of our ongoing projects enacts both of these implications as it explores the quantity and quality of written feedback provided to students. In following with our two-step process, we are using the data to inform new training units about providing comments to students on oral presentations. We will ask current instructors who excelled to lead discussion about best practices or tips that they have learned during their tenure working in the basic course, thus engaging in collaborative consistency.

Hopefully, other basic courses can have similar, positive experiences that strengthen consistency and encourage instructor involvement, but depending on a variety of factors, may have different experiences. The range of experiences incorporating learning analytics into basic course administration is important to discuss. With that said, learning analytics and other forms of "big data" and interactive data platforms will become an opportunity to explore and potentially embrace in the basic course arena.

Limitations and Future Research

There are limitations in this case study. First, it is context-dependent, meaning that results cannot be generalized to other multi-section basic courses. However, some of the lessons learned can be applied with the expectation that experiences will vary across courses and administrative teams. Second, we have only collected three semesters of data, which just provides a snapshot of our course history rather than a full mosaic. It will be interesting to see the trends as additional semesters of data are added to the existing database. Third, we are still learning about the capabilities of our learning analytics platform, which means that there could be more data that further bolster the identified inconsistencies and responses or counters our findings in ways that we could not expect. Finally, the notion of establishing consistency in a multi-section course is dependent upon compliance from each instructor. While many instructors are compliant with the procedures that are put in place to enhance course consistency, others intentionally choose not to be compliant and have reasons for their decision (e.g., technology avoidant).

With that said, there is a vast array of future research possibilities associated with learning analytics and basic course administration. Besides topics of consistency, basic course directors can utilize this technology in assessment work, specifically, in terms of collecting and organizing data concerning the success of newly implemented policies or curricular changes.

Learning analytics can be used as a form of documentation, which is especially important given the budgetary constraints higher education is currently facing. As we write this piece, the dean of our school has asked for a report that supports the smaller class size COMM 100 was afforded after being added to the general education curriculum. Now, we are tasked with gathering data that provides a rationale for the initial decision to reduce seats from 24 to 19 and to keep the limited number in place. We plan to use Revealer to supplement our report by using the program's features that allow us to filter data by the number of students in each section. As a specific example, we will be working with our research partners to modify a facet of the program that examines the total grading time in order to help us to zoom in on the average time it takes to grade and return assignments when an instructor has 19 students

compared to 24 students. This scenario underscores the usefulness of a learning analytics program when responding to requests from administration regarding course structure and resource allocation.

Beebe (2013) has (in)famously argued that the basic course is the "front porch" of the discipline and, as the only oral communication course many college students will have, needs careful attention and support. Moreover, Valenzano, Wallace, & Morreale (2014) echoed this sentiment when they concluded that this front porch "must be tended to with care, so we can continue to serve the needs of our students, colleagues, and communities" (p. 363). With that said, learning analytics affords us with a valuable tool to better tend to these needs.

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Chance or Choice? An Analysis of Assumed Biological Sex-Based Differences in Undergraduate Public Relations Course Teaching Distributions

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In this study the authors explore the observed differences among the courses taught by public relations faculty at Carnegie doctoral institutions based on faculty members' assumed biological sex. The findings indicate that rank faculty (assistant, associate, and full professor) females teach significantly more upper division courses than their male counterparts. The rank faculty males are teaching more introductory (100 and 200 level) courses than their female counterparts. If one follows the logic that upper division courses are more time and effort demanding for faculty, then these findings indicate that females are disproportionately represented as the primary instructors of record for the most labor-intensive core courses in the public relations curriculum. Whether this pattern is the result of chance or instructor choice, the authors hope that these findings encourage communication department chairs and other administrators to address what appears to be unequal faculty workloads based upon assumed biological sex differences.

Introduction

Gender and sex often are used interchangeably errantly (Valdes, 1996). In most instances the two have become conflated despite the fact that these two constructs are distinct though related identity facets (Allen, 2011; Valdes, 1996). Sex is a biological classification whereas gender "refers to the cultural norms of femininity and masculinity" and these gender classifications are used to "differentiate humans on the basis of perceived physical, social, and psychological characteristics" (Allen, 2011 p. 42). Conflation of these categories aside, issues of sex and its relative gender have been a topic of communication education scholarship for more than more than 25 years (see Peterson, 1991; Wood & Lenze, 1991). Some scholars have reviewed research on the different ways that male and female students communicate with women and men faculty (Sandier, 1991); some have explored the interaction effects between the gender of college students and their evaluations of male and female faculty (Bachen, McLoughlin, & Garcia, 1999); while others explored why male faculty are asked more questions than female faculty and why female students asked fewer questions than male students in courses taught by males (Pearson & West, 1991). In short, researchers in communication have been exploring the ways biological sex and gender influence various facets of the communication education experience—whether that be how professors are assessed, how students behave in the classroom, or how these dynamics influence the classroom culture and environment.

The authors, in this study, contribute to this body of literature by exploring differential teaching assignments among faculty based on differences in assumed biological sex. Specifically, in this study the authors explore the observed differences among the courses taught by public relations faculty at Carnegie doctoral institutions based on faculty members'

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assumed biological sex. The findings indicate that rank faculty (assistant, associate, and full professor) females teach significantly more upper division courses than their male counterparts. The rank faculty males are teaching more introductory (100 and 200 level) courses than their female counterparts. If one follows the logic that upper division courses are more time- and effort-demanding for faculty, then these findings indicate that females are disproportionately represented as the primary instructors of record for the most labor-intensive core courses in the public relations curriculum. Whether these findings are the result of chance or instructor choice, the authors hope that these findings encourage communication department chairs and other administrators to address what appears to be unequal faculty workloads based upon assumed biological sex differences.

Disparities in Public Relations Faculty Teaching Workloads

Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999), in likely the most comprehensive study of its kind to-date, used the National Survey of Postsecondary Faculty to explore faculty time allocations. Specifically, these researchers sampled 14,614 full-time faculty from various disciplines employed at two- and four-year institutions and found that females spent significantly more time in teaching than males and less time in research. Using these findings as a foundation, Waymer (2014) sought to explore if females were teaching one known labor-intensive public relations class more than males: public relations writing. To illustrate the extent of the labor intensiveness of these activities, take, for example, a study conducted by Pompper (2011) where one of her research participants commented specifically about the effort required to teach public relations writing well: "If you want to be a good writing teacher, it's kind of like a double-edged sword because you get stuck grading a lot of papers. It's really time consuming . . . 66 students . . . in excess of 900 papers" (p. 461).

Waymer's hypothesis was supported; females taught more sections of public relations writing than their male counterparts despite the fact that he found no statistically significant difference between the number of full-time male public relations faculty and full-time female public relations faculty in academic departments at Carnegie doctoral institutions: after defining public relations faculty "as any faculty member who teaches any of the classes in his or her university's core PR curriculum and/or has published PR research" (p. 410), Waymer (2014) found that there was "no significant difference between the number of full-time men ($M = 1.80$, $SD = 1.55$), $t(232) = 1.53$, $p = 1.97$, and women" public relations faculty—218 versus 259 respectively (p. 410).

In a related research question, Waymer (2014) also found that females in general and females that held the rank of assistant professor served as Public Relations Student Society of America (PRSSA)—a nationally recognized public relations student organization—advisors almost twice the rate of their male counterparts and more than three times the amount of their male counterparts who held the same rank. Even if faculty determine which courses they teach and which service obligations they wish to undertake, it is still alarming that at research universities, junior rank females are teaching what many consider to be the most time-consuming course (writing) in the curriculum (Pompper, 2011) and advising the student organization at a rate of 3 to 1 compared to their male counterparts at the same faculty rank. If department chairs are making these course load and service decisions, then Waymer's study serves as a clarion call to those administrators to find a way to distribute the undergraduate teaching and service course loads more equitably. Thus, a pertinent question to ponder is: Do females also teach more of the other upper-division public relations courses (besides writing) than their male counterparts?

