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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

FACTORS RELATIVE TO JOB SELECTIONS IN MUSIC FACULTIES OF THE ORIGINAL NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES SINCE THE 1954 SUPREME COURT DECISION

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

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degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

AARON VAN WRIGHT, JR.

Norman, Oklahoma

1965

FACTORS RELATIVE TO JOB SELECTIONS IN MUSIC FACULTIES

OF THE ORIGINAL NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

SINCE THE 1954 SUPREME COURT DECISION

APPROVED BY

William G. Monahan

Gene A. Braught

Claude Kelley

Robert E. Ahn

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my mother--Lou Van Wright.

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FACTORS RELATIVE TO JOB SELECTIONS IN MUSIC FACULTIES OF THE ORIGINAL NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES SINCE THE 1954 SUPREME COURT DECISION

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Origin of the Study

In the spring of 1964 a cursory investigation was made of the problems confronting music department chairmen in representative American colleges and universities. The purpose of this survey was to explore problematic areas endemic to the jobs of music department chairmen. A random selection of college music departments from Patterson's American Education[1] constituted the sample. Respondents were asked to list those areas which they considered crucial and rate them as follows: (1) very persistent; (2) persistent; and, (3) not persistent. Analyses were then made of the ratings. These showed that recruiting and keeping personnel was a chief concern of the majority reporting. In consequence, further analysis was made of the responses. Conspicuously rated first or second in crucial areas was "personnel problems" in the returns of music department chairmen in the original Negro Land-Grant Colleges.

Although the purpose of the study was to explore the range of problems and provide information useful in a general appraisal of the

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[1]Margaret N. Denton (ed.), Patterson's American Education (Chicago: Educational Directories, Inc., 1958-1959), Lv., No. 1.

present status of music administration, the most important outcome was probably the stimulus given to this present study. Adding special urgency to this investigation is the fact that institutions of higher education are already confronted with serious staff shortages. This is particularly true in the area of performing arts. American colleges and universities will need many more faculty members in the decade ahead. The estimates of new teachers required by 1970 range from 180,000[1] to 484,000[2], depending upon assumptions made about the size and distribution of the student population and the kinds of instruction that the college will provide.

How, then, do Negro Land-Grant Colleges plan to cope with this problem? It was decided to undertake the present study in order to obtain information from music departments in these schools relative to the prevailing situation.

Need for the Study

Many studies have been made in recent years by groups and individuals concerned with the supply of teachers for American colleges and universities. These analyses of this momentous social problem have produced both differing bodies of facts and widely varying and sometimes conflicting conclusions. At one extreme is a study[3] conducted under the auspices of the Fund for the Advancement of Education which considered

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[1]Bernard Berelson, Graduate Education in the United States (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), p. 346.

[2]F. W. Strothmann, The Graduate School Today and Tomorrow (New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1955), p. 42.

[3]Strothmann, op. cit., p. 7.

the prospective supply of and demand for college and university teachers. An analysis of the data collected led the group to conclude that, "We would by 1970 need approximately 350,000 more college teachers than we shall train in our doctoral programs." Berelson,[1] to the contrary, expresses the view that "the crisis over having enough college and university teachers in 1970 is generally overstated: the prospects do not constitute a 'dire threat' to the present level of higher education"

Klapper[2] advocated an initial study of the sociology of college teachers which, he admonishes, if it is to be useful, should be kept current by appendices published every two or three years. He sees such a factual compilation as serving higher education in many ways. As each college and university sees its own status in comparison with other institutions of similar size, scope, and geographic setting, its attempts to correct its own particular inadequacies may be quickened.

The effect of recruitment problems on Negro colleges was the primary concern of an investigation made by Russell.[3] A significant disclosure of the study was the fact that 70 per cent of all losses incurred by the 36 colleges in the sample were since 1956, with each succeeding year, showing an increase over the preceding year. This trend suggests that Negro colleges and universities will encounter increasing difficulty in meeting their recruitment needs in the future. Previously in competition

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[1]Berelson, op. cit., p. 224.

[2]L. Paul Klapper, "Sociology of College Teachers," Educational Forum, XVI (January, 1953), pp. 139-150.

[3]Roger D. Russell, "Teacher Recruitment: A New Challenge for the Negro College," The Educational Forum, XXVIII (May, 1964), pp. 437-441.

almost entirely with themselves for trained professionals,[1] Negro colleges now find themselves competing with government, industry and white colleges. The fact that Negro colleges must depend almost entirely on Negro personnel is not the fault of the colleges. Many do have non-Negro teachers and would employ more. Certain factors mitigate against this, including the nationwide shortage of teachers generally. Another important factor is the social pattern of the southern region where most of these colleges are located, that sometimes poses real adjustment problems.

No study has been made, however, as far as can be determined, of the recruitment problems of the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges. These colleges came into being because of the provision in the federal law known as the Second Morrill Act which was passed in 1890. When the Act was passed there was segregation in seventeen states, and these seventeen states that had secregation in public schools felt it to be necessary to provide two land-grant colleges--one for white students and one for Negro students. In 1954 the United States Supreme Court ruled that segregation is unconstitutional. It must not be inferred, however, that with subsequent integration of students in the colleges that this could mean the automatic closing of land-grant colleges established for Negroes, or that these institutions would lose their land-grant status. Neither should the assumption be made that a state will

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[1]See Harold M. Rose, "The Market for Negro Educators in Colleges and Universities Outside the South," Journal of Negro Education, XXX (Fall, 1961), pp. 432-439; and James E. Moss, "The Utilization of Negro Teachers in the Colleges of New York State," Phylon, XXII (Spring, 1960), pp. 63-66.

have only one land-grant school. In states with large populations, there may well be two land-grant colleges, both of which will be open to all races. As in the case of Massachusetts, where there are two universities designated as land-grant, a Southern state may be disposed to have more than one land-grant institution, both of which are open to all races.

What are the prospects for recruiting staff for the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges in the latter eventuality? Answers to this question must be sought in many quarters; however, one reliable source of such information ought to be found in the teachers choosing to work in these particular situations. On this assumption this study has collected data from music teachers who were initially employed since June of 1954 in land-grant colleges which were established primarily for Negroes.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine trends and prospects for recruiting qualified teachers to staff music departments in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. In this study special emphasis was placed upon music teachers who were initially employed in these colleges since the 1954 Supreme Court Decision. Efforts were made to ascertain their opinions relative to the continued existence of these schools and their own suggestions for attracting qualified personnel to such institutions of higher learning.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to investigate factors relative to the job selections made by music teachers, initially employed

since June, 1954, in the original Negro Land-Grant Colleges. More specifically the study sought to analyze current trends in recruiting and staffing music departments of these land-grant colleges. In addition, implications were drawn from these data for future prospects.

Hypotheses Guiding the Study

Hypotheses which guided the development of the study instruments were:

1. Members of music faculties in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges prefer to work in these schools.
2. Members of music faculties in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges return to the same general type of institutions in which they took their undergraduate training.
3. Members of music faculties in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges choose these positions for the nature of the activities which they perform rather than for the external conditions.
4. Members of music faculties in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges compare their positions favorably with those in other institutions.
5. Members of music faculties in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges believe these schools will continue to exist even though they may be changed by educational and/or social influences.
6. Members of music faculties in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges have definite ideas as to how qualified personnel can be attracted to and retained in these institutions.

Definition of Terms

Operational definitions of terms used in this study are as follows:

Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges is the term used to include those colleges which came into being as a result of the second Morrill

Act, passed in 1862, had provided for the building of colleges in all of the states through grants of land by the Federal Government, but no provision was made for the races to receive equal opportunity under the Act. A particular feature of Morrill's bill of 1890 was that there be no racial distinction between students in the colleges but that separate land-grant colleges for Negroes might be organized. The result of this provision was that Negro Land-Grant Colleges were established in seventeen southern states.

The 1954 Supreme Court Decision refers to the May 17, 1954 declaration that segregation of Negro and white children in American public schools is unconstitutional. It overruled the doctrine of "equal but separate facilities," the legal theory which established that separation of Negroes is constitutional if equal provisions for the two races are available. The court enjoined the local authorities which in the United States exercise major control over the schools to obey the decision with "deliberate speed."

Music faculty or Department of music describe the staff of or area in music of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges. Although these areas are referred to as departments, schools, or areas in schools of education in the various catalogues, for the purpose of this study "faculty" or "department" will be used.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to the seventeen original Negro land-grant colleges, to the music faculty in these institutions, and further, to those faculty members who were employed since June, 1954.

Although the opinions and ideas of faculty members in other departments within the colleges and universities or music faculty employed prior to June of 1954 may be the same as or different from those of faculty members in the department of music, this study was concerned with the staff employed since June of 1954 only. The content area within which these faculty members work, their background of educational training and experience, and their decisions to become members of those departments after the Supreme Court decision are sufficiently unique from that of faculties of other departments in the schools and longer-term members of music faculties to justify limiting this study to music teachers who were employed within the past decade.

It is recognized that other variables, such as the proximity of collegiate music departments to cultural centers and the presence of outside pressures, could be influential in determining the choice of employment at these schools. These other variables, however, were not studied directly in this investigation.

Method and Procedure of the Study

It was assumed that information regarding employment trends and prospects of the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges could be obtained best from those working in these institutions. Information was secured by questionnaire relative to the reasons given by music teachers who, since the 1954 Supreme Court Decision, have chosen to work in land-grant colleges which were established primarily for Negroes. Also solicited were the teachers' opinions regarding the continued existence of these institutions and their own suggestions for attracting and

retaining qualified personnel. From an analysis of these data, certain implications would be drawn that should be useful in future recruiting and retaining practices in these schools.

The Sample

Subjects in this study were full-time music faculty members in the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges who were teaching at least one course at the time of the study, and who were initially employed since June of 1954. Preliminary letters (Appendix A) sent to music department chairmen explained the purpose of the study and sought help in getting full faculty cooperation. These contact persons were asked to submit a list of music faculty edited to include only those teachers who were initially employed since June of 1954.

The Questionnaire

Although the limitations of the questionnaire are recognized, its use seemed appropriate for this study, in view of the following statement:

> Mail questionnaires, despite their much-emphasized limitations, frequently prove an economical and effective method. . . . Use is especially indicated if the respondents are widely scattered or difficult to see in person. The mailed questionnaire tends to be most safely useable if the respondents are in the upper educational levels; if they have strong incentives for replying; and if the subject matter lends itself to relatively simple, straightforward questions.[1]

Not only does a study of this nature meet the qualifications necessary for questionnaire use, but it presents the data in such a way as to fulfill

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[1] Training Guide on Constructing Questionnaires and Interview Schedules (New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, 1948), p. 14.

the objectives for which the use of a questionnaire is justified. According to Koos:[1]

> The uses to which the questionnaire is put may be classified under three heads: (1) to ascertain the state of practice in some field of activity, (2) to secure basic data to be used in ways more fundamental than to afford a mere description of practices, and (3) to secure opinions, judgments, or the expressions of attitudes of respondents from which, if nothing more, tentative measures of evaluation may be derived.

