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American Sign Language-English Interpreting Program Faculty: Characteristics, Tenure Perceptions, and Productivity

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AMERICAN SIGN LANGUAGE-ENGLISH INTERPRETING PROGRAM FACULTY: CHARACTERISTICS, TENURE PERCEPTIONS AND PRODUCTIVITY

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Moxie-Jim, by whom I have measured the passage of the last four years, and to my girls, Morgan Jo and Kennie, who have missed their momma and frequently ask when the "big project" will be done. And finally, this dissertation is dedicated to their father, Michael, with whom I look forward to spending more time.

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ABSTRACT

American Sign Language (ASL)-English interpreting education, which began as a community apprenticeship and vetting process, has within the last several decades moved into higher education. Most recently, the number of baccalaureate-granting ASL-English interpreting programs have continued to increase while the number of associate's degree programs has remained steady. This shift to higher education and to four-year colleges in particular has received little empirical analysis. The overarching objective of this study, which was framed by a conceptual model of the relationship between employment context, faculty member characteristics, perceptions and productivity, is to better understand how ASL-English interpreting education programs and their faculty fit within the academy. The first purpose was to describe the institutional context and professional and personal characteristics of faculty members within baccalaureate-granting ASL-English interpreting education programs in the United States. A second purpose was to describe the faculty members' and department chairs' perspectives regarding criteria and requirements for tenure and the extent to which their perceptions were aligned. The final objective was to determine if employment qualifications and context predict perceptions and productivity. Data were collected from program websites, department chairs, and faculty members of baccalaureate granting ASL-English interpreting programs in the United States. Descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyze the data.

Analysis of the data indicated that relationships exist between components of the conceptual model. Employment context and faculty members' characteristics included

variables that were significant predictors of perceptions and productivity. Implications for policy and practice include expanding degree opportunities for current and potential faculty members, increasing tenure-track appointments, increasing scholarly productivity in traditional outlets, and increasing the diversity of faculty members.

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INTRODUCTION

The Research Problem

Full-time university faculty members are, for the most part, able-bodied, Caucasian, heterosexual men with doctorates in the field taught, and these prototypical faculty members receive tenure and advanced promotions in greater proportions than their female and ethnically diverse counterparts (Few, Piercy, & Stremmel, 2007; O'Meara, 2005; Perna, 2001). These characteristics, however, do not necessarily describe the average American Sign Language (ASL)-English interpreting faculty member. American Sign Language interpreting programs likely employ women and faculty members who are Deaf in greater proportions than does the academy as a whole. ASL-English interpreting professionals are predominately female (Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, 2010); there is no evidence to suggest that the gender composition of ASL-English interpreting faculty differs significantly from the professional interpreter population. While deafness is often viewed as a disability and a purely audiological condition, deaf individuals who use ASL and ascribe to cultural values and norms consider themselves part of a language and cultural minority group; they are members of the Deaf community.[1] If ASL-English interpreting faculty members are predominately

[1] Throughout this paper the term *Deaf* (capital D) is used to denote not an audiological condition exclusively, but rather, membership in a cultural group with values, norms, and a shared language. The word *deaf* (lower case d) denotes an audiological condition of an

female with greater representation of cultural diversity (Deaf) members, they, as a field, may be disadvantaged in the tenure and promotion process.

In addition to the potential challenges described above, ASL-English interpreting has only recently moved into the academy. The move to higher education in general, and to four-year colleges in particular, "…means that interpreting faculty must have qualifications sufficient to satisfy the stricter hiring requirements at four-year institutions" (Winston, 2005, p. 209). Prior to this move to higher education, certified and experienced interpreters, often without advanced academic degrees, were interpreting teachers. As will be detailed later, the pool of qualified faculty members, by higher education institutions' definitions, is extremely limited, especially among deaf people. Thus, many Deaf people are excluded from interpreter education due to their lack of academic credentials even though their involvement is considered essential for students to develop fluent language skills and cultural competence with the populations they will serve (Cokely, 2005; Monikowski & Peterson, 2005; Winston, 2005).

Studies Addressing the Problem

Fant (2009) discusses true academic success as achieving "portable tenure," which is awarded from being active and well regarded within your discipline. He suggests that the tenure achieved within one academic institution is not, or should not, be the end goal. While this may be the case, most studies define faculty success as tenure and rank (Greene et al., 2008; Perna, 2001; Price & Cotten, 2006) or scholarly productivity (Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey, & Staples, 2006; Colbeck, 2002;

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inability to hear. Those individuals who are deaf may or may not be members of the Deaf community.

Fairweather, 2002; Massy & Wilger, 1995; Price & Cotten, 2006; Wright et al., 2004). Less attention has been paid to the role of evaluating teaching productivity (Colbeck, 2002; Davidovitch & Soen, 2006; Fairweather, 2002; Green, 2008; Wright et al., 2004) or service productivity, (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Few et al., 2007; Filetti, 2009; Harris, 2008; Macfarlane, 2007; Massy & Wilger, 1995; Neumann & Terosky, 2007).

Faculty members who are on the tenure-track but not yet tenured face a complex system of expectations that are often unspecified, contradictory, and unrealistic given time constraints (Dennis, Valacich, Fuller, & Schneider, 2006; Greene et al., 2008; Price & Cotten, 2006; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006). Perna (2001) detected that women and ethnic minorities are less likely to hold full professor status, even when human capital, research productivity, and structural characteristics were controlled, which indicates that those groups may have an even more difficult time within the tenure-system than their Caucasian male counterparts. Harley (2008) and Few et al. (2007), using personal experiences, describe factors contributing to the disadvantages facing African American women within the tenure system. They explain the increased teaching and service that they perform within and outside of the institution due to their status as African American women. The time spent on those activities can hinder research productivity, which is, in many institutions, the most important productivity measure for tenure applications (Green, 2008; Massy & Wilger, 1995; O'Meara, 2005; Shapiro, 2006; Wright et al., 2004).

There has been some discussion of alternative views of faculty reward systems. Specifically, Boyer's (1990a) *Scholarship Reconsidered* has been discussed extensively.

He encouraged institutions to evaluate and reward faculty for multiple forms of scholarship. In addition to the scholarship of discovery, which has traditionally been the standard for scholarship, Boyer suggested that institutions acknowledge and reward the scholarship of integration, application, and teaching as applicable to the institutional mission. O'Meara (2002, 2005), Shapiro (2006), and Braxton, Luckey, and Helland (2006) argue that changes in written policy do not automatically become the values of the institution and expanding the parameters of scholarship, even within institutions espousing to embrace it, do not always grant tenure or promotions to those who exclusively engage in the expanded forms of scholarship. In other words, those who do not engage in the scholarship of discovery are disadvantaged in the tenure and promotion system, as Few et al. (2007) discussed. Both O'Meara (2002, 2005) and Shapiro (2007) discuss the need for values-shifts before Boyer's ideals can be fully realized.

Teaching, although taking up the bulk of faculty member's time, is not the most important consideration for tenure (Greene et al., 2008). Recently, institutional and individual faculty productivity have come under scrutiny from policymakers in several states (Colbeck, 2002; Massy & Wilger, 1995), and teaching has been a primary concern. Colbeck (2002) examined two states' policies for improving undergraduate teaching. In one state, a mandate requiring additional teaching time was pursued, and another state provided an incentive for institutions improving educational outcomes. Even though state-level policymakers are beginning to place a greater emphasis on teaching, the literature suggests that teaching comes into tenure and promotion decisions only when it is marginally adequate or not adequate for high scholarly performers, or when the faculty

member emphasizes the scholarship of teaching and learning in their tenure dossier (Price & Cotten, 2006; Shapiro, 2006). Price and Cotton (2006) reported that while good teaching would not guarantee tenure, tenure is not attainable without competent teaching. However, "competence, again, is measured crudely as the absence of complaints of not 'grossly dissatisfying students" (p. 8). Green (2008), in a study of deans and directors of graduate level sociology programs, found that scholarship had primacy in tenure and promotions decisions for most schools. Leslie (2002) concluded,

> Faculty express an impressive normative unity about the value of teaching and the intrinsic satisfaction they derive from it…the common value system […] extends across disciplines and, with the exception of research universities, across all types of institutions. And even there, teaching is considered equally important with research. But the explicit reward structure of academe favors research and publication. (p. 70)

Hanley and Forkenbrock (2006) provide a model of financial reward allocation that would compensate faculty differentially depending on departmental emphasis, faculty negotiated emphasis, and relative productivity (i.e., weighted against other faculty members within the department) to align faculty work with the reward structure.

In most institutions, service is a required aspect of the tenure and promotion process; however, the requirements are less defined than most other areas of faculty work, and this area has the least prestige (Few et al., 2007; E. S. Lee, 2009). In Massey and Wilger's (1995) study, service was mentioned as duties that faculty members

perform, but service was minimally mentioned in terms of productivity or reward structures.

As discussed previously, tenure-track faculty members are expected to perform well in three areas of work (i.e., teaching, scholarship, and service), with different emphasis and time allocated to each area depending on personal, employment, institutional, and disciplinary among other factors. In most cases, service is of less importance than teaching or research (Green, 2008; O'Meara, 2002, 2005; Price & Cotten, 2006). Investigators have explored the relationships between these factors and faculty work-life. Using a model he created to distinguish highly productive faculty members, Fairweather (2002) determined the feasibility of being highly productive in research and teaching. He reported that "about 22% of all faculty in four-year institutions simultaneously attained high productivity in teaching and research" (p. 43), and when collaborative/active instructional techniques were included in the analysis, only about 6% were highly productive in both areas.

The relationship between faculty productivity, in all three areas, has been explored, with research productivity receiving the most attention. The most frequent input characteristics explored are personal or employment characteristics such as demographic characteristics and employment rank or tenure status (Antonio et al., 2000; Bland et al., 2006; Leslie, 2002; Neumann & Terosky, 2007), institution type (Antonio et al., 2000; Greene et al., 2008; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006) and discipline (Antonio et al., 2000; Katz, 1973; Leslie, 2002; Stack, 2001; Wanner, Lewis, & Gregorio, 1981). Differential productivity and expectations are linked to each area.

Limitations of Previous Studies

Few empirical studies addressing ASL and interpreting faculty members exist (Cokely & Winston, 2008, 2010; Cooper, Reisman, & Watson, 2008). Moreover, Cooper, Reisman, and Watson (2008) and Cokely and Winston's (2008, 2010) studies analyze data at the program level. Administrators of ASL programs (Cooper et al., 2008) and interpreting programs (Cokely & Winston, 2008, 2010) were surveyed. These studies provide important information such as the number and types of programs, estimates of current faculty population, trends and projected growth, employment status (e.g. full/part-time, rank, and tenured status), as well as the number of programs requiring specific academic and professional qualifications.

Deaf people, an underrepresented group, have thus far been excluded from explicit focus in the research literature. Their status as a cultural group has been overlooked in studies linking ethnicity and cultural background to faculty success indicators. For those who argue a disability status and not a cultural group status for deaf/Deaf people, the research literature provides no formal investigation of faculty members with disabilities, although faculty members with disabilities are explicitly included in a study of diverse faculty in a rural higher education institution (Hale & Ballard, 2011). The literature provides only anecdotal discussions of faculty members with disabilities (Tidwell, 2004; Vance, 2007; Woodcock, Rohan, & Campbell, 2007); no empirical studies investigate the impact of disability status on faculty success.

Thus far, reports of ASL-English interpreting program faculty have been collected and reported at the program level (Cokely & Winston, 2008, 2010). Cokely and Winston

(2008, 2010), as discussed previously, provide important information such as the number and types of interpreting programs, estimates of faculty current population and projected growth, as well as the number of programs requiring specific academic and professional qualifications. The study conducted by Cooper et al (2008), with a broad focus on ASL faculty, does not provide sufficient information about those ASL teachers who teach within interpreting programs. These studies provide an overview of ASL and interpreting faculty; they do not provide sufficient information about the specific numbers of interpreting program faculty, nor do they provide sufficient information about the number of faculty members holding specified academic and professional qualifications. This study addresses, among other issues, this important gap in the literature.

This study will build on previous literature in several ways. First, the study explicitly includes Deaf faculty members to ensure representation of this underrepresented group. Secondly, this investigation provides a glimpse into this stage of the emergence of ASL-English interpreting and interpreter education as academic disciplines. Lastly, this study builds on previous ASL and interpreting program literature with a change in unit of analysis; individual faculty members were surveyed.

The Significance of the Study

This study has two primary audiences: academic researchers and academics wishing to improve practice. Each is discussed below.

Academic Researchers

First, the study adds to the scholarly research literature about faculty members within higher education institutions. This study, specifically and explicitly includes

faculty members with disabilities. Focusing on an emerging academic discipline will expand the scholarly literature linking the academic discipline to scholarly productivity and other faculty outputs. ASL-English interpreting, as a field of study, entered four-year institutions fewer than 40 years ago, and programs at the master and doctoral level have emerged only in the last decade. ASL-English interpreting is a soft, applied field, much like social sciences and the field of Social Work, which have been shown to have lower levels of scholarly productivity than hard and pure fields (Green, 2008; Wanner et al., 1981). This study investigated faculty perceptions and productivity measures within the emerging interpreter education field.

Academic Practice

In addition to the general academics, this study has practical appeal for three primary groups: ASL-English interpreting program directors, graduate program faculty who prepare future ASL and interpreting faculty members, and individual faculty members. This information is relevant to ASL-English interpreting program directors due to the growing need for additional faculty. Quality educational programs in higher education depend on the stability of the program faculty. Long term faculty members, such as tenured and tenure-track faculty, provide program stability and consistency. Cokely and Winston (2010) indicate a trend toward an aging faculty; the number of faculty "expected to retire over the next 5 years" increased by 13% from 2008 to 2010. Cokely and Winston also reported noteworthy increases in the number of additional faculty needed in the next five years. Replacing retiring faculty and hiring for new faculty positions increase program instability and inconsistency. Losing quality teaching faculty

due to non-renewal or denial of tenure due to teaching or service productivity will intensify any reductions in quality stemming from instability and inconsistency. High quality programs are needed to adequately educate students to become competent interpreting service providers; therefore, retaining quality faculty is an important concern beyond the academy. This study attempts to disentangle the quality of faculty performance from the faculty members' understanding of the tenure expectations.

The literature is replete with references to the faculty socialization process that occurs during graduate school (Austin, 2002; Tierney, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Faculty and administrators of graduate programs can glean practical information to share with their graduate students to assist with their understanding of faculty roles and responsibilities. Finally, individuals currently employed as faculty members, and future faculty members (who may also be graduate students) may benefit from the research findings. On a personal level, faculty members may better understand academic culture and their own institutional factors important for re-appointment, tenure, and promotion decisions.

Research Purpose and Questions

The purposes of this study are threefold. One objective of this study was to describe the personal and professional characteristics of ASL-English interpreter educators employed by four-year academic institutions, as well as where interpreter education programs are housed in these institutions. The personal characteristics are defined as demographic factors including gender, age, race/ethnicity, and Deaf cultural status. The professional characteristics are defined in two categories: employment

qualifications and position status. Employment qualifications include professional and academic credentials. Professional credentials include certifications held and years of professional experience, which includes interpreting or related experience as well as teaching experience.[2] Academic credentials are defined as highest degree attained and field of study. Employment Status includes the faculty members' classification as full or part-time, rank (Assistant Professor, etc.), and tenure status (tenured, tenure-track, or off-tenure track). The second purpose was to describe interpreter education faculty members' and the department chairs' perspectives regarding criteria and requirements for tenure and the extent to which they are aligned. The third objective of this survey study was to determine if employment qualifications and context predict perceptions of the importance of and productivity in teaching, research, and service for tenure.

The following research questions are addressed in this study:

1. In what institutional types, departments, and colleges are baccalaureate granting interpreter education programs housed?
2. What are the demographic characteristics and employment qualifications of interpreter education faculty members?
3. What do interpreter education faculty perceive as the criteria and requirements for tenure?
4. What are the department chairs' perceived criteria and requirements for tenure?

[2] National certifications conferred by professional organizations such as Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.; National Association of the Deaf, Inc.; and American Sign Language Teachers Association among others.

5. Do faculty and chair expectations of the tenure criteria differ significantly from one another, and are there differences by faculty with differing qualifications, employment settings, and characteristics?

6. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with perceptions of the importance of teaching, research, and service for tenure?

7. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with productivity in teaching, research, and service?

Overview of Methods

Program and institutional data were gleaned from institutional websites. In addition, survey instruments were developed to collect data from faculty and department chairs. Faculty members and department chairs for each baccalaureate granting ASL-English interpreting program in the United States were contacted for inclusion in this study. A web-hosted self-administered survey was employed for faculty members. A web-hosted self-administered questionnaire was provided for department chairs who did not complete the semi-structured interview format. It was also provided to the chairs who also teach within the interpreting program. Descriptive statistics are reported for all variables. Descriptive and inferential tests were employed to answer the research questions. Statistical significance was determined at the .10 alpha level.

Delimitations

This study is limited to baccalaureate level ASL-English interpreting programs within colleges or universities in the United States. Full and part-time faculty members

teaching within those programs were surveyed. Faculty members housed within the same department, but working outside of the ASL and interpreting programs were not included.

Definitions of Key Terms

Throughout this paper, the term *Deaf* (capital D) denotes, not an audiological condition exclusively, but rather membership in a cultural group with values, norms, and a shared language. The word *deaf* (lower case d) denotes an audiological condition of an inability to hear. Individuals who are deaf may or may not be members of the Deaf community.

An *Interpreter Education Program* is defined as a baccalaureate degree-granting program focused on interpreting between American Sign Language (or forms of signing) and English.

Department, in this paper, denotes the academic unit in which the interpreting program is housed. Institutional structures differ, and in some cases, an institution may have both divisions and departments. In this paper, department refers to the academic unit that is smaller than a College or School level and usually is larger than the interpreting program, whether it is a department or division.

Department chairperson, or chair, in this paper denotes the leader of the academic unit in which the interpreting program is housed (see Department above). Within some institutions, this was a division or department chairperson. Other institutions had different organizational structures; therefore, a chairperson, per se, may not have been contacted. When a department chairperson did not exist within the institutional structure, an

administrator serving in a similar academic-administrative role was identified for participation.

Dissertation Organization

The remainder of this dissertation is organized into chapters: Chapter 2 Literature Review, Chapter 3 Methods, Chapter 4 Results, and Chapter 5 Discussion. The literature review begins with a brief history of ASL-English interpreting. An explanation of the conceptual model that frames this study is described in detail. The literature review ends with an overview of ASL and interpreting faculty members, which is framed by the conceptual model. The methods section provides an in-depth discussion of the research design, population, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures for this study. Chapter 4 provides the results of the analyses, while chapter 5 discusses the results and implications of the study. Chapter 5 also provides suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review provides a brief history of ASL-English interpreting followed by an explanation of the conceptual model framing this study. The literature addressing components of the model is reviewed. A discussion of ASL and ASL-English interpreting faculty members within higher education framed by the conceptual model completes this literature review. A summary concludes the chapter.

Brief History of ASL–English Interpreting

American Sign Language (ASL)-English interpreting began much as interpreting between spoken language pairs, that is, if two people did not speak the same language, they selected someone who was familiar with both languages to act as an intermediary for relaying messages. The history of ASL-English interpreting, previously summarized in Petronio and Hale (2009), is relayed here, and a summary chart of history of interpreting and interpreter education are provided in Table 2-1. Before the advent of professional signed language interpreting, members of the Deaf community were solely responsible for selecting intermediaries for their communication with hearing people who did not know ASL. Family members, teachers, or others with a tie to the Deaf community (e.g., counselors, neighbors, ministers) were the people who provided the needed interpretation (Cokely, 2005; Monikowski & Peterson, 2005; Stewart, Schein, & Cartwright, 2003; Winston, 2005). However, it was not the case that all hearing (or hard-of-hearing)

individuals who had a connection in the community became interpreters de facto. Rather, members of the Deaf community selected and groomed individuals they deemed "qualified" to become interpreters, typically individuals having adequate sign language skills and who would "act in the best communicative interests of the deaf individual" (Cokely, 2005, p. 4).

Thus, signed language interpreters were originally vetted into voluntary service as a result of being *part of* the Deaf community, rather than as professional outsiders who were providing services *for* the community (Cokely, 2005). As a result, prior to the 1970s, interpreting was viewed as "a voluntary and charitable activity" (Cokely, 2005, p. 3). The professionalization of signed language interpreting is generally recognized as beginning with the establishment of a national interpreting organization, which is now called the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID). Established in 1964 by vocational rehabilitation counselors, Deaf individuals, and others who saw a need for professional interpreters, RID had close ties to the interests of the Deaf community (Cokely, 2005). For example, new members were required to have two existing members vouch for them, thus continuing the selection process traditionally used in the Deaf community (Cokely, 2005). Gaining membership to the organization was the standard that an individual was qualified to work as a professional interpreter. As it became apparent that members vouching for new interpreters was not as effective at the organizational level as it had been at the community level, RID quickly began discussing a national testing system.

At the same time as the new organization was forming, the passage of national legislation greatly increased the demand for signed language interpreters. The Vocational

Table 2-1

Benchmarks in Sign Langauge Interpreting and Interpreter Education in the U.S.

Time	Interpreting	Interpreter Education
Pre-1960s	Interpreters were vetted via the Deaf community.	Groomed via the Deaf community
1964	Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. established.	
Mid-1960s		Short workshops and courses
1965	Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1965, first federal legislation to authorize payment for interpreting services.	Transitioned to two-year associate training programs.
1970s		National Interpreter Training Consortium, National effort to establish regional interpreter training programs. Conference of Interpreter Trainers established. First baccalaureate programs begin.
1990s	RID begins discussing educational requirements.	14 new baccalaureate programs begin
2000		4 new baccalaureate programs begin
2003	RID established Bachelor degree educational requirements effective July 2012.	

Rehabilitation Act of 1965 was the first federal legislation to authorize the provision of signed language interpreters for vocational purposes, and created the first paid interpreting work. In subsequent years, further legislative action (e.g., PL 94-142, The Court Interpreters Act, Americans with Disabilities Act) increased the demand for

interpreters (Cokely, 2005; Stewart et al., 2003; Winston, 2005). With the new legislation, service providers (i.e. those paying for interpreters) took over the hiring of interpreters, which excluded the Deaf community from their traditional selection process. As a result, those members of the Deaf community who were involved with interpreter education programs were the only community members who were now "grooming" interpreters (Cokely, 2005; Stewart et al., 2003).

Sign Language Interpreter Education in the United States

In the mid 1960s, interpreter education began as short workshops and courses being provided in various locations around the country. In addition to creating demand for interpreters, federal legislation also provided significant funding for initial efforts into more formal interpreter education, which led to the establishment of the National Interpreter Training Consortium in the 1970s. The Consortium was the first national effort to establish regional interpreter training programs (Ball, 2007; Frishberg, 1990; Stewart et al., 2003). As recognition of the complexity of the interpreting task emerged and more individuals who were not already competent in ASL began to study to become interpreters, longer training programs were established. Two-year associate's degree programs became—and remain—the most prevalent form of interpreter education programs available with over 100 programs still in operation in the U.S. At this writing fewer than 50 programs offer baccalaureate degrees.[3] While there only a few master's

[3] As of June 10, 2009, 72 Associate Degree Programs and 34 Bachelor Degree Programs were listed on the webpage from the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf www.rid.org, and 97 Associate Programs and 43 Bachelor Programs were listed on the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers' page (www.nciec.org/resource/iep.html) (Petronio & Hale, 2009). The difference is likely accounted for in how the programs were

level programs and one doctoral program. For a thorough history of interpreter education see Ball (2007).

The number of four-year programs is expected to increase due to policy enacted by the RID membership. Beginning July 1, 2012, all hearing candidates for national RID certification must hold a bachelor's degree. Although the policy does not require that the degree be in interpreting, there has been a growth in the number of four-year interpreter education programs since discussion of educational requirements began. Although only four new baccalaureate programs have been established since 2000, 18 new baccalaureate programs have been established since 1990 (Cokely & Winston, 2008, 2010). The move to higher education in general, and to four-year colleges in particular, means that interpreting faculty must have qualifications that will satisfy the established hiring requirements for faculty at four-year institutions (Winston, 2005, p. 209). Prior to this move to higher education, certified and experienced interpreters, often without advanced academic degrees, became teachers in interpreting training programs. As will be detailed later, the pool of qualified faculty members, by institutions of higher education definitions, is extremely limited, especially among Deaf people. Thus, many Deaf people are excluded from involvement in interpreter education due to their lack of academic credentials even though their involvement is considered essential for students to develop fluent language skills and cultural competence with the populations they will serve (Cokely, 2005; Monikowski & Peterson, 2005; Winston, 2005).