The authors, in this current investigation, extend the work in the aforementioned study (Waymer, 2014). In so doing, the authors attempt to provide a more complete picture of teaching efforts in the public relations academic discipline. Specifically, this study is an extension of the aforementioned study inasmuch as the authors explore biological sex-based differences between faculty teaching upper-division "management" public relations classes as well as introductory public relations classes.

Based on works of Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999) and Waymer (2014), we might expect that females would teach more upper-division public relations courses than males. Another perspective, however, based upon decades of public relations scholarship that addresses sex roles in the practice of public relations, suggests that females (possibly due to glass ceiling effects) in public relations tend to enact the technician role disproportionately, as opposed to the manager role, which is usually enacted by males (Broom, 1982; Broom & Dozier, 1986, 1995). We can make an inference that the finding that indicates females are teaching public relations writing significantly more than their male counterparts and the finding that indicates females are serving as PRSSA more than their male counterparts can be viewed as an academic equivalent of performing the technician role in the practical sense, whereas teaching strategy, campaigns, and management courses might be equated with more managerial functions. Since both perspectives are plausible, we set out to test the second perspective given that it is a based upon a longer standing public relations model. As such, some of the following hypotheses set out to test this assumption explicitly.

H1a: Females teach more sections of introduction to public relations than males.

H1b: Assistant, associate, and full professor females teach more sections of introductory courses than assistant, associate, and full professor males.

H1c: Senior faculty females (associate and full professors) teach more introductory sections than junior faculty females (assistant professors).

H1d: Senior faculty males (associate and full professors) teach more introductory public relations sections than junior faculty males (assistant professors).

H1e: Junior faculty females (assistant professors) teach more introductory courses than junior faculty men.

H2a: Males teach more sections of public relations management-oriented courses than females.

H2b: Assistant, associate, and full professor males teach more sections of management-oriented courses than assistant, associate, and full professor females.

H2c: Senior faculty females (associate and full professors) teach more management-oriented courses than junior faculty females (assistant professors).

H2d: Senior faculty males (associate and full professors) teach more management-oriented courses than junior faculty males (assistant professors).

H2e: Junior faculty males (assistant professors) teach more management courses than junior faculty females.

Methods

In order to address the hypotheses, the authors first used the Public Relations Student Society of America (PRSSA) website to identify active PRSSA chapters in the United States (N = 329). This action was taken because since 1989, the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) has issued guidelines for and has granted certification to PR programs (Certification in Education for Public Relations, henceforth referred to as CEPR) based on the Commission of Public Relations Education curricula guidelines.

The authors then used the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education to identify Doctorate-granting Universities where public relations courses were taught (N=132). These universities were selected because one can infer that such universities would have more rigid research-focused tenure requirements in comparison with master's colleges and universities or baccalaureate colleges. Thus, under such pressure for production of scholarship (Musambira, Collins, Brown, & Voss, 2012), differences in teaching based on biological sex and faculty rank status might be magnified in this context.

Since Waymer (2014) provided a snapshot of the public relations curriculum by focusing on writing, the authors in this study decided to focus on two other key aspects of the public relations curriculum in this study. The PRSA does not require that a school offer specific courses in order to receive certification; however, the PRSA does require proof that the courses the universities offer address five subject areas: Introduction to Public Relations; Public Relations Writing and Production; Public Relations Research; Public Relations Strategy and Implementation; and a Supervised Public Relations Experience (Internship) (PRSSA website).

From these PRSA requirements the authors derived two categories, managerial public relations and introduction to public relations. As mentioned above, Public Relations Writing and Production has recently been analyzed (Waymer, 2014). Public Relations Research and Public Relations Internships were excluded from evaluation because they lacked consistency across the universities studied. For example, some public relations programs fulfill their research methods requirement by having students take courses from other units within their departments (such as communication studies or advertising) or the university (such as statistics, sociology, or education). Thus, while these classes count as methods courses for the students, the faculty members teaching these courses are not considered among public relations faculty members. In a similar vein, from our initial scanning of the online course catalogs, the way internship credits were managed varied among universities, ranging from all students signing up for internship credit with one faculty who was the director of internships to students having the option to sign up for internship credit with individual faculty. Thus, internships were excluded from data collection.

To gather data, the authors accessed publicly available university schedule of courses information for each Carnegie doctoral university with a PRSSA chapter. All courses reviewed occurred during either the 2014 calendar year or the 2014–2015 academic year depending on schedule availability. Courses were classified as managerial if the courses had the specific words "Cases," "Campaigns," "Advanced," "Strategy," "II," or "Management." This is consistent with interpretations of the strategy and implementation guidelines offered by PRSA. Courses were classified as introductory if the titles included the specific words "Intro," "Fundamentals," "Principles," "I," or "Beginning."

To gather data pertaining to faculty member rank status and faculty member assumed biological sex, the authors consulted each department's website. We looked at faculty pictures and read faculty biographies to determine biological sex as well as faculty status. We also used social networking sites such as LinkedIn, which often included a photo, to help determine whether the faculty member was male or female; in some other instances we used RateMyProfessor.com to read students' feedback to determine the pronouns (he or she) used to refer to the instructor. We recognize the flaw of this approach. Based on our method we have no factual evidence that people who appeared male or female in pictures actually identified that way. We, however, argue that discrimination is often based upon how others perceive the individual (Allen, 2007) more so than how individuals perceive themselves (for example, up until 2015, women could not serve in front-line combat positions). Thus, even while recognizing the imperfection of our classifications, we deem them valid. The authors also differentiated between assistant professors (junior) and associate/full professors (senior). Pictures along with names were used to link faculty to the courses taught/offered in the university course schedule.

The unit of analysis is the number of courses taught. The authors focused on this indicator because the teaching load in public relations at research institutions is fairly consistent (and often considerably less than the 4-4 teaching load or higher found at non-Carnegie doctoral designated institutions).

In terms of managerial sections taught by public relations faculty, the authors identified 197 sections taught by males compared to 321 taught by females. Additionally, the authors identified the number of courses taught by instructor-level males (n=108) and instructor-level females (n=148) as well as the number of managerial courses taught by assistant, associate, and full professor males (n=89) and assistant, associate, and full professor females (n=174).

The same process was used to determine the number of sections taught by faculty instructors in the introductory courses. Overall, males taught 205 introductory courses and females taught 172 courses; instructor level males taught 88 sections and instructor-level females taught 122 sections. Finally, the authors identified the number of introductory courses taught by assistant, associate, and full professor males (n=84) and assistant, associate, and full professor females (n=83).

Using this method, the authors were able to identify all faculty members. Schools with more than one incomplete data category (such as no course schedule or no list of course offered) were excluded from analysis. Five institutions were removed from the study because two or more items of information could not be retrieved. The final number of institutions that were included in this analysis was 127.

Results

A one-sample *t* test was used to analyze each of the hypotheses. The *t* test compared means for males' and females' teaching assignments in each faculty category to the mean number of introductory and management-oriented courses taught at each university ($M = 2.98$ for introductory courses, $M = 4.07$ for management-oriented courses). Table 1 shows the results. All differences were significant at the $p<.05$ level. But the analysis supported only half of the 10 hypotheses. Effect sizes were consistently small.