The following six questions guided the selection of topics chosen for the questionnaire. (Appendix C)

1. Who are the teachers choosing to work in music departments of Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges since the 1954 Supreme Court Decision?
2. What are the professional preparations of these teachers?
3. What are the reasons these teachers give for choosing to work in these schools?
4. How do these teachers appraise their present positions?
5. What are the opinions of these teachers in regard to continued existence of these schools?
6. What ideas do these teachers have for attracting and retaining qualified personnel?

Topics were then selected which dealt with the preceding six aspects of personal characteristics, career appraisals, and recruitment of music staff. For each of these topics, a series of questions was designed to gather data to help answer the six basic questions cited above. These items were constructed so as to elicit answers, in most instances, by check or short replies. However, some questions regarding ideas for attracting personnel required longer answers.

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[1]Leonard V. Koos, The Questionnaire in Education (New York: Macmillan Co., 1928), p. 147.

Before the questionnaire was mailed, consultations were held with advisors, peers, and music teachers in order to further refine the instrument. This was done in order to:

(a) exclude questions not pertinent to the study

(b) simplify directions for completing items

(c) group questions according to topics, and

(d) define the possible choices of responses into mutually exclusive categories

Collection of Data

Letters (Appendix B) and copies of the questionnaire were mailed to a total of 94 teachers whose names were submitted by the contact person in each school. Questionnaire respondents were not asked to sign their names; however, a coded number was included for later analysis. This identification also permitted follow-up of persons who did not return the instrument promptly.

Of the 42 responses to the initial mailing, 15 schools were represented. After a two-week interval, a follow-up letter (Appendix E) and second questionnaire were mailed to nonrespondents. A total of 64 responses were received, constituting the sample of this study.

Analysis and Presentation of Findings

Data from the questionnaires were coded and punched on IBM cards and tabulated by sex, race, age and other variables that were thought to bear some relationship to the choice of teaching in the music departments studied. Analyses were made of the data in terms of percentage of responses to each item on the questionnaire.

From all the information gained, those aspects have been selected that project recruiting and retaining practices for the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges. And although excerpts from the replies were used sparingly in this report, they probably convey, better than statistical tabulations do, why teachers choose and remain in these schools.

Organization of the Report

Chapter I has presented the problem and outlined the procedures followed in determining the sample and undertaking the study. Chapter II presents a brief historical sketch of the Original Negro Land-Grant Colleges. Chapters III and IV present analyses of data. These data show the professional background of respondents; their appraisals of present positions; their opinions of the continued existence of the schools; and, suggestions for attracting qualified personnel. Chapter V summarizes the report and presents implications for future prospects.

CHAPTER II

AN HISTORICAL REVIEW OF NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

The Land-Grant Idea

The Land-Grant Act which was passed in 1862[1] provided for the donation of public lands by the federal government "to the several states and territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts." An obligation of each state that accepted the title to these lands was to establish "at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." These institutions were to be established further "in order to promote the liberal and practical of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and profession in life."

The principle of granting land to further the cause of education had already been established. In 1785[2] the Continental Congress adopted a system which reserved one section in every township in the Northwest Territory for the maintenance of public schools. This ordinance was reaffirmed two years later by the Northwest Ordinance[3] which ruled that "the means of education shall forever be encouraged." Such encouragement

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[1]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 12, pp. 503-505.

[2]Chris A. De Young, American Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960), p. 8.

[3]De Young, op. cit., p. 8.

could best be accomplished by land grants, for vast stretches of land were the greatest undeveloped resources and the chief asset of the young nation.

The Morrill Act of 1862

The 1862 Land-Grant Act provided that the money realized from the grants of land "shall constitute a perpetual fund, the capital of which shall remain forever undiminished. . . . to the endowment, support, and maintenance" of the land-grant colleges in each state. The third and most important feature of the Morrill Act of 1862 obligated the states to maintain the endowment intact, without diminution and to replace it if lost. Thus, the Federal Government actually established the land-grant colleges through endowments from grants of public lands and then made it incumbent upon the various states to furnish the necessary additional funds for their future development and expansion. It reads in parts as follows:[1]

> That all monies derived from the sale of the lands by states to which lands are apportioned, and from the sale of land scrip hereinbefore provided for shall be invested in stocks of the United States of all the states, or some other safe stocks; and that monies so invested shall constitute a perpetual fund, the capital of which shall remain forever undiminished--and the interest to which shall remain inviolably appropriated by each state which may take and claim the benefit of this act.

Two amendments were made to the land-grant act of 1862. The first amendment, ratified in 1866, extended the limit of time of acceptance of the land grant to three years, and the establishment of the colleges to five years after the filing of acceptance in the General Land Office,

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[1]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 12, p. 504.

and providing that when any territory shall become a state, it shall be entitled to the benefits of this act by expressing acceptance within three years after its admission to the Union, and providing a college or colleges within five years after such acceptance, and providing further that any State which has heretofore accepted the act shall have five five years to provide at least one college after the time for doing this named in the act of July 2, 1862, shall have expired. In 1883 an amendment was ratified which permitted States having no State stock to invest the proceeds of the sale of the land scrip[1] "in any other manner after the legislatures of such States shall assent thereto," and engaged that land-grant fund shall yield not less than five per cent and that the principal shall forever remain unimpaired.

The passage of the Morrill Land-Grant Act and its amendments gave a financial footing and a new sense of direction and responsibility to higher education in the United States. Further help was given by later legislation, particularly the Hatch Act of 1887[2] providing for the first federal support for research in "a department to be known and designated as an 'agricultural experiment station'"; and the Adams Act of 1960[3] which authorized $85,000.00. This act limited the type of investigation to ". . . original researchers or experiments bearing directly on the

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[1]Scrip (negotiable certificates issued by the Federal Government, each entitling the holder to become the owner of a certain amount of public land.)

[2]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 24, pp. 440-442.

[3]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 34, pp. 63-64.

agricultural industry of the United States." Beyond the conditions of this legislation, nothing was implied as to who was entitled to the training afforded by the acts.

Acceptance by States

The first state to accept the terms of the Morrill Land-Grant Act was Iowa, on September 11, 1862, Vermont accepted the Act on October 29, and was followed by Connecticut on December 24 of the same year. Fourteen states accepted the Act in 1863, followed by two in 1864, one in 1865, six in 1866, four in 1867, three in 1868, one in 1869, and two in 1870. Within a period of eight years after the passage of the Morrill Act of 1862, thirty-six states had agreed to carry out its provision for the establishment of a new type of college in this country.[1]

The Southern States which were then in rebellion against the Federal Government and could not, therefore, benefit by the provisions of the Act found themselves unable to comply with its terms until after the termination of the Civil War in 1865. After the war, however, these States rapidly accepted the terms of the Act and by 1870 all of them had agreed to receive the Federal Land grants and to organize the type of college for which such grants were available. Three general plans were followed by the states in their effort to fulfill the provisions of the Morrill Act. Some states assigned their land-grant fund to private

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[1]U. S. Office of Education, Survey of Land-Grant Colleges (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1930), p. 646.

colleges within their borders; others gave it to their state universities; while still others used the fund to establish separate agricultural and mechanical colleges within their borders.[1]

Establishment of Negro Land-Grant Colleges

Four states (Virginia, Mississippi, Kentucky, and South Carolina) set aside a portion of their funds for the support of land-grant colleges to serve their Negro population as a result of the Morrill Act of 1862. In 1871 the state of Mississippi received $188,928 for its scrip. The Negro institution, then called Alcorn University, received three-fifths of this amount. The remaining two-fifths went to the University of Mississippi, which was designated as the white land-grant college of the state. In 1874 the legislature of Mississippi transferred the Federal fund to Oxford University, another Negro school in Mississippi, because, with the regular state appropriation added to the land-grant fund, Alcorn's income was greater than its needs. In 1878, however, the grant was returned to Alcorn University. In the same year, the Mississippi Legislature converted this school into a State Negro land-grant mechanical college.[2]

The second state to provide support for a Negro land-grant college from land grants made under the original Morrill Act of 1862 was Virginia. This state received 300,000 acres of scrip from the Federal Government, and in 1872 it was disposed of for the sum of $285,000.00. After a somewhat prolonged debate in the State Legislature over the question, an act was finally passed for the division of the income between a white

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[1]U. S. Office of Education, op. cit., p. 648.

[2]U. S. Office of Education, op. cit., p. 837.

and colored land-grant college. The Hampton Normal Agricultural Institute, a private Negro school, was named as the Negro land-grant college to receive one-half of the yield of the endowment, while the other half was assigned to the white college at Blacksburg. This arrangement was continued until 1920, when the Virginia Legislature decided to concentrate the Federal funds on its Negro State-operated school located at Ettricks, known then as the Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute. In 1926 the name of this institution was changed to Virginia State College for Negroes. The income from the land-grant endowment was, therefore, withdrawn from the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute and assigned to the new institution.[1]

The third state to establish a Negro land-grant college was South Carolina. In 1872 the scrip granted to that state by the Federal Government was for $191,800.00. The reconstruction legislature, controlled by Negroes, granted the income of this fund to Claflin University, a school established and maintained by the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. For some reason the fund was used for other than educational purposes, thus depriving Claflin of the expected income.[2] In 1896 South Carolina established the Colored Normal Industrial and Mechanical College as a state institution in Orangeburg, where Claflin is located, and transferred the land-grant money to the new institution.[3]

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[1]The Hampton Bulletin (March, 1962), p. 2.

[2]D. O. W. Holmes, The Evolution of the Negro College (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934), p. 150.

[3]South Carolina State Agricultural and Mechanical College Bulletin, LII (1963), p. 14.

Although Kentucky assigned a part of its land-grant fund under the Morrill Act of 1862 to a Negro school, no action was taken until 1879 when it granted one-twelfth of the income from its share of the Federal fund to the Kentucky State Industrial School at Frankfort, which was later called the Kentucky State Industrial College.[1]

It is evident from the foregoing sketch that only a small beginning was made under the first Morrill Act of 1862 toward the establishment of land-grant colleges for Negroes. The real incentive came with the enactment by Congress of the second Morrill Act in 1890.[2]

The Morrill Act of 1890

The roll of the seventeen states indicating their acceptance of the terms of the Second Morrill Act of 1890 is given as follows:[3]

Alabama A & M College	Norman, Alabama	1875
Arkansas A & M College	Pine Bluff, Arkansas	1873
Delaware State College	Dover, Delaware	1891
Fla. A & M University	Tallahassee, Florida	1887
Ft. Valley State College	Fort Valley, Georgia	1895
Kentucky State College	Frankfort, Kentucky	1886
Southern University	Baton Rouge, La.	1880
Maryland State College	Princess Anne, Md.	1886
Alcorn A & M College	Lorman, Mississippi	1871
Lincoln University	Jefferson City, Mo.	1886
N. C. A & T College	Greensboro, N. C.	1891
Langston University	Langston, Oklahoma	1897
S. C. State College	Orangeburg, S. C.	1896
Tenn. A & I University	Nashville, Tenn.	1912
Prairie View A & N	Prairie View, Texas	1876
Virginia State College	Petersburg, Virginia	1882
W. Va. State College	Institute, West Va.	1891

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[1]Holmes, op. cit., p. 154.

[2]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 25, p. 417.

[3]Rufus B. Atwood, "The Origin and Development of the Negro Public College, with Especial Reference to the Land-Grant College," The Journal of Negro Education, XXXI (Summer, 1962), p. 246.