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labeled. The NCIEC includes interpreting minors and concentrations that are taken in conjunction with other programs of study; those minors and concentrations are often offered in conjunction with Deaf or ASL Studies programs.

ASL Instruction in Higher Education

Although not all ASL courses are connected to interpreting programs, ASL fluency is an essential component of interpreter education. An area where Deaf people have documented involvement with interpreter education is in teaching ASL. ASL is one of the fastest growing language offerings in higher education (Cooper et al., 2008; Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2006; Jacobowitz, 2005; Miller, 2008; Quinto-Pozos, 2005). The Modern Language Association reports that between 1998 and 2002, enrollment in ASL courses experienced exponential growth; the 2006 report indicates that ASL "… is ranked fourth with nearly a third more enrollments (29.7%) than in 2002" and in two-year institutions it ranks second (Furman et al., 2006, p. 3). ASL does not fare as well at the advanced level; it has among the lowest percentage of enrollment compared with other language courses. This could be due in part to the difficulty of learning ASL. Quinto-Pozos (2005) reports that ASL is classified as a "category 4" language, which indicates that it is very different from English and very difficult for English speakers to learn. A lack of teaching texts and materials for advanced study coupled with the limited understanding of ASL linguistics may have also hindered the growth of advanced ASL courses (B. Nicodemus, personal communication, March 1, 2012). Another reason for the lack of advanced study of ASL could be the status and placement of ASL within institutions of higher education. Relatively few degree granting programs focusing on ASL, Deaf studies or interpreting exist, and ASL programs traditionally are not housed in language departments. ASL courses usually are affiliated with human service programs such as education, communication, rehabilitation, and signed language interpreting.

Programs offering ASL as an adjunct to the service professions other than interpreting may not see a need to offer advanced coursework (Miller, 2008). The placement of ASL in these departments may limit its status as a language worthy of academic endeavor and may have implications for faculty members' experiences in higher education. The brief history of interpreting and interpreter education provides a lens for the discussion of ASL and interpreter education within four-year institutions that follows the conceptual model, which is discussed next.

Conceptual Model Overview

The productivity of faculty members in higher education has been correlated with several factors. The literature and the author's professional conversations and experiences guided the development of the conceptual model for this study (see Figure 1). This model provides a depiction of the experience of a faculty member upon entering the higher education system. Following a brief overview is a discussion of each component of the model and the relationship between its parts.

Each new faculty member enters an employment context, in this case the higher education system, with a unique set of demographic, professional, and employment characteristics. Over time, the faculty member is socialized to the expectations of the specific employment context. As a result, the faculty member develops perceptions about the relative importance of teaching, research, and service within that employment context. As perceptions are developed, the faculty member begins producing outcomes in those domains; productivity may or may not align with the written and unwritten policies.

Productivity is then evaluated by the employment context, either formally or informally, which in turn may result in adjustments of the perceptions of the tenure requirements.

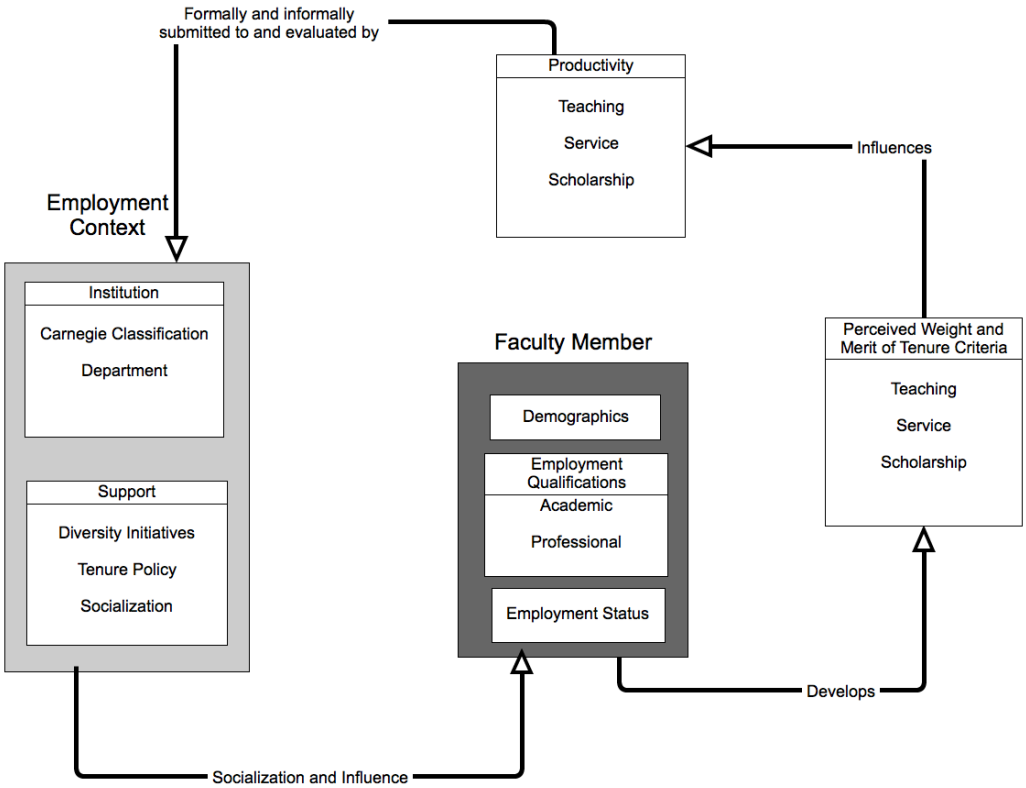

Figure 1. Conceptual Model of the relationship between employment context, faculty member characteristics, perceptions, and productivity relative to tenure criteria.

Components of the Conceptual Model

Employment Context

American higher education institutions, especially those offering bachelor's and graduate degrees, share a common value system. This value system, academic culture, consists of, in part, work expectations for faculty members. As Mabrouk (2006) states "…no matter what kinds of academic institution you are at--public, private, four-year college, comprehensive university or graduate research university, it [work] all boils

down to teaching, research and service" (p. 1030). How it all "boils down" is determined in large part by academic institution type (Leslie, 2002; O'Meara, 2005; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006); however, at times determining where the primary emphasis lies in a particular institution is difficult for individual faculty members (Davidovitch & Soen, 2006; Greene et al., 2008; Leslie, 2002; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006). The plethora of peer-reviewed articles focused on assisting new tenure-track faculty members succeed in the endeavor suggests that uncertainty exists in the tenure and promotion process (Austin, 2002; Cramer, 2006; Eddy & Gaston-Gayles, 2008; Gillespie et al., 2005; McCormick & Barnes, 2008; Murray, 2007; Nir & Zilberstein-Levy, 2006). According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, slightly more than 70% of tenure applicants are granted tenure (O'Meara, 2005); thus, it appears that the majority of tenure-track faculty members are adequately aware of and able to satisfy the essential expectations of academic work even though incongruence often exists in reward systems. For example, institutions that promote teaching as a priority may have systems that reward research much more heavily than teaching (Boice, 2000; Davidovitch & Soen, 2006; Leslie, 2002). Additionally, research is weighted more heavily now than the recent past (O'Meara, 2005). Boice (2000) and Shapiro (2006) contend that scholarly productivity is used as the basis to deny tenure while insufficient service (Boice, 2000) and ineffective teaching (Shapiro, 2006; Toews & Yazedjian, 2007) are less likely to be the reason for denied tenure. While scholarship and to a lesser extent teaching have priority, service receives less weight in promotion, tenure, and merit pay adjustments (Green, 2008; Katz, 1973; Neumann & Terosky, 2007; O'Meara, 2002, 2005; Toews & Yazedjian, 2007).

The employment context of this model includes institutional and support features. As O'Meara (2005) states:

> While demographic characteristics (such as race, gender, and age), and discipline have been found to significantly influence reward systems, a third factor, institutional type may have the most profound influence on expectations for faculty work and their subsequent influence on evaluation criteria and outcomes. (2005, p. 483)

Some socialization to academic culture occurs during graduate school, but the primary way that faculty members learn about academic expectations is to work within academia, within a specific institution and support system (e.g., Austin, 2002; Tierney, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Features of these components are explained below.

Institution. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2011) is the most commonly used higher education institutional classification system. Using multiple characteristics of institutions, the Foundation has classified higher education institutions within the United States. The classification system includes public and private institutions from two-year associate's degree granting institutions to research extensive doctoral granting institutions. O'Meara (2005) states, "Institutional type may have the most profound influence on expectations for faculty work and their subsequent influence on evaluation criteria and outcomes" (p. 483). Institutions classified as research intensive or extensive may demand higher levels of scholarly productivity and grant seeking for promotion and tenure, whereas liberal arts baccalaureate institutions may not grant tenure primarily on research productivity. As such, many studies of faculty productivity use the

Carnegie classification system as a control or as a grouping variable or as the analyzed group not including those in other classifications (August & Waltman, 2004; Fairweather, 2002; Greene et al., 2008; Link, Swann, & Bozeman, 2008; O'Meara, 2002, 2005; Perna, 2001).

The academic department is where faculty members interface daily; thus, this is where much academic socialization will occur. This section includes the discipline specific influences. The literature suggests that academic discipline has an important contribution to scholarly productivity. For example, Wanner, Lewis, and Gregorio (1981) who assumed discipline as an important predictor, regressed background (i.e., personal characteristics) and disciplinary context onto scholarly productivity. They concluded "that a unitary model of scholarly or scientific productivity cannot be assumed to operate in all academic disciplines" (Wanner et al., 1981, p. 250). In addition to differing levels of productivity, discipline influenced the outlet of productivity. Physical and biological scientists were much more productive in terms of article publication than in book publishing, while humanist were the opposite – much more likely to publish books than articles. While Wanner et al., (1981) detected differing productivity among disparate disciplines, Hotard, Tanner, and Totaro (2004) found productivity differences in closely related disciplines. Hotard et al. (2004) reported that Management faculty had significantly greater publications per year than Management Information Systems faculty.

In a study of academic leadership preferences, Kekale (1999) used Becher's (1989) disciplinary classification system. The cognitive dimension of the classification system includes the dichotomies of hard/soft and pure/applied. In both studies cited

above, faculty members from the "hard" disciplines were significantly more productive scholars. In this study, the academic departments housing the interpreting programs were classified by two dichotomies, hard/soft and pure/applied. Additionally, the research orientation of the department (i.e., how important research is, and orientation of the appointment as primarily teaching or research), workload, including course assignments, service commitments, and other features of faculty work dictated by the department are conceptualized in this aspect of the model, although they were not explicitly analyzed in this study.

Support. Heavy emphasis has been placed on providing support to junior faculty members to assist them with the demands of academia so they can become productive members of the institution and achieve tenure. Prevalent forms of support include mentoring and writing groups, which typically emphasize scholarly productivity (Cramer, 2006; Gillespie et al., 2005; Kaya, Webb, & Weber, 2005). The literature suggests that academic units, especially department chairs, have a large influence and responsibility for promoting scholarly productivity (Cramer, 2006; Few et al., 2007; Kaya et al., 2005). In a study comparing faculty goal setting to departmental and institutional emphasis, Kaya, Webb and Weber (2005) found a significant positive relationship between individual goal setting and departmental emphasis. When scholarly productivity was a major emphasis within the department, participants had more goals related to scholarship than the other areas of faculty work (i.e., teaching and service). When the departmental emphasis was teaching, faculty members had more teaching related goals. Cramer (2006) encourages department chairs to take leadership roles in creating a culture of scholarship, even if the

institution is not highly focused on it. Few, Piercy, and Stremmel (2007) provide a narrative account of how department level administrators took leadership roles to assist a junior female faculty member of color to meet the challenges of scholarship, while continuing her less highly valued outreach and service initiatives. Here, support includes three facets: diversity initiatives, tenure policy, and socialization process.

Diversity. Numerous higher education institutions currently recognize the benefits of having a diverse faculty and provide institutional support for diversity plans that focus on recruiting minority faculty members (Igwebuike, 2006; Piercy et al., 2005; D. G. Smith, Turner, Osei-Kofi, & Richards, 2004). Smith et al. (2004) found that having a job description that "explicitly engages diversity at the department/subfield level" (p. 134) and employing strategies such as search procedure waivers, target hires, and spousal hires, or ethnically/racially diverse search committees significantly increases the likelihood of hiring a minority candidate. While hiring minority faculty members is important, retaining those faculty members is arguably more important.

While hiring is a concern, other researchers emphasize the importance of keeping faculty members on campus once they are hired. Murray (2007), Thompson (2008) and Hale and Ballard (2011) indicate that systems must be in place to entice minority faculty members to remain at the institution once recruited and assist them in receiving tenure (Igwebuike, 2006; Piercy et al., 2005; Thompson, 2008). The literature indicates that the difficulties faced by new faculty members are no less intense, and may be more so, for faculty members who are minorities (Igwebuike, 2006; Murray, 2007; Piercy et al., 2005; Thompson, 2008). Perna (2001) reports that the proportion of minority and female faculty

members holding advanced rank and receiving tenure is significantly less than the proportion of minority faculty members holding assistant professor rank. Minority faculty members fair less well within faculty reward systems that emphasize discovery scholarship at the expense of teaching and service because minority faculty members are often over committed in the area of service – due to diversity committees and minority student mentoring – and are, as a group, more involved with scholarship of application, integration, or learning than their non-minority counterparts (Few et al., 2007; O'Meara, 2005; Piercy et al., 2005). Additionally, faculty members with disabilities may have many obstacles to overcome. Although empirical research does not address faculty members with disabilities, anecdotal evidence suggests that they face similar struggles. Vance's (2007) edited volumn includes a plethora of essays written by faculty members with disabilities.

Diversity in higher education typically refers to ethnic or racial diversity; some studies include any marginalized class within the definition. Using a broad definition extends diversity to women, people with disabilities, as well as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT) individuals. Several studies point to the disadvantages that women, ethnically/racially diverse, and other types of diversity have within academia. Women, faculty of color, and LGBT faculty all may "find that asserting their own teaching and research interests in the academic culture may handicap them in seeking tenure and promotion" (Antonio et al., 2000, p. 376). O'Meara (2002), in an investigation of the scholarship of service, as defined by Boyer (1990a), found that scholarship of service was not as highly valued as other more traditional forms of scholarship; however, those who

were already marginalized (i.e., women, faculty of color, assistant professors) within the institution were more likely to be engaged in scholarship of service. "The values and beliefs sustaining traditional academic reward structures do not support the professional interests of a diverse faculty nor a diverse mission" (O'Meara, 2002, p. 75). Perna (2001) in a study inclusive of gender and racial/ethnic differences found that the "lower representation of Black, Hispanic, and Asian noncitizens among tenured faculty is not entirely attributable to human capital investment, research productivity, or structural characteristics" (p. 561).

Some researchers suggest that marginalization of women may be due, in part, to their lack of an accurate understanding of employment expectations. Todd, Madill, Shaw, and Bown (2008) in an investigation of 256 faculty in the United Kingdom found that men had more realistic understanding of how research is evaluated and rate research as more important for their careers than did women. While men were more likely to work over hours by choice, women were more likely to work additional hours due to teaching workload. Women, in this study, also rated teaching qualifications as more important for their careers than did men, even while rating the importance of teaching for their careers similarly to the men. Perna (2001) found that, while women were as likely to achieve tenure (when other differences are accounted for), they were less likely to hold full professor rank, which usually affords a higher salary. Although studies have not investigated understanding of evaluation criteria among other marginalized faculty, Todd, Madill, Shaw, and Bown's (2008) findings shed some light on the level of understanding of those faculty as well.

Tenure policy. Institutional and departmental tenure policies are vague and do not always reflect the values or tenuring practices within the institution or department (Cheverie, Boettcher, & Buschman, 2009; Filetti, 2009; O'Meara, 2002, 2005). As O'Meara (2002, 2005) and Chevierie et al. (2009) discuss, changes in wording do not always engender changes in practice. Even when tenure policies are revised to explicitly support alternative forms of scholarship, as defined by Boyer (1990), when the policy is implemented, old value systems remain and the policy may not align with practice (Chevierie et al., 2009; O'Meara 2002). Filetti (2009) states that even when scholarship and teaching are clearly defined, service is often un- or under-defined. Departments are typically where tenure expectations are conveyed and the initial tenure decisions are made; therefore, in this model, institutional tenure policies were represented by implementation of the policy. In this study, the chairpersons' perceptions of tenure expectations served as a proxy for implementation of the formal and informal tenure policy within the institution and department.

Socialization. New tenure-track faculty members are often not fully prepared to assume the professorate (Austin, 2002; Cramer, 2006; Eddy & Gaston-Gayles, 2008; Kaya et al., 2005; McCormick & Barnes, 2008; Murray, 2007; Nir & Zilberstein-Levy, 2006). The socialization process that occurs during graduate education is insufficient for preparing prospective faculty members for the demands of academia (Austin, 2002; Keith & Moore, 1995; Rosch & Reich, 1996). In one study, even faculty members who received a doctorate in educational administration were unprepared for the "nuances" of faculty appointments (Eddy & Gaston-Gayles, 2008). The "culture is the commonly held

and relatively stable beliefs, attitudes and values that exist within the organisation" (Williams et al 1993 p. 14, as cited in Pratt, Margaritis, & Coy, 1999, p. 45). Additionally, Bolman and Deal (2008) identified two parts of culture: product and process. "As a product, it embodies wisdom accumulated from experience. As a process, it is renewed and re-created as newcomers learn the old ways and eventually become teachers themselves" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 269).

University faculty members work within the broad culture of academia and within specific cultures of disciplines and programs, which they may learn by reading policies and handbooks and more importantly by interacting with and observing colleagues. In an investigation by Rosch and Reich (1996), new faculty members gained much of their understanding of academic cultural via “informal communication and by observing current faculty as sensitive issues were debated” (p. 126-127). Rosch and Reich (1996) posit a four-stage acculturation process for new faculty members that begins with predispositions prior to arriving on campus that stem from “the professional identity and role orientation acquired during graduate training” (p. 116). The acculturation process also includes a series of experiences and processes once faculty members join a particular institution and department. Pratt, Margaritis, and Coy (1999) found a similar socialization process within a changing university. In a changing environment, faculty members learn beliefs, attitudes, and values through others’ behaviors, oral and written communication, policy manuals, systems and rules, and the behavior of management.

Faculty Member

Each faculty member enters academia with a unique compilation of traits. In this study, the faculty characteristics under investigation include demographics, qualifications, and position status.

Demographics. Demographic data includes those concepts traditionally collected such as age, gender, and ethnicity. These demographic factors have been used as predictors of faculty productivity in previous studies (Antonio et al., 2000; Davidovitch & Soen, 2006; Fairweather, 2002; Macfarlane, 2007; O'Meara, 2005; Perna, 2001; Todd et al., 2008). As discussed above, research suggests that faculty characteristics and programmatic characteristics impact faculty outcomes, or productivity. Specifically, Todd et al. (2008) suggests that women and men have different understandings of what work is important and how work is assessed. In addition to previously examined characteristics, the current study also includes the factors of disability status and cultural identity. This study includes an area with limited exploration. The relationship between Deaf culture status and faculty productivity has not yet been empirically investigated in the literature; however, I argue that for interpreter education faculty members, disability status and cultural identity are critical factors influencing productivity.

Employment Qualification. While many college and university faculty members hold a doctorate in the field taught (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.) for reasons discussed below, employment characteristics in this model include the academic and professional qualifications of the faculty member. Some disciplines allow deviation from the norm of a doctoral education. For example, the business-faculty literature refers

to *professionally qualified* versus *academically qualified*. Academically qualified is defined as holding a doctorate in an academic field. Conversely, professionally qualified faculty typically, hold a master's degree in the field taught along with professional credentials (e.g., certifications, licenses) and related professional work experience (Henninger, 1998; K. J. Smith, Haight, & Rosenberg, 2009). In some fields, such as fine arts, academically qualified may be defined as holding a terminal degree, such as a Master's of Fine Arts. Professionally qualified faculty are found in fields such as business and finance (Beattie & Goodacre, 2004; Henninger, 1998; K. J. Smith et al., 2009). The literature points to differences in scholarly productivity, tenure, and promotion between academically and professionally qualified faculty members (Beattie & Goodacre, 2004; Henninger, 1998; K. J. Smith et al., 2009).

Because no doctoral programs in interpreting have graduated students to date, and few master's programs exist, the logical inference is that ASL-English interpreting faculty do not fit the typical faculty academic profile. In a study of criminal justice faculty, Stack (2001) found that the field of faculty degree was a significant predictor of productivity. Thus in the current study, academic credentials include the level *and* field of degree. Winston (2005) and Cokely (2005) state that the historic trend for interpreter educators is to be professionally qualified. For ASL-English interpreting instructors in this study, professionally qualified faculty hold professional interpreting credentials, teaching credentials, or other professional designations. Interpreter educators may have professional and academic qualifications.

Employment Status. This component of the model includes two aspects of employment status. First, the faculty members' general employment status, such as, full-time, part-time, or adjunct status is considered. Secondly, tenure-track status is considered. The primary distinction used in this study is that of tenure-track or aspiring, and contingent status.

Conceptually in the model, employment qualifications have a relationship with and influence position status. For example, individuals holding doctoral degrees may be more likely to view themselves primarily as researchers, and are expected to represent a higher proportion of the full-time tenure-track positions than those faculty members without doctorates.

Perceived Weight and Merit of Tenure Criteria

The conceptual model for this study assumes that successful socialization into an organizational culture results in work productivity that aligns with the academic culture of the department. Perceptions and productivity are explained below.

In this model, perceptions refer to faculty members' perspectives of the criteria to achieve tenure and the perceived ability to meet those criteria, both of which are influenced by the socialization process. Faculty perception has received limited attention in the literature to date; however, I argue that perception is a crucial aspect of the conceptual model. If faculty members do not perceive their requirements accurately, they are not likely to successfully navigate the tenure and promotion system. Although not investigated in this study, faculty members' perceived ability to meet the tenure expectations might impact their ability to satisfy institutional tenure requirements. The

faculty members' perceptions of the requirements and their actual ability to meet the tenure requirements maybe influenced by their personal and employment qualifications.

As discussed previously, numerous studies have suggested that new faculty members are frequently unsure of the minimum expectations to achieve tenure. This lack of understanding of expectations may be compounded when faculty members do not hold advanced degrees or are disadvantaged in the socialization process. It has been shown that Deaf students lack access to interpreters during non-class times (Cawthon, 2009) and it may be assumed that Deaf faculty members are also disadvantaged by not having direct and unlimited access to the formal and informal socialization process within their departments. Even if the department has full-time interpreters and/or full-time ASL use by all department members, Deaf faculty members may still experience limited access to institutional socialization that extends beyond the department level. Lack of access to the typical socialization process may result in inaccurate perceptions of tenure criteria and expectations.

The perceived ability to meet expectations should be higher when there is a match between faculty input factors and employment context. As illustrated in the conceptual model, I propose that faculty members are more likely to be hired into positions that align with academic qualifications than with professional qualifications. When their academic qualifications are aligned with the institutional type (i.e., doctorate holders are employed in doctoral level institutions), their previous research training is likely to impact their perceptions about required faculty work. Additionally, they may be more likely to feel prepared to meet those work requirements because they have sufficient training for that.

In cases where faculty members without doctorates are granted tenure-track positions, they may be less likely to feel up to the challenge of tenure expectations because they lack sufficient research training for scholarly productivity. The inverse is also true: Professionally qualified faculty employed in baccalaureate or master's institutions that have a greater emphasis on teaching and less emphasis on scholarly productivity may feel better prepared to meet those expectations because they may have additional training or professional development in curriculum and instruction.

Productivity

In this model, productivity refers to the three traditional components of faculty work on which tenure decisions are based: teaching, service, and scholarship. Overall teaching effectiveness, number of various types of scholarly products (e.g., articles, presentations), and number of various levels of service activity (e.g., institutional, professional, community) are the factors being represented in this model.

American Sign Language and Interpreting In Higher Education

While this study specifically examines the experiences of interpreter education faculty members, it is necessary to include literature on both ASL and interpreter education faculty for two primary reasons. First, most of the literature addresses ASL faculty exclusively. Secondly, ASL courses are prerequisite to and often part of interpreter education programs; thus, in many cases, ASL faculty members are also interpreter education faculty members. It is important to note that more institutions of higher education offer ASL courses or programs than offer interpreter education courses or programs.

To understand how ASL and interpreting faculty conform to higher education's expectations of faculty one must consider the faculty input, employment context, and faculty perceptions and productivity factors in the conceptual model.