Table 1
Comparisons of Means for Courses Taught by Each Instructor Category

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*d*
Introduction to public relations (H1a)				131	.000	.16
female	1.55	1.71	-9.59			
male	1.30	1.48	-13.04			
PR management (H2a)				131	.000	.37
male	1.49	2.24	-13.22			
female	2.43	2.88	-6.54			
Introduction to public relations (H1b)				131	.000	.00
ranked-level female	0.63	1.14	-23.80			
ranked-level male	0.64	1.06	-25.29			
PR management (H2b)				131	.000	.38
Ranked-level male	0.67	1.42	-27.54			
Ranked-level female	1.32	2.00	-15.80			
Introduction to public relations (H1c)				131	.000	.04
senior-ranked females	0.30	0.82	-37.55			
Junior-ranked females	0.33	0.86	-35.44			
PR management (H2c)				131	.000	.15
Senior-ranked females	0.75	1.58	-24.08			
Junior-ranked females	0.57	1.17	-34.48			
Introduction to public relations (H1d)				131	.000	.29
senior-ranked males	0.42	0.88	-33.24			
Junior-ranked males	0.21	0.58	-54.83			
PR management (H2d)				131	.000	.23
Senior-ranked males	0.45	1.12	-37.04			
Junior-ranked males	0.22	0.76	-58.61			
Introduction to public relations (H1e)				131	.000	.17
Junior-ranked females	0.33	0.86	-34.44			
Junior-ranked males	0.21	0.58	-54.83			
PR management (H2e)				131	.000	.36
Junior-ranked males	0.22	0.76	-58.61			
Junior-ranked females	0.57	1.17	-34.48			

H1a

H1a said females would teach more sections of introduction to public relations than males. The *t* test supported this hypothesis. The H1a line in Table 1 shows results. Females taught more introductory courses ($M = 1.55$) than males ($M = 1.30$). The difference, compared to the mean for introductory courses offered at each school ($M = 2.98$), was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but the effect size was small ($d = .16$).

H1b

H1b said ranked-faculty females would teach more sections of introductory courses than ranked-faculty males. The *t* test did not support this hypothesis. The H1b line in Table 1 shows results. Ranked-faculty males taught slightly more introductory courses ($M = .64$) than ranked-faculty females ($M = .63$). Although the difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), the effect size was non-existent ($d = .00$).

H1c

H1c said associate and full professor females would teach more introductory sections than junior assistant professors females. The *t* test did not support this hypothesis. The H1c line in Table 1 shows results. Junior faculty females taught slightly more introductory sections ($M = .33$) than senior faculty females ($M = .30$). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but the effect size was very small ($d = .04$).

H1d

H1d said associate and full professor males would teach more introductory public relations sections than junior faculty assistant professor males. The *t* test supported this hypothesis. The H1d line in Table 1 shows results. Tenured men taught more introductory courses ($M = .42$) than junior faculty men ($M = .21$). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but the effect size was small ($d = .29$).

H1e

H1e said junior faculty females would teach more introductory courses than junior faculty males. The *t* test supported this hypothesis. The H1e line in Table 1 shows results. Junior faculty females taught more introductory sections ($M = .33$) than junior faculty males ($M = .21$). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but the effect size was small ($d = .17$).

H2a

H4a said males would teach more sections of public relations management-oriented courses than females. The *t* test did not support this hypothesis. The H2a line in Table 1 shows results. Females taught more management-oriented courses ($M = 2.43$) than males ($M = 1.49$). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), compared to the mean for introductory courses offered at each school ($M = 4.07$), but the effect size was small ($d = .37$).

H2b

H2b said ranked-faculty males would teach more sections of management-oriented courses than ranked-faculty females. The *t* test did not support this hypothesis. The H2b line in Table 1 shows results. Ranked-faculty females taught more management courses ($M = 1.32$) than ranked-faculty males ($M = .67$). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but the effect size was small ($d = .38$).

H2c

H2c said associate and full professor females would teach more management-oriented courses than assistant professor females. The *t* test supported this hypothesis. Senior-ranked females taught more sections of management-oriented courses ($M = .75$) than junior-ranked females ($M = .57$). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but the effect size was small ($d = .15$).

H2d

H2d said associate and full professor males would teach more management-oriented courses than assistant professor males. The *t* test supported this hypothesis. The H2d line in Table 1 shows results. Senior-ranked males taught more management courses ($M = .45$) than junior-ranked males ($M = .22$). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$), but effect size was small ($d = .23$).

H2e

H2e said junior-faculty males would teach more management courses than junior-faculty females. The *t* test did not support this hypothesis. The H2e line in Table 1 shows results. Junior-faculty females taught more management-oriented courses ($M = .57$) than junior-faculty males ($M = .22$). The difference was significant ($p < .001$), but the effect size was small ($d = .36$).

Discussion

This study is exploratory in nature, and its findings contribute to communication education, public relations education, and communication administration literature by determining that public relations faculty course distributions are different when taking assumed biological sex into account. If department chairs are making these course load decisions for faculty, then this serves as a clarion call to those administrators to find a way to distribute more equitably the undergraduate teaching load. If faculty, themselves, are choosing these courses to teach, then a logical follow-up question is why faculty are choosing to teach the courses that they are teaching. Regardless, these findings have direct implications for communication administrators because at this exploratory level, it appears that these teaching responsibilities are not distributed equally across the biological sexes.

While only half of the original hypotheses were supported, it is noteworthy that all results were significant. What our findings suggest is that teaching the upper-division courses in management is not viewed the same way as practicing management in industry; rather, what is noteworthy is that all labor intensive pedagogical activities (from this current study, upper division courses such as public relations campaigns, public relations strategy, and public relations management—and from the 2014 Waymer study, public relations writing and

advising PRSSA chapters) appear to be undertaken in majority by females. What this suggests is that the research of Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999) and Waymer (2014)—that would lead us to expect that females would teach more upper-division public relations courses than males—better explains our findings that the public relations roles research of Broom (1982) and Broom and Dozier (1986, 1995)—which states that females (possibly due to glass ceiling effects) in public relations tend to disproportionately enact the technician role, as opposed to the manager role, which is usually enacted by males. While true in practice, Broom and Dozier's work does not translate into the public relations education arena as the authors of this study originally assumed—unless we view all undergraduate teaching as a technician role and that role is placed on a continuum where more labor intensive teaching activities are linked to and viewed by faculty as a job task being classified as a more technician role and less labor intensive teaching activities are being linked to and viewed as a job task being classified as a lesser technician role. If viewed this way, then our findings would be consistent with the work of Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999) and Waymer (2014).

Logic would suggest that upper-division and capstone courses should be challenging (for both faculty and students). Simply stated, curriculum is expected to become more difficult the higher the course designation (100 level versus 300/400 level). Based on this logic, if we were to make a degree of difficulty assessment, what we see is that senior faculty males taught more sections of introductory courses than junior faculty males, and males overall taught more sections of introduction than females. Further research is needed to explore if chairs are consciously or unconsciously (with a sex-based bias) making these teaching allocation decisions or if faculty are consciously or unconsciously (uncritically accepting hegemonic industry sex roles where labor-intensive teaching equates to the technician role) self-selecting these particular teaching assignments.

Conversely, some might argue that introductory courses need senior teachers—for these courses are the gateway to the discipline. As plausible as that proposition may be, such a proposition would not explain then why more junior-rank females are teaching introduction than senior-rank females unless senior-rank females just collectively desire to teach upper-division public relations classes more than their junior-rank female counterparts. A specific breakdown of the courses taught are as follows: Ranked-faculty males taught more sections of introduction courses than ranked-faculty females; senior-faculty males taught more sections of introduction courses than junior-rank males; senior-rank females taught fewer sections of introduction courses than junior-ranked females; and junior-ranked females taught more sections of introduction courses than junior-ranked males.