Six of the colleges (located in Kentucky, Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, Florida, and Missouri) were established between the period from 1862 to 1899 either as outright state schools or as private schools and became state land-grant colleges after the passage of either the first or the second Morrill Acts. Three of the colleges (located in Maryland, Texas, and Mississippi) were privately established between the period from 1862 to 1889 and were privately supported, but became either Negro or state Negro land-grant colleges by being selected to receive the share of the second Morrill land-grant funds allocated to education of Negroes in respective states.

Kentucky and Mississippi had established Negro land-grant colleges under the first Morrill Act so that the proportionate share of funds received by these states under the second Morrill Act were turned over to these institutions. Virginia and South Carolina turned over a portion of the funds derived from the first Morrill Act to private Negro colleges within their borders on the condition that they would provide the type of education specified in the Act. After the passage of the second Morrill Act, however, these states established their own Negro land-grant colleges and designated them to be recipients of the funds derived from both the first and the second Morrill Acts.

In the case of Kentucky, a State Normal and Industrial school was designated as the recipient of the funds derived from the first Morrill Act for Negroes in that state, and was made into a State Negro land-grant college in 1886. Five other states which are mentioned below adopted the same plan of converting their Negro normal schools into Negro land-grant colleges. In 1875 Alabama organized the Huntsville Normal and Industrial

School for Negroes at Huntsville. Upon accepting the terms of the second Morrill Act in 1891, the State legislature made this institution the Negro land-grant college of that State. Later its name was changed to the State Agricultural and Mechanical Institution and it was moved to Normal, a short distance from Huntsville. Arkansas had been operating the Branch Normal College at Pine Bluff for Negroes under the control of the University of Arkansas since 1872 and designated this institution in 1891 as its Negro land-grant college. In 1922 its name was changed to the Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College of Arkansas. Ten years prior to the enactment of the second Morrill Act, the State of Louisiana had established the Southern University for Negroes in the city of New Orleans. Upon the acceptance of the second Morrill Act in 1893, the State Legislature made this institution its Negro land-grant college. In 1914 the name was changed to Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College of Louisiana and it was moved to Scotlandville. Florida had been operating a State Normal School for Negroes, since 1887. With the acceptance of the second Morrill Act in 1891 this school was converted into the State's Negro land-grant college. In 1909 it was named the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College. This institution is located in Tallahassee. In the case of Missouri, Lincoln University, formerly known as Lincoln Institute, located at Jefferson City and State-operated teacher-training school for Negroes, was designated in 1891 as the Negro land-grant college of that State. This institution, established in 1886, was originally a private Negro college.

Two states, Maryland and Tennessee, adopted the plan of assigning the Federal land-grant funds to private Negro colleges within their borders, with the understanding that they were to provide agricultural, mechanic arts, and other types of education specified in the second Morrill Act. Maryland made a contract with Princess Anne Academy, then a Negro institution on the Eastern Shore of the State and operated as a branch of Morgan State College in Baltimore, to provide the Negroes of the State with the instruction specified in the second Morrill Act and paid over the proportionate share of the Federal land-grant funds to it annually. By a subsequent act in 1927, the Negro land-grant work conducted by this school was placed under the control of the University of Maryland, although Princess Anne Academy, itself, remained under the control of Morgan College. In 1934 Maryland purchased Princess Anne Academy from Morgan College and made it a State land-grant college for Negroes in that state. The name of this institution was changed to Princess Anne College in 1937. Upon accepting the terms of the second Morrill Act, the State of Tennessee made arrangements to pay over the proportionate share of the Federal land-grant funds for Negroes in the State to the Knoxville College, a private Negro Institution at Knoxville. This college was recognized as the Tennessee Negro land-grant college, until 1913 when the State established the Agricultural and Industrial School at Nashville, which became the official Negro land-grant college.

There were six states that proceeded within a period of seven years after the acceptance of the second Morrill Act to establish either new Negro land-grant colleges under State control or to convert certain private

Negro schools within their borders into state Negro land-grant colleges. By an act of the Georgia State Legislature in 1890 the Georgia State Industrial College was organized at Savannah as a branch of the State University for the purpose of educating and training Negro youth in a program embracing the studies required under the Morrill Act of 1890. The State General Assembly of Delaware in 1891 passed an act for the establishment of the State College for Colored Students of Delaware, located just outside of Dover, as its Negro land-grant college. In the same year the legislature of North Carolina organized the Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina which was designated as its Negro land-grant college. The West Virginia Legislature passed an act also in 1891 establishing the West Virginia Collegiate Institute, and in addition to State support, provided that it should receive a share of the funds under the Morrill Act of 1890. This institution is located a short distance from Charleston, and in 1929 the legislature changed its name to the West Virginia State College. The Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College, originally a private college, was converted into a state land-grant college by an act of the Texas Legislature in 1891 and became a part of a system of agricultural and mechanical colleges organized by the State at the time. As Oklahoma was a Territory at the time of the enactment of the second Morrill Act, the state did not establish its Negro land-grant college until 1897. In this year the Colored Agricultural and Normal University, located outside of Langston, was organized by an act of the Oklahoma Legislature, but Oklahoma did not accept the provision of the second Morrill Act until March, 1897.[1]

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[1]Holmes, op. cit., pp. 153-181.

The Southern States, therefore, followed four distinct patterns in distributing the 1862 and 1890 Morrill land-grant funds among their Negro population. Four states, Virginia, Kentucky, Mississippi, and South Carolina provided land-grant education from funds derived from the first Morrill Act of 1862, whereby they set aside a portion of their land-grant funds for the purpose of providing agricultural and mechanical education in the private and public (in the case of Kentucky) Negro schools within their borders, and later established State Negro Land-Grant institutions, which were designated to receive the grants derived from both the first and second Morrill Acts. The Negro land-grant college located in Mississippi was originally a private Negro school until it became a State Negro land-grant college in 1878. The Negro land-grant colleges located in South Carolina and Virginia were established outright as State Negro land-grant colleges in 1896 and 1920 respectively. Kentucky, originally a State Normal School, became a State Negro land-grant college in 1886.

Five states, Arkansas, Louisiana, Florida, Missouri, and Alabama, provided agricultural and mechanical education for the Negro by turning over the money derived from the second Morrill Act of 1890 to their own state-operated institutions for Negroes and thereby made their own colleges into Negro land-grant colleges as well.

Two states, Maryland and Tennessee, assigned the funds derived from the second Morrill Act to private Negro colleges within their respective states, with the understanding that they were to provide the type of education specified in the second Morrill Act. Tennessee

established its own Negro land-grant college in 1913 and Maryland converted a private Negro school into a State Negro land-grant college in 1934.

Six states, Georgia, Delaware, North Carolina, West Virginia, Texas, and Oklahoma proceded, almost immediately upon the acceptance of the terms of the second Morrill Act of 1890, to establish new Negro land-grant colleges under State control. Therefore, the states in this group actually established state colleges and Negro land-grant colleges at the same time. Today each of the seventeen land-grant colleges for Negroes is also a state college and receives an annual appropriation from its state in addition to its designated land-grant money and other federal appropriations.

A Period of Uncertainty for Negro Land-Grant Colleges

The period of uncertainty for the Negro Land-Grant college began almost as soon as they were accorded legal status. Their educational objectives were seldom realized. The names of most of the institutions expressed doubt and educational insecurity.

Some of the difficulties which made for uncertainty in the beginning of the land-grant colleges for Negroes were: (1) The private and denominational colleges, established before the land-grant colleges for Negroes, had won Negroes over to their cultural curricular offering; (2) Negro education at every level suffered in the southern states because in many cases the Negro was not considered educable, therefore, the land-grant colleges for Negroes were forced to work at the educational level of Negroes in the respective states which necessarily prevented them

from undertaking work on the collegiate level; and, (3) The limitation of educational opportunity for Negroes by status, the restriction of suffrage, and attempts in many ways to minimize the personalities of Negroes defeated the early efforts of the land-grant colleges for Negroes.

These difficulties caused the Negro land-grant colleges to be somewhat uncertain in their educational objectives. The slowness of approach on the part of Negro land-grant colleges to their special collegiate task and the inadequacy of the programs of private and denominational colleges to meet the widening educational needs of Negroes caused philanthropic boards to come to the rescue of Negro education in the South.

This period was, therefore, also marked with other developments in the general field of education for Negroes: (1) contributions to the education of Negroes were made by the Peabody Fund, Jeanes and Slater Funds, Phelps-Stokes Fund, General Education Board, Russell Sage Foundation, Carnegie Foundation, Rosenwald Fund, and Rockefeller Foundation; (2) The development of strong leadership in education among Negroes themselves and the new advocates of education for Negroes among white southerners; and, (3) A need for education of both races as seen by the South because the South was so rapidly becoming industrialized. These developments helped to bring to a close the period of uncertainty of the land-grant colleges for Negroes.

Other Laws Affecting Land-Grant Institutions

The Adams Act,[1] approved in 1906, authorized an additional $15,000 a year for experiment stations already provided for with the enactment of the Hatch Act mentioned earlier. Other legislation extending the benefits for experimental stations were the Purnell Act,[2] approved in 1925, which gave an additional $60,000 a year; and the Research and Marketing Act[3] of 1946 which removed the statutory limitation on funds for experiment stations at land-grant institutions.

The Nelson Amendment[4] to the Act of 1890 was passed by Congress on February 21, 1907. This measure provided each State and Territory with an additional appropriation under the terms of the Morrill Act of 1890. This fund began with $5,000. The first year and $5,000 for each year for four years, after which the annual sum was to be $25,000. One section of this amendment states that the land-grant institutions "may use a portion of this money for providing courses for specific preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and mechanic arts."

The Smith-Lever Act[5] of 1914 authorized land-grant colleges and universities to give instruction beyond the boundaries of the campus.

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[1]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 34, pp. 63-64.

[2]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 43, pp. 970-972.

[3]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 60, pp. 436-439.

[4]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 34, pp. 1281-1283.

[5]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 38, pp. 372-375.

The Act stated the purpose of this extension work as "to aid in diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information on subjects relating to agriculture and home economics and to encourage application of the same. . . ." The Act directed land-grant institutions to submit their plans of instruction to the Secretary of Agriculture for approval. It authorized annual appropriations of $4,580,000 for the extension work. The money was to be apportioned among the states in proportion to how the individual state's rural population compared with the Nation's total rural population. The Act required the state legislatures to match the Federal grants dollar for dollar.

The Capper-Ketcham Act,[1] approved May 22, 1928, authorized $1,480,000 in additional annual Federal matching grants for extension work. The apportionment formula and matching requirement stayed the same as the ones in the Smith-Lever Act. But 80 per cent of the $1,480,000 was to be "used to pay county extension agents."

The Bankhead-Jones Act[2] of 1935 authorized a two-part annual appropriation for land-grant institutions: (1) $980,000 a year to be divided among the states and Hawaii equally; and (2) $1.5 million to be divided among the states and Hawaii in proportion to total population compared to national population.

Functions of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges

Because of the broad character of the original legislation which created the land-grant colleges, and subsequent and related enactments

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[1]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 45, pp. 711-712.