ASL and Interpreting Faculty Employment Qualifications

Studies to date have primarily focused on Deaf individuals and/or ASL faculty member credentials (Cooper et al., 2008; Forestal, 2001; Jacobowitz, 2005), with the exception of Winston (2005), Cokely and Winston (2008, 2010), and Miner and Nicodemus (2008), which focus on interpreting faculty members. As discussed previously, some fields within academia make a distinction between academically qualified and professionally qualified faculty. Although ASL-English interpreting has yet to formally make that distinction, it appears that the distinction is in order and has been recognized (Monikowski, 2011). It is unclear how the distinction between academically and professionally qualified faculty may impact interpreting faculty members in terms of their perceptions of work expectations, or their work outcomes, although it is clear that many more faculty members are professionally qualified than academically qualified.

According to Forestal (2001), slightly more than 50% of Deaf community leaders[4] hold associates through doctoral degrees; with 46% of degree holders (n = 265) holding master's degrees and 6.4% of them holding doctorates. Thus, the pool of potential Deaf faculty members is small. In a study of sign language programs in higher education institutions, Cooper et al. (2008) found that 54% of ASL teachers had advanced degrees.

[4] In Forestal's (2001) study, Deaf community leaders were defined as those people who had served on the board of the National Association of the Deaf, or one of the state-affiliate chapters. Because his study focused on Deaf leaders' perceptions of interpreters, there were no hearing individuals included in his study.

Those were primarily master's degrees. In their study, which included both deaf and hearing faculty members, 8.1% of ASL program faculty had doctorates. However, their study did not disaggregate degree held by hearing status; thus, it is unclear what percentage of the deaf and hearing staff held advanced degrees respectively. Jacobowitz (2005) in two studies of ASL teacher preparation programs (i.e. master's level programs designed to educate future ASL teachers) found "only one out of eight teachers [12.5%] held a PhD at the time of hiring" (p. 105). In a related study, five of the faculty members were pursuing doctorates (Jacobowitz, 2007).

In terms of interpreter educators, Winston (2005) reported 70% of the participants in an online conference for interpreter educators had advanced degrees. The conference included 40 individuals, six (15%) of whom had doctorates, and 22 (55%) had master's degrees. In more recent investigations, Cokely and Winston (2008, 2010) found an increase in the minimum faculty credentials, which are summarized in Table 2-2. By the second survey, 11% (up from 6%, on the 2008 survey) of programs indicated that they required full-time faculty to hold a doctorate – not that all of their faculty do, but that it is required of full-time faculty. They also reported increases in the percentage of programs reporting that (at least some of their) full-time interpreting faculty members have doctoral degrees (from 2% to 4%); there was no change in proportion of programs reporting that their full-time faculty members held master's degrees (57%). While there were increases in the number of programs requiring doctorates and the number of programs employing faculty who hold doctorates, the increases were not parallel. It is surmised that faculty members without doctorates were employed prior to the institution of higher degree

requirements. In line with the previous discussion of professionally qualified faculty, Cokely and Winston (2010) also found a slight increase in the number of programs requiring professional qualifications (state level qualifications, national interpreter certifications or American Sign Language Teachers Association Certification). Eighty-seven percent of programs required full-time faculty to hold any credentials in the second survey, compared to 83% of program respondents of the first survey. National credential requirements increased from 65% to 74%. There was an increase, from 36% to 58%, in the number of programs reporting that their full-time faculty members held state or national credentials. According to a report presented by the Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT is the national organization for signed language interpreter educators) Journal Committee, 17% of CIT members who completed the survey hold doctoral degrees. The membership of this organization includes faculty members in all levels of higher education, as well as presenters and trainers who are not employed by higher education institutions.

More research is needed in this area to determine the composition of degreed ASL and interpreter education faculty members – not just by program, but also in terms of numbers of faculty members in four-year institutions with advanced degrees. Given the lack of academic preparation required of and held by interpreting faculty members, they may face additional barriers in acclimating/adjusting to the role expectations within the academy than faculty members with doctoral educations face because socialization into academia begins during doctoral education (Eisenhart & DeHaan, 2005; McCormick & Barnes, 2008; Toews & Yazedjian, 2007).

Table 2-2

Percentage of Programs Reporting Academic and Professional Qualifications for Full-Time Faculty

Criteria	2008	2010
Require Doctorate	6	11
Have faculty with Doctorate	2	4
Required to hold any Professional Credentials	83	87
Required to hold National Credentials	65	74
Reporting that faculty hold state or national credentials	36	58

Note: Adapted from Cokely and Winston (2010).

Accessing Higher Education

Access difficulties may constrain interpreting faculty members' advanced degree attainment. Deaf individuals face challenges with access to higher education, and Deaf and non-Deaf individuals lack access to ASL and interpreter-education-specific graduate programs. Educational struggles for students who are deaf are well documented; two specific articles provide important frames for this study (Cawthon, Nicolas, & Collier, 2009; Woodcock et al., 2007). Cawthon, Nicolas, and Collier (2009) investigated the types of accommodations offered to deaf students at institutions of higher education in Texas. The disability student services policies only mentioned curricular accommodations; none mentioned accommodations outside of the classroom. This is troubling because much of the extracurricular communication in graduate education is

extremely valuable for keeping motivation, gaining new insights, and conducting research. According to their study and Woodcock, Rohan, and Campbell (2007), this communication is often not accessible to deaf students. Another difficulty faced by deaf graduate students occurs at the dissertation stage. Woodcock et al. (2007) indicate that finding an "advisor and committee who, at the very least, do not have negative attitudes towards deafness" (p. 364) may at times be difficult.

In addition to the difficulties faced by deaf individuals in obtaining advanced degrees, both deaf and hearing individuals who want to be faculty members in higher education face a dearth of graduate level programs directly relevant to interpreting or ASL. Currently, there are two masters' degree programs in interpreting, and the first doctoral program focusing on sign language interpreting in the United States admitted its inaugural class of students in 2010. Thus, potential faculty members have had to pursue degrees in related fields such as linguistics, communication, or education instead of interpreting. A few potential faculty members are able to obtain a master's degree in teaching ASL or teaching interpreting from one of the few programs nationwide. [5] The master's program for teaching interpreting is offered fully online through a research-intensive university. While this degree may suffice or even be highly valued within the field, Adams and DeFleur's (2005) research suggests that online degree programs are not as highly valued within academia as degrees from traditional on-campus programs. They did find, however, that programs that were offered partially online by traditional

[5] Three master's degree programs in teaching ASL exist (Jacobowitz, 2007). One master's program in teaching interpreting exists, and it will no longer be accepting students as of Fall 2010. There are no doctoral programs in teaching ASL or interpreting.

institutions were more highly valued than completely online programs or programs housed at completely online universities.

ASL and Interpreting Faculty Employment Status

Given the apparent lack of ASL and interpreter educators with doctorates, it is important to consider the employment rank of ASL and interpreting faculty members. Very few ASL or ASL teacher preparation program faculty are tenured or tenure-track (Cokely & Winston, 2010; Cooper et al., 2008; Jacobowitz, 2005). Cooper et al. (2008) report slightly less than 30% of signed language program faculty members are tenured, and another 27.6% are tenure-track. Over 40% of the ASL faculty members in her study were non-tenure track, and presumably non-tenure eligible. In contrast, Schuster and Finkelstein (2008) reported that 14.5% of all full-time faculty members in higher education were non-tenure-eligible in 1998. More than three times as many ASL faculty members are off the tenure track than higher education faculty in general. A more recent report by the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) indicates that 35% of all full-time faculty members are not on the tenure track (cited in Monikowski, 2011). This resembles the level of contingent ASL faculty. Cooper et al. (2008) report that nearly 30% of ASL faculty members were tenured. Tenure-track faculty comprised 27.6%, while 42.5% of ASL faculty members were not in tenure-track appointments. In Jacobowitz (2007), three of eight faculty members were on tenure-track. Jacobowitz (2005) suggests that expecting faculty members to have terminal degrees will lead to a higher representation of ASL faculty on the tenure-track "where they can be adequately supervised and supported" (p. 105); however, having a sufficient supply of faculty

members to meet tenure expectations is a major area of concern, as previously discussed. Cokely and Winston (2010) calculated a 10% increase in the number of faculty members with tenure between 2008 and 2010, but they do not report the number (or proportion) of faculty members on the tenure-track. Additionally, Miner and Nicodemus (2008) indicated that 14% of survey respondents were required to publish. This may represent the proportion that holds tenure-track positions within four-year colleges and universities.

ASL and Interpreting Faculty Employment Context

ASL and interpreting faculty support. The experiences of some minorities, specifically women and faculty members of color, have been examined in the literature, while investigation into the experiences of faculty members with disabilities (Vance, 2007), and deaf faculty members in particular, has largely gone unresearched (Tidwell, 2004; Woodcock et al., 2007). Tidwell (2004) discusses strategies and tips for faculty members who experience adult onset hearing loss, with limited discussion beyond the individual faculty member. Although not generalizable to all Deaf faculty members in higher education, Woodcock, Rohan, and Campbell (2007) provide a glimpse into the systemic challenges faced by themselves as three Deaf women in academia. They report difficulties in the hiring process. Convincing the hiring committee that they were equally able to function in the classroom was one difficulty reported with the hiring process that deaf/Deaf faculty members in ASL and interpreting programs are not likely to face. Hiring barriers for ASL and interpreting faculty members are more likely to be with administrative policies due to the lack of terminal degrees.

Work related accommodations were also a source of challenge according to Woodcock et al. (2007). Most universities have defined policies in place for accommodations for students with disabilities; however, campus wide accommodation policies may not be in place for faculty members with disabilities, which may leave departments to determine and fund appropriate accommodations. Due to this, deaf faculty members "may restrict their attendance at activities that require accommodation…. [opting] out of attending the talks of visiting speakers … or career development seminars, or [avoiding] particular types of research activities or classroom exercises" due to the lack of signed language interpreters or real-time captioning services (Woodcock et al., 2007, p. 368). Accommodations difficulties extended beyond campus. Accommodations for attendance and presentations at conferences were at times difficult and time consuming for the authors. Convincing conference planners to secure and pay interpreters and, at times, assisting conference planners with finding and scheduling interpreters required large amounts of time (Woodcock et al., 2007). Conference accommodations are not likely to be a significant barrier for ASL and interpreting faculty when they attend and present within the fields of ASL or interpreting; however, they are likely to face the same investment of time and energy when attending or presenting at conferences unaccustomed to providing interpreters or other accommodations.

ASL and Interpreting Faculty Productivity

This section focuses exclusively on faculty scholarly productivity; there are no published studies of ASL-English interpreting faculty perceptions of tenure requirements. While teaching and service productivity are also important, the literature on new faculty

consistently points to scholarship challenges, and at this point, there is no literature addressing the service or teaching aspects of interpreting faculty work. The previously mentioned lack of advanced degrees among ASL and interpreting faculty members likely has a greater impact on scholarship than on teaching or service because the faculty members do not have doctoral training in how to conduct research. Monikowski (2011), from her experience as a new-faculty mentor, suggests that succeeding in the tenure and promotion system is extremely difficult for individuals without a doctoral degree.

It appears that ASL and interpreting faculty members are neither involved in producing peer-reviewed scholarly publications (Cokely, 2005; Cooper et al., 2008; Jacobowitz, 2005, 2007) nor consumers of them (R. G. Lee, 2005; Winston, 2005). Jacobowitz (2007) reports that the majority of faculty members in ASL teacher preparation programs were not actively involved in research even though the program administrators reported spending approximately one-third of their time on scholarship. Cooper et al. (2008) reported that administrators on average spent 8.2% of their time on scholarship. If previous reports correctly state that administrators' emphasis and support for scholarship are crucial (Cramer, 2006; Few et al., 2007; Kaya et al., 2005), then, even while administrators are actively engaged in scholarship, they may not be encouraging it sufficiently or providing enough supports for faculty to publish. Again, the study of the Conference of Interpreter Trainer's membership indicated that only 14% were required to publish.

Jacobowitz (2005) emphasizes the need for support, encouragement, and rewards for faculty members who do more than teach. Given the implicit understanding that

productivity in all three areas is required, Jacobowitz's (2005) suggestion that faculty members in ASL teacher preparation programs be encouraged and rewarded to do more than teach reveals the lack of emphasis and enculturation to the scholarship standards in institutions of higher education. Jacobowitz (2007) also suggests that students in the teacher preparation programs were not being "adequately prepared to meet the demands of being future scholars" (p. 35). She states, "faculty scholarship in the form of presentations, participation at conferences, and scholarly and creative video production [were not] receiving recognition equivalent to that given to scholarly work published in written English in refereed journals and books" (Jacobowitz, 2005, p. 106), which aligns with the university faculty studies discussed previously. The digital proceedings of the 2009 American Sign Language Teachers Association Conference and the Deaf Studies Digital Journal (http://dsdj.gallaudet.edu/) are two recent examples of the type of "publications" within the field of ASL and interpreting.

Valuing diverse types of scholarship, as suggested by Jacobowitz (2007), requires change at the department, college, and university level. This type of change may be unlikely given the entrenched values and culture of academic traditions that support only traditional forms of scholarship (O'Meara, 2002). Since leadership positions within the academy are typically filled by senior tenured faculty, ASL and interpreting faculty who support these diverse forms of scholarship are not likely to lead those decisions given that it is unlikely for those without sufficient traditional scholarly publications to be tenured and the majority of ASL faculty members are off the tenure-track (Cooper et al., 2008; Monikowski & Peterson, 2005). As discussed by O'Meara (2002) and others, Boyer's

(1990b) *Scholarship Reconsidered*, which encourages an expansion of the definition of scholarship to include integration, application, and teaching in addition to discovery, has largely been given surface support, but has not changed the value system of institutions more than a decade after it was published (O'Meara, 2002).

R. Lee (2005) reports that published scholarship, specifically ASL linguistics research, is not disseminated in ways to reach the majority of ASL and interpreting faculty members because it is almost exclusively disseminated via academic journals, which indicates that most faculty members may not read linguistics journals. Miner and Nicodemus (2008) found that of those who responded to their survey of CIT members, some would prefer a purely practitioner focused journal (20%), while 60% indicated that the most beneficial journal would be a combination of academic and practitioner related articles. Only 6% of members preferred a purely academic journal. Additionally, Winston (2005) indicates faculty members may not be able to find current research because, even when scholarly papers are produced, they often are not disseminated via routes accessible to academic search engines.

Summary

To provide a sufficient basis for the remaining components of the literature review, brief history of the field of ASL-English interpreting and interpreter education opened the literature review. The conceptual model that frames this study was explained, and each component was supported with relevant literature. Then, a synthesis of relevant ASL and Interpreting-faculty literature was provided within the conceptual model frame. In the following chapters the methodology, results, and implications are discussed.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This chapter begins with a brief description of the purposes of this study. The chapter then describes the research methods and procedures used in the study. The following sections are included: research design and questions, population and sample, instrument development and testing, data collection, variables, and data analysis.

Research Purposes and Questions

The purposes of this study are threefold. One objective of this study was to describe the personal and professional characteristics of ASL-English interpreter educators employed by four-year academic institutions, as well as where interpreting programs are housed in these institutions. The personal characteristics are defined as demographic factors including gender, age, race/ethnicity, and Deaf cultural status. The professional characteristics are defined in two categories: employment qualifications and position status. Employment qualifications include professional and academic credentials. Professional credentials include certifications held and years of professional experience, which includes interpreting or related experience as well as teaching experience.[6] Academic credentials are defined as highest degree attained and field of study. Employment Status includes the faculty members' classification as full or part-time, rank

[6] National certifications conferred by professional organizations such as Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.; National Association of the Deaf, Inc.; and American Sign Language Teachers Association among others.

(Assistant Professor, etc.), and tenure status (tenured, tenure-track, or off-tenure track). The second purpose was to describe interpreter education faculty and the department chairs perspectives regarding criteria and requirements for tenure and the extent to which they are aligned. The third objective of this survey study was to determine if employment qualifications and context predict perceptions of the importance of and productivity in teaching, research, and service for tenure.

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. In what institutional types, departments, and colleges are baccalaureate granting interpreter education programs housed?
2. What are the demographic characteristics and employment qualifications of interpreter education faculty members?
3. What do interpreter education faculty perceive as the criteria and requirements for tenure?
4. What are the department chairs' perceived criteria and requirements for tenure?
5. Do faculty and chair expectations of the tenure criteria differ significantly from one another, and are there differences by faculty with differing qualifications, employment settings, and characteristics?
6. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with perceptions of the importance of teaching, research, and service for tenure?
7. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with productivity in teaching, research, and service?

Research Design

The quantitative research designs in this study are descriptive, causal comparative, and correlational. Department chairs were interviewed by phone or online with a semi-structured interview protocol that included questions from the faculty survey regarding tenure requirements. In addition, this study employed a quantitative cross-sectional survey. One purpose of the survey was to collect descriptive information from faculty members employed within baccalaureate-degree granting ASL-English interpreting programs within the United States. Information included institutional characteristics in which they worked, demographics, employment qualifications, and perceptions of criteria and requirements for tenure. Additionally, the survey design allowed inferences about the relationships between faculty characteristics and their perceptions and productivity relevant to tenure criteria, as well as how these perceptions compared to their chairs' perceptions. Because a study such as this had not been conducted previously, the investigation did not attempt to discern change over time; therefore, a cross-sectional design satisfied the current research purposes.

Survey methodology was chosen for several reasons. Little investigation of ASL-English interpreting faculty has been published; thus, there is not yet a sufficient general description of the faculty to warrant a qualitative study of a small sample. The basic data that were needed were easily discernable from a survey, and survey methods are economical. The population of ASL-English interpreting faculty members could be surveyed in a relatively short time frame with minimal additional expense per additional

identified participant. Sufficient resources to conduct a qualitative study of a large portion of the population did not exist in the project budget.

Population and Sample

There were two levels of data collected in this study – faculty level data and program level data (including departmental characteristics). Departmental webpages and chairpersons provided department and program level data, while individual faculty members provided faculty level data. There are 41 baccalaureate ASL-English interpreting programs in the United States. The list of programs and program contact information were obtained from the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers' Resource Center website (National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers, 2010). Eastern Kentucky University Institutional Review Board (EKU IRB) approved the procedures for recruitment and data collection from participants (see Appendix A for copy of the EKU IRB Approval). The program list compiled by the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers included 41 Bachelor or higher level interpreting programs within the United States, a discussion of decision rules for selection of the final population of 34 department chairpersons who were contacted for participation is discussed below. The population of faculty members was based on estimates using the *Interpreter Education Programs Needs Assessment Trends Analysis* (Cokely & Winston, 2010) conducted by the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers; there were 270 estimated faculty members teaching (either full- or part-time within interpreting programs). The total population for this study was culled from program websites and departmental chairpersons. The total population estimate from those steps was 213.

Sampling

Sampling chairpersons. All identified faculty members and department chairs within baccalaureate granting ASL-English interpreting programs were invited to participate in the study without regard to age, gender, ethnicity, or health status. It was expected that the sample of department chairs would include a higher proportion of males, while females were expected to be more prevalent among the faculty than males given the documented high proportion of females within the field of ASL-English interpreting (Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, 2010).

Programs offered primarily via distance technology (n = 2), were excluded from the study for two reasons. First, many of the faculty members listed on the program websites were part-time/adjunct faculty who were not physically present on campus. Secondly, the online programs were excluded because many of the listed faculty members also teach in on-campus interpreter education programs, often times in 2-year programs. Due to possible confounding of data by faculty responding to the survey about more than one program within one instrument, they were excluded from study. One additional program was excluded because it offers a doctoral degree in ASL-English interpreting. Faculty members teaching in a doctoral level program are expected to have different awareness of tenure expectations through the acculturation process. An attempt was made to include the remaining 38 programs in the sample. Once programs were identified, websites for each program were searched for administrators' names and contact information. For three institutions, the organizational structure was not sufficiently complete on the website to determine a chair, division, or school level

administrator. In one additional program, the chair resigned the position, and it remained vacant throughout this study. In total, 34 department chairs were contacted for inclusion in this study. Five administrators were unreachable via telephone and chose not to respond to the online version of the questionnaire, netting a response rate of 85.29% (n = 29).

Sampling Faculty. Currently, a directory of ASL-English interpreting faculty members does not exist. While there are two national organizations to which many faculty members belong (American Sign Language Teachers Association and Conference of Interpreter Trainers), membership is not mandatory. It was expected that many faculty members do not belong to either organization. When a roster of members is not readily available, Babbie (1990) suggests first identifying the clusters or groups to which the potential participants inherently belong. This strategy was employed here. All of the non-online four-year interpreting programs in the United States were identified using the roster of programs obtained from the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers; contact information for individual faculty members within those institutions was compiled.

Once programs were identified, websites for each program were searched for faculty member names and contact information. After the faculty lists were complete, each program was contacted and asked to confirm the accuracy of the faculty list. For those chairs completing telephone interviews, confirmation was part of that process. For those chairs completing the online version of the interview, emails or telephone calls to

the departmental offices were made. In some cases, participants also emailed to give me additional names.

ASL-English interpreting faculty members excluded from this study include four groups: (1) those who teach in programs that were excluded from the study, (2) those whose email addresses were not obtainable or returned, (3) those who do not teach in baccalaureate degree granting interpreting programs (e.g., those teaching in non-degree programs or Associate's degree programs), and (4) those who teach within an ASL program that is not housed alongside (i.e., within the same department or unit) an ASL-English interpreting program. When housed within the same department, division, or unit, all of the ASL and interpreting program faculty were surveyed. The decision to include ASL faculty members who are housed within the same department or unit as the interpreting program was predicated on the assumption that to other administrators and faculty within the institution ASL and interpreting faculty are viewed similarly or as being indistinct from one another. Additionally, there is likely to be a strong relationship between the two programs. Table 3-1 summarizes who was recruited to complete the faculty survey instrument. Because response rates for surveys are often around 25% (Jackson, 2009) and the population was relatively small ($N = 213$), the entire population was included in the target population in order to have generalizable results.

This sampling process resulted in an original sampling frame of 213 faculty members within 38 programs. An attempt to obtain the name and work e-mail address for each faculty member was made. For 33 faculty members, valid email addresses were not excluded from the study following the decision rules previously outlined. This resulted in

180 faculty members for possible inclusion in the study. Six faculty members emailed to inform the researcher that they were retired, currently on leave of absence from the institution, or not directly affiliated with the ASL-English interpreting program. Additionally, four faculty members were no longer listed on the program websites (from where the email must be sent). This process netted 170 faculty members who presumably work within the program and received the email message asking for participation in the study.

Table 3-1

Decision Rules for Faculty Members Recruited for Inclusion in the Study

Included in Study	Not Included in Study
Interpreting faculty teaching in bachelor degree granting programs.	Interpreting faculty teaching in non-degree, associate's degree, or online programs.
ASL faculty housed within the same program and department as the interpreting program, even if they are exclusively ASL faculty members. For example, all of the ASL and interpreting faculty working within a Department of Special Education would be included, but the other special education faculty members would not be included.	Email contact information unobtainable (or non-working email address).
	ASL faculty members housed within different departments, divisions, schools, or colleges than the Interpreting Program. For example, if an interpreting program was housed in the Human Services School, and the ASL teaching faculty members were housed in a Humanities Department, the ASL Faculty members would not be contacted for inclusion in this study.
	ASL faculty members housed at institutions that do not have a bachelor's degree granting interpreting program.

Instrument Development and Testing

In addition to collecting data from institutional web pages, this study employed two instruments. Separate instruments for department chairpersons and faculty were created. Existing instruments were reviewed, combined, adapted, and revised to create the final instruments used in this study. Survey design principles (Babbie, 1990; Fink, 2006) were followed, and each instrument was pilot tested prior to full deployment.

Chairperson Interview

The chair interview followed a semi-structured interview protocol. It included 14 items. With the exception of the first question, which asked about the types of faculty appointments within the department (e.g., tenure, non-tenure track full/part-time), all of the questions directly linked to items on the faculty survey. After initial use of the protocol, the order of questions was revised slightly. Originally the first question asked about the relative weight of teaching, service, and scholarship within the department. During testing, it was noted that this was an abrupt starting question to which chairs were not easily able to respond. In the final version of the chair instrument the first question asked about faculty appointment types within the department. The final chairperson interview protocol is provided in Appendix B. As a semi-structured protocol, the researcher asked follow-up questions several times throughout each interview. An online version of this survey was created for two reasons. First, when department chairs could not be reached via telephone, a link to the survey instrument was sent with a request to complete that version of the questionnaire. Secondly, several department chairs taught within the interpreting programs. Since one purpose of the study was to describe the

demographic, employment qualifications, and employment characteristics of interpreter education faculty, these data were collected from faculty who also serve as department chairs.