Others might argue that these course allocations highlighted in this study are a mere reflection of the common practice that there is a hierarchy of courses and that more senior faculty have their more freedom in selecting which courses they teach. This would be consistent with the previously mentioned view that all undergraduate teaching can be viewed as a technician role and that role is placed on a continuum where more labor intensive teaching activities are linked to a job task being classified more clearly as a technician role and less labor intensive teaching activities are being linked to a job task being classified less clearly as a technician role. If we accept this perspective, then we must then begin to question why, according to Waymer (2014), females teach writing more than males, why assistant professor females serve as advisors to 35% of all PRSSA chapters at Carnegie-doctoral institutions, why assistant professor females serve as PRSSA advisers just slightly less than associate and full professor females combined, but why associate and full professor males serve as PRSSA chapter advisors more than assistant professor males. We must also begin to question, based on this current study, why senior females teach more sections of the capstone courses than

senior males if longer tenure comes with freedom of choice in courses and we view courses on a continuum of preference. Looking at these findings holistically, one sees that females are shouldering the undergraduate teaching load in public relations overall, and one can infer that assistant professor males are the most protected class of faculty in the discipline. Again, we do not know if these findings are the result of faculty choice or administrative choice, but we argue that this is not by chance. Regardless, administrators must be cognizant of these findings and try to determine the extent that they play, via their administrative roles, in these unequal course allocations.

Limitations of this study are present. First, this study provides a snapshot in time (the 2014/2014–2015 academic year). Thus, it is not clear if these results are typical of the field or if this year is an anomaly. Longitudinal data are required to see if trends can be detected. However, the study is attempting to provide baseline data for analysis by extending the previous scholarship that assessed faculty biological sex disparities in public relations writing and advising responsibilities. Another limitation is the fact that faculty could be taking on additional course overloads for extra pay. Even though this is plausible and could skew data, this possibility does not completely explain the observed differences between junior track males (teaching more introduction classes and less management classes) and females. A final limitation is that we did not approach this study with the purpose of predicting interaction effects; thus, the data were collected and coded in a manner that makes regression analysis difficult. To be more specific, we focused on the volume of introduction and management classes being taught. As such, we only counted the aggregate number of introduction and management sections being taught in a given academic year, and then we counted how many of those sections were taught by males and females, respectively. Thus, while a Levene's test indicated that variance in male and female groups was unequal, t tests could be quite robust despite this violation.

In closing, while there is no statistically significant difference between the number of full-time male and full-time female public relations faculty at Carnegie research institutions, rank faculty females continue to teach higher-level courses (and assumedly more labor-intensive core courses) such as strategy, campaigns, and implementation significantly more than their male counterparts. The rank faculty males are teaching more introductory courses than their female counterparts. One could argue that females are carrying a larger service responsibility than their male counterparts at all academic level ranks in the discipline of public relations. Females, if this disparity is the result of their own choices, might find themselves in a precarious situation as they seek to balance (possible) satisfaction derived from serving and teaching key courses that give students necessary skills (writing, campaigns, and cases) to be successful in industry with the competing tension that investing in these labor intensive courses (without adequate research time) can directly impede career advancement (if career advancement is their ultimate goal). No communication administrator hires a faculty member with the intent of jeopardizing that faculty member's success. Given that there are numerically more female public relations faculty than males, these findings suggest that communication department chairs should give greater attention to workload allocation to help ensure academic success for all faculty—especially their female faculty members.

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Mainstreaming Disaster-Relief Service-Learning in Communication Departments: Integrating Communication Pedagogy, Praxis, and Engagement

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Communication is the primary mode through which students inculcate critical thinking skills for (re)construction of social reality and engagement with communities in need (Craig, 1989). Thus it is well-suited to disaster-relief service-learning approaches that provide a pathway for democratic engagement with the material consequences of inequality evidenced in disaster-struck communities. Communication administrators can advocate for disaster-relief service-learning programs by aligning theoretically-informed student input in faculty–administration partnerships to construct transformative learning experiences sustaining trusting relationships. This study is the first to employ the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1986) to identify themes comprising student composite disaster-relief volunteering belief-structure and disaster-relief volunteering intentions elicited by surveys (N=352) and theme analyses of qualitative data. The findings center the role of communication administrators in integrating disaster-relief pedagogies and advocating for institutional initiatives that bridge "thought to action, theory to practice" (Boyer, 1994, p. A48) around the vital social issues evoked by disaster-relief contexts.

Keywords: higher education institutions, scholarship of engagement, civic engagement, service-learning, disaster-relief, theory of planned behavior, theme analysis

Natural disasters destroy homes and devastate local communities where they strike, but their impact ranges from the global (e.g., environmental—the Japan 2011 earthquake shifted the earth's axis; NASA, 2011), regional (e.g., economic—Hurricane Katrina, estimated $209 billion loss, BLS, 2007), to individual (mental health, Norris et al., 2002). It is also disproportionately borne by the marginalized (e.g., by gender, Neumayer & Pumper, 2007; or income, Kahn, 2005), underscoring how disparities (e.g., in access to resources) shape ability to withstand adversity. Post-Hurricane Katrina, the American Association for Colleges and Universities (AACU, 2005) tasked the academy with the "civic obligation not only to provide expertise to prepare for and respond to disasters," but also to provide a pathway for democratic engagement with the material consequences of inequality made explicit in disaster-struck communities. Disaster-relief service-learning projects address this call for stronger, equitable, and sustainable communities by providing students an opportunity to reflect upon issues of social justice and to achieve improved academic understanding and an ability to reframe social issues through civic engagement (Novak, Markey, & Allen, 2007). With each disaster, there is an increasing need for disaster-relief service-learning programs to help communities prepare, respond, and recover from disasters (Corporation for National and Community Service, CNCS, 2013).

Administrative support plays a pivotal role in successful faculty implementation of disaster-relief service-learning programs (Gibson, 2006; Johnson & Hoovler, 2015). Through coordinating with local government and communities and allocating financial resources toward nurturing disaster-relief service-learning programs, communication administrators can assist with connecting faculty expertise to urgent social need in ways that contribute to the

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ethos of the connected New American College (Boyer, 1994). For communication as a field, examining disaster-relief service-learning as scholarship of engagement to address real-life issues (Boyer, 1994) provides an opportunity to inculcate civic consciousness through dialogic engagement with deliberative principles in the construction of knowledge (McDevitt & Kiousis, 2006). For communication administrators, they constitute a programmatic resource to connect praxis and civic engagement with student recruitment efforts (Carpenter & McEvan, 2013). Although service-learning pedagogies are widely accepted in communication departments (Oster-Aaland et al., 2004), disaster-relief service-learning programs can be seen in departments ranging from geography (Mitteager & Drake, SUNY, Oneonta), behavioral sciences (University of Texas, Brownsville), to medicine (Temple University) or offered through civic engagement offices while integrated into discipline-based courses (Bentley University; Binghamton University).

This paper argues that with its disciplinary focus on engaging theory and praxis, communication as a discipline and communication administrators at all levels of the academy are in a unique position to advocate for the implementation of disaster-relief service-learning by aligning such programs with student expectations and motivations and presenting their enhanced capacity for promoting reflexivity, engagement, and experience with pedagogy in the curriculum (Frey, 2009; Frey, Pearce, Pollock, Artz, & Murphy, 1996). Toward this goal, this research identifies student motivational factors contributing to intentions to participate in disaster-relief programs, illuminating their composite belief structure, and providing recommendations for the design of disaster-relief service-learning initiatives. In doing so, the findings provide guidance for communication administrators to support disaster-relief service-learning and scholarship of engagement in communication departments by bridging "thought to action, theory to practice" (Boyer, 1994, p. A48) around the vital social issues evoked by disaster-relief contexts.