[2]U. S. Statute at Large, Vol. 49, pp. 436-439.

which expanded its functions, it is difficult to arrive at a definite statement of land-grant functions. Although these laws gave the land-grant college its name, they did not attempt to prescribe a curriculum for its objectives. This was left to the college and to the changing conditions. Eddy[1] describes these "conditions" for the Negro land-grant colleges being entirely different and "with handicaps unknown to the other [illegible]-two. They are the product of a social and economic pattern of a particular region rather than a nation."

In order to meet the unprecedented demand for higher and professional education by Negroes, the general practice of Negro land-grant colleges has been to utilize to an overwhelming extent, the capacities of existing institutions. As a result of this practice, new curricula have been added to the institutions whenever an emergency arose. The typical land-grant college is now a mosaic of every kind of curriculum demanded by Negroes.

An analysis of the Negro land-grant college programs reveal that it has become everything but what its name signifies, for it serves simultaneously as an agricultural and mechanical college, a liberal arts college, a teachers college, a professional school, a graduate school; or, more generally as the Negro state university.

Years in which graduate programs were added to the programs in the various institutions can be discussed by decades beginning with Virginia State in 1937 and North Carolina A & T in 1939. In the next

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[1]Edward Danford Eddy, Jr., Colleges for Our Land and Time (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956), p. 257.

decade, Alabama A & M added its graduate program in 1940, Tennessee A & I in 1941, Prairie View and Florida A & M in 1945, and South Carolina State in 1946. In the third decade, graduate programs were added at Southern University in 1956 and Fort Valley State College in 1957.

Characteristics of the Future Role of Negro Land-Grant Colleges

When the continued functions of land-grant colleges that were established for Negroes is being discussed, in reality the future of only one phase of the educational program of these colleges is being considered. It is quite possible that the land-grant college may discontinue, reduce or otherwise modify the land-grant phase of the program. In other words, some land-grant colleges established for Negroes may take up a new status as in the case of the "newly formed state-supported colleges of today that often provide educational programs which are similar to those of other state colleges and yet were never normal schools nor teachers colleges."[1]

A study of West Virginia[2] which resulted in transferring of land-grant functions to the University of West Virginia, for example, took into account that the critical needs of industry in the area could be met at West Virginia State College by strengthening pre-engineering offerings, and by reconstructing the terminal programs of the colleges. In short, functions should be assigned to institutions

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[1]Aaron Van Wright, Jr., "The New State Colleges," Improving College and University Teaching, XIII (Winter, 1965), p. 30.

[2]John E. Brewton, Higher Education in West Virginia, A Survey Report (West Virginia: Charleston, 1956), pp. 107-110.

where specific needs may be met and where staff and facilities make it possible to carry them out at a high level of efficiency. This is not to say that functions could not be duplicated if such seems warranted by reason of population concentration and/or occupational needs.

The reason advanced by the survey in West Virginia may very well be applicable as integration becomes more widespread. Two survey recommendations thought to be most important to this study are cited below:

> The functions performed under the Land-Grant Acts should be located exclusively at West Virginia University and all federal funds received for this purpose should be spent at the University. It is educationally sound and good public policy for the land-grant function to be the responsibility of one institution. The proposed change is a normal result of racial integration. The Legislature should, however, provide additional state appropriations for West Virginia State College to compensate for the loss of federal funds provided through the land-grant program. Otherwise, the change would be financially crippling to the institution.
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> . . . . . .
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> The preprofessional programs in engineering at West Virginia State College should be strengthened. West Virginia State College is located in the very heart of the industrial area that employs many engineers and engineering technicians. Because of the need for engineers in the area and in order to compensate somewhat for its losses in agriculture, the engineering offerings at the college should be strengthened until they are equivalent to the first two years of engineering at the University. In addition, the college should offer in-service courses in engineering for personnel in the area and should modify its terminal and vocational programs so that they genuinely prepare individuals for industrial employment.

At Kentucky State College, as well as at West Virginia State College, plans are underway to transfer certain land-grant functions, as the elimination of the program in agriculture has been announced. At Lincoln University recognition has also been given to the fact that

some of the land-grant work tends not to flourish because it does not touch the more pressing needs of the clientele served by the college.

It seems, therefore, that in the years ahead, there are many compelling reasons why the land-grant colleges established for Negroes must become American colleges. It seems that the answer to the question as to what disposition should be made of the land-grant functions now performed by them may be found in the following issues of accommodation: the breath of the program which they may be called upon to sponsor; their intellectual perspective toward the rapidly changing circumstances for higher education.

Summary

The Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862 provided that certain funds realized from the sale of public lands would be utilized by the respective states to make training in agriculture and engineering available. These schools were set up as new and separate institutions, or they were related to existing universities, public or private.

Although the land-grant colleges established by the Morrill Act of 1862 were designed to provide higher education for the masses, the concept of "the masses" at that time did not include the Negro, particularly in the South. With the passing of years, however, legal structure was changed for the purpose of extending the offerings of land-grant colleges. An example of this was seen in the Second Morrill Act of 1890. Inherent in the Second Morrill Act was the provision for "separate but equal" facilities for Negro land-grant colleges. This situation which tended toward inferior treatment and denial of opportunity for Negroes continued through the middle of the twentieth century.

Significant progress was made during the last decade to eradicate the injustices and inequalities that plagued the growth of Negro land-grant colleges. The Supreme Court's decision of 1954 and more recently the Civil Rights Act of 1964 opened new vistas in the enhancement of educational opportunities provided by land-grant colleges established primarily for Negroes.

CHAPTER III

BACKGROUND OF MUSIC FACULTY MEMBERS INITIALLY EMPLOYED IN NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES SINCE THE 1954 SUPREME COURT DECISION

Analysis in this study of factors relative to job selections made by music faculty members who were initially employed in Negro land-grant institutions since June 1954 would be more fully understood if the backgrounds of these respondents were briefly explored. Information on the cultural groups from which these faculty members come and the ways in which they had prepared for their present positions promised to contribute to a better understanding and appreciation of why they chose to work in these schools.

Personal Information

Some vital statistics about these music teachers provide a helpful backdrop for an examination of their reasons for choosing to work in Negro land-grant colleges. They also suggest how "typical" these music teachers may be of their colleagues in other areas and hence the extent to which the present findings can be applied to recruiting staff in these and similar institutions.

Sex

Table 1 shows certain personal characteristics of the 64 respondents. Sex, race, marital status, number of children, age, and birthplace are indicated by number and percentage of responses.

TABLE 1

CERTAIN PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF
THE 64 RESPONDENTS, FALL 1964

Item	Number	Percentage N=64
Sex		
Male	50	78.1
Female	14	21.8
Race		
Negro	60	93.7
Non-Negro	4	6.2
Marital status		
Single	21	32.8
Married	38	59.3
Separated or divorced	3	4.6
Widowed	2	3.1
Number of children		
None	30	46.8
1 - 2	21	32.8
3 - 4	10	15.6
5 - 6	2	3.1
More than 6	1	1.5
Age		
Under 25	5	7.8
25 - 34	36	56.2
35 - 49	17	26.5
50 - 64	3	4.6
(No response)	3	4.6
Birthplace		
Same state in which employed	21	32.8
Another state	41	64.0
Foreign country	1	1.5
(No response)	1	1.5

Fifty or 78.1 per cent of the respondents were men. Males also constituted 98.4 per cent of the Non-Negro segment of the sample.

Race

The extent to which Negro schools were staffed by Negro teachers is also shown in Table 1. Of the total number, 64, only 5 or 7.8 per cent of the respondents were non-Negro.

Marital Status

A majority, 59.3 per cent, of the respondents were currently married and living with their families. Another 7.8 per cent reported themselves widowed, separated or divorced. Thirty-three of the married persons had at least one child, and one reported eight. The typical (median) family among the respondents included two children; 32.8 per cent of the respondents had never been married.

Age

Music staff members initially employed in Negro land-grant colleges since June 1954, ranged in age from persons in their earlier twenties to an individual nearing retirement. Forty-one of the respondents were under 35 years of age while only 3 had passed their fiftieth birthday. Three respondents failed to supply information for this item. The median age for those responding was 33, ten years less than has been reported nationally.

Birthplace

Approximately one-third, 32.8 per cent, of the respondents had been born in the states in which they were working. The majority of the

respondents, 64.0 per cent, were born in another state; and only one, 1.5 per cent, was born abroad. The study did not probe places of birth but rather if respondents were born in the state in which they were working, in another state, or in a foreign country.

Educational Preparation

Judging from information regarding the formal education of the respondents, most of these music faculties earned their bacculaureate degrees in institutions similar to the ones in which they are presently employed. Because information was not gathered regarding elementary and high school experiences, the present summary is confined to the work beyond the twelfth grade.

Types of Undergraduate Institutions Attended

Table 2 shows the types of colleges attended by the 64 respondents to earn bacculaureate degrees. As mentioned previously, the majority (51.5 per cent) of the respondents returned to work in land-grant institutions similar to the ones they attended as undergraduates.

TABLE 2

TYPES OF COLLEGES ATTENDED BY RESPONDENTS TO EARN BACCALAUREATE DEGREES

Type of College	Number	Percentage N=64
Land-grant	33	51.5
Private	19	29.6
Public (other than land-grant)	12	18.7

The data did not permit study of the "stratification" of colleges as Berelson,[1] Knapp and Greenbaum,[2] and others have done. However, most of the music faculty members who were initially employed in Negro land-grant colleges since June 1954 seemed to have been recruited from land-grant institutions.

Earned Degrees

While all of the respondents held at least a baccalaureate degree, 78.1 per cent had also earned an advanced degree as shown in Table 3. Thirty-nine or 60.9 per cent had earned the master's degree. Less than one-fourth, 17.1 per cent, had the doctoral degree. This agrees closely with national figures on this point.

TABLE 3

EARNED DEGREES OF RESPONDENTS, FALL 1964

Degree	Number	Percentage N=64
Bachelor's	14	21.8
Master's	39	60.9
Doctorate	11	17.1

The proportions of land-grant-trained teachers declined sharply at the master's and doctoral levels. Thus only 23.4 per cent of the

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[1]Bernard Berelson, Graduate Education in the United States, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960).

[2]Robert H. Knapp and Joseph J. Greenbaum, The Younger American Scholar: His Collegiate Origins, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953).

respondents had received their master's degrees from land-grant institutions. None of the doctoral degrees were earned from these schools.

Advanced Study Not Aimed at Degrees

Seventeen respondents listed study not aimed at advanced degrees. Of this number, 14 had earned the master's degree and 3 had earned the doctoral degree. None of the respondents below the master's level reported having studied without an advanced degree as an aim.

Although information was not systematically gathered regarding places where respondents had studied when they were not seeking advanced degrees, several persons volunteered this information. Private schools were cited in most instances, but occasionally study with a private artist was mentioned.

Work Experiences

Information concerning the first full-time job following graduation and the positions held immediately preceding current appointments shows that most of the respondents held some other type of position before they joined their present staffs. Table 4 shows the nature of experiences that the respondents had gained before they entered their present positions.

Relatively few, 21.8 per cent, of the respondents had entered their present positions without some intervening school or work experience. For a majority, 56.2 per cent, the first full-time position after receiving the bachelor's degree was in an elementary or secondary school. Almost half, 48.4 per cent, had held such positions up to the time they had joined their present staffs. Approximately one-third, 21.8 per cent, had entered

their present positions from other college faculties. The rest had come directly from graduate school or from nonacademic positions.