Faculty Survey

The instrument was designed using a multi-step process each of which is described below. The faculty survey instrument consists of 71 questions; on average it required 29 minutes to complete. Due to skip patterns employed with the instrument tenured, tenure-track, and tenure-aspiring faculty members received more questions than non-tenure aspiring faculty (including faculty in institutions without tenure systems). The time range for completion was 7 minutes to 185 minutes. The instrument included Likert-type scale items, open-ended questions, and closed-ended questions (see Appendix C for links to a copy of the survey instrument). After review and revisions, the instrument was translated into ASL and then tested again. Each step in the translation process is discussed in further detail (see "Translation" below).

Content areas. The first step in developing this instrument was to define the major content areas based on the research questions. The survey instrument covers the major content areas of the conceptual model (see page 24, in Chapter 2) for the study: faculty member, employment context, perceptions, and productivity. Faculty input factors are broken down into the following domains: demographics, employment qualifications, and employment status. Employment context includes institutional factors, such as Carnegie classification and departmental features. Lastly, perceptions and productivity of faculty includes the perceptions that faculty members hold about the requirements and

evaluation criteria for tenure, as well as productivity indexes for these criteria. Teaching, service, and scholarship are included under perceptions and productivity. Table 3-2 provides a summary of survey items and variables used to address each research question; items on the survey, which were not analyzed in this study, are not included in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2

Summary of Research Questions, Variables, Data Source, and Analysis Methods

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
1. In what institutional types, departments, and colleges are interpreter education programs housed?		
Carnegie Classification	1 = Baccalaureate granting, 2 = Master's granting, 3 = Doctoral granting	Program Websites
Department Field	1 = Language and/or Culture, 2 = Education, 3 = Human Services, 4 = Other	Program Websites
College/School Field	1 = Education, 2 = Arts and Sciences 3 = Health and Community Services, 4 = Social Sciences, 5 = Other	Program Websites

Table 3-2 (continued)

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
2. What are the demographic characteristics and employment qualifications of interpreter education faculty members?		
Demographics:		
Age	= 2011 – Year of Birth	COV 67, FS 68
Gender	1 = Male, 2 = Female	COV 66, FS 67
Deaf Culture Status and	1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf Parent(s), 3 = Hearing	COV 68, FS 69
	Combined:	
Deaf Culture Status Combined	1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent(s)	
Academic Credentials:	1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 =	COV 52,
Highest level of education and Highest level of education combined	Master's, 4 = Doctoral	FS 53
	Combined:	
	1 = Associate's, Bachelor's, and Master's, 2 = Doctoral	

Table 3-2 (continued)

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
Field of study	Nominal categories determined by naturally occurring divisions	COV 54, FS 55
Highest degree setting	1 = Traditional college/university setting, 2 = Traditionally college/university setting, some courses via distance delivery, 3 = Traditional college/university setting, all courses via distance delivery, 4 = Distance learning college/university with some courses on-site, 5 = Distance learning college/university with no courses on site	COV 57, FS 58
Professional Credentials:		
Years of interpreting	= 2011 – year first earned credentials	COV 60, FS 61
Years of teaching experience		
Teaching credentials	0 = No ASLTA certifications, 1 = have ASLTA certification	COV 61, FS 62

Table 3-2 (continued)

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
3. What do interpreter education faculty perceive as the criteria and requirements for tenure? (Descriptive Statistics)		
Teaching Weight		FS 31
Service Weight		FS 31
Scholarship Weight		FS 31
Hypothetical tenure cases	1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Don't know/Unsure	FS 35-37
Quantity/Quality	1 = quantity, 2 = quality	FS 38
4. What are the Department Chair's perceived criteria and requirements for tenure?		
Teaching Weight		COV 3, CI 2
Hypothetical tenure cases	1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Don't know/Unsure	COV 7-9, CI 8-10

Table 3-2 (continued)

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
Quantity/Quality	1 = quantity, 2 = quality	COV 10, CI 11
5. Do faculty and chair expectations of the tenure criteria differ significantly from one another, and are there differences by faculty with differing qualifications, employment settings, and characteristics?		
Dependent Measures: Teaching, Service, Scholarship Weight		COV 3, CI 2-4, FS 31
Calculated variables: Teaching Alignment	= Chair Teaching weight - Faculty Teaching Weight	Calculated
Service Alignment	= Chair Service weight - Faculty Service Weight	Calculated
Scholarship Alignment	= Chair Scholarship weight - Faculty Scholarship Weight	Calculated

Table 3-2 (continued)

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
Grouping variables:		Program
Carnegie classification	1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting	Websites
Highest level of education Combined	1 = Associate's, Bachelor's, and Master's, 2 = Doctoral	FS 53
Deaf culture Status Combined	1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents or hearing	FS 69
6. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with perceptions of the importance of teaching, research, and service for tenure? (3 simple linear regressions)		
Dependent measures:		
Teaching Weight, Service Weight, Scholarship Weight		FS 31

Table 3-2 (continued)

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
Carnegie classification	1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting	Program Websites
Highest level of education	1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional	FS 53
7. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with productivity in teaching, research, and service? (3 simple Linear Regressions)		
Dependent measures:		
Teaching productivity	= Teaching Score / Total Points Possible	Calculated
Service productivity	= (1.5)Leadership + Other Service	Calculated
Predictor Variables:		
Highest level of education	1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral	FS 53
Deaf culture status	1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf Parent(s), 3 = Hearing	FS 69

Table 3-2 (continued)

Research question and variables	Variable Codes	Source
Carnegie classification,	1 = Baccalaureate granting, 2 = Master's granting, 3 = Doctoral granting	Program Websites
Teaching weight, Service weight, or scholarship weight (relevant to the dependent variable)		FS 31

Note: FS = Faculty survey instrument, CI = Chair interview, COV = Chair online version

Items used from other surveys. After content areas were defined, a careful review of existing instruments was conducted (August & Waltman, 2004; Cataldi, Fahimi, Bradburn, & Zimbler, 2005; Fairweather, 2002; Jungnickel, 1993; Todd et al., 2008; Wright, 2005). No single instrument captured the data needed for this study. The National Survey of Post-Secondary Faculty (NSPF04; Cataldi et al., 2005) was selected as the starting place for instrument creation. Relevant items from that instrument were revised or adapted to meet the research objectives; then, items and concepts from other instruments were incorporated.

Items were aligned with the conceptual model and research questions. After completed, the instrument was formatted and entered into a web-based software administration system for testing and review, Novi Systems (www.novisystems.com).

Once the entire faculty survey was developed, one ASL-English interpreting faculty member and two external reviewers were asked to provide feedback on content, length, and technical or logistic considerations. Reviewer comments were reviewed, and revisions were made as needed. Typographical errors were the most frequently noted by the reviewers. There were other revisions made based on reviewer comments. First, answer choices were added or reviewed for some questions. For example, when asked about the frequency of teaching specific disciplines (ASL language courses, Deaf studies, interpreting), one responder left a question blank completely because a response indicating that the discipline was not taught at all was not available. The final version of the instrument includes that additional option. Another example of this was the revision of "child of Deaf parent(s)" as a culture status identifier to "hearing child of Deaf parent(s)." Secondly, question wording was adjusted. A reviewer left a question blank because they did not have course evaluations from the most recent semester available. The question wording was adjusted to ask for the most recent evaluations the person has available "During the most recent semester for which you have student evaluations of instruction, what was your average teaching effectiveness score?" Another example of adjustments to question wording included revisions to the options for the type of institution of the highest degree earned (or currently working toward). Reviewers confirmed the face validity of the remaining items.

Translation. After the reviews and revisions were completed, a qualified Deaf interpreter translated the instrument into ASL. The decision to translate the instrument was made after careful consideration of the benefits of translation, time and financial

constraints, and discussions with several ASL-English interpreting faculty members. Having the document translated into ASL was expected to raise the participation rate of Deaf faculty members by indicating a true willingness to include their perspective. Additionally, it was expected to decrease the number of items left blank because if the English version of an item was not clear to the participant, the participant could click on the translation of the item and the response choices.

Fink (2006) provides a step-by-step process for survey developers translating survey instruments. Fink's first suggestion is to hire a professional translator if possible. Although the author is a nationally certified ASL-English interpreter, a Deaf native user of ASL with interpreting training and experience completed the translation with the assistance of the author. The Deaf translator obtained a review copy of the instrument several weeks prior to the video recording session. The researcher and translator met to discuss the meaning of specific items on two occasions prior to the recording session. During the recording session, the translator confirmed the meaning of the question/prompts and the answer choices; when needed, the researcher clarified the meaning of the items and answer choices. As the translations were recorded, the researcher reviewed the translations. When the researcher was not sure a translation was effective, the researcher and translator discussed the item again and in some cases recorded a revised translation. This process established the content validity of the translated version. Due to the visual nature of ASL, translations of each item were video-recorded and edited using a professional-level studio and equipment. After all items, answer choices, and instructions were recorded, they were edited into usable segments

and uploaded onto a password protected web-based flash media server (www.influxis.com).

One final comment about the faculty instrument design, participants had two options for providing a response to open ended items, typed English or ASL. The software system used to deploy the survey, Novi Survey, allows direct file uploads; however, this option was not used due to a three megabytes file size limit and potential video-compatibility problems. As an alternative, the survey instrument encouraged participants to use You Tube and provided brief instructions for setting privacy features such as "unlisted" or "private." With either option, the video is not accessible via You Tube or web-based search engines; unless the video or link is shared with others directly it is not viewable. The instructions also informed participants that submitting video could potentially infringe on their anonymity because the investigator, when watching the video, may recognize the participant.

Pilot test. Once the translations were complete, they were embedded into the English version of the instrument in the survey software tool. A small pilot test of the system was conducted with a random sample of 10 faculty members (approximately 5% of the survey population); at least two were Deaf. Additionally, all 10 randomly selected-pilot-participants represented different interpreting programs. The goal of using a random sampling of participants was to potentially reach participants with varied backgrounds and experiences to ensure that skip patterns functioned appropriately. The proposed data collection procedures and deployment timelines were used for the pilot to test the effectiveness of the strategies. One of the randomly selected participants is a colleague of

the researcher. The person was asked to comment on the quality of translations, technical aspects of deployment, and ease of response entry. One email address was not a functioning address; therefore, nine faculty members received the pilot survey; three did not respond. This yielded a response rate of 66.67 percent.

Several features of the pilot deployment process were analyzed for effectiveness. First, the pilot test allowed for the analysis of the process for open-ended responses produced in ASL and submitted via video instead of typed English; unfortunately, none of the pilot respondents chose to provide comments in ASL. It was found that the pilot process sent messages to individuals who had already completed the questionnaire and did not send the message to those who had not completed the questionnaire. Adjustments to the follow-up email procedures were made to correct this problem. Lastly, the skip patterns were assessed. They appeared to function appropriately; unfortunately as will be discussed later, there was a problem with the skip-pattern functioning during the final deployment. Once the pilot testing was complete, except for the final mailed reminder, the process for the full deployment began, following the steps outlined in the section entitled Data Collection.

Data Collection

Program Procedures

As discussed previously, programs were identified using the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers' (2010) database of interpreting programs. The data collected from their site included associate's degree through graduate degree programs in North America. Programs not offering baccalaureate degrees or higher and those

programs located outside of the United States were excluded. As described earlier in the selection rules, programs offered primarily via distance technology were excluded, as was a program that offers a doctoral degree in addition to the undergraduate degree. Each program included in the study was assigned an institution-specific identifier. Forty-one programs were initially included in this study. After the 38 programs were identified as fitting the selection criteria, the Carnegie Foundation (2011) database was used to determine the Carnegie classification for each institution. The second step was to determine the departments in which programs were housed and create a roster of faculty members and department administrators. Relevant data were culled from institutional websites. The departments and colleges housing the interpreting program were noted and recorded into a spreadsheet. In addition to chair and faculty data recorded for each program, faculty members' and department chairpersons' names and relevant contact information (i.e., email addresses for all available and telephone numbers for chairs) were recorded. Often, program websites did not include information about part-time faculty members, and some institutional websites appeared to be out of date. When contacting department chairs for interviews, the investigator attempted to gather names and work email addresses for any unknown faculty members. In cases when the department-chair "interviews" were conducted via online-survey, the department office was contacted directly for confirmation of the faculty roster.

Chairperson Procedures

First, the investigator emailed each department chair via the publicly available email address. The email informed them of an upcoming telephone call with an

encouragement to email back with convenient times to call (See Appendix D *Chairperson Invitation Protocol*). These email messages were sent in waves between May 2011 and September 2011 to facilitate scheduling for the investigator. Some chairpersons emailed back to request a specific interview time or to inform the researcher of their availability. When a chair indicated that the schedule precluded an interview, a follow-up email was sent; it included a link to an online version of the questionnaire and the institution-specific access code.

The investigator called the department chairs at the requested times, for those who responded to the initial message. For those chairs who did not respond to the initial email, the investigator called the publicly available phone number during one of the specified times. After a brief introduction, the investigator explained the purpose of the telephone call and requested a few minutes to conduct the interview. All of the chairpersons reached by telephone consented participation; in a few instances, the chairperson requested a different date for the interview. Those were scheduled, and the interviews were successfully conducted with the exception of one who could not be reached during the agreed upon time.

After multiple attempts to reach individual chairpersons via phone failed, another email was sent which included the link to the online version of the questionnaire. All chairpersons who were contacted during the last two months of data collection were provided the link to the online version of the questionnaire, even if it was the initial email contact with the chairperson. The researcher checked the online database to ensure that the institution-specific access code had not been entered. A few chairpersons elected to

complete the online version instead of receiving a telephone call. When telephone contact could not be made, a final email message was sent (after several attempts via telephone) encouraging the chairperson to complete the online version of the questionnaire.

Telephone interviews were selected for this study primarily to increase response rates. Because department chairs are administrators, they are likely to receive a plethora of email daily. An email would be more easily overlooked compared to a telephone call. Secondly, a personal telephone call and message has an increased social obligation for a response than an email from an unknown sender.

In general, the chairs' willingness to participate was noteworthy. Response was very positive in general with only five (14.71%) completing neither the telephone interview, nor the online version. Everyone reached by phone agreed to participate in the study. Chairpersons who also teach within the interpreting programs only received the online version of the instrument so that demographic and employment data could be collected without an undue burden of additional time during a telephone interview. Eight chairs taught within the interpreting programs; one of those chairpersons did not respond. The final response rate was 17 respondents via phone and 12 respondents via online survey (85.29%, $N = 29/34$).

When the chairperson agreed to take part in the study, the investigator sought informed consent. Once consent was obtained, the investigator asked each question and recorded the information on the data recording form (see Appendix B for the interview questions and data recording form). The investigator asked for clarification of responses when necessary for open-ended questions; in other words, the interview was designed as

a semi-structured interview protocol. At the conclusion of each interview, the faculty member sent a "thank you" email to the chairperson, and then typed the notes from the interview into a word-processing program using the program code – not personally or program identifying information.

Faculty Procedures

Survey research frequently yields low response rates, and researchers attempt to increase those rates to acceptable levels. Several steps were taken to encourage participation. As a first measure, survey procedures supported by research were used including frequent contact with potential participants (Babbie, 1990; Fink, 2006). An additional strategy was to offer a monetary "token of appreciation." The final strategy used to increase participation rates included providing the instrument in the native language of participants.

Frequent contact. Higher participation rates are linked to ongoing correspondence with potential participants (Babbie, 1990; Dillman, 2007; Fink, 2006). Dillman (2007), in particular, provides a multi-step process known for increasing response rates and upon which many survey methods are based. Many of the procedures were designed for print survey items and include (a) advance letters that notify participants that they will receive the survey and briefly describe the study, (b) an invitation with the instrument, and (c) follow-up messages that remind participants of the opportunity to participate. This study used those well-accepted procedures and adapted them to better fit the electronic distribution and collection of survey results Tourangeau (2004) provides a history of survey research designs as well as a discussion of a

theoretical basis of response rates, which are in decline. For example, Dillman's (2007) recommended timeframe for sending correspondence was shortened considerably as suggested by Hoonakker and Carayon (2009), due to the almost instantaneous receipt of electronic mail when compared to traditional correspondence methods (i.e., first class U.S. Postal Service), which may take several days even when the participant responds immediately. With the exception of the final reminder, all notifications for this study were sent via electronic mail from the researcher's institutional email account. The procedures in this study included a pre-survey notification; invitation; and first, second, and final reminders. The final notice was sent first class mail via the U.S. Postal Service. See summary Table 3-3 for deployment dates of the data collection process and Appendix E for the faculty correspondence protocol.

Table 3-3

Data Collection Deployment Dates

Procedure	Deployment Dates	
	Pilot Distribution	Survey Distribution
Pre-survey notification	September 15, 2011	September 29, 2011
Invitation	September 18, 2011	October 2, 2011
First reminder	September 22, 2011	October 6, 2011
Second Reminder	September 27, 2011	October 11, 2011
Final Reminder	September 30, 2011	October 15, 2011
Data Collection Closed		October 23, 2011

The pre-survey notification was the first contact potential participants received. The email contained a brief description of the study, informed the participants of the coming survey link, and informed them that there would be a "token of appreciation" in the next message. The pre-survey notification letters were sent three days prior to the study invitation message. All of the correspondence with participants, with the exception of the final mailed notice, included an Internet link to a video of the researcher giving the same information in ASL.

Next, participants received a message that included a complete description of the study and all of the required IRB components for informed consent. The message also contained the link to the survey, an institution- and person-specific access code, and a five-dollar Amazon gift card code. These invitation messages were sent on the third day following the pre-notification.

The survey tool was checked for responses and personal-access codes in the days after the invitation messages were sent. For each access code recorded on the survey, the corresponding code was moved to a "respondent list" of the master sampling frame. Those non-responders remaining on the sampling frame received the first follow-up reminder message on the fourth day after the invitation messages were sent. Subsequent messages were sent soon after the initial messages because Hoonakker and Carayon (2009) indicated that due to the mass amount of email people receive it is likely that they will respond within only a few days if they will respond at all.

The second follow-up reminder, which was the final emailed reminder, was sent on the fifth day after the previous reminder. This reminder was sent only to the

participants who were remaining on the non-respondent list after all provided access codes were moved to the respondent list. This timeframe provided a weekend in addition to workdays between reminders. The goal for this timeframe was to allow those who had extra time during weekends the opportunity and for those who were planning to do it "first thing next week" to complete it before receiving another reminder.

The remaining 74 non-responders after the final emailed reminder received a final letter via mail; the letters were sent to publicly available departmental addresses where available. Letters were mailed in large envelopes (i.e., full 8 ½ X 11 sheet fits easily without folding) and included the link and access code for the survey. Additionally, a print version of the Amazon five-dollar gift card was attached. The online survey and data collection closed one week after the final mailed reminders, ample time after the final mailed reminders and telephone calls to receive last responses.

Token incentive. Researchers who have investigated the increase of return rates have stated that token monetary incentives and frequent contact increase participation rates. The research suggests that the token incentive does not need to be a significant amount because the goal is not to pay the person (e.g., economic theory) but to make them feel the need to reciprocate as described in Tourangeau (2004). Additionally, there are some studies that suggest payments after completing the survey are not as effective as providing the incentive with no strings attached (James, Ziegenfuss, Tilburt, Harris, & Beebe, 2011). There are few studies that address the use of the incentive concept in electronic survey distribution and collection (Alessi & Martin, 2010; Michael Bosnjak & Tuten, 2003; Hoonakker & Carayon, 2009; Klofstad, Boulianne, & Basson, 2007;

Marcus, Bosnjak, Lindner, Pilischenko, & Schutz, 2007). Bosnjak and Tuten (2003) provided direct deposits to PayPal via the participants' email addresses, which is essentially a cash equivalent system. In that study, the pre-paid incentive had no advantage over the post-paid incentive; a cash prize drawing increased completion rates and reduced incomplete participation patterns. Alessie and Martin (2010) found it awkward and cumbersome to provide the incentive. In this study, participants were recruited via advertisements on organization websites and public message boards/forums. Because of this, they were not able to provide pre-paid incentives. They used Amazon.com gift card prize drawings as post-paid incentives. Those participants who provided an email address were entered into a random drawing for the prize. The current study combines concepts from previously used methods. Electronic Amazon gift card codes were used as pre-paid incentives and sent directly to the electronic mailing address for each faculty member in the sample.

This study improved upon the token-incentive process for online surveys in several ways. The first improvement on electronic incentives was logistic and financial. Because of the electronic format of the incentive, it could be sent directly to the potential participants' email addresses, which eliminated postal expenses for mailing incentives and saved the time of the investigator. Additionally, participants were not required to provide a mailing address to the investigator in order to receive the incentive, and the investigator could be certain if the incentives were received. Dillman (2007) indicated that some use of monetary incentives posed difficulty because the sponsoring entities or grant-overseers required a social security or tax payer identification number before any

payment could be given to participants. The current study was privately funded, and cash equivalents could be purchased and provided to potential participants without a social security number.

The second improvement this study makes on previous methods of incentives for electronic surveys was to include the token incentive as a part of the invitation to participate, not after survey completion. The literature for print and mailed surveys suggests that for the "incentive" to increase responses rates it must be given with the survey rather than as a "payment" after survey completion (Tourangeau, 2004). Providing incentives during the initial use of online surveys was difficult because the investigators did not have an effective way to distribute the monetary incentives. Bosnjak and Tuten (2003) used PayPal as the electronic equivalent to cash. Alessi and Martin (2010) used electronic Amazon gift cards as prize drawings for their online administered survey. In the current study, individualized electronic gift cards (and the link to Amazon.com) were provided within the invitation email that contained the link and access code to the survey. This procedure was intended to increase response rates by using the pre-survey token-incentive approach that has been so effective in mailed surveys (Dillman, 2007; James et al., 2011; Tourangeau, 2004). After discussion with participants, who contacted me about my study, it appears that some recipients of the gift-cards did not realize they were provided with a gift card code with cash value. In future studies, it would be important to make this more prominent so that the gift cards are not left unused due to participant oversight.

Native language. Incorporating ASL, the native language of some participants, was the final strategy employed to increase participation rates (Babbie, 1990; Fink, 2006). The survey items were presented in ASL, and participants were able to respond in ASL. The entire faculty-instrument was translated into American Sign Language and participants were able to respond to the open-ended items in English or ASL. The translation and ASL response aspect of the instrument is explained in a previous section labeled "Translation."

Participants were informed that submitting video could potentially infringe on their anonymity because the investigator, when watching the video, may recognize the participant. While all participants were given the opportunity to provide responses in ASL, only one respondent video-recorded any ASL responses. The links to the video files were provided in the response textboxes. The video links were treated with the same care as the other data collected from participants. The investigator planned to leave a comment to inform the participant that the video had been reviewed once the video was translated into English and entered into the data set; however, the participant set the comment feature of the You Tube video to off. Therefore, no attempts to contact the participant were made.

Data Storage and Confidentiality

All data collected for this project are protected as confidential information. The first set of data collected, the faculty and chair roster, is maintained as an electronic file with all faculty members listed by institution. Identifying information such as name and place of employment are stored. While most data were publically available via

institutional web pages, some information was collected from departmental representatives. Care was taken to protect all information as confidential. The roster is stored on a password-protected computer.

Data from the department chair interviews were recorded on a data collection form, which included a numeric code linking each interview to a specific interpreting program. At times, department chair responses to open ended questions included program or faculty member identifying information. When that information was unnecessary for data analysis, it was not recorded. When appropriate, it was indicated with a placeholder. For example, when a chairperson responded with the name of a specific faculty person when asked where new faculty members learn about the tenure and promotion requirements, it was recorded as "[specific faculty member]." These forms are stored in a locked file cabinet within a locked office when not in the direct possession and use of the research team. The data from these forms was loaded into SPSS version 19 along with the responses to the online version of the chairperson questionnaire.

The faculty survey and the online chair questionnaire, for those who chose that option, were deployed via Novi Systems, the online survey tool, which automatically stores data in a password protected database server. The data, without identifying information, were exported to SPSS version 19. Items were coded for data analysis purposes, as described in "Data Analysis" and summarized in Table 3-3. For the open-ended responses provided in ASL, the investigator viewed and translated the responses into English. The message was typed directly into the respondent's data file. A notation was made indicating that the response was interpreted from ASL. Each response was

coded with a participant identification number; identifying information was not stored with the data.

Data Analyses

Several strategies were used to analyze the data collected for this study. Descriptive statistics were determined and recorded first for each relevant survey item. Collapsing individual items into the appropriate productivity score for the relevant variables followed. Specific procedures for each research question are discussed below. Given the relatively small sample size, a power analysis supported interpreting inferential statistics using an alpha of .10.