Institutionalizing Disaster-Relief Service-Learning Programs

In this section, I first provide an overview of scholarship of engagement and service-learning to discuss the unique potential and challenges of institutionalizing disaster-relief service-learning in higher education. Then, I outline how communication administrators can contribute toward connecting civic engagement with the potential of democratic engagement in disaster-relief service-learning contexts. I conclude with the research questions and hypotheses identifying student motivations for institutionalization of disaster-relief service-learning.

In Boyer's (1994) description of the scholarship of engagement, "professors apply knowledge to real-life problems, use that experience to revise their theories, and become…'reflective practitioners'" (p. A48). Thus, in Boyer's (1994) vision of the connected "New American College," academic institutions participate in real-life field projects and bridge the academy and the community through direct engagement constituted as service-learning. This is in line with the ethos of communication departments, where service-learning pedagogies embrace the "dialectics between communication theory and practice, between the individual and the social" and are thus uniquely suited to the study of communication praxis (Applegate & Morreale, 1999, p. xi). Service-learning as a credit-bearing experiential pedagogical design offers students an "organized service activity that meets identified community needs [to] gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 222). For successful institutionalization, service-learning requires careful consideration of

institutional mission and administrative leadership for coordination among faculty, students, and formation of community partnerships (Campus Compact, 2015). The role of administrators is crucial in order to support an ethos of learning incorporating community service by garnering faculty involvement and student ownership (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000).

Effective service-learning pedagogies consider the relationship of service-learning context with goals and outcomes in promoting transformational learning (Oster-Aaland et al., 2004; Sellnow & Oster, 1997). Current work on service-learning pedagogies has focused on (a) sustainability of programs (Campus Compact, 2010), (b) developmental benefits of civic engagement to the student (Howard, 2001), and (c) faculty-or university-specific outcomes (Driscoll & Lynton, 1999). Other models have distinguished service-learning orientations (skill building, civic engagement, social justice, Britt, 2012) or identified its phases (exploration, naïve excitement; clarification, values clarification; realization, insight into meaning of service; activation, advocacy; and internalization; career and life choices, Delve, Mintz, & Stewart, 1990). By integrating social and academic experiences, service-learning courses offer students numerous benefits including positive perception of the college, student retention, motivation to meet goals, earning credit, and student-faculty interaction in first-generation students (AACU, 2016; McKay & Estrella, 2008); identity development (Bowman, Brandenberger, Lapsley, Hill, & Quarantino, 2010), social responsibility (Yates & Youniss, 1996), teamwork (Larson, Hansen, & Moneta 2006), democratic engagement (Droge & Murphy, 1999), transformative learning outcomes (Reynolds et al., 2014); and increased civic engagement (Dewey, 1938).

However, student motivations for other-directed behaviors depend on the context and can range from intrinsic (motivated by internal enjoyment; e.g., prestige, self-esteem, a sense of belonging, Brehm & Rahm, 1997) to purely extrinsic (motivated by external contingencies, e.g., course credit requirements, Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen et al., 1998; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Furthermore, these can arise from developmental identity-based outcomes (e.g., feeling good about oneself, Grube & Piliavin, 2000) to functional goal-based outcomes (e.g., civic pride, Haski-Leventhal et al., 2008). Student participation in service-learning projects has been found to draw upon self development, civic responsibility, and academic grades as motivational drives as distinct from volunteerism, understood as unpaid civic participation with one's own free will (Ashcraft & Kedrowicz, 2002; Britt, 2012; Seifer & Connors, 2007). In this study, service-learning is understood as a form of either mandatory volunteerism (engagement in service-learning projects for limited periods of time), or interim volunteerism (giving "service regularly for up to six months and then disassociate from the organization," Lewis, 2005, p. 260), or episodic volunteerism (providing short term one-time or recurring services, Macduff, 2004). As scholarship of engagement, service-learning objectives, assessments, and outcomes that integrate with student learning goals can foster knowledge through discovery (research), integration (interdisciplinary connections), sharing (among scholarly and non-scholarly audiences), and application (critical reflection whereby theory and practice inform each other, Boyer, 1996). Service-learning pedagogies constitute scholarship of engagement by integrating student and organizational factors in reflexive and engaged forms of other-directed learning (Astin et al., 2000; for public relations students, Gleason & Violette, 2012).

Specifically, disaster-relief service-learning programs enable students to respond to inequality, democracy, and disasters with "reasoned inquiry, creative problem solving, compassionate concern, and a strong sense of social and civic responsibility for the long-term health of the democracy" (AACU, 2005). When the delivery of innovative disaster-relief service-learning programs is aided by appropriate institutional structures, the academy can act

on the promise of harnessing the transformative potential of experiential learning rooted in real-world challenges. Disaster-relief service-learning engages learners in a "combination of psychological, cognitive, and behavioral processes in ways that challenge and ultimately change their preconceived assumptions, beliefs, interpretations, and perspectives of the world around them" (Reynolds, Sellnow, Head, & Anthony, 2014, p. 18). With students at the center, the structure of disaster-relief programs comprises a highly-networked community (faculty, peers) to emphasize iterative design-driven processes that, given administrative support, can achieve sustainable integration of social justice advocacy in the curriculum (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

In response to the urgent need for disaster-relief service-learning programs post-Katrina, several universities across the U.S. sought to implement disaster-relief experiential pedagogies, not just for the devastated community, but also to build sustainable communities across the country. Such programs mitigate social stratification and link action and research for transformative engagement to build sustainable cities that can better respond to and recover from disasters. Tulane University focused its academic resources in service-learning programs building sustainable communities locally, regionally, and nationally by fostering civic leadership and combating racism and poverty (Devine, Chaisson, & Ilustre, 2007). Others further understanding of diversity and environment such as by helping New Orleans residents redesign communities through face-to-face conversations (e.g., Global Design Studio, Cowan, 2009; see also McArthur, 2013). The New School's social innovation platform helped communities' disaster response through creating a visualization and communication kit that builds local capacity (Kahane, 2016). These service-learning programs connect higher education institutions and communities to address universal issues of social justice evoked by disaster-relief contexts.

Successful programmatic implementation of disaster-relief programs requires institutional support (e.g., organizational resources, coordination pathways, networks) and advocacy and constitutes an important challenge of higher education (Cruz, Ellern, Ford, Moss, & White, 2013). Communication administrators can advocate for institutionalization of disaster-relief service-learning programs through policies addressing faculty tenure and promotion and provision of funding for preparation and formalization of programs (e.g., Citizen Scholars programs; Garver, Divine, & Spralls, 2009). In reframing the discourse surrounding disaster-relief service-learning institutionally, communication administrators can serve as important advocates in strategic planning connecting department faculty, students, community, and senior administration in several ways (Kilgo, Sheets, & Pascarella, 2015). Through garnering tangible benefits such as the ability to conduct full-time hires in service-learning, supporting faculty development initiatives that incorporate disaster-relief service-learning (e.g., reassigned time), and creating initiatives to advance community service as a norm (e.g., assistance to integrate disaster-relief service-learning; NCA toolkit, Conville & Weintraub, n.d.), communication administrators can advocate for high-impact practices for diffusion of curricular reform and aid adoption of service-learning principles (Holland, 2004; Ward, 1996). These principles include engagement (meeting public good, including community voices), reflection (linking service experience to course content), reciprocity (seeing participants as colleagues, not clients), and public dissemination (presentation to public, open for public dialogue, Campus Compact, 2010).