TABLE 4

NATURE OF EXPERIENCES GAINED BY RESPONDENTS BEFORE ENTERING PRESENT POSITIONS

Nature of Experience	Number	Percentage N=64
Academic		
Secondary teaching	29	45.3
College teaching	14	21.8
Elementary teaching	10	15.6
Private lessons	2	3.1
Non-academic		
Performing	3	4.6
Other	6	9.3

The number of years, including 1964-65, that the respondents have held positions on the staff of any college or university is shown in Table 5. Responses ranged from 14 or 21.8 per cent in their first year of college teaching to an individual in his twenty-ninth year. The majority, 40.0 per cent, had taught on the college level from 2 to 4 years. An equal number, 16, had been teaching from 5 to 9 years and from 10 to 19 years. Only one respondent had been on the full-time staff of a college for more than 20 years.

Present Positions

Table 6 shows the number of years that the respondents have been affiliated with their present institutions. Over one-half, 51.5 per cent,

TABLE 5

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE GAINED BY RESPONDENTS AT OTHER INSTITUTIONS

Years Experience at other Institutions	Number	Percentage N=55
1 - 4	22	40.0
5 - 9	16	29.0
10 - 19	16	29.0
20 - 29	1	1.8

reported from 1 to 4 years of service. Another one-third, 32.8 per cent, had spent from 5 to 9 years at their present institution. Ten individuals were serving in their tenth year.

TABLE 6

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE GAINED BY RESPONDENTS AT PRESENT INSTITUTIONS

Years Experience at Present Institutions	Number	Percentage N=64
1	9	14.0
2	7	10.9
3	10	15.6
4	7	10.9
5	8	12.5
6	6	9.3
7	4	6.2
8	1	1.5
9	2	3.1
10	10	15.6

Summary

Since music teachers who were initially employed in Negro land-grant colleges closely resemble colleagues in other places with respect to sex, age, and educational training, they are probably also like faculty members elsewhere in less easily probed characteristics. Ethnic orgin may be one exception, for music teachers in Negro land-grant colleges are almost always Negro. Perhaps this is to be expected in Southern areas where segregation has required that Negro schools be staffed by Negro teachers.

These teachers had primarily received their undergraduate degrees from land-grant institutions. Less than one-fourth of them had yet earned the doctorate, although over one-half had earned the master's degree; and many had done additional study not aimed at an advanced degree. They had served on college faculties for 7 years on the average. This experience followed earlier work in lower schools or in noneducational jobs. Both training and experience, therefore, seemed to qualify the group to appraise their current situations and offer suggestions for future recruitment and retention of personnel in their own schools as well as similar institutions.

CHAPTER IV

RESPONDENTS' APPRAISALS OF THEIR CURRENT POSITIONS

People in general expect to gain a reasonable livelihood from their work; most persons also hope that the activities themselves will be stimulating and agreeable, and that any human relations involved will be pleasant. Several questions in the data-gathering instrument sought to find out how well these basic drives had been satisfied as a result of the respondents having been affiliated with their particular schools in this study. Some related to particular features of the respondents' work, while others sought general appraisals of their experiences and statements regarding their continued services in these institutions.

Reasons for Present Staff Affiliations

The interests and aspirations of these members of music faculties are reflected in the explanations they gave for selecting their present institutions. Since free responses were invited, rather than affirmation or rejection of listed replies, the points volunteered suggest what the respondents look for in evaluating offers made by these schools. Whether individuals were actively seeking employment in this type of institution could not be determined from the data.

Dominant Reasons

Table 7 shows the reasons respondents gave for selecting their present positions. As Gustad[1] cites in his study of career choice, intrinsic

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[1]John Gustad, The Career Decision of College Teachers, SREB Research Monograph Series No. 2, Southern Regional Education Board, 1950.

or personal interest factors clearly outweighed external or situational ones in deciding on a job. Thus nearly half, 46.8 per cent, of the respondents indicated some type of personal interest or motivation as a reason for selecting their present position, as compared with 35.9 per cent who specified a situational element.

TABLE 7

REASONS GIVEN BY RESPONDENTS FOR SELECTING THEIR CURRENT POSITIONS

Reasons related to selecting current positions	Number	Percentage* N=64
Type of Institution		
Location	14	21.8
Reputation of school	6	9.3
Liked type of school	2	3.1
Other	3	4.6
Job Itself		
Suitable position available	21	32.8
Growth opportunities	12	18.7
Stimulating	11	17.1
Salary	9	14.0
Area of choice available	7	10.9
Research opportunities	7	10.9
Working conditions	4	6.2
Other	2	3.1

*The percentage total is more than 100 since some individuals checked more than one response.

Supporting Reasons

Although internal or personal-interest factors were more frequently specified by respondents than others, circumstances or special opportunities were also listed as playing a major role in the decisions. For example,

nearly 21 out of 64 responding to this item mentioned that there had been suitable positions offered them.

A few other significant differences emerged in the studies of various subgroups. Young staff members were more likely than older teachers to specify personal interest or concern as factors influencing their choices. Similarly, all non-Negro respondents noted such interest or motivations, whereas at least 35.5 per cent of the Negroes seem to have been greatly influenced by circumstantial factors such as the offer of a position. Individuals who had done their undergraduate work in land-grant schools were more likely to have selected their positions for reasons connected with the particular type of school. In contrast, respondents finishing other schools seemed to be more concerned with salaries, employment conditions, and other aspects of the job itself.

Recommended Shifts in Use of Time

One way of finding out the music teachers' opinions of their work was to ask them how they spent their time and how they would really like to spend their time. No effort was made to determine how many actual hours were currently used in professional activities, although free comments suggested that many respondents worked hours that extend far beyond a 40- or 48-hour week.

Actual Use of Time

Responses to certain items in the questionnaire indicated how the respondents spent their working hours. Table 8 shows the number of credit and course hours per week that respondents listed as their class loads.

TABLE 8

NUMBER OF CREDIT HOURS TAUGHT PER WEEK AS REPORTED BY RESPONDENTS

Number of hours per week	Number	Percentage N=64
19 - 20	9	14.0
17 - 18	3	4.6
15 - 16	18	28.1
13 - 14	5	7.8
11 - 12	19	29.6
9 - 10	6	9.3
7 - 8	1	1.5
5 - 6	1	1.5
3 - 4	2	3.1

The highest number of credit hours per week was 20, and this was cited by 6.2 per cent of the respondents. The smallest number of credit hours per week listed by the teachers was 3, as was indicated by 1.5 per cent. A majority of the respondents, 59.3 per cent, reported from 9 to 16 credit hours per week.

Table 9 shows the number of class hours taught per week by the respondents. Sixty was the highest number of class hours taught per week; however, only one respondent listed this actual contact with students. Eight was the smallest number of class hours per week, and

this number was reported by only one individual. A majority of the respondents, 59.3 per cent, indicated from 16 to 30 class hours per week.

TABLE 9

NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS TAUGHT PER WEEK AS REPORTED BY RESPONDENTS

Number of hours per week	Number	Percentage N=64
Less than 10	3	4.6
11 - 15	2	3.1
16 - 20	16	25.0
21 - 25	19	29.6
26 - 30	13	20.3
31 - 35	2	3.1
36 - 40	4	6.2
41 - 45	4	6.2
Over 46	1	1.5

Respondents also listed the kinds of professional activities to which they devoted their time. These duties and the number of respondents who listed them are shown in Table 10.

Overall, 81.2 per cent of the respondents devoted most of their time to instructional functions, another 9.3 per cent listed counseling and other services to student groups as the functions to which most of their actual time was devoted. Only 3.1 per cent indicated that most

of their time was devoted to research and scholarly writing; and the same percentage, 3.1, devoted most of their time to administration.

TABLE 10

VARIOUS PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES IN WHICH RESPONDENTS ENGAGE, FALL, 1964

Professional Activities	Number	Percentage* N=64
Teaching	64	100
Counseling	64	100
Other services to student groups	62	96.8
Performance	52	81.2
Committee and administrative	38	59.3
Research and scholarly writing	2	3.1
(No response)	2	3.1

*The percentage in certain instances totals more than 100, since some individuals checked more than one response.

Recommended Increases in Time Allotments

When asked to identify the function to which they would like to give more time, almost one-half (28) of the respondents singled out research and scholarly writing. This information is shown in Table 11.

Twenty-seven of the respondents indicated that they would like more time for performance. Counseling and off-campus service was listed by an equal number, 9, of the respondents as areas to which they would

like to devote more time. But only 3 teachers asked for more time for committee or administrative duties.

TABLE 11

DESIRED CHANGES IN DISTRIBUTION OF TIME FOR PROFESSIONAL FUNCTIONS, FALL, 1964

Desired change in distribution of time	Number	Percentage* N=53
More for:		
Research and writing	28	52.8
Performance	27	50.9
Teaching	17	32.0
Counseling	9	16.9
Off-campus service	9	16.9
Other student services	3	5.6
Committee and administrative	3	5.6
Less for:		
Committee and administrative	16	30.0
Teaching	14	26.4
Off-campus service	7	13.2
Other student services	3	5.6
Counseling	1	1.8
Research and writing	1	1.8
No change desired	3	5.6

*Note that the percent is more than 100, since there were multiple responses.

Recommended Cuts in Time Allotments

Asked to identify the function to which they should like less time, approximately a third, 30.0 per cent, of the respondents specified committee or administrative responsibilities. This information is also shown in Table 11. Smaller proportions indicated other services that

might be curtailed, with only 1 or 1.8 per cent citing research. This might be attributed to the fact that research had already reached the vanishing point in most of the colleges. Substantial numbers of teachers, 26.4 per cent, either said that they desired no change or omitted this item, an indication that many of the respondents are reasonably satisfied with the distribution of their time. Had a question been included relating to total load, more protests might have been registered, judging from comments written in by the respondents on this point.

Satisfactions Experienced in Work

Satisfaction of a wide range of needs is sought through work activities; from minimal requirements for food, shelter, and a sense of belongingness to strong drives for power, understanding, and experiences of beauty. Studies by Roe,[1] Super,[2] and others suggest a person's satisfactions, aspirations, and goals are strongly conditioned or determined by occupational placement, since the latter constitutes a way of life as well as a means of livelihood.

In order to determine what music teachers initially employed in Negro land-grant colleges since June, 1954 considered to be the major satisfactions associated with their jobs, each respondent was asked to list his own views. A variety of answers resulted, ranging from descriptions of tangible benefits to the fulfillment of personal needs and hopes.

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[1]Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1956).

[2]Donald E. Super, and others, Vocational Development: A Framework for Research, Career Pattern Study Monograph No. 1 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957).

Music teachers commented chiefly on the interesting and socially significant tasks they perform as well as the conditions of work or the recognition or prestige associated with such service. Thus, as seen in Table 12, the largest number of reasons given for job satisfaction was centered around "the nature of work," indicating that the job itself is intellectually challenging and satisfying. Also cited frequently were favorable "conditions of service" including flexible schedules and pleasant associates. Least often noted were "tangible rewards"--salaries, tenure arrangements, and various fringe benefits.