Research Question 1: Institution Types and Academic Units

Descriptive statistics were used to address research question 1, "In what institutional types, departments, and colleges are baccalaureate granting interpreter education programs housed?" Carnegie classification, department field, and college category are reported. Carnegie classification was an ordinal variable coded as 1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting institutions. Classification was determined using the database available on the Carnegie Foundation website (http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/). Department and college field/disciplines were reviewed once data were collected. Nominal variables were created based on the natural categories within the data. The Departments were coded as 1 = Language and/or Culture (including those focused on interpreting), 2 = Education (including Special Education and Communication Disorders), 3 = Human

Services, 4 = Other. College disciplines were coded as 1 = Education, 2 = Arts and Sciences, 3 = Health and Community Services, 4 = Social Sciences, and 5 = Other.

Research Question 2: Interpreter Education Faculty Demographic and Employment Characteristics

Descriptive statistics were used to answer research question 2, "What are the demographic characteristics and employment qualifications of interpreter education faculty members?" Age, gender, Deaf culture status, and ethnicity are reported for personal characteristics. Age was measured at the interval level and was determined by year of birth. Gender was a nominal variable coded as 1 = Male and 2 = Female. Deaf culture status was measured with an ordinal scale in three categories (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parent(s), and 3 = Hearing). For some analyses, as indicated within the discussion for the relevant research question, Deaf culture status was reported with two levels, 1 = Deaf and 2 = Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent(s). Ethnicity data were collected by specified categories (1 = White/Caucasian, 2 = Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 3 = Hispanic or Latino/a, 4 = Black or African American, 5 = Asian, 6 = American Indian or Alaska Native, and 7 = other). Due to the small number of participants in individual categories (other than White/Caucasian) a new variable, ethnicity combined, was created and coded as 1 = White/Caucasian and 2 = Non-white/Non-Caucasian.

Both academic credentials and professional credentials comprised employment qualifications. Academic credentials included three variables: highest level of education, an ordinal variable (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral); field of

study, a nominal variable with categories determined by naturally occurring divisions; and highest degree setting, an ordinal variable (1 = Traditional college/university setting, 2 = Traditionally college/university setting, some courses via distance delivery, 3 = Traditional college/university setting, all courses via distance delivery, 4 = Distance learning college/university with some courses on-site, and 5 = Distance learning college/university with no courses on site).

Professional credentials are described using the following variables: years of interpreting, interpreting certification, years of postsecondary teaching experience, and teaching credentials. Years of interpreting was an interval level variable that indicated total years of professional interpreting experience measured as years since first achieving credentials. Interpreting certification was originally coded as 1 = no interpreting credentials because I have never been an interpreter, 2 = I am/was an interpreter but do not hold any interpreting credentials, 3 = I am an interpreter with state level or other (non-RID, NAD, or NIC) credentials, 4 = National RID, NAD, or NIC credentialed interpreter, 5 = Other. These responses were recoded as an ordinal variable (0 = Not/never an interpreter; 1 = Not nationally certified and 2 = Nationally certified). Teaching credentials also included two variables, teaching credentials and years of teaching. Teaching credentials were measured as a dichotomous variable (0 = No ASLTA certifications, 1 = have ASLTA certification) based on the survey question about ASLTA certification. Those with any level of certification were coded as 1 while those without ASLTA certification were coded as 0. Years of teaching, an interval level variable,

indicated the number of years of full-time teaching experience the faculty member reported.

Research Question 3: Faculty Perceived Tenure Criteria and Weight

"What do interpreter education faculty perceive as the criteria and requirements for tenure," research question 3, was analyzed using descriptive statistics for teaching perception, service perception, and research perception. The perception measures consist of three variables representing the perceived proportion of tenure evaluation each of the three components of faculty work represents – teaching, service, and scholarship. Each was an interval score based on the weighting of the importance of the component in a tenure evaluation. The combined weight for the three categories and an additional "other" category was 100%. For example, teaching may be weighted at 40% with research at 30%, service at 20%, and other at 10%. The faculty members' level of agreement or disagreement with several hypothetical tenure cases is reported (1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Don't know/Unsure). Also, faculty members were asked to determine the primary way that scholarship was judged (1 = quantity, 2 = quality).

Research Question 4: Chair Perceived Tenure Criteria and Weight

Research question 4, "What are the department chairs' perceived criteria and requirements for tenure?" was addressed similar to question three. Instead of reporting faculty perception data, chairs' responses to relevant survey items (e.g., tenure policy weighting) were reported. The chairs' perception measures consisted of three variables representing the perceived proportion of tenure evaluation each of the three components

of faculty work represents – teaching, service, and scholarship. Each was an interval score based on the weighting of the importance of the component in a tenure evaluation. The combined weight for the three categories and an additional "other" category was 100%. For example, teaching may be weighted at 40% with research at 30%, service at 20%, and other at 10%. The chairs' level of agreement or disagreement with several hypothetical tenure cases was reported (1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Don't know/Unsure). Also, chairs were asked to determine the primary way that scholarship was judged (1 = quantity, 2 = quality).

Research Question 5: Alignment Between Faculty and Chair Tenure Perceptions

For research question 5 descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used to answer the question, "Do faculty and chair expectations of the tenure criteria differ significantly from one another, and are there differences by faculty with differing qualifications, employment settings, and characteristics?" This question was analyzed in two parts. First, independent-sample *t*-tests were run to determine if faculty weights and chair weights for each area (i.e., teaching, service, and scholarship) differed significantly from each other. Next, additional means comparisons were run to determine if specific groups of faculty differed significantly in alignment scores.

The first of several steps to determine if alignment differed between different types of faculty was to develop alignment scores for teaching, research, and service. Those were calculated for each faculty member. All faculty members and chairs were assigned institution codes based on the program represented. Each faculty member's alignment scores were calculated by subtracting the faculty member assigned weight

from the weight given to that category by the chair of his or her own department. Alignment means and ranges are reported. Then, the values were converted to absolute values, and the mean and standard deviation were determined in preparation for *t*-tests to be conducted. ANOVA and *t*-tests were used to determine if faculty members with different characteristics had differing alignment than other groups.

ANOVA compared faculty alignment scores between institutions of differing Carnegie classification (1 = Bachelor granting, 2 = Master's granting, 3 = Doctoral granting/Research University) for teaching, service, and scholarship. Next independent-sample *t*-tests were used to determine if a differing level of alignment existed for faculty members with different levels of education. The groups were faculty members with doctoral degrees (code = 2) and those with master's degrees or less (code = 1) for each faculty responsibility, teaching, research, service. Finally, an independent-sample *t*-test was run with Deaf culture status (1 = Deaf and 2 = Hearing or Hearing with Deaf parents). In addition to the weight and alignment scores, descriptive statistical comparisons were made between the level of agreement or disagreement for hypothetical tenure cases and the primary evaluation of scholarship (i.e., quantity or quality).

Research Question 6: Predictors of Perceived Tenure Criteria

A series of three simple linear regressions were performed to answer research question 6, "What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with perceptions of the importance of teaching, research, and service for tenure?" The criterion variables for the regressions were teaching weight, service weight, and scholarship weight. Predictor variables for each regression included Deaf

culture identity (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting), and faculty highest level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional). While the variables tenure-track status and employment status are important, the number of respondents across all items limited the number of predictor variables that could be used in the analyses. These were selected to be dropped given high correlations (r = .-.570 and r = .45, respectively) with highest degree.

Research Question 7: Predictors of Productivity

Research question 7 was analyzed similarly to research question 6. In this case, "What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with productivity in teaching, research, and service?" The dependent measures were the computed productivity indexes (i.e., teaching, service and research productivity) described later. Predictor variables for each regression include faculty highest level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional), Deaf culture identity (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting), and tenure weight of each relevant dependent variable. Because part-time faculty members are generally employed for specific teaching responsibilities and their productivity is likely limited to that arena, all part-time faculty members were excluded from the regressions.

Productivity. Productivity will consist of three measures, one for each component of the tenure criteria. The variables teaching productivity, service productivity, and scholarly productivity were computed. The computation of each variable is described below.

Teaching productivity. Within the literature, teaching productivity is measured in one of several ways (Fairweather, 2002), none of which are direct measures of teaching effectiveness. Although there are concerns about the use of student evaluations, in an effort to keep the survey a manageable length, student evaluation of instruction scores represent teaching productivity. Student evaluations for instructors are not directly available; faculty members reported their most recently available "teaching effectiveness" score as well as the total points possible for the score. In one case, faculty provided a score range. In that case, the range was replaced with the average of the end-points of the range. In another case, the faculty member did not provide data in the box to indicate out of how many total points the score was; because it was a high number (viz., 89), it was assumed to represent a score out of 100. Additionally, two faculty provided string data within the numeric textbox. String data (e.g., high, +) were moved to comments because they were un-analyzable to create a score. For example, one faculty member indicated their score as "4+;" the "+" was eliminated to create numeric data. Finally, a decimal score was created resulting in an instructional effectiveness score with a standardized scale (scale = 0.00 – 1.0). The formula for creating the teaching productivity score was: Teaching Score / Total Points Possible = Teaching Productivity.

Service productivity. An index score of service productivity was computed based on self-reported service measures. College and university faculty members typically fulfill service obligations in several realms including the broad categories of service to the department, institution, profession, and community. Although within individual institutions different types of service may receive different weights, in this study, each regular service commitment counted equally. Leadership positions were weighted more heavily (1.5 times) than other service commitments. All types of service commitments were combined to create one index score for service productivity. The investigator acknowledges that this does not capture the relative importance of each type of service or the individual contributions or time committed. The index score was created with this formula: (1.5)Leadership + Other Service = Service Productivity.

Scholarly productivity. This variable included a range of scholarly work. As with the service productivity variable, several types of productivity were combined into a composite score. Not all types of scholarship were weighted equally. The formula for the research productivity was: (1)Peer-reviewed articles/creative works + (.5)Non-Peer Reviewed Articles/Creative works + (.25)Reviews of books, and articles creative works + (.5)juried presentations + (.25)Software, Patents, other works = Scholarly Productivity. Table 3-3 summarizes the variables associated with each research question and the specific sources of data.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter begins with a restatement of the purpose and research questions addressed for the study. The presentation of findings includes summaries of the frequencies of responses for the individual survey items and descriptive statistics on variables created from these items. The alpha for this study was set at .10. Program level data were collected from 38 programs; 29 department chairs participated in the study. The total population of identified faculty members in interpreter education programs with valid contact information was 170. Of the total faculty population, 102 (60%) returned completed surveys. Table 4-1 provides a clear presentation of the employment status and setting in which those faculty members are employed.

Statement of Purpose and Research Questions

The purposes of this study were threefold. One objective of this study was to describe the personal and professional characteristics of ASL-English interpreter educators employed by four-year academic institutions, as well as where interpreter education programs were housed in these institutions. The personal characteristics were defined as demographic factors including gender, age, race/ethnicity, and Deaf cultural status. The professional characteristics were defined in two categories: employment qualifications and position status. Employment qualifications include professional and

Table 4-1

Number of Faculty by Employment Status and Setting

Classification	Number of Faculty Members N (%)
Employment Status	
Full-time	78 (76.5)
Part-time	24 (23.5)
Tenure Status[a]	
Tenured	21 (20.6)
Tenure-track	19 (18.6)
Tenure-track aspiring	21 (20.6)
Not tenure-track aspiring	32 (31.4)
Institution has no tenure system	8 (7.8)
Academic Rank	
Professor	13 (12.7)
Associate Professor	30 (29.4)
Assistant Professor	26 (25.5)
Instructor/Lecturer	7 (6.9)
ASL-Based title	6 (5.9)
Adjunct/ad hoc	3 (2.9)
Coordinator/other	1 (1)
Not applicable	16 (15.7)

Table 4-1 (continued)

Classification	Number of Faculty Members N (%)
Carnegie Classification	
Baccalaureate College	21 (20.6)
Master's Granting	44 (43.1)
Doctoral Granting/Research	37 (36.3)

Note: (a) One faculty respondent did not report tenure status.

academic credentials. Professional credentials included certifications held and years of professional experience, which includes interpreting or related experience as well as teaching experience. Academic credentials were defined as highest degree attained and field of study. Employment status included the faculty members' classification as full or part-time, rank (Assistant Professor, etc.), and tenure status (tenured, tenure-track, or off-tenure track). The second purpose was to describe interpreter education faculty members' and the department chairs' perspectives regarding criteria and requirements for tenure and the extent to which the perspectives were aligned. The third objective of this survey study was to determine if employment qualifications and position status predict perceived tenure evaluation criteria and productivity for ASL-English interpreter educators at four-year higher education institutions.

The research questions addressed in this study were:

1. In what institutional types, departments, and colleges are baccalaureate granting interpreter education programs housed?

2. What are the demographic characteristics and employment qualifications of interpreter education faculty members?

3. What do interpreter education faculty perceive as the criteria and requirements for tenure?

4. What are the department chairs' perceived criteria and requirements for tenure?

5. Do faculty and chair expectations of the tenure criteria differ significantly from one another, and are there differences by faculty with differing qualifications, employment settings, and characteristics?

6. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with perceptions of the importance of teaching, research, and service for tenure?

7. What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with productivity in teaching, research, and service?

Results

Research Question 1: Institution Types and Academic Units

The first research question addressed program-level categorization. The question asks, "In what institutional types, departments, and colleges are baccalaureate granting interpreter education programs housed?" First, institution-types were addressed. Baccalaureate interpreter education programs were equally spread between the three major Carnegie Classifications, Baccalaureate Colleges, Master's Colleges and

Universities, and Doctoral Granting/Research Universities; see Table 4-2 for the number of programs within each classification.

Table 4-2

Number of Programs by Carnegie Classification

Carnegie Classification	Number of Programs in Study *N* (%)
Baccalaureate College	12 (31.6)
Master's Colleges and Universities	14 (36.8)
Doctoral Granting/Research Universities	12 (31.6)
Total Number of Programs Represented	38

School or College categories. A variety of School and College units were observed in the data. Twenty-four programs had information available on the institutional website about the academic structure of the School or College within the institution. [7] Of those with information available (n = 24), nearly half were in Colleges/Schools of Education. Approximately half of the remaining programs were housed in the College/School of Arts and Sciences, while the remaining programs were equally divided among Health and Community Services, Social Sciences, and other schools. Table 4-3 provides a summary of the number of programs within each type of college/school.

Department categories. There were three departmental categories that emerged from the data gathered from departmental websites (n = 28); these are summarized in

[7] It is important to note that many institutions' hierarchy did not have departmental divisions and, thus, were excluded from this analysis. This applies to College/School divisions as well.

Table 4-3

Number of Programs by College/School Academic Unit

College/School Category	Number of Programs *n* (%)
Education	11 (45.8)
Arts and Sciences	6 (25.0)
Health and Community Services	3 (12.5)
Social Sciences	2 (16.7)
Other	2 (16.7)
Total	24

Table 4-4. The largest category was World Language, including ASL, and/or Culture-based departments. Within this category, representative department names included ASL and Interpreting, Sign Language Studies, Humanities, Linguistics, and Modern Languages. The second largest classification was Education. Interpreting programs were housed in departments of Education, Special Education, and Communication Disorders. The third type of department was human services, which included department names such as Human Services, Counseling and Rehabilitation Services, and Behavioral Sciences. Finally, one program did not easily fit into the other classifications; it was housed in the Department of English. While English is a world language and some could argue this is a "language/culture" based view, English is not the same as ASL, and other languages were not taught within this academic unit; thus, it was determined that the

program was not housed within a "language and/or culture" based department for the purposes of this study.

Table 4-4

Number of Programs by Departmental Academic Unit

Department Categorization	Number of Programs *n* (%)
Language and/or Culture	13 (46.4)
Education (Including Special Education and Communication Disorders)	10 (35.7)
Human Services	4 (14.3)
Other	1 (3.6)
Total Programs	28

Note. $N = 28$; Only 28 programs had department level classifications discernible from the institution website.

Many programs were housed within departments that were housed within schools or colleges within the institution. When both the departmental unit and college/school academic units were analyzed for schools reporting either or both academic units, programs were relatively evenly split between Education and Social Service fields ($n = 15$) and Humanities/Arts and Sciences fields ($n = 11$). As discussed previously in the literature, Wanner et al. (1981) suggested differential productivity among departments and programs and Kekale (1999) identified differences among departments classified as soft and applied versus to hard and pure. ASL-English interpreting, by its nature, is a soft and applied discipline. The data suggest that interpreting programs were often housed within soft and applied departments and colleges. The exception to this would be

Departments focused on languages and school of Humanities or Arts and Sciences. In those units, the general orientation of the department may be soft and pure.

Research Question 2: Interpreter Education Faculty Demographic and Employment Characteristics

"What are the demographic characteristics and employment qualifications of interpreter education faculty members," was the second question addressed. Because this research question attempted to describe, in general terms, the faculty who teach within interpreting programs, the descriptive demographic and employment qualifications data below included data of six department chairs who also teach courses within the interpreting program. In other research questions addressed below, no chair data were included with faculty data.

Demographics. The mean age of faculty members teaching in programs was 49.30 ($N = 97$, $SD = 9.09$). While about half (46.4%) were younger than 51 years, nearly one-third of faculty members (28%) were between the ages of 55 and 61. Thus, nearly one-third of the faculty members were nearing retirement age. Females represented a much larger proportion of the faculty respondents ($n = 71$, 73.20%) than male faculty members ($n = 26$, 26.80%), which was expected and mirrors the trend within the field of ASL-English interpreting practitioners (Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, 2010). Deaf faculty members represented 39.20% of the faculty in this study ($n = 38$), while hearing people with Deaf parents represented only 7.2% ($n = 7$). About half of the faculty members were hearing without Deaf parents ($n = 52$, 53.6%). In other words nearly two-thirds of the faculty respondents were not Deaf. There was little ethnic diversity among

the faculty respondents. The faculty members were overwhelmingly White/Caucasian (*n* = 92, 94.8%), with non-white/non-Caucasian faculty representing only 5.2% of the faculty sample (*n* = 5).

Employment qualifications. Approximately two-thirds of the faculty members held a master's degree (*n* = 61, 62.2%), and 24.5% held a doctoral degree. The six department chairs, who were included in the degrees listed, had a different proportion of doctoral degrees than was present in the faculty sample. Three (50%) held doctorates. Fifteen faculty members or chairs that teach in the program were currently working toward a master's (*n* = 6, 6.2%) or doctoral (*n* = 9, 9.3%) degree. Thirty-two additional faculty members plan to pursue either a master's degree (*n* = 5) or doctoral degree (*n* = 27) in the future. The highest level of education earned, as well as currently pursued degrees, and planned degrees are summarized in Table 4-5.

Over 90% of the faculty (*n* = 84, 91.3%) earned their highest degree or were working on the highest degree in a traditional college or university setting. Fifteen of those faculty members had at least some of their courses offered online. Four faculty members (4.4%) earned a degree from a distance learning educational institution.

Many faculty members' degrees were in the field of Education (*n* = 26) with specializations ranging from Deaf Education (*n* = 5), ASL/Interpreter Teaching (*n* = 7), Curriculum and Instruction (including teaching English as a Second Language; *n* = 8), and Teacher Leadership (*n* =6). Linguistics was the next most prevalent field, with 14 faculty members holding degrees in this discipline, including Educational Linguistics. Of those reporting, five faculty members held degrees in counseling-related fields (e.g.,

Table 4-5

Faculty Highest Level of Education, Current Educational Status, and Planned Degrees

Degree Level	Highest Level of Education	Currently Pursuing	Plan to Pursue in Near Future
Bachelor's degree	13	0	0
Master's degree	61	6	5
Doctoral degree or first professional degree	26	9	27
None		82	64
Total	98	97	96

Educational Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Social Work). Seven faculty members held degrees in Interpreting, ASL, or Deaf Studies. The remaining 10 degrees reported by faculty were in fields such as Rehabilitation Counseling, the Arts, Science, Leadership, and Theology.

Of the 15 faculty members currently pursuing a degree, 10 were pursuing degrees in education-related fields such as: Adult Education, Curriculum and Instruction, and Educational Administration. Three were currently working toward degrees in Linguistics; two were working toward degrees in either ASL or Interpreting.

Evidence suggests that hearing people may hold advanced degrees to a greater extent than Deaf people. The data were analyzed to determine if this was supported in

this study. Deaf culture status was converted to two groups (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents or Hearing) because the original category "Hearing with Deaf Parents" did not have a sufficient number of respondents for a chi-square analysis. A chi-square test indicated that, consistent with previous discussions, Deaf faculty members were underrepresented among the doctoral degree holding faculty and overrepresented among those holding baccalaureate degrees χ^2 (2, N = 96) = 9.17, p = .01, as shown in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6

Educational Attainment by Deaf Culture Status

Culture Status	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctoral	Total
Deaf	6	28	3	37
Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parents	7	31	21	59
Total	13	59	23	96

N = 96 χ^2 = 9.17 p = .01 df = 2

Professional qualifications. More than half of the faculty members teaching within interpreting programs were nationally certified interpreters (n = 64, 59.3%). The remaining 40.7% were either interpreters who did not hold national certification (n = 21) or individuals who have never been interpreters (n = 23). Of those (n = 23) who have never been interpreters, all were Deaf but one. Of those who were interpreters and do not hold national certification, most were Deaf (80.95%); four (19.05%) were hearing. For a summary of faculty members' interpreting qualifications see Table 4-7.

Table 4-7

Interpreting Qualifications of Faculty Members

Qualification	Frequency	Percent
Never an interpreter	23[a]	21.3
Not nationally certified	21[b]	19.4
Nationally certified	64	59.3
Total	108	100.0

Note: (a) One is hearing. (b) Four are hearing.

The faculty members who held interpreting credentials, national or other credentials, had on average 20 years of professional interpreting experience ($N = 66$, $M = 20.17$, $SD = 9.92$). In addition to professional interpreting experience, some faculty members held ASL teaching certification from the American Sign Language Teachers Association (ASLTA). Specifically, 35 faculty members (35.7%) hold ASLTA certification, while 63 of those responding to this question did not hold ASL teaching certification. Sixteen faculty members hold neither interpreting nor teaching credentials; see Table 4-8 for a listing of the level of certification.

Table 4-8

ASL Teachers Association Certifications Held by Faculty Members

Teaching Certification Held	Frequency	Percent
No	63	64.3
Yes, provisional	16	16.3
Yes, qualified	8	8.2
Yes, professional	11	11.2
Total	97	100.0

To determine the years of experience teaching in higher education, participants were asked, "How many years of full-time teaching experience do you have?" It was assumed that faculty would list only their years of teaching within higher education because the entire survey focused on the work within higher education; years of teaching assistantships and part-time teaching were explicitly excluded. Comments provided within the textbox for this item confirmed that the question was, in some cases, interpreted as referring to full-time teaching, not just within higher education. Thus, these data need to be interpreted with caution. The mean years of full-time teaching was 12.84 years ($N = 94$, $M = 12.84$, $SD = 10.68$) with a range of 35 (i.e., first-year faculty member to 35 years as a faculty member). Faculty members have nine years of experience in their current institutions ($N = 101$, $M = 9.15$, $SD = 8.79$).

Research Question 3: Faculty Perceived Tenure Criteria and Weight

For this research question, "What do interpreter education faculty perceive as the criteria and requirements for tenure," only those faculty (a) who were not chairs within their departments, (b) were currently working within interpreting programs and (c) who were tenured, tenure-track, or aspiring to a tenure-track position (Tenure Status codes = 1, 2, and 3 respectively) were included in the analysis ($N = 44$). Specifically, those faculty not aspiring to a tenure-track position (Tenure Status = 4), those working for institutions without tenure systems (Tenure Status = 5), and those serving as department chairs (role = 2) were excluded. First, faculty respondents were asked to provide the relative weight of teaching, research/scholarship, service, and other within the tenure decision process. The weights of all four categories summed to 100%. Faculty, on

average, gave the highest weight in the tenure decision to teaching (M = 51.63, SD = 16.87). Scholarship received slightly more weight than service (M = 25.41, SD = 13.98 and M = 21.50, SD = 8.68, respectively). See Table 4-9 for a summary of weight assigned to teaching, service, and scholarship by faculty and department chairs, whose responses are discussed with research question 4.

Table 4-9

Weights Assigned by Faculty and Chairs to Each of the Tenure Criteria

Tenure Component	Role	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*
Teaching	Faculty	43	51.63	16.87	2.57
	Chair	25	45.32	13.62	2.72
Service	Faculty	43	21.50	8.69	1.33
	Chair	24	21.83	9.43	1.93
Scholarship	Faculty	43	25.41	13.98	2.13
	Chair	24	31.42	12.12	2.69

Secondly, faculty members determined if hypothetical tenure cases would receive tenure within their intuition. The hypothetical cases attempted to present the relative importance of each of the tenure decision points, teaching, scholarship, and service. Faculty results are summarized in Table 4-10. In general, faculty members (70.4%) indicated that a good research record was not sufficient to earn tenure if teaching evaluations were poor; only four (9.1%) respondents indicated that good research and poor teaching would earn tenure. Faculty generally disagreed with a converse relationship

between teaching and research (i.e., good teaching and limited research) would achieve tenure. Over half (52.3%) indicated that good teaching and limited research would not result in a favorable tenure decision; 31.8% disagreed, indicating that good teaching and limited research would earn tenure.