Identifying student beliefs and motivational factors for participation in disaster-relief service-learning programs can help align administrative support, student involvement, and institutional perceptions for sustainable integration (Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007; Roy & Oludaja, 2009). In particular, because disaster-relief volunteering is distinct in its ideological and risk-based (e.g., isolation, Agarwal & Buzzanell, 2015) or individual characteristics (e.g.,

younger workers, Rotolo & Berg, 2011), it draws upon a distinct set of student motivations. The theory of planned behavior (TPB, Ajzen, 1986) offers a framework for investigating the contribution of factors influencing disaster-relief participation intentions and illuminating the belief-structure constituting student motivations to participate in disaster-relief service-learning. The TPB proposes that motivation for human action is guided by three kinds of beliefs, which lead to the formation of behavioral intention: (a) beliefs and their evaluations about outcomes (behavioral-beliefs; attitudes), (b) beliefs about normative expectations and motivations to comply with these expectations (normative-beliefs; norms), (c) beliefs about factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behavior (control-beliefs; control).

The study tests the following hypothesis (H1): Behavioral beliefs and subjective norms will predict disaster-relief volunteering intentions, and poses the following research questions (RQs): (a) RQ1: What are the themes comprising the behavioral-beliefs of members toward disaster-relief volunteering intentions of college students through their university? (b) RQ2: What are the themes comprising the normative-beliefs of members toward disaster-relief volunteering intentions of college students through their university?, and (c) RQ3: What are the themes comprising the control-beliefs of members toward disaster-relief volunteering intentions of college students through their university?

Method

Upon obtaining approval from the researcher's institutional review board, responses to open-ended questions eliciting behavioral, normative, and control-beliefs were gathered alongside 5-point Likert scale items (1=*lowest* and 5=*highest value of the construct*) in a 20 minute survey administered online to participants in return for extra credit during Spring 2009 (*N*=352). Participants were primarily female (*N*=259, 73.6%) and Caucasian (*N*=283, 80.4%) undergraduate communication students at a large Mid-Western university, who voluntarily self-selected into the study after reading a brief study description informing them the study would ask "questions about your attitude, and behaviors toward participating in disaster-relief programs…[t]rust in your organization and how you identify with it."

Survey items for behavioral-beliefs (attitude), normative-beliefs (subjective norms; norms, SN), control-beliefs (perceived behavioral control; control, PBC), and behavioral intention (BI) were adapted from Ajzen's (1986) scale. These demonstrated good to excellent reliability ($\alpha_{Attitude}$ =.87; $\alpha_{Control}$ = 78; α_{Norms} =.71; α_{BI} =.90). Alongside the 5-point Likert scales, open-ended responses were obtained to elicit behavioral, normative, and control-belief constructs (3 open-ended questions each) based on Ajzen's (1986) questionnaire. Examples include: What do you believe are the *advantages* of your volunteering in a disaster-relief capacity at your educational institution in the forthcoming year? (Attitudes, Advantages: 606 sentences; Disadvantages: 410 sentences); Are there any individuals or groups who would *approve* of your volunteering in a disaster-relief capacity at your educational institution in the forthcoming year? (Norms, Approve: 626 sentences; Disapprove: 352 sentences; Other individuals that come to mind: 385 sentences); and, what factors or circumstances would enable you to volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity at your educational institution in the forthcoming year? (Control; Enabling circumstances: 703 sentences; Difficulty in volunteering: 631 sentences; Other: 397 sentences).

Attitude. Participants were asked to think about: "your feelings toward volunteering in a disaster-relief capacity at your educational institution." Responses were obtained to 5

items: "For me to volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity at my educational institution in the forthcoming year is" (*extremely harmful/ extremely beneficial*; *extremely pleasant/ extremely unpleasant*, recoded; *extremely good/ extremely bad*, recoded; *extremely worthless/ extremely valuable*; and *extremely enjoyable/ extremely unenjoyable*, recoded; *N*=350, *M*=2.57, *SD*=1.04, items averaged).

Subjective norms. Participants were asked to think about "what you feel important people around you feel about volunteering in a disaster-relief capacity at your educational institution in the forthcoming year" before responding to six items including: "Most people who are important to me think that I should volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity at my educational institution in the coming year" (*strongly disagree/strongly agree*), "The people in my life whose opinions I value would approve of volunteering in a disaster-relief capacity at my educational institution in the forthcoming year" (*strongly disapprove/strongly approve*), or "Most people who are important to me volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity for some days every year" (*strongly disagree/strongly agree*; *N*=350, *M*=4.5, *SD*=1.09; items averaged to create scale).

Perceived behavioral control. Participants read the statement: "This set of questions will ask you to think about your ability to volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity at your educational institution" before responding to four statements that were averaged to create control. Items included: "For me to volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity at my educational institution for a few days in a year would be" (*impossible/possible*), "If I wanted to I could volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity at my educational institution for a few days in a year" (*definitely false/definitely true*, after recoding) (*N*=350, *M*=3.12, *SD*=1.25).

Behavioral intention. 3 items: "I intend to. . . ," (*extremely unlikely/extremely likely*), "I will try to. . . ," (*definitely false definitely true* after recoding), and "I plan to volunteer in a disaster-relief capacity at my educational institution in the coming year" (*strongly disagree/ strongly agree*) were averaged to create behavioral intention (*N*=350, *M*=4.5, *SD*=1.09).

Data Analyses

The self-report data (*N*=352) were downloaded on the researcher's computer and IBM SPSS 19 was employed for data analysis. The open-ended responses were downloaded on separate Microsoft word files labeled by the constructs (behavioral-beliefs, normative-beliefs, and control-beliefs). Participant responses ranged from single word responses (e.g., "family") to a phrase or string of phrases (e.g., "knowing I'm helping others"), to a sentence or a few sentences separated by bullet points (e.g., "you are helping another person who greatly needs it"). Data reduction of all open-ended responses were carried out by the researcher working with an experienced disaster-relief volunteer through generating etic and emic categories and a coding scheme that guided the construction of emergent themes (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002) and keeping the theoretical generalizability of the data in mind (Holsti,1969).

As participants responded to specific TPB constructs, these constructs were examined for themes by the researcher during the open-coding process by moving iteratively back and forth comparing and contrasting the responses until thematic saturation was reached (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher and the disaster-relief volunteer discussed each participant response until a concise set of categories was established, integrated into stable heuristic themes, and revised for preciseness or accuracy. For example, under norms, a theme for responses focusing on those who were affected by the disaster was added as the "*client*" (drawing from the volunteer's experience where "clients" were the recipients). Similarly, under

control, "*legitimacy"* was added to include responses that spoke to the credibility of the efforts, e.g., "proof of the results," or "if it was proven to help people." Because of the non-repeatable nature of the open-ended questions and the unique, interdependent, and inductive nature of the categories, inter-coder reliability was not calculated (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002).

Results

H1 posited that positive behavioral-beliefs and subjective norms toward disaster-relief volunteering (but not control beliefs) will predict positive disaster-relief volunteering intentions in the university context (H1). A regression model was constructed with attitude, norms, and control entered together as the independent variables (IVs) and intention as the dependent variable (DV). The model explained a substantial and significant 43.6% ($p < .001$) amount of variance in intentions. The regression coefficients demonstrate that while attitude and norms make significant contributions to intentions, control does not. Thus H1 was supported (Table 1).