Some of the major satisfactions derived from working with students can best be seen through the respondents' comments as follows:

> "Satisfaction of knowing that I am helping students who are really interested in learning."
>
> "Being able to help appreciative students."
>
> "Having helped develop some musicians who are now professionals and very successful."
>
> "In seeing some professional results of my labors embodied in one of the finest musical organizations in the country."

Many of the respondents spoke appreciatively about the conditions of service. Some typical comments:

> "Faculty seem to get proper recognition for efforts put forth to improve the quality of instruction in the department."
>
> "Even though my load is heavy, it is not as heavy as it was in high school. I have more time for individuals and my own personal growth."
>
> "One can work here with freedom, no one keeps watch over you."

TABLE 12

MAJOR SATISFACTIONS* OF PRESENT TEACHING SITUATIONS, IN THE OPINIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Type of Satisfaction	Number	Percentage N=64
Working conditions		
Desirable environment	24	17.1
Intellectual associations	18	28.1
Freedom and independence in work	17	26.5
Fine colleagues and administrators	16	25.0
Attendance at professional meetings	11	17.1
Well-motivated students	8	12.5
Opportunities for research	3	4.6
Other	7	10.9
Appreciations and rewards		
Personal satisfaction	21	32.8
Sense of social usefulness	14	21.8
Security (salary, tenure, etc.)	10	15.6
Prestige or general recognition	9	14.0
Appreciations expressed by students	4	6.2
Recognition by administrators	2	3.1
Other	4	6.2

*Based on comments of the 64 participants. Each person described satisfactions experienced in his position; the replies were later categorized to retain as much as possible of their original meaning.

The particular location of the school was sometimes listed by the respondents. Some of them were:

"Living near home and remaining in contact with life-long friends."

"Teaching in my home state."

"Excellent location."

Some respondents listed the administration as a chief source contributing to job satisfaction:

"Backing of the administration."

"Very good administration"

"Considerable academic freedom"

"Working with one of the finest directors and administrators in my field of endeavor."

Dissatisfactions Associated with Work

The fact that a few specific responses were obtained as a result of probing dissatisfactions may in itself be a significant finding. Although only 7.8 per cent of the respondents omitted this item, those who responded listed only one or two points in a space provided for at least three replies. This information is shown in Table 13.

The source of discontent most frequently scored, low salary level, was mentioned by almost half, 47.4 per cent, of those responding. One respondent pointed out that "this seems to be a national problem, however."

Respondents also complained about the lack of funds for research, advanced study, and trips to professional meetings, saying that this has seriously handicapped them in making their best professional contribution. Other dissatisfactions cited related chiefly to heavy work loads which consumed hours that respondents felt were needed for personal performance and significant nonacademic interests. Specifically, "not enough time for family" was mentioned in this regard. Some teachers gave in

TABLE 13

MAJOR DISSATISFACTIONS* OF PRESENT POSITIONS,
IN THE OPINIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Type of Dissatisfaction	Number	Percentage N=59
Demands of the work		
Too heavy class load	11	18.6
No opportunities for research	9	15.2
Too long hours	8	13.5
No time for study	6	10.1
Excessive committee work	5	8.4
Too much out-of-class work	4	6.7
Too much preparation	2	3.3
Too much red tape and routine duties	2	3.3
Other	2	3.3
Working conditions		
Poor facilities	7	11.8
No opportunity for professional meetings	6	10.1
Poor or unmotivated students	6	10.1
Poor faculty attitudes	4	6.7
Classes too large	3	5.0
Narrow interest of colleagues	2	3.3
Poor intra-faculty relations	2	3.3
No policy-making by faculty	1	1.6
Other	1	1.6
Rewards, appreciations		
Poor salary	28	47.4
Inadequate appraisal of work	3	5.0
Stress on research too great	3	5.0
Little recognition for good teaching	2	3.3
Low status of profession	1	1.6
Little student appreciation	1	1.6
Little appreciation of contributions	1	1.6
Degrees overemphasized	1	1.6
Slow promotions	1	1.6
Other	2	3.3

*Based on comments of the 64 participants. Each person described dissatisfactions experienced in his position; the replies were later categorized to retain as much as possible of their original meaning.

detail the number and size of their classes, the multitude of extraclass duties that they were expected to perform, and the incessant demands levied against their time by community groups.

Other criticisms were directed at inadequate facilities, bad administration, total absence of clerical and secretarial help. Although not frequently mentioned, there was some concern about disciplinary or instructional problems attributed to the presence of inadequately prepared or motivated students in classes.

Attitude Toward Present Position

To find out how faculty members weighed the various opinions that they had volunteered about their positions, additional questions sought a kind of global judgment about their present selection. The first asked for a personal rating of their present positions, using a 5-point scale ranging from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied."

General Rating of Position

As seen in Table 14, a majority of music faculty members expressed distinctly favorable attitudes toward positions, with 6.2 per cent describing themselves as "very satisfied" and another 37.5 per cent as "satisfied" with their choice. Over one-third, 35.9 per cent, of the respondents classified their attitudes as neutral or "indifferent." An equal number, 5, said they were dissatisfied to some degree or expressed dissatisfaction with their present positions. Two respondents failed to reply to this item.

TABLE 14

ATTITUDES OF THE 64 RESPONDENTS
TOWARD THEIR PRESENT POSITIONS

Attitude Concerning Position	Number	Percentage N=64
General rating of present position		
Very dissatisfied	5	7.8
Dissatisfied	5	7.8
Indifferent	23	35.9
Very satisfied	25	39.0
No response	2	3.1
Readiness to reaffirm choice		
Yes	27	42.1
No	11	17.1
Uncertain	25	39.0
No response	0	0.0

Again, significant differences emerged in studies of various subgroups. Men favored higher ratings than women. Similarly, non-Negro respondents appeared to be significantly more satisfied than their Negro colleagues. The highest percentage, 6.2, of "very satisfied" teachers was found among the older respondents. In contrast, only 1.5 per cent of the younger teachers made this selection.

Readiness to Re-enter Present Position

Consistent with these generally favorable attitudes toward their present positions, 42.1 per cent of the respondents thought that they would again choose to work at the same school, were they again faced with the decision. As seen also in Table 14, 39.0 per cent of the respondents were uncertain, and 17.1 per cent thought they definitely would not

re-enter, they failed to state the kind of institution that they would choose.

Plans for Future Service

Attitudes toward present positions were further reflected in the responses to items regarding continued service. Twenty-five of the 64 teachers responding to the first item in this section reported that they had gained tenure status in their present positions. However, there were situations, as shown in Table 15, listed by 52 of these respondents in a succeeding item which could possible induce them to change institutions.

TABLE 15

SITUATIONS LISTED WHICH MIGHT POSSIBLY INDUCE RESPONDENTS TO CHANGE INSTITUTIONS

Situations listed	Number	Percentage N=52
More desirable work load	14	26.9
Geographical location	10	19.2
Offer from a more prestigeful institution	10	19.2
Salary	7	13.4
Promotion	6	11.5
Others	5	9.6

Concern for "staff loads," which were judged by respondents to be far too heavy in other parts of the analysis, continued in these replies.

A more desirable program of work was thought to be a possible lure from their present positions by 14 or 26.9 per cent of those responding to this item. Although offers from more prestigious institutions and geographical locations could claim 10 of the respondents, salary and promotion did not seem to be factors that they would consider as primary reasons for making a move. Only 7 of the respondents listed salary as a possible inducement; while 6 specified promotion as an element that would be considered. Other situations listed include: employment for both members of a family, more desirable administration, and places where additional study could be obtained.

Opinions of Schools Future

Respondents see a definite place for their schools in the future of higher education. As shown in Table 16, 63.4 per cent reported the role and scope of their schools as fairly clear and another 19.2 per cent as unmistakably clear. Only 38.4 per cent of the respondents questioned the future role and scope; 23.0 per cent specifically noted uncertainty and 15.3 per cent, vagueness.

In the judgment of the respondents, their schools will continue in existence despite the changing society. Information in Table 16 shows also that only 30 of the 63 teachers responding felt that their schools would be "phased out" and 16 of these did not anticipate this action in the foreseeable future. Several respondents appended remarks to justify their thinking. Typical of these were:

> "Overcrowded educational facilities not only require the services of present schools but demand additional ones. The climate and personnel might change as it has in the past, nevertheless, the school itself will not only continue but will grow."

TABLE 16

RESPONDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT THE ROLE AND SCOPE OF THEIR SCHOOLS IN THE FUTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Opinions on Role and Scope	Number	Percentage N=63
Role in higher education		
Not at all clear	8	17.6
Slightly vague	12	19.0
Fairly clear	33	52.3
Unmistakably clear	10	15.8
Future of institutions		
Will be "phased out" soon	9	14.2
Will be "phased out" during the next decade	5	7.9
Will be "phased out" but not in the foreseeable future	16	25.3
Future is assured	33	52.3

Irrespective of the respondents' opinions of the future of their schools, all of them listed planned actions based on these beliefs. Of the 30 that doubted the continued existence of their schools; 25 will seek employment immediately in other institutions of higher education, 4 will seek other types of employment. This information is shown in Table 17. Thirty-four of the respondents (one of whom doubted the continued existence of his school) plan to definitely remain or seek employment in a similar school.

Opportunity and a feeling of being needed were the major reasons given by respondents for remaining in their present positions. Table 18 shows that three-fourths, 75.8 per cent, checked either or both of these items. Approximately one-third, 32.7 per cent, of the respondents felt that they would not be happy in any other kind of work.

TABLE 17

ACTIONS PLANNED BY RESPONDENTS IN LIGHT OF THEIR OPINIONS OF THE ROLE, SCOPE, AND POSSIBLE FUTURE OF THEIR INSTITUTIONS

Actions planned	Number	Percentage N=63
Definitely remain in present or similar institution	34	53.9
Seek employment immediately in another institution of higher education	25	39.6
Go into another type of employment	3	4.7
Seek employment in a public school	1	1.5

TABLE 18

REASONS GIVEN BY RESPONDENTS FOR WANTING TO REMAIN AT THEIR PRESENT INSTITUTIONS

Reasons for remaining	Number	Percentage* N=58
Greatest opportunity in present position	34	58.6
Would not be happy in any other kind of institution	19	32.7
Needed most in this type of school	10	17.2
This institution will always have a place in education	5	8.6

*Note that the responses were multiple, thus a total of more than 100 per cent.

Recruitment of New Staff Members

Since colleges and universities will have to attract greater numbers of faculty members in the years ahead, an item on the questionnaire invited present faculty members' ideas on how this might be done. Free responses were analyzed to identify clusters of recommendations.

As the replies summarized in Table 19 suggest, most respondents advocated sharp increases in salary and fringe benefits as the best single means of accomplishing these purposes. But they also recommended techniques for identifying, and developing top-quality teachers. There was no tendency on the part of respondents to minimize the "critical situation" in locating and attracting qualified staff members. In many instances their own departments and colleges were already faced with these problems. As one commented:

> "Explore every possibility--retired teachers, performers, and people in other areas who have minored in music. . . . This I know, something must be done."