Table 4-10

Faculty Level of Agreement with Hypothetical Tenure Cases

Item	*N*	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know/ unsure
If a faculty member has a good research record, it is possible to achieve tenure with poor teaching evaluations.	44	1 2.3%	3 6.8%	14 31.8%	17 38.6%	9 20.5%
If a faculty member has a good teaching record and evaluations, it is possible to achieve tenure with a limited research record.	44	7 15.9%	16 36.4%	7 15.9%	7 15.9%	7 15.9%
If a faculty member has an adequate research and teaching record, it is possible to achieve tenure with little service.	44	2 4.5%	18 40.9%	11 25.0%	4 9.1%	9 20.5%

As a final determiner of the faculty perceptions about the tenure decision within their employment-setting, faculty were asked, "In the tenure process within your department, research is primarily judged by…quantity, quality." Nearly one-third (N =41,

29.3%) indicated that research is judged by quantity. The remaining 70.7% responders chose quality.

Research Question 4: Chair Perceived Tenure Criteria and Weight

This question is similar to research question 3, with the distinction that this question addressed the department chairs' perceived criteria and requirements for tenure. The question was, "what are the department chairs' perceived criteria and requirements for tenure?" Table 4-9 summarizes the relative weight that chairs assigned to each category in the tenure decision. Although, given slightly less weight than the faculty assigned, chairs also weighted teaching higher, on average, than the areas of service and scholarship ($M = 45.32$, $SD = 13.62$; $M = 21.83$, $SD = 9.43$; $M = 31.42$, $SD = 12.12$, respectively). Scholarship was given greater weight than service.

Chairs judged hypothetical tenure cases for the likelihood that the candidate would achieve tenure. Responses are summarized in Table 4-11. Nearly all of the department chairs (96.3%) indicated that achieving tenure with a good research record and poor teaching evaluations was possible. Good teaching and limited research was more evenly divided. Slightly fewer than half of the chairs (44.4%) indicated that good teaching and limited research would result in a positive tenure evaluation; the remaining 55.5% indicated that it would not be possible to achieve tenure with a limited research record, even with quality teaching. Finally, 75.0% of department chairs indicated that research was judged primarily by quality in the tenure process; the remaining 25.0% indicated that research was primarily judged by quantity. During the interviews, many department chairs indicated that both of these were used in making tenure decisions, but

when it came down to which "trumps," they made a determination – usually in favor of quality.

Table 4-11

Chair Level of Agreement with Hypothetical Tenure Cases

Item	*N*	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know/ unsure
If a faculty member has a good research record, it is possible to achieve tenure with poor teaching evaluations.	27	0 0%	1 3.7%	19 70.4%	7 25.9%	0 0%
If a faculty member has a good teaching record and evaluations, it is possible to achieve tenure with a limited research record.	27	3 11.1%	9 33.3%	12 44.4%	3 11.1%	0 0%
If a faculty member has an adequate research and teaching record, it is possible to achieve tenure with little service.	27	2 7.4%	16 59.3%	8 29.6%	1 3.7%	0 0%

Research Question 5: Alignment Between Faculty and Chair Tenure Perceptions

This question addressed the extent to which faculty and chair expectations for tenure criteria were similar. "Do faculty and chair expectations of the tenure criteria differ significantly from one another, and are there differences by faculty with differing qualifications, employment settings, and characteristics" relied on data from research questions 3 and 4. Chair data came from all chairs that responded to relevant survey

items. For the faculty data, only those faculty who (a) were not chairs within their departments, (b) were working within interpreting programs, (c) who were tenured, tenure-track, or aspiring to a tenure-track position (Tenure Status codes = 1, 2, and 3 respectively), and (d) worked in a program with a corresponding department chair respondent ($N = 44$) were included in the study. Specifically, those faculty who did not aspire to a tenure-track position (Tenure Status = 4), those who worked for institutions without tenure systems (Tenure Status = 5), those who served as department chairs (role = 2), and those whose chair did not respond to the relevant survey items were excluded.

Comparison of faculty and chair weightings. Independent samples *t*-tests were used to determine if faculty weights differed significantly from chair weights for each of the primary tenure criteria, teaching, service, and scholarship. First, an independent samples *t*-test revealed that faculty perceptions of the weight of teaching in the tenure decision ($M = 51.63$, $SD = 16.87$) did not differ from chair reported weight of ($M = 45.32$, $SD = 13.62$) $t\ (66) = 1.59$, $p = .12$. Analysis for the weight of service in the tenure decision yielded similar results. An independent samples *t*-test revealed that faculty perceptions of the weight of service in the tenure decision ($M = 21.50$, $SD = 8.69$) did not differ from chair reported weight of service ($M = 21.83$, $SD = 9.43$) $t\ (65) = -.15$, $p = .88$. Finally, the results for scholarship were similar. An independent samples *t*-test revealed that faculty perceptions of the weight of scholarship in the tenure decision ($M = 25.41$, $SD = 13.98$) did not differ from chair-reported weight of scholarship in the tenure decision ($M = 31.43$, $SD = 12.12$) $t\ (66) = -1.37$, $p = .18$.

Faculty and chairs generally agreed that quality was more important than quantity when judging scholarship for the tenure decision. Some differences in the judgments for the hypothetical tenure cases existed. Nearly all of the chairs (96.3%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that good research and poor teaching evaluations resulted in tenure; 70.4% of faculty disagreed or strongly disagreed with that statement. For the statement "If a faculty member has a good teaching record and evaluations, it is possible to achieve tenure with a limited research record," slightly more than half of the chairs (55.5%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement indicating that quality teaching was not sufficient to achieve tenure without an accompanying research record. On the other hand, faculty members were generally in agreement or strong agreement (53.3%) with the statement; only 31.8% of faculty disagreed or strongly disagreed.

While there were not significant differences between faculty and chair weightings on average, it was important to determine if some categories of faculty or employment settings resulted in alignment differences. Subtracting the faculty members' weighting from their respective department chair's weighting created alignment scores.

Teaching alignment scores. In terms of teaching, compared to their specific chair, faculty tended to overestimate rather than underestimate the importance in the tenure decision, with slightly more than half of the faculty members having negative alignment scores, which indicated the scores was higher than that of the respective chair. Five faculty members (17.2%) had alignment scores of zero for Teaching, indicating that their weighting for teaching was the same as their department chairs' weighting. Table 4-

12 shows the spread of alignment scores. When scores were converted to absolute values, teaching absolute value alignment mean was 11.66 ($N = 29$, $SD = 9.05$).

Table 4-12

Teaching Alignment Scores

		Frequency	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Alignment	-30	1	3.4	3.4
	-25	1	3.4	6.9
	-20	4	13.8	20.7
	-17	2	6.9	27.6
	-10	5	17.2	44.8
	-5	1	3.4	48.3
	-2	1	3.4	51.7
	-1	1	3.4	55.2
	0	5	17.2	72.4
	3	1	3.4	75.9
	8	1	3.4	79.3
	10	2	6.9	86.2
	13	1	3.4	89.7
	16	1	3.4	93.1
	25	1	3.4	96.6
	26	1	3.4	100.0
	Total	29	100.0	

Service alignment scores. Slightly more than half of the faculty alignment scores (n = 28, 57.1%) for service fell between 5 and -5, indicating that the faculty were generally in close alignment with the chairperson in their department related to service. Table 4-13 shows the range of alignment scores for service. Absolute value alignment scores for service weight were calculated (N = 28, M = 8.07, SD = 6.47).

Scholarship alignment scores. Alignment scores for scholarship were nearly evenly split between positive and negative scores, indicating that about half of the faculty members overestimated and about half of the faculty members underestimated the weight of scholarship in the tenure decision when compared to their respective department chairs' weights. Absolute value alignment scores for scholarship were M = 9.21 (N = 28, SD = 9.06). Table 4-14 provides the spread of scholarship alignment scores. In general, service alignment was closest (M = 8.07, SD = 6.47), followed by scholarship (M = 9.21, SD = 9.06) and finally teaching (M = 11.66, SD = 9.05).

Teaching alignment analyzed by Carnegie classification. The mean teaching alignment score was lowest for doctoral granting/research institutions (M = 6.83, SD = 11.61). The mean teaching alignment scores for baccalaureate granting and master's granting institutions were relatively similar, at 14.83 and 12.24, respectively. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicated that variances across groups were equal F (2, 26) = 2.11, p = .14; therefore, this assumption required for a one-way ANOVA was satisfied. A one-way ANOVA, summarized in Table 4-15, indicated no significant differences in teaching alignment scores between the three levels of Carnegie Classification (F = 1.28, df = 2/26, p = .29).

Table 4-13

Service Alignment Scores

		Frequency	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Alignment	-16	1	3.6	3.6
	-15	1	3.6	7.1
	-13	1	3.6	10.7
	-10	1	3.6	14.3
	-5	3	10.7	25.0
	0	5	17.9	42.9
	3	2	7.1	50.0
	5	6	21.4	71.4
	10	1	3.6	78.6
	12	1	3.6	75.0
	13	2	7.1	85.7
	15	2	7.1	92.9
	20	1	3.6	96.4
	23	1	3.6	100.0
	Total	28	100.0	

Table 4-14

Scholarship Alignment Scores

		Frequency	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Alignment	-37	1	3.6	3.6
	-13	1	3.6	7.1
	-10	2	7.1	14.3
	-7	1	3.6	17.9
	-5	3	10.7	28.6
	-2	1	3.6	32.1
	0	4	14.3	46.4
	1	1	3.6	50.0
	4	1	3.6	53.6
	5	5	17.9	71.4
	8	1	3.6	75.0
	10	3	10.7	85.7
	12	1	3.6	89.3
	13	1	3.6	92.9
	20	1	3.6	96.4
	25	1	3.6	100.0
	Total	28	100.0	

Table 4-15

Alignment Analyzed by Carnegie Classification

Alignment Category	Carnegie Classification	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*
Teaching	Baccalaureate	6	14.83	11.61	4.56
	Master's	17	12.24	9.05	2.20
	Doctoral	6	6.83	5.529	2.257
Service	Baccalaureate	6	7.67	5.01	2.04
	Master's	16	6.63	4.94	1.23
	Doctoral	6	12.33	9.97	4.07
Scholarship	Baccalaureate	6	9.17	9.15	3.74
	Master's	16	8.00	6.90	1.73
	Doctoral	6	12.50	14.11	5.76

Service alignment by Carnegie classification. The service alignment means for baccalaureate and master's institutions were close, 7.67 and 6.63, respectively. The service alignment mean for doctoral institutions was higher at 12.33. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicated that equal variances could not be assumed F (2, 25) = 4.89, p = .02. A non-parametric test was run. A Kruskal-Wallis indicated no significant differences in service alignment scores across the three levels of Carnegie Classification, $H(2)$ = .70, p = .70.

Scholarship alignment by Carnegie classification. Doctoral institutions had the highest scholarship alignment means (M = 12.50) indicating that the faculty were further from the chairs' assigned weight for scholarship than were faculty in baccalaureate institutions (M = 9.17) and master's institutions (M = 8.00). Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicated that variances across groups could be assumed F (2, 25) = 2.44, p = .11; therefore, this assumption required for a one-way ANOVA was satisfied. A one-way ANOVA indicated no significant differences in scholarship alignment scores across the three levels of Carnegie Classification (F = .51, df = 2/25, p = .60).

Alignment by faculty level of education. An independent samples t-test revealed that teaching alignment scores of faculty members with a bachelor's or master's degree (n = 24, M = 12.92, SD = 9.24) differed significantly from the teaching alignment scores of faculty with doctoral degrees (n = 5, M = 5.60, SD = 5.18), t (27) = 1.70, p = .10. Those faculty members with a master's degree or lower were in less alignment with their chairs for the weight of teaching than were their doctoral-degreed counterparts. See Table 4-16 for a summary of group statistics.

Service and scholarship alignment by faculty level of education. Independent samples t-tests revealed that service and scholarship alignment scores did not differ by faculty level of education. Service alignment scores of faculty members with a bachelor's or master's degree (n = 23, M = 7.39, SD = 6.00) did not differ significantly from the service alignment scores of faculty with doctoral degrees (n = 5, M = 11.20, SD = 8.35), t (26) = -1.20, p = .24. Similar results were found for scholarship alignment by faculty level of education, as indicated in Table 4-16. An independent samples t-test revealed

Table 4-16

Alignment Analyzed by Faculty Level of Education

Alignment Type		Group Statistics				
	Education Level	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	Sig.
Teaching	Master's or Lower	24	12.92	9.24	1.89	*
	Doctorate/Professional Degree	5	5.60	5.18	2.32	
Service	Master's or Lower	23	7.39	6.00	1.25	
	Doctorate/Professional Degree	5	11.20	8.35	3.73	
Scholarship	Master's or Lower	23	10.00	9.72	2.03	
	Doctorate/Professional Degree	5	5.60	3.78	1.69	

Note: * significant at the $\propto$ = .10 level.

that scholarship alignment scores of faculty members with a bachelor's or master's degree (n = 23, M = 10.00, SD = 9.72) did not differ significantly from the scholarship alignment scores of faculty with doctoral degrees (n = 5, M = 5.60, SD = 3.78), t (26) = .98, p = .33.

Alignment by Deaf culture status. Teaching, service, and scholarship alignment scores did not differ significantly between groups of Deaf and hearing (including hearing with Deaf parents) faculty members. Results are summarized in Table 4-17. Independent samples t-tests revealed that teaching alignment scores of Deaf faculty members (n = 11, M = 8.18, SD = 7.13) did not differ significantly from the teaching alignment scores of

hearing faculty members (n = 18, M = 13.78, SD = 9.61) t (27) = -1.67, p = .11. Service alignment scores of Deaf faculty members (n = 10, M = 7.20, SD = 6.80) did not differ significantly from the service alignment scores of hearing faculty members (n = 18, M = 8.56, SD = 6.43), t (26) = -.52, p = .61. Finally, scholarship alignment scores of Deaf faculty members (n = 10, M = 8.10, SD = 8.39) did not differ significantly from the scholarship alignment scores of hearing faculty members (n = 18, M = 9.83, SD = 9.59) t (26) = -.48, p = .63.

Table 4-17

Alignment Analyzed by Deaf Culture Status

Group Statistics						
Alignment Category	Deaf Culture Status	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	Sig.
Teaching	Deaf	11	8.18	7.125	2.148	
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	18	13.78	9.613	2.266	
Service	Deaf	10	7.20	6.80	2.15	
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	18	8.56	6.43	1.52	
Scholarship	Deaf	10	8.10	8.39	2.65	
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	18	9.83	9.59	2.26	

Note: * = significant at the $\propto$ = .10 level

Research Question 6: Predictors of Perceived Tenure Criteria

Predictors of weight of teaching. The results of a simple linear regression of employment context variables, employment qualifications, and Deaf culture status on perceived weight of teaching in the tenure decision answered the research question, "What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with perceptions of the importance of teaching, research, and service for tenure?" Predictor variables the teaching regression included Deaf culture status (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting), and faculty highest level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional). The model was not significant ($F = 2.16$, $p = .11$, $R^2 = .16$, df [3, 34]), indicating no relationship between the predictors and the weight of teaching.

Predictors of weight of service. The results of a simple linear regression of employment context variables, employment qualifications, and Deaf culture status on perceived weight of service in the tenure decision were used to answer the second part of research question 6. Predictor variables for the service regression included Deaf culture status (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting), and faculty highest level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional). The model is not significant ($F = .84$, $p = .48$, $R^2 = .07$, df [3, 34]), indicating no relationship between the predictors and weight of service.

Predictors for weight of scholarship. Table 4-18 reports the results of a simple linear regression of employment context variables, employment qualifications, and Deaf culture status on perceived weight of scholarship in the tenure decision. Predictor variables the scholarship regression included Deaf culture identity (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting), and faculty highest level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional). Collectively, these predictors account for 17.7% of the variance in weight of scholarship.

Table 4-18

Coefficients of Deaf Culture Identity, Carnegie Classification, and Faculty Education Level on Weight of Scholarship

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-10.86	14.86	-	-.73	.47
	Carnegie Classification	9.18	3.45	.41	2.66	.01
	What is the highest degree you have completed?	5.27	4.69	.18	1.12	.74
	How do you primarily identify yourself?	.78	2.38	.05	.33	.74

$R^2 = .18$ $p = .02$

The model is significant ($F = 3.66$, $p = .02$, $R^2 = .18$, df [3, 34]). Collectively, Deaf culture identity, Carnegie Classification, and Faculty Education Level allow one to predict weight of scholarship better than chance. Carnegie Classification ($\beta = .41$) is the significant predictor of weight of scholarship, as shown in Table 4-18. The significant predictor is positively related to weight of scholarship. As educational level increases, perceived weight of scholarship increases.

Research Question 7: Predictors of Productivity

Three standard simple linear regressions were run, one for each dependent measure teaching productivity, service productivity, and scholarly productivity to answer the question, "What is the relationship between employment qualifications and employment context with productivity in teaching, research, and service?" The predictors for each regression were Deaf Culture Status, Tenure Weight (for relevant dependent variable), Carnegie classification, and faculty highest level of education.

Teaching productivity regression. The results of a simple linear regression of employment context variables (i.e., Teaching Weight, Carnegie classification), employment qualifications (i.e., faculty highest level of education), and Deaf culture status on teaching productivity, measured as a teaching effectiveness score are reported. Teaching productivity ($N = 39$, $M = .91$, $SD = .05$) was computed as Teaching Score/Total Points Possible. Predictor variables for this regression included, faculty level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional), Deaf culture status (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3

= Doctoral granting), and weight of teaching. The dependent measure was teaching productivity; the model was not significant ($F = 1.21$, $p = .34$, $R^2 = .18$, df [4, 22]), indicating no relationship between the predictors and teaching productivity.

Service productivity regression. Table 4-19 reports the results of a simple linear regression of employment context variables, employment qualifications, and Deaf culture status on service productivity ($N = 49$, $M = 8.16$, $SD = 4.72$). As a reminder, service productivity was computed with this formula: Service productivity = (1.5)Leadership + Other Service. Predictor variables for this regression included faculty level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional), Deaf culture status (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral granting), and weight of service.

Collectively, these predictors accounted for 25.10% of the variance in service productivity. The model was significant ($F = 2.59$, $p = .06$, $R^2 = .25$, df [4, 31]). Collectively, Deaf culture status, service weight, Carnegie classification, and faculty highest level of education allow one to predict service productivity better than chance. Carnegie classification (β= .30) and faculty highest level of education (β= .30) are significant predictors of service productivity with equal magnitude. Both significant predictors were positively related to service productivity. As they increased, service productivity increased.

Scholarly productivity regression. Table 4-20 reports the results of a simple linear regression of employment context variables, employment qualifications, and Deaf

Table 4-19

Coefficients of Deaf Culture Identity, Service Weight, Carnegie Classification, and Faculty Education Level on Service Productivity

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-2.18	5.20	-	-.42	.68
	Carnegie Classification	2.22	1.23	.30	1.81	.08
	What is the highest degree you have completed?	2.76	1.57	.30	1.76	.088
	How do you primarily identify yourself?	-.48	.83	-.10	-.58	.56
	Weight for Service in Tenure Decision	-.09	.08	-.18	-1.09	.28

$R^2 = .25$ $p = .06$

culture status on scholarly productivity ($N = 50$, $M = 3.54$, $SD = 5.05$). Scholarly productivity was computed using this formula: (1)Peer-reviewed articles/creative works + (.5)Non-peer-reviewed articles/creative works + (.25)Reviews of book, articles, or creative works + (.5)juried presentations + (.25)software, patens, or other works. Predictor variables for this regression included faculty highest level of education (1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctoral/professional), Deaf culture status (1 = Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents, 3 = Hearing), Carnegie classification (1 = Baccalaureate granting institution, 2 = Master's granting institutions, 3 = Doctoral

granting), and weight of scholarship. Collectively, these predictors accounted for 43.20% of the variance in scholarly productivity. The model was significant ($F = 6.09$, $p = .00$, $R^2 = .43$, *df* [4, 32]). Collectively, Deaf culture status, scholarship weight, Carnegie classification, and faculty highest level of education allow one to predict scholarly productivity better than chance. Carnegie classification ($\beta = .29$) and faculty highest level of education ($\beta = .51$) were significant predictors of scholarly productivity. Both significant predictors were positively related to scholarly productivity. As they increased, scholarly productivity increased. Highest degree was more important, by magnitude of the betas, than Carnegie classification. While not directly relevant to this regression, it is important to note that 55.6% of full-time faculty who were in the tenure system or aspiring to be ($n = 54$) were required to publish; however, 9 of those faculty who were required to publish (18%) reported zero scholarly productivity since January 2008.

This chapter presented the results of analyses, which addressed the research questions in this study. Characteristics of interpreting programs' institutional, departmental, and college academic units were described. Interpreter education program faculty members were described in terms of their demographic and employment characteristics. Faculty and chair tenure criteria were described, and the alignment between faculty and their respective chairs was reported. Finally, predictors of perceived tenure weight and reported productivity were reported. The following chapter discusses the implications of the findings.

Table 4-20

Coefficients of Deaf Culture Identity, Scholarship Weight, Carnegie Classification, and Faculty Education Level on Scholarly Productivity

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-9.96	3.16	-	-3.16	.00
	Carnegie Classification	1.47	.78	.29	1.89	.07
	What is the highest degree you have completed?	3.57	1.01	.51	3.55	.00
	How do you primarily identify yourself?	-.71	.49	-.20	-1.46	.15
	Weight for Scholarship in Tenure Decision	.01	.04	.04	.23	.28
	$R^2 = .43$	$p = .00$				

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Concept Model

The conceptual model for this study included the employment context (e.g., Carnegie classification and department/housing units), faculty members' characteristics (e.g., Deaf culture status and academic qualifications), faculty perceptions of tenure expectations, and productivity in three domains. Because faculty members function within programs and a specific employment context, the employment context (i.e., program level data) of the model is discussed first. A discussion of the results pertaining to faculty characteristics follows; perceptions and productivity end the discussion relevant to the conceptual model of the study. Implications for policy, practice, and future research conclude this chapter.

Employment Context

Carnegie classification. The culture of academic institutions can be, in part, summed by the Carnegie classification system, which is based on several factors. Institutions classified as research intensive or extensive (i.e., grouped as "Doctoral Granting/Research Universities" in this study) may demand higher levels of scholarly productivity and grant seeking for promotion and tenure, whereas liberal arts baccalaureate institutions may not heavily emphasize scholarly productivity for tenure decisions. As such, many studies of faculty productivity use the Carnegie classification

system as a control or grouping variable or as the analyzed group excluding those in other classifications. This study included interpreting programs spread evenly across three major groupings of Carnegie classification: baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral granting institutions. In this study, Carnegie classification was a significant predictor of faculty members' perceived weight of scholarship, service productivity, and scholarly productivity. At one level, this finding was congruent with O'Meara (2005) who states, "Institutional type may have the most profound influence on expectations for faculty work and their subsequent influence on evaluation criteria and outcomes" (p. 483). However, Carnegie classification was not a significant variable or predictor for any other analyses, such as alignment between faculty and their respective department chairpersons. Furthermore, as discussed later, while Carnegie classification predicted productivity, it did not predict the weights that faculty assigned to teaching or service in tenure decisions.

Carnegie limited prediction of tenure criteria weighting. Carnegie classification was not a significant predictor of the weight that faculty members assigned to neither teaching nor service in the regression models. This was a surprising finding, given that the classification system is intended to be indicative of, and literature suggests differences in, the value and emphasis placed on each aspect of the triumvirate among different types of institutions (Boyer, 1990a; Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2011; Mabrouk, 2006; O'Meara, 2002, 2005; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006). While Carnegie classification was not a significant predictor of the assigned weight of

teaching or service, it was a significant predictor of the weight faculty assigned to scholarship with a positive relationship.

To further investigate upon review of the results, a more basic assumption was tested: Do the weights assigned to teaching, service, and scholarship differ by Carnegie classification? To test this assumption for faculty and chairs independently, two one-way ANOVA were run. First, an ANOVA of the chairs' assigned weights for each—teaching, service, and scholarship—was run. This was followed by an ANOVA of the faculty members' perceived weight of each, by Carnegie classification. In both cases, the weight of scholarship differed significantly by Carnegie classification (chairs: $F[2, 22] = 6.42$, $p = .00$; faculty: $F[2, 45] = 2.48$, $p = .10$) while the weights of teaching (chairs: $F[2, 22] = 1.01$, $p = .38$; faculty: $F[2, 45] = 1.25$, $p = .30$) and service (chairs: $F[2, 21] = .61$, $p = .56$; faculty: $F[2, 45] = .96$, $p = .39$) did not differ significantly by Carnegie classification.