Table 1

Regression Models for Hypotheses 1

Regression Model	**IV**	**DV**	***B***	***p***	**Overall Model** ΔR^2, ΔF **(df),** ***p***
	Attitude	Intention	.526[a]	p <.000	N =348, ΔR^2=.436, ΔF (1,348)
	Subjective Norms		.668 [a]	p <.000	= 89.102,
	Behavioral Control		-.002, ns	p =.977	

[a]= p<.001, [b]= p<.01, [c]= p<.05; N = 348

Themes Comprising Behavioral, Normative, and Control-beliefs

Salient behavioral-belief themes. Theme analyses of the responses to the primary behavioral-belief motivations (RQ 1) reveal that participant motivations toward disaster-relief volunteering comprise a composite of categories balancing their assessment of *returns* to the self and *costs* to the self. As Table 2 illustrates, the two main themes of the behavioral-beliefs can be characterized under *loci of returns to self*, and *loci of costs to self*, defined along a continuum of intrinsic to extrinsic motivations (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and costs for anticipated behavior.

The following sub-themes were identified for the theme "*loci of returns to self*" (Table 2):

Table 2

Theme Analysis of Individual Motivations: Behavioral-belief Themes

Theme	Description	Salient Participant Examples
Advantages: Self-directed Loci of Returns		
1. Moral good	Helping others, altruistic	knowing I'm helping others, helping rebuild a little part of someone's life who was negatively affected
2. Character-building	Experience with life situations	you can learn a lot from others helping, a sense of accomplishment, you are gaining another perspective
3. Self-growth	Training	advance planning about emergencies, readiness, preparedness, learning more about the disaster-relief
4. Civic duty	Civic duty	it is a civic duty to help where needed
5. Social	Networking	Building friendships, making relationships
6. Professional	Resume' enhancement	volunteer work looks good on a resume, it looks good to jobs, put volunteering on your resume
7. Organizational	Good citizen	Positive effect on (*University name*)'s public relations,
8. Societal	positive example	gaining respect, others would be proud of you
Disadvantages: Loci of costs to self		
2. Returns		not being appreciated, may not make a big difference
3. Risks	Health, safety	possibility of getting injured, putting my life at risk
4. Qualifications	Training	not being qualified, requires hard labor
5. Organizational	Support	having to deal with angry professors, attendance
6. Social	Social networks	not knowing anyone else on the trip

(a) moral good, defined as the satisfaction of helping individuals, such as by "being a positive force in the world" (# 23); a sense of doing the right thing; (b) character building, defined as the gain in knowledge of a range of life experiences/ situations illustrating the experiential nature of disaster-relief service-learning as "making oneself more rounded" (#267) through exposure to the life-situations of those affected by a disaster; (c) self-growth, defined as the pragmatic knowledge gained of work done, e.g., through gaining skills, "being prepared in case of a disaster, knowing what to do in future situations, knowledge and readiness" (#212); (d) civic duty, defined as a belief in positive civic engagement as reflected in "giving back to the

community" (#552); (e) social, defined as the psychological benefits derived from meeting people and building relationships and friendships as reflected in the pleasure of socialization, building friendships and "spending time with friends" (#109); (f) professional, defined as perceived benefits on career goals such as work that "looks good on resume" (# 142) to future employers ; (g) organizational, defined as the benefits of contributing to the organization's positive reputation and climate as an indirect reflection of a positive benefit to the self, such as "help make this campus more secure" (#430); and (h) societal, defined as setting a worthy role model for building social capital as reflected through a gain in social status through civic engagement, "having people look up to you, gaining respect" (#135).

Theme analysis of the "*loci of costs to self*" of behavioral-beliefs fell under the following five main sub-themes: (a) psychological returns, or uncertainty of value of volunteering effort for the victims, not receiving thanks from those helped , uncertainty regarding the "impact I/the group I would be with would have" (#225); (b) risks, or the costs related to personal health, safety, and well-being, the belief that engaging in disaster-relief work "might put myself at risk" (#185); (c) qualifications, or costs associated with physical and emotional training to perform labor, "not having the skills to volunteer," or the emotional distress that participants would feel (#290); (d) organizational, or the negative effect on organizational performance such as through "missing classes, assignment; it would take time away from work and school" (#144); and (e) social, or the experience of negligible social interaction (#366: not having fun).

Salient normative-belief themes. Theme analysis for RQ 2 identified five motivational themes of normative-beliefs for volunteering intentions (Table 3):

Table 3

Theme Analysis of Individual Motivations: Norms—Relational Themes

Relational Foci		**Salient Participant Examples**	
		Approve	Disapprove
Personal	Family/ friends	spouse, parents, friends, mom, dad, siblings, grandparents, family members, peers, friends	boyfriend/ girlfriend, friends (wasting time), family (dangerous)
Professional	Superiors/co-workers/ peers/ employers	professors, teaching assistants, research assistants, bosses/co-workers, potential employers, instructors, teachers, future employers, sorority sisters	professors, students, teachers who do not agree with disaster-relief efforts, missing classes, boss, coach

Religious	Affiliations/ beliefs	God, Campus Crusade for Christ, people at my church	(*Name of Church*) Church, groups that have helping people against their beliefs
Associations	Groups/ Association	Residence hall association, ROTC, National Honors Society	Tae Kwon Do club, Neo-Nazis?
Experts	Individuals	environmental activists	None
Community	General, Everyone	Anyone would approve	Heartless people who do not like to help
Client	Those affected	The people we help when volunteering	-

(a) personal, from family and friends, e.g., "all my family and friends would approve" (#111); (b) professional, from organizational superiors and co-workers, such as at participant's out-of-school work place e.g., "my employer, although I wouldn't get paid time off" (#83); (c) educational, those at the educational organization such as professors, students, administrators, as indicated by individual professors' attitudes or organizational policies toward service-learning and volunteering at "individual schools within the university:" (#117); (d) religious, or normative-beliefs of religious organizations such as the church, suggested by concerns whether "my church group would approve" (#148); (d) associational, or beliefs of student groups such as service hours requirements of student associations and "honors clubs" (#73); (e) expert/celebrity beliefs, such as beliefs of animal science ambassadors, activists (#118), or volunteers (#119); (f) client, the beliefs of those being helped, as whether "the people we help when volunteering would approve of us volunteering and taking the time out" (#144); and (g) the community, or whether society in general would approve e.g., "all groups and individuals would approve of this behavior" (#104).

Salient control-belief themes. Theme analysis for RQ 3 for salient control themes revealed the following eight themes of control factors (Table 4):

Table 4

Theme Analysis of Individual Motivations: Control Themes

Themes	Salient Participant Examples	
	Enabling	Deterrents
Functional	had more free time to volunteer; economic situation	convenient for my educational plan, if a program were not available at my school
Information	information on disaster is available, advertisements for volunteering	No knowledge of opportunities; Not knowing where to sign up to volunteer
Social	most of my friends are doing the volunteer work	less inclined to volunteer in a small group where I did not know anyone.
Organizational	If we had programs at my university that allowed students to volunteer	ability for my majors to be flexible with the situation
Relationships	occurred at my school, happens to someone close to me was affected	husband, whether or not i can identify with the victims
Moral conscience	something terrible were to happen to the community, passion to help others	None
Coercion	If someone forced me, or I had to do it because of trouble I got myself into	Health, injury
Constraints	None	too emotional, unable to deal with [such] sadness, witnessed a lot in my short [life]
Legitimacy	Effectiveness of the relief, if it was proven to save lives or help people	How much I think it would help victims, if [t]he program had very little impact

(a) functional, including factors such as time, finances, location, transportation, e.g., "if disasters happen far away it is difficult to actually go and help" (#70); (b) information, including knowledge and awareness of activities, e.g., "not knowing where volunteer programs take place, or when" (#63); (c) social or having friends engaged in volunteer work, such as when "more people to do it with me so i'm (sic) not alone" (#315); (d) organizational, or programs and processes in the university to facilitate disaster-relief volunteering, or if "programs are unavailable" (#161); (e) relationships, in particular if the disaster affected people close to the individual, organizations, or the community close to the participant, e.g.,

": if my close friends are in need of help, I would rather do what I can do attend to them" (#160); (f) moral conscience, a civic duty to help individuals and the community, e.g., "just about any emergency compels me to volunteer and lend a hand" (#316); (g) coercion, such as if the participant were forced to volunteer as in a probationary context, e.g., "if someone forced me or I had to do it because of the trouble I got myself into" (#156); and, (h) physical or emotional constraints, as for example, "me getting emotionally involved" (#135).