TABLE 19

RESPONDENTS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RECRUITING STAFF

Measures recommended	Number	Percentage* N=63
Program adjustments		
Lighter workloads for teachers	18	28.5
More clerical and other help	7	11.1
More time and money for research	6	9.5
Improved working conditions	4	6.3
Stress on quality of classroom teaching	2	3.1
Other	4	6.3
Increased rewards		
Higher salaries	59	93.6
Better security (tenure, retirement, etc.)	15	23.8
More prestige for teachers	7	11.1
More recognition of good teaching	7	11.1
Other	4	6.3

*Note that the per cent is more than 100, since there were multiple responses.

In the opinion of a few of the respondents, some of the most formidable obstacles lay in conditions beyond the college's direct control. They spoke of the laws governing the employment of married couples.

"Have the state retract anti-neoptism law."

"Hiring policies often prevent the employment of a good music person. I am thinking of my wife who . . ."

In commenting on specific steps that might be taken to recruit faculty, many teachers recommended that undergraduate students be given more information about academic careers, to enable them to compare the assets and liabilities of faculty service with those of performance that compete for high-level talent.

"We must encourage our better students to come into teaching."

"Making teaching attractive to students will help."

"Act as if we enjoy our profession so the students will want to join us."

"Make teaching as glamorous as the performing arts."

Direct financial help to prospective college teachers was also proposed. An example was cited as to what a particular department was doing to secure scholarships and fellowships for its ablest students. This was also mentioned as a possibility by several other respondents.

Holding Present Staff

In the judgment of respondents, efforts to build a qualified staff may not be successful unless certain prevailing conditions of work are corrected. Although essentially the same factors were specified in connection with recruiting new teachers (Table 19) and retaining present faculty members (See Table 20), internal adjustments that would create

a favorable climate for teaching was more frequently stressed in the latter connection.

TABLE 20

RESPONDENTS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RETAINING STAFF

Suggested measures	Number	Percentage* N=63
Program adjustments		
More time for study and preparation	24	38.0
Lighter workloads	16	25.3
Better atmosphere for work	11	17.4
More time for research	6	9.5
Better facilities for research and teaching	4	6.3
Other	3	4.7
Faculty-administration relations		
Greater academic freedom and encouragement	7	11.1
More cooperative or competent administrators	6	9.5
More policy-making by the faculty	5	7.9
Better communication	3	4.7
Other	3	4.7
Increased rewards		
Higher salaries	43	68.2
More security and fringe benefits	19	30.1
Promotion and other recognition based on merit	11	17.4
Increased provisions for study leaves	8	12.6
More recognition of good teaching	7	11.1
Commendation for individual achievement	4	6.3
Increased prestige for teachers	2	3.1
Other	3	4.7

*Note that the per cent total is more than 100, since there were multiple responses.

A primary concern was with staff loads, which were judged to be far too heavy for good teaching, research, writing and personal performance improvement. Some typical remarks were:

> "Give teachers a more reasonable work schedule."
>
> "The total responsibilities of our staff are too great. Administrative officers never seem to count all the extra things that are included, such as rehearsals, advisory responsibilities, committee assignments, and administrative duties."

Some respondents also stressed the need for raising salaries as a means of holding teachers already in service. In addition, they hoped to see members of the profession granted greater job security, more fringe benefits, a decent retirement income, promotion on the basis of merit and wider public recognition.

Summary

Personal interests and motivations, rather than external factors, seem to have influenced the decisions made by music faculties in their choice of positions. These reasons stated by the respondents were usually reflected in satisfactions which they reportedly derived from their jobs. While the study suggests a general interest pattern that may be independent of the specific differentiated duties that the respondents performed, individuals differed in the emphasis they gave to various motivations and satisfactions, and did so in ways that suggest a reasonably close relationship between them. For example, those whose needs seemed to have been associative reported their greatest satisfaction from contacts with students and fellow faculty members, whereas those whose strongest needs were evidently for intellectual order and

discovery particularly valued the opportunities provided by their schools in those regards.

A majority of the faculty members expressed distinctly favorable attitudes toward present positions. They reaffirmed their choices by stating that they would again choose the same position if confronted with the decision. They had gained tenure status in their present positions and expressed beliefs that their schools had definite roles in the future of higher education.

Although most of the respondents are satisfied with their present positions, they feel that much could be done to improve their jobs. They realize that there could be a better plan to recruit new teachers, and that the conditions of hiring, promoting, and rewarding staff could be made more effective in helping to retain qualified teachers. Evident in the specific suggestions volunteered was the strong concern for building their music faculties.

CHAPTER V

MAJOR FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors relative to the job selections of music faculty members employed, since June 1954, in the original Negro land-grant colleges. Limited to music faculties, it was essentially an exploratory study, aimed at refining techniques that could be used in recruiting and staffing music departments of these and similar institutions.

Subjects in this study were full-time music faculty members in the seventeen original Negro land-grant colleges and universities who were initially employed since June of 1954. These persons were identified by departmental chairmen of each institution.

Data were collected by means of a four-page questionnaire which was mailed to each staff member listed by the chairmen. Sixty-four of these instruments were completed and returned, constituting the sample for this study. Data were then coded and punched on IBM cards for tabulation. Analyses were made in terms of percentage of responses to each of the items on the data-gathering instrument. From the information gained, certain aspects were selected that project recruiting and retaining practices for Negro land-grant colleges.

Findings

The major findings concerning the music faculty members initially employed since June 1954, in the Negro land-grant institutions were:

1. These subjects were predominantly male (78.1 per cent); Negro (93.7 per cent); married (59.3 per cent) with at least one child (53.0 per cent); under 35 years of age (63.0 per cent); and born in states other than the ones in which they were working (64.0 per cent).
2. The majority (51.5 per cent) of the respondents returned to work in land-grant institutions similar to ones they attended as undergraduates. Furthermore, approximately one-third (32.8 per cent) of the respondents had been born in the states in which they were working.
3. For a majority (56.2 per cent of the respondents) the first full-time position after receiving the bachelor's degree was in an elementary or secondary school. Almost half, or 48.4 per cent, held such positions up to the time they joined their present staffs. Another one-third, 21.8 per cent, had entered their present positions from other college faculties.
4. Respondents had served on college faculties for an average of 7 years; however, only 4 of these years had been spent at their present schools.
5. Nearly half, 46.8 per cent of the respondents, had selected their present positions for reasons associated with the character and challenge of the work involved; thus many

had been swayed by opportunities to teach in special interest areas, ideal locations, or to have better facilities in ideal locations, but a minority had been influenced by salaries.

6. Teaching activities currently claimed the largest portion of the time reported by respondents. Other activities in the order listed were counseling, other services to students, performance, committees and administrative duties, off-campus service, and research. More than one-half said they would like to give more time to research, study, or performance. When queried about desired reduction or curtailment in their services, almost one-third hoped for some relief from administrative and committee duties, while lesser portions sought reductions in teaching, and off-campus services.
7. They reported satisfaction from professional services centered chiefly around the kinds of tasks they performed. High among those cited were personal satisfaction, sense of social usefulness, desirable environments, intellectually stimulating associations and freedom and independence in work.
8. Complaints or dissatisfactions mostly concerned the inadequate rewards for services. The negative aspect most frequently listed--low salary--was mentioned by almost half of all respondents, but complaints were also lodged regarding excessive work loads, lack of funds, inadequate facilities, and the indifferent or hostile attitudes of some students toward their studies.

9. Six per cent of the respondents described themselves as "very satisfied" with their present positions, while another 37.5 per cent expressed milder degrees of approval. Similarly, 42.1 per cent said they would probably select their positions again, assuming that they could repeat their decision. Seventeen per cent thought they would not do so, while the others were uncertain or declined to comment.

10. A more desirable work load was thought to be a possible lure away from the present positions of one-fourth of the respondents. Although offers from more prestigious institutions and geographical locations could claim a few additional respondents, salary and promotion did not seem to be factors that are considered as primary reasons for a change of positions.

11. Approximately three-fourths of the respondents see a definite place for their institutions in the future of higher education. Sixty-three per cent reported the role and scope of their schools as "fairly clear" and another 19.2 per cent as unmistakably clear.

12. In the judgment of one-half of the respondents, their schools will continue in existence despite the changing society. Sixteen of the remaining one-half did not see a "phasing out" of their schools in the foreseeable future.

13. Regardless of expressed opinions concerning the continued existence of schools, over one-half of the respondents

reported that they definitely plan to remain or seek employment in a similar school. Opportunity for personal development and a feeling of being needed were major reasons given by respondents for remaining in their present positions or desiring to obtain similar positions.

14. In recommending measures that might encourage suitable members to join their ranks, respondents overwhelmingly stressed higher salaries. Other suggestions included a wider search for promising candidates, correction of laws governing the employment of married couples, recruiting prospective teachers from their own ranks, and giving them financial help to complete their graduate education.

15. To improve retention, respondents again gave priority to improved salary and fringe benefits. Also, they advocated lighter work loads, more time for research, more time for improvement in personal performance, and a more stimulating intellectual atmosphere in general.

Conclusions and Implications

The findings from this exploratory study seem to justify certain tentative conclusions about members of music faculties in Negro land-grant colleges--certain personal characteristics, training patterns, present services, and general outlook concerning their profession. These conclusions, and their significance for recruiting and retaining qualified teachers, are briefly as follows:

1. Members of the music faculties in Negro land-grant colleges entered their present positions by design as was indicated by the fact that 46.8 per cent listed some type of personal interest or motivation as dominant reasons for their selection as compared with 35.9 per cent who specified situational elements. This finding points up that while these music teachers share many basic interests and values, somewhat different appeals may be required in recruiting and retaining staff.
2. Music teachers in Negro land-grant colleges are serving, for the most part, in institutions similar to those in which they took their undergraduate work. This suggests the need for special recruitment measures in land-grant institutions, if the future of these schools is to be soundly assured. But while every school needs a substantial core of faculty members whose personal goals harmonize closely with institutional purposes, these findings also seem to warn against excessive "inbreeding" in these schools.
3. Music teachers in Negro land-grant colleges work at their tasks with considerable intensity, usually giving the largest share of their time to instructional activities. Although the patterning of activities varies somewhat, research, and personal performance are suffering most in competition for faculty time. Expanding demands for new instructional and community services are apparently mortgaging the hours that many faculty members might otherwise have used to expand

their own horizons, enrich their teaching, and encourage the constant pioneering and invention that should characterize professional service. The present findings seem to call for some reappraisal of the services rendered by music faculties to study the possibility of reducing routine chores and encouraging continued intellectual growth.

4. Music teachers in Negro land-grant colleges would choose their same positions if given an opportunity to reaffirm their decisions. Chief among the satisfactions listed by the respondents were the opportunity to work with college-age youth, intellectual growth, and association with a task of vast social import. Forty-two per cent of the persons sampled said that they would again select their present positions. This is indicative of the fact that psychic rewards outweighed dissatisfactions.
5. Respondents saw a definite place for their institutions in the future of higher education as substantiated by the fact that 63.4 per cent reported a clearly defined role and scope of their respective schools. This seems to imply that an optimistic trend exist in spite of the changing educational and social conditions.
6. Respondents evidenced a strong concern for building staff by volunteering specific suggestions. This is to suggest the need for a well-organized effort on the part of the total college community to identify and enlist promising candidates for future services as staff of music departments.