A Post-hoc analysis revealed that the chairs of programs in doctoral granting institutions reported greater weighting to the importance of scholarship in the tenure process ($M = 39.60$, $SD = 9.64$) than chairs in master's granting institutions ($M = 21.67$, $SD = 12.17$, p = .10) and chairs in Baccalaureate institutions ($M = 27.17$, $SD = 11.92$, p = .01). Chairs within master's granting institutions did not weigh teaching, service, or scholarship differently compared to chairs in baccalaureate institutions.

Faculty members in baccalaureate ($M = 17.31$, $SD = 13.79$) and doctoral granting institutions ($M = 30.40$, $SD = 20.68$) reported differences in the weight assigned to scholarship (p = .08); however, the weights assigned to scholarship reported by faculty members in programs in master's granting institutions ($M = 24.48$, $SD = 11.02$) did not

differ significantly from faculty in either baccalaureate or doctoral institutions. Finally, the weight of teaching and service did not differ among Carnegie classification for faculty members or chairs, although, as discussed earlier, Carnegie classification was predictive of service productivity. Table 5-1 summarizes the weights assigned to teaching, service, and scholarship by role.

Table 5-1

Mean Weights Assigned to Teaching, Service, and Scholarship by Carnegie Type and Role

	Baccalaureate		Master's		Doctoral	
Criteria	Chair	Faculty	Chair	Faculty	Chair	Faculty
Teaching	*M* = 48.00 *SD* = 18.11 *N* = 6	*M* = 60.00 *SD* = 19.47 *N* = 13	*M* = 48.78 *SD* = 16.60 *N* = 9	*M* = 52.28 *SD* = 17.08 *N* = 25	*M* = 40.60 *SD* = 5.10 *N* = 10	*M* = 48.00 *SD* = 22.35 *N* = 10
Service	*M* = 20.50 *SD* = 10.17 *N* = 6	*M* = 19.62 *SD* = 8.53 *N* = 13	*M* = 24.88 *SD* = 10.47 *N* = 8	*M* = 22.96 *SD* = 9.01 *N* = 25	*M* = 20.20 *SD* = 8.50 *N* = 10	*M* = 18.90 *SD* = 10.51 *N* = 10
Scholarship	*M* = 27.17 *SD* = 11.92 *N* = 6	*M* = 17.31 *SD* = 13.79 *N* = 13	*M* = 21.67 *SD* = 12.17 *N* = 9	*M* = 24.48 *SD* = 11.02 *N* = 25	*M* = 39.60 *SD* = 9.64 *N* = 10	*M* = 30.40 *SD* = 20.68 *N* =10

While it was surprising that Carnegie classification was only predictive of the weight faculty assigned to scholarship and not of the weights assigned to teaching and service, the results were less surprising when taken in light of the lack of significant difference in weights assigned to teaching and service between faculty from different Carnegie classifications. The chairs from different Carnegie classifications also did not report significant differences in weight of teaching, which suggests that the major distinction among higher education institutions is the importance or value of scholarship rather than the importance or value of teaching and service to tenure decisions.

Carnegie classification's relationship with alignment. In addition to the lack of significance in weight assigned to the tenure criteria by Carnegie classification, the faculty alignment with their respective chairs for teaching, service, and scholarship did not differ by Carnegie classification. Faculty members teaching within master's granting institutions were as aligned with their chairs on teaching, scholarship, and service as faculty members in doctoral and baccalaureate granting institutions. This runs counter to the studies previously that indicated that faculty within master's granting institutions may be at a higher disadvantage in understanding the tenure requirements in place within their institutions. This was especially noteworthy for master's institutions classified as "striving" because the values and productivity expectations are in transition (O'Meara, 2005; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006). Unlike previous studies that suggest a differential understanding of the tenure expectations, faculty members in this study did not differ in level of alignment by Carnegie classification. It is possible that the institutions in this study were not "striving," as described in the literature being some of the most difficult in

which to work, or the faculty members within these institutions were receiving appropriate socialization into the expectations of their departments.

Carnegie classification's relationship with measures of productivity. Carnegie classification was a significant predictor of service and scholarship productivity, but not of teaching productivity. In both service and scholarly productivity regression models, significant predictors included Carnegie classification and faculty highest level of education. In the service productivity regression, the standardized Betas for highest degree earned and Carnegie classification had equal magnitude ($\beta = .30$). In terms of predicted scholarly productivity, highest level of education was a much more powerful predictor ($\beta = .51$ compared to $\beta = .29$ for Carnegie). The fact that highest degree earned was almost twice as powerful as Carnegie classification suggests more socialization regarding productivity may be occurring when faculty earn doctorates as compared to socialization at the institutions that hire them, or that the socialization process may not be sufficient to compensate for lack of research training. Many faculty members get a degree at one type of institution and may carry those expectations forward into a faculty position that may not align with the socialization pattern of the graduate education. Because Carnegie was a less important predictor of productivity, it may be extremely important that faculty members choose to work within institutions that match their preferences for emphasis on teaching or research. Those without doctoral degrees may be able to work comfortably within non-tenure-track positions that do not require scholarly productivity, within doctoral granting institutions.

Carnegie classification was not a significant predictor of teaching productivity, and this could be due in part to the outcome measure used. The teaching productivity scores had limited variance; most faculty members reported high student evaluation scores ($N = 39$, $M = .91$, $SD = .05$). While the lack of variance of scores may have impacted the predictability of productivity, it is important to consider other factors that may have been important considerations or led to the lack of variance within the productivity score. It could be argued that teaching evaluation scores should be better for faculty members working within baccalaureate granting institutions, which are generally referred to as "teaching institutions" because teaching is valued and emphasized over research. However, it is possible that faculty members within research institutions were able to gain high evaluations because they teach fewer courses and have fewer course "preps." Additionally, some literature suggests that faculty members who are productive scholars are productive instructors because they keep abreast of the literature and bring fresh concepts and research into the classroom (see Fairweather, 2002 for a summary of the literature). Another important consideration stems from the analysis run previously that did not indicate different weights of teaching and service between institution types; therefore, if faculty are productive in ways that reflect the weight, then Carnegie classification would not be expected to predict teaching productivity. Carnegie classification provides a meaningful way to classify institutions of higher education; in this study, Carnegie classification was a significant variable for predicting weight and productivity of scholarship and productivity for service but less important for predicting weight and productivity of teaching.

To better understand the employment context of interpreter education faculty, it is important to consider the context in which they interface daily, which is frequently within a smaller academic unit, rather than the larger institution. Most interpreting programs investigated in this study are part of academic units smaller than the institution level, such as colleges, schools, and departments. The implications of the academic unit affiliation are discussed next.

Academic units. Miller (2008) stated that many sign language programs were placed within or near other departments because ASL was seen as a support for service provision, rather than as a field of study in its own right. The very nature of this study investigates ASL as a support for the field of interpreting education; however, the fields among which interpreting programs were dispersed were quite diverse. Business schools were not among the academic units identified with interpreting programs; however, most other academic divisions were housing units for the interpreting programs. Such divisions included Health and Human Services, Liberal Arts, Humanities, and Education including Special Education and Communication Disorders. There appears to be a trend toward housing interpreting programs away from "service provision" and into the realm of academic study. While most of the programs (15/26, 57.7%) were housed either at the department or college level in the field of Education, many (11/26, 42.3%) were within the Humanities or Arts and Sciences. It is expected that this may indicate a trend in moving ASL courses to humanities divisions as well. This shift in placement merits future research. As will be discussed in more detail later regarding faculty academic credentials, the myriad of departments and divisions within which interpreting programs

are housed may lead to difficulty in establishing an identity as a discipline. This lack of a clear identity may have implications for the consistency of the education that future faculty receive since there are likely differential program requirements related to where the programs are housed. Second, it may affect the status of ASL-English interpreting programs. Third, this lack of clear identity may result in a less clear research agenda for the field. Additionally, this study indicates that most programs are housed either within departments or colleges of Education. ASL and English interpretation, while growing professionally due to demands for interpreters in educational settings at all levels, is not in essence an "education" field of study.

Faculty Member

In this section, several areas of faculty characteristics are addressed including employment, credentials, and culture status. Faculty employment status includes a discussion of the contingency status of the faculty in interpreter education programs. Implications of faculty members' professional and academic credentials are discussed. This section ends with a discussion of the minimal importance that Deaf culture status played as a significant variable in this study; however, the importance of Deaf faculty within programs is emphasized.

Employment status. In this study, of the 93 faculty members working within institutions with a tenure system, 57% of faculty members were not in tenure-track positions. Only 22.6% of faculty members are tenured, with 34.4% of faculty respondents not aspiring to a tenure-track position, which is usually considered the "holy grail" of faculty positions. Fifteen of the 21 faculty members who aspire to a tenure-track position

are employed full-time; 18 of the 32 who are not aspiring to a tenure-track position are full-time. Of full-time faculty working within institutions with a tenure system, 45.83% are not on the tenure track. Collectively, these factors have serious implications for the sustainability and consistency within interpreting programs. Having few faculty members in ongoing appointments may result in high turnover among faculty. Additionally, the use of contingent faculty members, especially part-time faculty, may lead to less consistency between components of the curriculum. Within the institution, a lack of tenured faculty may lead to a lack of influence and/or resources from within the institution. Further investigation into why faculty members are not interested in tenure-track positions is warranted.

Previous literature suggests that few ASL or ASL teacher preparation program faculty members were tenured or tenure-track (Cokely & Winston, 2010; Cooper et al., 2008; Jacobowitz, 2005). The rates of non-tenure eligible faculty in ASL programs reported by Cooper et al. (2008) was over 40%, which is slightly higher than recent reports by the AAUP indicating that 35% of full-time faculty are not on the tenure track (Monikowski, 2011). Full-time faculty members in this study are in contingent positions at a higher proportion than faculty members in general, at 45.83%.

Credentials. Winston and Cokely (2010) reported that faculty degree and other credential hiring requirements increased slightly in their follow-up study. In the current study, the majority of faculty members hold master's degrees ($N = 97$, 62.2%), and 16 faculty members hold neither interpreting nor teaching credentials ($N = 108$, 14.81%). Seven (7.22%) faculty members reported degrees in teaching ASL or Interpreting, and

seven (7.22%) additional faculty members reported holding degrees in Interpreting, ASL, or Deaf Studies; however, many of these degrees were not at the graduate level. The lack of advanced academic degrees coupled with the lack of professional credentials may lead administrators within institutions to wonder if these faculty members can effectively teach and serve interpreting students. Administrators, by training, are inclined to view the academic credentials more highly than native fluency in ASL, for example. Deaf faculty members were significantly less likely to hold advanced degrees and overwhelmingly were among the non-interpreting credentialed faculty; however, many did hold ASLTA teaching credentials. Unfortunately the academy, while understanding professional licensure and certifications, may not equate a "teaching certificate" with professional competence in the field taught.

Those faculty, Deaf and hearing, working without advanced degrees have limited academic infrastructure in place to support their successful navigation through the academy. As will be discussed in the following section, level of highest degree was an important predictor of teaching alignment as well as service and scholarly productivity. As has been discussed previously, there are a limited number of master's degree programs available in either interpreting or ASL/Deaf Studies, and only one doctoral program in interpreting exists. Thus, faculty members earned, are earning, or plan to earn their degrees in a wide range of fields. Given the convenience of online degree granting institutions and the flexibility that many online institutions offer in designing personalized degree programs, faculty were asked about the type of institution from which their highest degree was obtained or in which they are currently pursuing a degree.

Considering the factors stated above, it was surprising to find that only four faculty members had obtained a degree from an online institution. However, this may be indicative of the relative lower status that degrees from online institutions, as opposed to "brick-and-mortar" schools receive (Adams & DeFleur, 2005).

Highest degree important predictor. There was a significant difference in the level of alignment between faculty members with doctoral degrees and those without for teaching (with doctoral degree $M = 5.6$; $SD = 5.18$; without doctoral degree $M = 12.92$, $SD = 9.24$); those with doctoral degrees were significantly better aligned with their chairs about the importance of teaching than those without doctoral degrees. Faculty members with doctoral degrees were on average within five points of alignment with their chairs, which is a reasonable margin. In general, the faculty members were more likely to overestimate the importance of teaching. On an individual level, overweighting teaching may result in a less successful tenure bid if productivity aligns with weighting because the faculty member may lack sufficient productivity in service and scholarship when too much emphasis is placed on teaching. Fairweather (2002) indicates that the well-rounded faculty member who excels in teaching, service, and scholarship is an illusion. In the current study, the weight assigned to teaching, service, and scholarship were not significant predictors of productivity in each area; however, the implications of overweighting of teaching warrants further investigation, particularly if it comes at the expense of scholarship, which is the most critical factor for tenure and promotion at many institutions.

Highest degree was a significant predictor of service productivity and scholarly productivity, with doctorate holders outperforming those with bachelor's or master's degrees. Especially in terms of scholarship, this follows logically; those with doctoral degrees should be differentially productive in scholarship because they have been socialized toward research productivity and trained in research methodology. Scholarly productivity and Carnegie classification had essentially equal beta values for predicting scholarly productivity; however, the beta for highest level of degree for service was nearly double the beta of Carnegie classification for service productivity. It is less intuitive that service productivity could be predicted by level of degree; however, those with advanced degrees may be more interested in assuming leadership roles within their institutions and the professions most closely associated with interpreting programs. Leadership roles were more heavily weighted in the productivity measure than general service. An additional reason that may explain the increased level of service is that faculty members with doctoral degrees may be more likely to hold tenured and tenure-track appointments. Many service opportunities within the academy require that the faculty be tenured or tenure-track to serve. Additionally, because there are fewer tenure-track faculty members available, they may be overburdened in service to the institution because there are not sufficient numbers of tenure-track/tenured faculty available to serve on the required committees. In terms of service outside of the institution, it would be important to investigate the relationship of Carnegie classification and highest degree with the types of service performed. For example, those faculty members with doctoral degrees may be more likely to serve in professional organizations, while those without

doctorates may be more likely to serve in community organizations. It is important to note that service receives little weight in the tenure decision so it may be of little importance that productivity is increased by degree (Boice, 2000; Boyer, 1990a; O'Meara, 2002, 2005).

Implications of degree. The implications of lack of graduate degree and/or credentials are many. Just as the interpreting programs are housed in a wide range of divisions, interpreting faculty members have degrees in an equally wide range of disciplines. It is not clear how the myriad of fields of study assist interpreter educators in teaching students about the work of interpreting. The myriad of fields of study is, of course, related to the dearth of graduate programs in fields directly relevant to ASL or interpreting. Many programs are housed within Education Divisions or alongside Education programs and many faculty obtained degrees or are planning to obtain degrees in Education. While degrees in Education may assist faculty in becoming better instructors, it is less clear that they provide relevant education to improving interpreter education beyond the individual classroom level. While disparate graduate programs provide faculty members with research skills, socialization into the academy, and the required academic credentials, they do not encourage a cohesive identity for our faculty and programs. The result is that ASL-English interpreting program faculty may not share a refined philosophical and methodological framework for investigating, analyzing, and communicating their work. Without a cohesive set of relevant graduate programs, this lack of central place and identity will continue.

Minority status. Several studies point to the disadvantages that women, ethnically/racially diverse, and other types of diverse faculty members have within academia (Antonio et al., 2000; Hale & Ballard, 2011; Perna, 2001; Todd et al., 2008). In this study, the faculty members were predominately Caucasian and hearing. Due to the limited number of ethnically diverse faculty within the sample, statistical analyses did not include ethnicity as a variable even though it has been shown to be an important variable in other studies (O'Meara, 2005; Perna, 2001). In the following section, several implications of Deaf culture status are discussed. The results indicate that Deaf faculty members do not hold advanced degrees at the same rate as the hearing faculty; however, they do understand tenure expectations as well as hearing faculty members (i.e., They have equivalent levels of alignment with chairs.). Additionally, Deaf culture status did not predict productivity in any of the three domains.

Deaf culture status not an effective predictor. Deaf faculty members were significantly less likely to hold doctoral degrees than their hearing counterparts. The implications of this may be far reaching when considered in light of the several areas in which highest degree attained was a significant predictor, such as alignment of teaching and prediction of service productivity and scholarly productivity. Across all areas, Deaf culture status was never a significant variable in terms of predicting alignment with chairs for teaching, scholarship, and service, nor was it a significant predictor for determining perceived weight or productivity measures. This was a surprise. It was expected that Deaf culture status would be a significant predictor of alignment and productivity. This was assumed in part due to possible differential socialization that may

occur between Deaf and hearing faculty members. It was assumed that hearing faculty members would be in greater alignment due to gaining incidental knowledge through the informal socialization process and by overhearing others talk about the process and expectations of the tenure process. This lack of differential may partially be explained by cultural differences between mainstream American culture and the American Deaf culture. This is discussed further below.

American mainstream culture operates as an individualistic culture; in contrast, the culture of the American Deaf community has been identified as collectivist (Mindess, Holcomb, Langholtz, & Moyers, 2006). This cultural distinction may play a part in the lack of significance of Deaf culture status. Whereas, in American mainstream culture, individual faculty are likely to ascribe to the refrain "to each his own" or "every man for himself," the typical modus operandi within the Deaf community is one of shared knowledge and support. Because interpreter education programs have Deaf faculty members, and all members, hearing and Deaf, are (assumed) to be fluent in the language and culture of the Deaf community, it is possible that the program functions as a collectivist Deaf culture haven inside the larger institutional framework. Within this cultural frame, Deaf and hearing faculty members would directly share information, speculations, and experiences to enable everyone within the community to benefit from the collective knowledge of the group. In this study, it appears that the values of Deaf culture, such as shared knowledge and reciprocity, may outweigh the effect of missing incidental learning opportunities that occur via informal socialization within the department or institution.

Deaf faculty members' scholarly productivity. The sole significant finding based on Deaf culture status was the level of degree. Deaf faculty members were significantly less likely to hold advanced degrees. Since Deaf faculty members hold fewer advanced degrees and thus do not have as much formal training in conducting research and socialization into the research mindset, a surprising finding was that Deaf culture status was not a significant predictor of scholarly productivity; in other words, the status was not predictive of output. Because they have less advanced research training, they may be more likely to produce scholarship that is less desirable in the academy. To investigate this hypothesis, the researcher conducted a follow up analysis for scholarly productivity by Deaf culture status (1= Deaf, 2 = Hearing with Deaf parents or Hearing). See Table 5-2 for the means and standard deviation across scholarship types. Independent samples *t*-tests were run for each aspect of scholarly productivity that was used to create the composite scholarly productivity score. The results indicated that the Deaf faculty members' scholarly productivity did not differ significantly from the scholarly productivity of hearing faculty members. Although not significantly different, in several cases, the mean productivity of Deaf faculty members was relatively higher than that of hearing faculty members. The areas in which Deaf faculty members yielded relatively higher means were non-peer reviewed articles or creative works, presentations, and patents, software or other scholarly works, which seems to indicate that they are more productive in less traditional outlets. These less traditional outlets are less valued within the academy. They were less productive, although it was not a significant difference, than hearing faculty members in those outlets that are more highly valued, such as peer-

reviewed articles and creative works and book authoring. Future research should be conducted with larger sample sizes for these two groups to ascertain whether greater statistical power would yield statistically significant differences between these scholarly outlets.

While the group value of shared knowledge may explain the lack of significance in terms of weight of teaching, service, or scholarship, and the lack of difference in alignment between faculty and their chairs, it does not fully explain how Deaf faculty members are able to produce scholarship at the same rate as hearing faculty, who are significantly more likely to have advanced degrees. During master's degree programs, students are introduced to reading research reports and basic methodology of conducting studies; however, doctoral training is focused on developing independent research skills enabling students to serve as producers of research, as opposed to merely consumers of it. It would be interesting to investigate the number of sole authorship publications there are between groups to determine if there is a differential, since sole authorship is more highly valued than coauthoring at many institutions. The current study did not address this important consideration. Potentially, the idea of the collectivist norm may provide the opportunity for Deaf and hearing faculty without sufficient research skills to partner with others who have these skills for scholarly productivity. Further studies need to be conducted to explain why there was no significant difference in scholarly productivity since Deaf people are less likely to have advanced degrees—and degree was frequently a predictor of productivity. Without additional training in scholarship, Deaf people are as productive when they are on the tenure track or aspiring to a tenure-track position.

Table 5-2

Types of Scholarly Productivity by Deaf Culture Status

Type of Scholarship Produced	How do you primarily identify yourself?	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Peer-reviewed articles or creative works	Deaf	20	.65	.93
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	36	1.00	1.29
Non-peer reviewed articles or creative works	Deaf	20	1.10	2.02
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	36	.72	1.61
Reviews of books, articles or other creative	Deaf	20	.35	1.35
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	36	.36	.76
Textbooks, books, or monographs	Deaf	20	.05	.22
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	36	.22	.59
Peer-reviewed presentations	Deaf	20	4.65	11.05
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	36	2.06	2.59
Patents, software products, or other scholarly works	Deaf	20	.45	1.57
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	36	.11	.32
# Externally funded scholarly projects	Deaf	19	.42	1.22
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	35	.31	.68
Scholarly Productivity	Deaf	19	4.37	7.47
	Hearing or Hearing with Deaf Parent	35	2.70	2.74

Deaf faculty members' employment and tenure status. Descriptive statistics indicate that Deaf faculty members were slightly more likely to be full-time employees (81.58% compared to hearing faculty members 75.93%), although there was not a significant difference χ^2 (1, N = 92) = .42, p = .52. Similarly, Deaf faculty members were off the tenure track at a slightly higher rate than hearing faculty members (n = 32, 56.25%; and n = 51, 50.98% respectively), although it was not a significant difference χ^2 (4, N = 91) = 3.01, p = .56. Of those faculty members who were not on the tenure-track (18 Deaf, 26 hearing), 61.11% of the Deaf faculty members were not aspiring to a tenure-track position, and 57.69% of the hearing faculty members were not aspiring to a tenure-track position. It was surprising that more than half of the faculty who were not on the tenure track do not aspire to tenure-track positions. This finding warrants further investigation.

The only notable difference between Deaf and hearing faculty members in terms of employment status is within those faculty members who are in tenure positions. The Deaf faculty members in tenure eligible (n = 14) positions were more often pre-tenured (57.14%) compared to tenured (42.86%) positions, where as 40% (n = 25) of hearing faculty members were pre-tenured and 60% were tenured. The tenure statuses were proportionally reversed. This may be indicative of the trend in recent years to encourage the hiring of Deaf faculty into tenure-track positions, with Deaf people being newer faculty, still in their probationary period. An alternate explanation accounting for the proportional difference in tenured Deaf faculty is that Deaf faculty members have not attained tenure within one institution and moved to another institution.

Employment classification and tenure status of Deaf faculty members mirrored the ratios of hearing faculty members; however, there were still substantially fewer Deaf faculty members within interpreting programs than hearing faculty. Hearing people (including those without Deaf parents) comprise nearly two-thirds of the faculty in ASL-English interpreting programs. Because of this, students may have limited exposure to instructors with native ASL and Deaf culture fluency, which may hinder their development in these areas.

Perceptions and Productivity

Alignment and misalignment between faculty and chairs. Faculty members' alignments, which were calculated with their respective chairs' weight, indicated that many faculty over and underestimate the value of teaching, research, and service. This leads to the question "Are faculty members productive in ways that are important and recognized within their system and in ways that align with the tenure expectations and requirements of their system?" As has been mentioned previously, ASL-English faculty members are not extremely productive scholars especially in formats that are generally highly valued within the academy. In addition, faculty members could be aligned with their department chairs and not earn tenure because both the chair and faculty misinterpret university norms; this may be more likely in low status departments. Additionally, faculty members may not earn tenure, even with close alignment with their chairs and the institution, because "quality" scholarship is operationalized differently among stakeholders. In this study, an overwhelming majority of faculty and chairs indicated that quality was more important than quantity in scholarly productivity for

tenure evaluations. Quality resists specific and precise definition and delimitation, even more so than quantity, which could lead to important differentials in expectations.