Discussion

From an understanding of communication fundamentally as a practical discipline (Craig, 1989), applied communication scholarship and pedagogy have privileged practice informed by theory in ways that promote reflexive engagement and transformative practice for solving socially relevant problems (Barge & Craig, 2009). Communication administrators are thus well-positioned to champion for and integrate service-learning approaches in disaster-relief contexts. The study findings provide a rationale and theoretically grounded evidence for informing communication administrators' efforts institutionally and departmentally to advocate for and promote disaster-relief service-learning initiatives. Such initiatives not only fill the needs of devastated communities post-disaster but also help build capacity to create sustainable communities that are better prepared to withstand disaster and adversity. In his thesis proposing the connected academy, Boyer envisioned a model of excellence that would "enrich the campus, renew communities, and give new dignity and status to the scholarship of service" (1994, p. A48). For communication administrators at all levels of the academy, innovative disaster-relief service-learning programs, when thoughtfully implemented by integrating student input and faculty voices and supported by administrator coordination with community and government stakeholders, can further the vision of scholarship of engagement in communication.

Carpenter and McEvan (2013) note that a fundamental concern of communication administrators is incorporating student perceptions in ways that help administrators and faculty frame their communications to "design appropriate and engaging curriculum and market both the program and the graduates of the program" (p. 2). Theoretically, the findings address this call in important ways by contributing to communication administrators' goals of connecting institutional mission and vision to curricular offerings and student experiences. First, by providing communicative strategies in program implementation, the study provides a model for integrating disaster-relief service-learning within the student–faculty relationship to embody participatory leadership practices. By connecting student input for faculty within program implementation, communication administrators include curricular considerations in establishing a "direct connection with decisions and outcomes at the highest levels" (VanSlette, Schaefer, & Hagedorn, 2014, p. 12). Disaster-relief service-learning programs can exemplify one model for constructing faculty–administration partnerships that constitute the practice of communication in theoretically-grounded ways to promote transformative experiences for students, the academy, and the community. Incorporating theoretically-informed student input to guide faculty–administration partnerships for constructing transformative learning experiences is essential for sustaining the trusting relationships that are identified by the findings in the student themes. Furthermore, the student themes provide directions for administrators to coordinate connections between the government, administration, community, and faculty and student stakeholder groups to facilitate the pathways for implementing disaster-relief service-learning initiatives.

Second, the findings extend the literature on the TPB in disaster-relief service-learning contexts. The study is among the first to apply the TPB and demonstrate the contribution of behavioral and normative beliefs on student intentions to volunteer for disaster-relief programs (H1) and to identity the composite belief structure comprising student perceptions of disaster-relief service-learning initiatives (RQs 1, 2, and 3). They highlight the importance of the academic experience in shaping student attitudes as engaged citizens and constructing supportive relationships to assimilate and reflect upon their engagement the experience in transformative ways. The findings center the communication administrator's role in the coordination of strong, supportive stakeholder relationships and connecting these initiatives to the mission of the higher education institution. In doing so, the findings illuminate the potential and challenges of integrating disaster-relief service-learning learning with the goals of constructing sustainable communities, bridging disparities, and promoting the experiential learning outcomes of meeting real-life challenges through the deliberative application of service-learning course principles. The administrative involvement thus called forth helps meet the highest promise of service education as a high impact practice "in a twenty-first century liberal education…for a nation dependent on economic creativity and democratic vitality" (AACU, 2016).

Third, the study findings from the theme analyses are among the first to identify the themes comprising the composite disaster-relief belief-structure of students and to demonstrate the importance of behavioral-and norm-based beliefs for student disaster-relief volunteering intentions. Student perceptions of the disaster-relief service-learning context serve to illustrate the values (through the loci of returns and costs to the self) and relationships (normative beliefs) important for administrator efforts for institutionalization of strong, well-implemented disaster-relief service-learning engagements. The theme analyses reveal that behavioral beliefs toward disaster-relief volunteering of college students can be categorized under two themes: (a) the "*loci of returns to the self"* ranging from intrinsic to extrinsic rewards such as being morally good, building character, socializing, self-growth, performing a civic duty, professional benefits, and being a good organizational citizen and (b) the "*loci of costs to the self"* involving an assessment of the personal risks involved, appreciation from clients, not being physically or emotionally ready, being isolated, and negative organizational consequences. Normative beliefs, i.e., the perceptions of important referents, were found by the study to make the strongest contribution on college student disaster-relief volunteering intentions suggesting that parental concerns for safety and risk, acceptance from the community, or even the "clients," are important factors. Per expectations, the study did not detect a unique contribution by control beliefs. Its themes ranged from intrinsic, such as affecting relationships, and functional, such as provision of information from the organization, to purely extrinsic motivations, like coercion.

The study had a few limitations. Because the academic institution did not at the time of this research have a disaster-relief service-learning program, the study taps into hypothesized volunteering intentions of participants. As the sample was self-selected, non-response bias could not be assessed. As disaster-relief participants tend to be younger and organizationally-affiliated, the findings connect individual and organizational factors relevant to pedagogical efforts in academic institutions. Future research can (a) assess the reliability of the qualitative themes to extend generalizability of the qualitative data, (b) explore faculty perceptions and motivations for disaster-relief service-learning and how these can be aligned with pedagogical approaches to bolster university and student outcomes, and (c) explicate disaster-relief service-learning motivations for different forms of disasters (e.g., climate change or man-made disasters).

Recommendations for Communication Administrators

The survey findings and theme analyses can aid communication administrators' assessment and evaluation of disaster-relief service-learning programs to inform student disaster-relief civic engagement through design of scales based on the findings. They can also aid administrators in aligning the disciplinary ethos with institutional goals in designing recruitment material for students looking for critical engagement connecting content, coursework, and service for resume-building in theoretically meaningful ways. Specifically, communication administrators can incorporate the following message foci in their advocacy for disaster-relief service-learning institutionalization within departments and the academy: (a) connect the service-learning disaster-relief program with community engagement and humanitarian mission so students identify with the goals; (b) emphasize the moral good, character-building, self-growth, making friendships, enhancing professional qualifications, and civic pride while addressing negative perceptions of interference in routine, low appreciation by those affected, risks, and isolation during disaster-relief work; (c) obtain and highlight support from important others in the personal, professional, religious, and group associations; and (d) address organizational supervisor support and concerns of distance in intimate relationships of college students.

Conclusion

The findings of the research emphasize the role communication administrators can play in integrating student beliefs and perceptions toward disaster-relief service-learning as curricular faculty–led pedagogies and in advocating for institutional initiatives that reward community engagement. As a high impact practice, disaster-relief service-learning inculcates intellectual and pragmatic skills practiced across the curriculum through engagement with diverse communities and real-world challenges (AACU, 2016). By mainstreaming disaster-relief service-learning institutionally and in communication departments, communication administrators can contribute toward fulfilling the promise of higher education institutions as a New American College (Boyer, 1994) meeting an urgent social need, equipping its graduates to interrogate practices constituting social justice, and building sustainable communities. By strengthening the fabric of our civic society through connecting praxis with pedagogy and engagement privileged by communication as a practical discipline (Craig, 1989), communication departments and administrators can lead by aiding reflection upon social challenges, renewing communities in times of need, and acting to inculcate social justice in our communities.

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