Recommendations

More information is clearly needed as to why individuals select jobs in Negro land-grant institutions and what continues to hold most of them. If the reasons are to be fully understood, far more study must be given to the questions explored in this particular investigation. Further study along the following lines should help to assess the present drawing power of Negro land-grant colleges, and to suggest how larger numbers of qualified persons might be attracted to these schools.

1. It is recommended that longitudinal studies, tracing the sociology of teachers working in Negro land-grant institutions, are urgently needed to supplement present cross-sections of approaches, where recollections of influential factors substitute for more direct reports.
2. It is also recommended that studies be made of the images that teachers in other institutions and potential teachers have of Negro land-grant colleges to help identify major blocks or obstacles in recruiting personnel for these institutions.
3. It is further recommended that various methods of recruiting students from land-grant colleges be systematically evaluated, in some instances through carefully planned experimental studies. Little is known today, for example, about the relative effectiveness of various planned methods, such as individual teachers' efforts, scholarship and fellowship aids, special courses in higher education, voluntary informational

sessions, individual and group counseling, and actual teaching experiences in attracting students to these schools. Attention should be given in such studies not only to the kinds of information that prospective candidates need but to the processes by which they develop the self-understanding and value-systems required for an intelligent commitment to this field.

4. More probing investigations of the interests and personality needs of faculty members is the last recommendation. These could be done with the use of standardized tests, projective techniques, and depth interviews, which would aid in discovering what they seek from their jobs and how compatible their self- and role-expectations really are.

As further research is undertaken, many additional ideas for studies should be generated. Studies can then be more effectively designed to identify the personal and situational elements typically involved in the decisions to work in Negro land-grant colleges. Once a clearer conceptual framework is developed for such research, succeeding studies might also investigate the factors related to success in these schools. But action on these problems need not and should not be delayed until such findings are in hand. Even the present limited data justify taking far bolder steps to attract persons intellectually and emotionally qualified for service in Negro land-grant colleges and to make their services more productive and satisfying.

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APPENDIX A

PRELIMINARY LETTER

221 West 3rd Street
D-35
Norman, Oklahoma

_____, Chairman
_____
_____

Dear _____:

I am conducting a study of factors relative to the selection and retention of music faculty in land-grant colleges. The major purposes of this investigation are to ascertain (a) the reasons of teachers choosing to work in these colleges; (b) the opinions of these teachers in regard to continued employment; and, (c) what ideas they have for attracting qualified personnel.

An important phase of this study is to identify staff members of music departments who teach at least one class during the present term and who have joined the staff since July of 1954. I am aware of the many responsibilities assumed in your position, however, a little of your time taken to list the members of your staff meeting the qualifications stated above, will be greatly appreciated.

No school, chairman, or staff member will be identified individually in the study. And, if you are interested in a summary of the findings when the study is completed, please indicate same on the bottom of your list. A self-addressed stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

Sincerely,

Aaron Van Wright, Jr.

APPENDIX B

COVERING LETTER

221 West 3rd Street
D-35
Norman, Oklahoma

_____
_____
_____

Dear _____:

I am conducting a study of factors relative to the selection and retention of music faculty in Negro land-grant colleges. The major purposes of this investigation are to ascertain (a) the reasons of teachers choosing to work in these colleges, (b) the opinions of these teachers in regard to continued employment; and, (c) what ideas they have for attracting qualified staff.

It is believed that the results of this study will be helpful in recruiting qualified music personnel. And although this investigation will be limited to music staff the findings may have wider significance in building staffs of the size and quality demanded by any educational institution.

No school, or staff member will be identified individually in the study. And, if you are interested in a summary of findings when the study is completed, please indicate same on the bottom of the survey instrument.

Enclosed is a questionnaire which is being used to collect the pertinent data. Your accurate and complete execution of this instrument will determine the degree of reliability of the data, therefore, I am asking you to complete the blank and return it to me before February 25, 1965. A self-addressed, stamped envelope is provided for that purpose.

Sincerely,

Aaron Van Wright, Jr.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

FACTORS RELATIVE TO THE SELECTION AND RETENTION OF MUSIC FACULTY IN LAND-GRANT COLLEGES SINCE JULY of 1954

Please note: The questions are constructed so as to require, in most cases, only a check mark for the response and can be answered in approximately thirty minutes.

I. Personal Information

A. Sex: _____male _____female

B. Race: _____Negro _____Non-Negro

C. Marital status: _____single _____married

_____widowed

_____separated or divorced

D. Number of children _____

E. Your present age: _____under 25 _____25 - 34

_____35 - 49 _____50 - 64

_____65 or over

F. Birthplace: _____the state in which you are working

_____another state

_____foreign country

II. Educational Preparation

A. Please provide the information requested below concerning your undergraduate and graduate education. List all colleges attended. If no degree was conferred, write "none" in the space under the column headed "degree conferred."

Name and location of college or University attended	Undergraduate			Master's Program			Doctoral Program		
	Major Field	Degree Conferred	Yr.	Major Field	Degree Conferred	Yr.	Major Field	Degree Conferred	Yr.
- - - - - - - - - -									
- - - - - - - - - -									
- - - - - - - - - -									
- - - - - - - - - -									
- - - - - - - - - -									
- - - - - - - - - -									

Advanced study not aimed at degree:

B. (a) Have you held a full-time job in an occupational field other than college teaching since you graduated from college? (Do not include summer appointments.)

_____yes _____no

If yes please specify area(s)

_____

(b) Give a descriptive title of your first full-time job after receiving your baccalaureate degree.

_____

(c) Give a descriptive title of the last full-time position you held before joining the staff of your present institution.

_____

(d) 1. How many years, including the present one, have you been on the full-staff of any college or university?

_____

2. How many of these were spent at your present institution?

_____

III. Present Position

A. List below one or two reasons why you choose to teach in this institution.

1.

2.

B. What is your teaching load during the fall term of this year in terms of:

Number of credit hours _____
Number of class (or contact) hours _____ (time actually spent per week in classes, rehearsals, etc.)

C. (a) What percentage of your total professional activities in this fall term would you estimate is devoted to each of the following functions?

1. _____% Teaching activities (Preparation, grading, etc.)
2. _____% Counseling (Personal and academic)
3. _____% Other services to student groups
4. _____% Research and scholarly writing
5. _____% Committee and administrative duties
6. _____% Performance
7. _____% Off-campus services (Professional meetings, etc.)

(b) To which of the above activities would you prefer to give: (Circle the number(s)

More time? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Less time? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

No change desired _____

IV. Appraisal of Present Position

A. What are the two or three chief satisfactions you derive from your present position?

1.

2.

3.

B. What are your main dissatisfactions with your present position?

1.

2.

3.

C. Please check the expression below which best describes your present position.

____very dissatisfied ____dissatisfied ____indifferent
____satisfied _____very satisfied

D. Do you think you would again choose to work in this institution if you could remake your decision? _____yes _____no
_____uncertain

If not, what kind of institution would you choose?

V. Continuous Service

1. Have you gained tenure status in your present position?

_____yes _____no

2. Please check any of the following situations which might induce you to change institutions.

_____promotion
_____geographical
_____salary
_____offer from a more prestigeful institution
_____more desirable work load
_____others: _____ _____
_____

3. Concerning the role and scope of your school in the future of higher education, would you say:

_____it is not at all clear
_____it is slightly vague
_____it is fairly clear
_____it is unmistakably clear

4. The role and scope of your school indicate that in terms of our changing society:

_____it will be "phased out" soon
_____it will be "phased out" during the next decade
_____it will be "phased out" but not in the foreseeable future
_____its future is assured

5. In light of your institution's role, scope, and possible future in education, you will:

_____seek employment immediately in another institution of higher education
_____seek employment in a public school
_____go into another type of employment
_____definitely remain in this or a similar school

6. Your reason for wanting to remain at this type of school is that:

_____your greatest opportunity is here
_____you are needed most in this type of school
_____this institution will always have a place in education
_____you would not be happy in any other kind of work situation

VI. Attracting Personnel

A. What are two or three measures you would recommend that your university take:

(a) to attract qualified music teachers?

1.

2.

3.

(b) to retain present staff?

1.

2.

3.

B. Any additional comments you may wish to make will be welcomed. Attach extra sheet if necessary.

Return to: Aaron Van Wright, Jr.
221 West 3rd Street
D-35
Norman, Oklahoma

by: February 25, 1965

APPENDIX D

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO CHAIRMEN

221 West 3rd Street
D-35
Norman, Oklahoma

_____, Chairman
_____
_____

Dear _____:

Perhaps my letter of January 16 relative to a study of job selection factors and requesting names of members of your staff initially employed since June, 1964, arrived just at the time when you were busiest. Therefore I am enclosing copies of covering letter, the questionnaire, and an envelope for each member of your staff. Would you please be kind enough to distribute them for me.

As you remember, my investigation concerns factors relative to the selection and retention of music faculty in land-grant colleges. The major purposes of this study are to ascertain (a) the teachers' reasons for choosing to work in these colleges; (b) the opinions of these teachers in regard to continued employment; and, (c) the ideas they have for attracting qualified personnel.

You will remember, too, that no school, chairman, or staff member will be identified individually in the study. And, if you are interested in a summary of the findings when the study is completed, I will be happy to comply with your request.

Sincerely,

Aaron Van Wright, Jr.

APPENDIX E

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO STAFF MEMBERS

221 West 3rd Street
D-35
Norman, Oklahoma

_____
_____
_____

Dear _____:

Perhaps the first questionnaire that I sent arrived just at the time when you were busiest. Therefore, I am sending you another which I hope will arrive at a time when you can find a few spare moments to fill out and return it to me. It takes just about fifteen minutes, and I shall certainly appreciate the effort.

As you remember, my investigation concerns factors relative to the selection and retention of music faculty in land-grant colleges. The major purposes of this study are to ascertain (a) your reasons for choosing to work in a land-grant college; (b) your opinions in regard to continued employment; and, (c) your ideas for attracting and holding qualified personnel.

You will remember, too, that you nor your school will be identified individually in the study. And, if you would like a summary of the findings when the study is completed, I will be happy to comply with your request.

Sincerely,

Aaron Van Wright, Jr.

EXHIBIT I

LIST OF THE SEVENTEEN ORIGINAL NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES, LOCATIONS, AND DATES OF FOUNDING

SEVENTEEN ORIGINAL NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

Alabama A and M College	Norman, Ala.	1875
Alcorn A and M College	Lorman, Mississippi	1871
Arkansas A and M College	Pine Bluff, Ark.	1873
Delaware State College	Dover, Delaware	1891
Fla. A & M University	Tallahassee, Florida	1887
Fort Valley State College	Fort Valley, Georgia	1895
Kentucky State College	Frankfort, Kentucky	1886
Langston University	Langston, Oklahoma	1897
Lincoln University	Jefferson City, Missouri	1886
Maryland State College	Princess Anne, Maryland	1886
N. C. A & T College	Greensboro, N. C.	1891
Prairie View A & M	Prairie View, Texas	1876
S. C. State College	Orangeburg, S. C.	1896
Southern University	Baton Rouge, Louisiana	1880
Tenn. A & I University	Nashville, Tennessee	1912
Virginia State College	Petersburg, Virginia	1882
W. Va. State College	Institute, W. Va.	1891