Alignment and misalignment between groups of faculty. When looking at the average weight assigned by the chairs compared to the average weight assigned by the faculty members, based on overall means, there were not significant differences in the weights assigned. When comparing the alignment scores, which were created by subtracting the faculty member's weight from his or her own chair's weight, important differences emerged. While teaching was given primacy in terms of weight and the hypothetical scenarios presented, it had the least alignment in most ways, as shown in Table 5-3. Teaching alignment had a range of 56 points, which is a much larger range than service but close to the range for alignment scores for scholarship. Moreover, the teaching alignment had the lowest percentage, among teaching, service, and scholarship, of faculty members within five points of the chairs' weighting. Service had the most alignment, with nearly 60% of faculty falling within five points of the chair assigned weight. The greatest misalignment between a faculty and chair for service was one faculty member's underestimate of the importance of service by 23 points. In both teaching and scholarship, the highest misalignment occurred when faculty members overestimated the weight in the tenure decision. The percentage of faculty who underestimated the weight of teaching, service, and scholarship were approximately equal, with teaching being slightly less frequently underestimated. A striking difference is found with the percentage of faculty who overestimated the importance of teaching by

more than five. Many faculty members (44.7%) overestimated the weight of teaching in the tenure decision.

Table 5-3

Alignment Comparison

Category	*M*	*SD*	% within ±5	Range	% Under estimate by more than 5	% Over estimating by more than 5
Teaching	11.66	9.05	27.4	56; -30 to 26	23.9	44.7
Service	8.07	6.47	57.1	39; -16 to 23	28.6	14.4
Scholarship	9.21	9.06	53.4	64; -37 to 25	28.7	17.9

Collectively, these findings suggest that simply comparing the indicators in this study between the faculty and chairs as two inclusive groups masks misalignment that is revealed when faculty are compared to their specific chair. Future studies should account for this difference methodologically. Moreover, faculty reporting greater misalignment should be followed longitudinally to determine if they are less successful in the tenure process.

Hypothetical case differences. Faculty and chairs have potentially critical misunderstandings in tenure determinations. Nearly all of the chairs disagreed or strongly disagreed (96.3%) that good research and poor teaching evaluations result in tenure, while only 70.4% of faculty disagreed or strongly disagreed with that statement. The

chairs were in general agreement with Price and Cotton's (2006) assertion that good teaching does not guarantee tenure, but that tenure is not attainable without it. The faculty members were less aware of this requirement for quality teaching. For the statement "If a faculty member has a good teaching record and evaluations, it is possible to achieve tenure with a limited research record," slightly more than half of the chairs disagreed or strongly disagreed (55.5%) with the statement indicating that quality teaching is not sufficient to achieve tenure without an accompanying research record. On the other hand, faculty members were generally in agreement or strong agreement (53.3%) with the statement; only 31.8% of faculty disagreed or strongly disagreed. This is an important finding because faculty members who believe that good teaching is sufficient to receive tenure may be at a disadvantage if their scholarly productivity is not sufficient in quantity or quality. In conclusion, while faculty members and chairs agreed that teaching was important, and that quality trumps quantity in the tenure decision, there was some disconnection about the necessity to be productive in both areas, with research being required.

Finally, it is important to note that different levels of service weight did not predict service productivity. This raises the question—why were faculty so productive in service if the weight assigned was not predictive of how productive they were in that area? Because service receives relatively low weight in the tenure decision, it seems logical that faculty would be less productive in this area. Perhaps this lack of correspondence stems from many mandated service requirements. Additionally, faculty may have more direct control over service productivity (i.e., they prefer it or do not),

while having less control over scholarship productivity (e.g., journal submissions may be rejected). Finally, faculty members may simply allocate more time to what they can be successful doing despite the perceived weighting of each domain.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Degree Opportunities Needed

A relevant and coherent set of degree opportunities, at the master's and especially at the doctoral level, is needed for current and future faculty members. Degree programs need to be widely accessible in terms of geography since potential students are geographically dispersed. Because online institutions are viewed less favorably within the academy than traditional institutions offering online degrees, students would be better served by programs housed in traditional academic institutions (Adams & DeFleur, 2005). Many current faculty members indicated the desire to pursue further degrees; therefore, it may be important that programs do not require students to attend full-time or relocate, especially during the academic year. Educational opportunities flexible enough to accommodate students who work full-time would be important. The new master's degree programs in the field fit these criteria; currently successful master's level programs should consider offering doctoral level programs in the future.

In addition to being available to working, geographically diverse students, programs need to be accessible to current and future Deaf faculty. Highest level of education was a significant variable in several analyses, and Deaf people were significantly less likely to hold doctoral degrees. While programs focused on ASL, Deaf Studies, or interpreting are likely to remain cognizant of language accessibility needs

within the program, it is imperative that all aspects of the institution are accessible to Deaf students. Cawthon et al. (2009) indicated that, during extracurricular non-class activities, interpreters might not be regularly provided accommodations for Deaf students. If programs are aligned with or require courses outside of the core program of studies, it is important to ensure access that allows for the optimal educational experience for all students. Degree attainment may be more important for achieving tenure than employment context; thus, new degree programs should include "value-added" components such as adequate socialization to the culture and expectations of the academy.

Increase Tenured and Tenure-track Appointments

Directly tied to the need for additional graduate programs is a need for additional tenure-track positions within interpreting programs. More than half of the faculty members within ASL-English interpreting programs are in contingent positions, either part-time or full-time non-tenure-track positions. To support sustainability and longevity of interpreting programs, an increase in tenure-track faculty lines is critical. While there is an increase in the number of master's programs available, and some institutions allow master's degreed faculty to become tenured, that is not the norm. Many institutions require that holders of doctorates fill tenure-track positions. Thus, there is a cyclical relationship with the establishment of additional relevant degree programs. The recommendation to increase the availability of tenure-track faculty positions comes with the understanding that a larger pool of doctoral holders is needed. Before opening additional tenure lines, it is important to have a sufficient pool of individuals from which

to choose the best candidate for the specific department. This is a cycle that needs to begin so ASL-English interpreting programs can continue to develop capacity, identity, and sustainability within the academy.

Increase Scholarly Productivity

The above systemic level recommendations offer some ways to improve the field of interpreter education within the academy. Another way to advance our discipline within the academy is to foster the value of scholarly productivity. An increase in the value and productivity of scholarship has emerged recently. Two new journals in the field, the International Journal of Interpreter Education published by the Conference of Interpreter Trainers and the Digital Journal of Deaf Studies published by Gallaudet University, indicate increased value of sharing scholarly work. The faculty members in this study were more productive in presenting at conferences and publishing in non-peer-reviewed venues rather than in more traditional forms of scholarship, such as publishing in peer-reviewed journals. Over 70% of faculty and chairs indicated that quality of scholarly work was more important than quantity of scholarly work; one measure of quality may be the avenue of sharing one's work. An additional measure of quality may be the type of scholarship pursued. O'Meara (2005) and other scholars suggest that the scholarly work that "counts" is traditional scholarship of discovery and not the various forms of scholarship encouraged by *Scholarship Reconsidered* (Boyer, 1990), even when institutional policies support alternative forms of scholarship. Thus, the field of ASL-English interpretation may need to foster a value of and encourage more productivity in these highly valued forms and outlets of scholarship.

Hire Diverse Faculty

As has been stated, fewer Deaf individuals than hearing individuals work within interpreting programs, and this means that interpreting students may have limited exposure to a variety of Deaf people or hearing people who were raised within the Deaf. In addition to the relatively small number of Deaf faculty, there were an abysmally small number of faculty members from diverse ethnic groups. The literature supports the benefits to students and institutions when a diverse faculty is employed (Igwebuike, 2006; Kosciw, Greytak, & Diaz, 2009; Piercy et al., 2005). ASL-English interpreting programs were extremely limited in ethnic diversity.

Identification of Deaf and ethnically diverse individuals who show an interest in teaching and provision of resources to them is essential to recruiting a more diverse faculty. Establishment of educational scholarships for Deaf and ethnically diverse individuals may be required. Specialized mentoring programs such as those enacted within institutions and disciplines to recruit and retain diverse faculty members may benefit ASL-English interpreter education (Jayakumar, Howard, Allen, & Han, 2009; Piercy et al., 2005; Young & Chamley, 1990).

Questions for Future Research

The following questions are important areas to be addressed in future research.

1. Why are there so few Deaf and minority faculty teaching and tenured within interpreter education programs? And, how can the numbers of those faculty members be increased?
2. Why do so many full-time ASL-English interpreting faculty not aspire to tenure-track positions?

3. Do the low numbers of tenure-track faculty affect the internal sustainability of interpreter education programs? In other words, are some programs struggling for consistency and continuity within the program due to the high numbers of contingent faculty employed within the programs?

4. Does the understanding, as indicated by alignment scores in this study, of the tenure expectations result in achievement of tenure?

5. Seventy-five percent of chairs and faculty indicated that quality is more important than quantity when evaluating scholarly productivity. How is "quality" operationalized and are interpreting faculty producing "quality" scholarship in light of this definition?

Additional studies that include Deaf people should attempt to build upon the survey translation techniques employed within this study; specifically, methodological studies could investigate the effectiveness of this strategy of increasing participation rates among samples with Deaf people. In addition to the above questions, follow-up studies using qualitative methodology could be used to ascertain why some the themes emerged. Longitudinal data that tracks variables over time are important. Finally, a larger sample is needed for more statistical power to find differences and relationships that may exist.

Conclusion

This study has provided a description of ASL-English interpreting faculty members' demographic and employment characteristics, as well as the employment contexts in which they work. In addition, it has shed light on how faculty members perceive tenure requirements and the alignments of their perceptions compared to those of their chairs. Finally, this research has assessed the scholarly, teaching, and service

productivity of these faculty members and the factors that predict these indicators of productivity. Important questions have been raised about the extent to which interpreting program faculty members are being prepared to serve effectively in the role. Similarly, questions around the identity of the field of ASL-English interpreting as a whole, as well as its sustainability surfaced. Critical recommendations for policy, practice, and future research have been offered to inform the future development of ASL-English interpreting programs and the faculty who serve them.

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APPENDIX A

COPY IRB LETTER FOR EXEMPTION STATUS

EASTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY
Serving Kentuckians Since 1906

Graduate Education and Research
Division of Sponsored Programs
Institutional Review Board

Jones 414, Coates CPO 20
521 Lancaster Avenue
Richmond, Kentucky 40475-3102
(859) 622-3636; Fax (859) 622-6610
http://www.sponsoredprograms.eku.edu

NOTICE OF IRB EXEMPTION STATUS
Protocol Number: 11-169
Institutional Review Board IRB00002836, DHHS FWA00003332

Principal Investigator: **Kimberly Hale** Faculty Advisor: **Dr. Charles Hausman**

Project Title: American Sign Language Interpreting Faculty Reappointment, Tenure, and Promotion Requirements: Alignment Between Perception and Reality

Exemption Date: **5/17/11**

Approved by: **Dr. David May, IRB Member**

This document confirms that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has granted exempt status for the above referenced research project as outlined in the application submitted for IRB review with an immediate effective date. Exempt status means that your research is exempt from further review for a period of three years from the original notification date if no changes are made to the original protocol. If you plan to continue the project beyond three years, you are required to reapply for exemption.

Principal Investigator Responsibilities: It is the responsibility of the principal investigator to ensure that all investigators and staff associated with this study meet the training requirements for conducting research involving human subjects and follow the approved protocol.

Adverse Events: Any adverse or unexpected events that occur in conjunction with this study must be reported to the IRB within ten calendar days of the occurrence.

Changes to Approved Research Protocol: If changes to the approved research protocol become necessary, a description of those changes must be submitted for IRB review and approval prior to implementation. If the changes result in a change in your project's exempt status, you will be required to submit an application for expedited or full IRB review. Changes include, but are not limited to, those involving study personnel, subjects, and procedures.

Other Provisions of Approval, if applicable: None

Please contact Sponsored Programs at 859-622-3636 or send email to tiffany.hamblin@eku.edu or lisa.royalty@eku.edu with questions.

APPENDIX B

CHAIR INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Department Administrator survey Institution Code: Date:

---

1. Do you have each of the following types of faculty appointment within your department?

Tenured____

Tenure Track____

non tenure-track fulltime ____

Other?

Within your department,

2. What is the weight of teaching in the tenure decision?

3. What is the weight of research in the tenure decision?

4. What is the weight of service in the tenure decision?

5. Is the priority ranking within the department the same as the priority within your institution? If not, what is the ranking/weight of each within the university?

6. If I were a new tenure track faculty member within your department, and I asked "what does it take to get tenure" how would you respond?

7. Are the requirements for tenure standardized across positions? In other words, are there differing expectations of tenure for different faculty appointments within your department? If so, please explain.

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't know
8. Within my department, if a faculty member has a good research record it is possible to achieve tenure with poor teaching evaluations.					
9. Within my institution, if a faculty member has a good					

teaching record and evaluations it is possible to achieve tenure with a limited research record.					
10. Within my institution, if a faculty member has an adequate research and teaching record it is possible to achieve tenure with little service.					

11. In the tenure process within your institution, research is judge primarily by …

A. quantity

B. quality

12. How do faculty members know the tenure expectations?

13. Does your department have a policy document or tenure/promotion criteria document?

Do those differ from the unwritten policies/implicit policies?

14. Anything else you would like to share that may help me with my study of ASL and interpreting faculty within colleges and universities?

APPENDIX C

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS LIST

Supplemental Materials List

The online version of the chair questionnaire and the faculty survey form are available for view in Adobe portable document format (PDF). Additionally, a sampling of translated protocol letters and survey items are available via a streaming flash server. Links for materials available on the supplemental webpage are listed below. For ease of access http://people.eku.edu/halek includes clickable links to all of the resources listed below.

Chair instrument (PDF, in English):

http://people.eku.edu/halek/Hale_Department_Chair_Survey.pdf

Faculty instrument (PDF, in English):

http://people.eku.edu/halek/Hale_Faculty_Survey.pdf

Faculty instrument (selected samples, flash video files, in ASL):

P6 Q31 Tenure Weight:

http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20120304182433/InfluxisPlayer.html

P7 Q35 Good Research and Poor Teaching:

http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20120304182433/InfluxisPlayer.html

P9 Q45 Service Activities:

http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20120304182433/InfluxisPlayer.html

Protocol letters (flash video files, in ASL):

Pre-Notice message:

http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20110929203812/InfluxisPlayer.html

Invitation email:

http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20110918175057/InfluxisPlayer.html

First Reminder:

http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20111006082032/InfluxisPlayer.html

Second Reminder:

http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20110915210140/InfluxisPlayer.html

APPENDIX D

CHAIRPERSON INVITATION PROTOCOL

Chairperson Invitation Protocol

Initial Email

[Dr. Name]:
I am conducting a study of American Sign Language interpreting faculty members within higher education. I would like to speak with you via phone to ask a few questions about your institution's tenure and promotion policies and procedures (even if none of your ASL or interpreting faculty are on the tenure track). The conversation should take approximately 15 minutes of your time.

I will call you sometime in the next couple of weeks, preferably at a time convenient for you. If you would like, please respond to this email message with your preferred phone call time.

Most of my calls will be conducted on the following days. If I do not hear from you otherwise, I will call you on one of these days.

Thursday, September 8
Tuesday, September 13
Thursday, September 15

I realize that you are extremely busy and scheduling phone meetings is difficult. If you would rather respond to my questions online, please click the link (or copy and paste into your browser) and enter this access code.

Link: https://novisurvey.net/n/chairsurvey.aspx
Access Code:

I look forward to speaking with you further about this study and your institution.
Sincerely,

Kimberly Hale, MA, CI, CT, NAD IV
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies
Eastern Kentucky University

Telephone script

Hello [Dr. Name], This is Kimberly Hale calling you about my research involving American Sign Language Interpreting faculty members within higher education. I hope that I have caught you at a good time to speak with me for about 15 minutes. [or I'm calling at our agreed upon times. I hope that it is still a good time to speak with me for about 15 minutes.]

[If yes good time – continue with protocol; if not a good time, find a better time. If declines to participate, thank for time. Then send follow-up email message]

Before we get started, I would like to tell you a little bit more about my research project and seek your formal consent to participate. As I mentioned previously, I am investigating ASL faculty members within higher education. I am contacting hundreds of faculty members in institutions across the United States. Additionally, I am contacting the department or division heads where the interpreting programs are housed. If you take part, you will be one of about 40 department chairs to participate. Identifying information about your institution, department, and your faculty will not be revealed at any time during this study. All information will be reported in aggregate to ensure that individual programs cannot be identified. Do you have any questions about the protocol or this study? Are you willing to participate in this study? Thank you [or I am sorry to hear that you do not want to participate in this important study. Would you be more willing to participate if it were able to respond to the questions via email or through an online survey tool? I can provide either option. It is extremely important for me to have department chair respondents from as many programs as possible. – If Response affirmatively send typed question protocol or link to online survey. If negative, thank for time, and follow up with appreciation email.]

Follow-up Email

[Dr. Name]:

I wanted to send a short note to let you know how much I appreciate you taking the time to meet with me today. I hope you enjoy the rest of your week.

Sincerely,

Kimberly Hale
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies
Eastern Kentucky University

Email invitation to participate for chairs

[Dr. Name]:

I am conducting a study of American Sign Language interpreting faculty members within higher education.

This study includes two parts. This summer I am contacting department chairs to gain a better understanding of the programs in which interpreting faculty members work. Later this fall I will contact all interpreting faculty members who teach in 4-year institutions. Because you are the chair of the department that houses the interpreting program, I would like to ask a few questions about your department (or division's) tenure policies and procedures. The survey will take approximately 10 minutes of your time.

If you also teach ASL or interpreting courses within the program, there will be additional questions pertaining to your role as a faculty member. Those questions are similar to those I will be asking of the other ASL-English interpreting members in the fall.
Please enter this access code after clicking on the survey link: N128 [generated – not obviously identifying]. https://novisurvey.net/n/chairsurvey.aspx

I appreciate your willingness to take part in my dissertation research study.

Sincerely,

Kimberly Hale, MA, CI, CT, NAD IV
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies
Eastern Kentucky University

APPENDIX E

FACULTY CORRESPONDENCE PROTOCOL

Faculty Correspondence Protocol

Pre-Notice Letter

«First_Name» «Last_Name»:
In a few days, you will receive an email request to complete a questionnaire for an important research project.

The survey concerns the experiences of faculty members, like myself, who work within 4-year (or master's level) signed language interpreting programs. While studying higher education leadership and policy during my doctoral coursework I gained a better understanding about *my place* within *my institution*.

For my dissertation, I am attempting to gain a better understanding of who *we* are and *our place* within college and university systems.

Thank you for your consideration. It is only with the help of people like you that my research can be successful.

To view this message in ASL, please click this link (or copy and paste into your browser).
http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20110929203812/InfluxisPlayer.html

I will be enclosing a small token of appreciation with the questionnaire as a way of saying thanks.

Sincerely,

Kimberly Hale, ABD, CI, CT, NAD IV
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies

Invitation Email

Hello «First_Name»:

I am writing to ask your participation in a study of ASL and/or interpreting faculty members who teach in 4-year (or master's level) interpreting programs. This study is part of an effort to learn about experiences and perceptions of faculty members.

I am contacting all faculty members (full-, part-time, and adjunct) who teach in bachelor or master's sign language interpreting programs to ask them about their positions within the college/university and about themselves. It is my understanding that you are employed as a faculty member within an interpreting program at «School».

This survey is voluntary; however, you can help me very much by taking about 30 minutes of your time (part-time instructors about 15 minutes) to share your experiences and opinions about your faculty position.

Please use this following link to respond to the survey based on your experiences at «School». After clicking on the survey link, you will need to enter the access code provided.

Link: https://novisurvey.net/n/InterpretingFacultySurvey.aspx
Access code: «Access_Code»

By clicking the link, you indicate agreement to participate in this research study. The survey questions and response options are provided in ASL and English. If you view all of the ASL translations, the survey will take longer depending on your connection speed.

I have included a small token of appreciation as a way of saying thank you for your help in completing my dissertation study. **Below you will find your Amazon gift card number**, which can be used for any purchase at the amazon.com website. In addition, your name will be entered into a drawing for 1 of 2 national conference registrations (your choice, ASLTA or CIT).

If you have questions before taking part in the survey, please feel free to contact me. The easiest way to reach me is by email (Kimberly.hale@eku.edu); however, you may also use telephone (859-622-6398) or video iChat (AIM: km123175) to communicate with me.

Thank you for helping with this important study.

If by some chance I made a mistake and you are not employed as an ASL or interpreting instructor, please click the survey link and respond to the first two questions on the questionnaire. Many thanks.

Amazon Gift Card: «GiftCardCode»

To view this message in ASL, please click this link.
http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20110918175057/InfluxisPlayer.html

Sincerely,
Kimberly Hale, ABD, CI, CT, NAD IV
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies
Eastern Kentucky University

First Reminder

Dear «First_Name»:

A few days ago you received an email from me with a link to a questionnaire about your experiences as a faculty member. I obtained your name by looking at program and department websites and talking with department chairs for all of the 4-year (and master's) interpreting programs in the United States.

If you have already completed the survey, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today.

Link: https://novisurvey.net/n/InterpretingFacultySurvey.aspx
Access Code: «Access_Code».

I am especially grateful for your help because it is only by asking people like you to share your experiences that we can better understand the work of interpreting faculty and how we can help them be successful in their work.

If you have questions or concerns, please contact me. The easiest way to reach me is by email (Kimberly.hale@eku.edu); however, you may also use telephone (859-622-6398) or iChat (AIM: km123175) to communicate with me.

To view this message in ASL, follow this link
http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20111006082032/InfluxisPlayer.html

Just in case you misplaced the previous email, here is your Amazon gift card again: «GiftCardCode».

Sincerely,

Kimberly Hale, ABD, CI, CT, NAD VI
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies

Second Reminder

«First_Name»:

About a week ago I sent a questionnaire (email with a link) that asked about your experiences as a faculty member at «School». To the best of my knowledge it has not yet been completed.

The comments of people who have already responded include a wide variety of experiences as faculty members. Many have described their experiences, both good and bad, with trying to work within their college/university requirements for faculty. I think the results are going to be very useful to leaders in the field of ASL-English interpretation education and the academic institutions where we work.

I am writing again because of the importance that your questionnaire has for helping to get accurate results. Although I sent the survey to all faculty members, it's only by hearing from nearly everyone in the sample that I can be sure the results are truly representative.

A few people have written to indicate that they should not have received the survey because they do not teach ASL or interpreting within an interpreting program. If that applies to you, please let me know by clicking the link and answering the first two questions.

A comment on my survey procedures. The survey link in this email is a "smart" link along with your personal access code. It is connected to you so that I can check your name off of the list once the link is clicked. The list of names is then destroyed so that individual names can never be connected to the results in any way. Protecting the confidentiality of people's answers is very important to me as well as the Eastern Kentucky University, who approved my study.

I hope that you will fill out the questionnaire soon (by October 22), but if for any reason you prefer not to answer it, please let me know by responding to this email.

Survey Link: https://novisurvey.net/n/InterpretingFacultySurvey.aspx
Access Code: «Access_Code»

To see this message in ASL, please click this link.
http://infxapps.influxis.com/apps/nm76mi2hm46gkyuzpp0f/InfluxisPlayer_20110915210140/InfluxisPlayer.html

Sincerely,

Kimberly Hale, ABD, CI, CT, NAD VI
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies

P.S. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me. The easiest way to reach me is by email (Kimberly.hale@eku.edu); however, you may also use telephone (859-622-6398) or iChat (AIM: km123175) to communicate with me.

Final Reminder Notice

October 12, 2011

«First_Name» «Last_Name»

«First_Name» «Last_Name»:

During the last two weeks, I have sent you several messages about an important research study that I am conducting for my dissertation.

Its purpose is to help us understand the experiences of ASL and interpreting faculty members in ASL-English interpreting programs.

The study is drawing to a close (October 24, 2011), and this is the last contact that will be made with the sample of people I think, based on program websites and department chair lists, teach in the programs.

I am sending this final contact by priority mail because of my concern that people who have not responded may have different experiences than those who have. Hearing from everyone in this nationwide sample helps assure that the survey results are as accurate as possible.

I want to assure you that your response to this study is voluntary. If you prefer not to respond, that's fine. If you do not teach ASL or interpreting, and you feel that I have made a mistake including you in this study, please contact me and let me know. This would be very helpful.

Finally, I appreciate your willingness to consider my request as I conclude this effort to better understand issues facing ASL and interpreting faculty members. Thank you very much.

Survey Link: https://novisurvey.net/n/InterpretingFacultySurvey.aspx
Access Code: «Access_Code»

Sincerely,

Kimberly Hale, ABD, CI, CT, NAD VI
Assistant Professor, ASL and Interpreter Education
Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Leadership and Policy Studies
Eastern Kentucky University

P.S. Even if you choose not to respond, please use the Amazon gift card that was included with the original survey request; I have no way of tracking their use unless someone lets me know they did or did not/will not use it. I would hate for them to go to waste by not being used by anyone.