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An Analysis of Gender, Authority and Educational Background of Voice Teachers in Undergraduate Degree-Granting Institutions

Shawn I. Puller



FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF MUSIC

AN ANALYSIS OF GENDER, AUTHORITY AND EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND
OF VOICE TEACHERS IN UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE-GRANTING INSTITUTIONS

By

SHAWN I. PULLER

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The members of the Committee approve the Dissertation of Shawn I. Puller defended on March 3, 2009.

Kim Van Weelden
Professor Directing
Dissertation

Richard Morris
Outside Committee Member

Clifford Madsen
Committee Member

John Geringer
Committee Member

Approved:

Clifford Madsen, Chair, Music Education

Don Gibson, Dean, College of Music

The Graduate School has verified and approved the above named committee members.

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ABSTRACT

Music education is a predominantly female occupation; however while women dominate the ranks of elementary and choral education they lose representation as grade level increases. In addition sex-role segregation within the field is also evidenced by the domination of males in the areas of instrumental and jazz music education. As with other areas of post-secondary education, females have made gains and now occupy 43% of music faculty positions, however it may be that the males and females have gender specific sex-roles. Due to the specific, gendered nature of voice parts, it may be that applied voice teacher training programs would have an equal distribution of females (sopranos, mezzo-sopranos, contraltos) and males (counter-tenors, tenors, baritone, basses). The distribution of the sexes within the career field may affect hiring practices, promotions, and access to administrative positions thereby mitigating sex inequalities and sex-role biases which exist in other areas of post-secondary education. This study was an initial step investigating biological sex and authority as they relate to applied voice teachers in four-year institutions in the United States.

Voice-teaching was found to be a predominantly female occupation with men and women holding a near equal number of full-time professor status positions. Upon closer examination, sex-role stratification within the field may be evidenced. For example, the proportion of males increased as faculty rank increased while the proportion of females decreased as faculty rank increased. There also seemed to be sex-role stratification with regard to specific teaching responsibilities held by males and females. The reasons for these differences are explored.

PREFACE

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was originally conceived as anti-segregation and anti-discrimination legislation. Prior to its passing, the bill met with staunch resistance. During a congressional filibuster Richard Russell, a Democrat from Georgia insisted that “[w]e will resist to the bitter end any measure or any movement which would have a tendency to bring about social equality and intermingling and amalgamation of the races in our [Southern] states” (<http://www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/JFKrussell.htm>, retrieved July 7, 2008). One of the bill’s greatest detractors, Howard W. Smith, a Democrat from Virginia, amended the proposed legislation to include protection for women. Smith declared after the bill had passed that he was a strong proponent for women’s rights, but it was thought that the inclusion of Title VII, the amendment that would have included this was perhaps a political maneuver to defeat the bill (Freeman, 1991). Despite these tactics, the legislation passed; yet the United States continues to struggle with inequalities in the workplace more than four decades later.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Gender in the Workplace

In Howard Zinn's book, *A People's History of the United States: 1492 – Present* he observed that “after 1920, women were voting, as men did, [yet] their subordinate condition had hardly changed” (p. 503). Tracing the women's suffrage movement he concludes that continued pressure from, and organization of women brought about a gradual change in workplace policies. Immediately after the passing of the Civil Rights Act, lawmakers were faced with trying to enforce laws for which there was tenuous support. The National Organization for Women (NOW) was formed in 1966 as a civil rights movement combating gender discrimination. As part of their 1966 statement of purpose Betty Friedan declared:

We organize to initiate or support action, nationally, or in any part of this nation by individuals or organizations, to break through the silken curtain of prejudice and discrimination against women in government, industry, the professions, the churches, the political parties, the judiciary, the labour unions, in education, science, medicine, law, religion and every other field of importance in American society... We believe that the power of American law, and the protection guaranteed by the U.S. Constitution to the civil rights of all individuals, must be effectively applied and enforced to isolate and remove patterns of sex discrimination, to ensure equality of opportunity in employment and education, and equality of civil and political rights and responsibilities on behalf of women...

(<http://www.now.org/history/purpos66.html>, retrieved July 22, 2008).

In response to increasing pressure, Congress amended the Civil Rights Act in 1972. Title IX of that legislation theoretically erased gender inequalities in the workplace by ensuring equality in education and training for career paths, including those traditionally thought to be either male or female occupations (Kelly, 2005). Throughout the 1970s women's representation in traditional male occupations increased, leading many to

conclude that, on the surface, sex segregation in the work force was on the decline (DiNatale & Boras, 2002; Gatta & Roos, 2005; Jacobs, 1989; Marini, 1990; Reskin, 1993; Reskin & Bielby, 2005). For example, Jacobs (1989) followed long-term trends in occupational segregation and showed a steady decline in segregation from 1900 to 1986. Similar occupational segregation trends were also found by DiNatale and Boraas' (2002) examination of women in the workforce between the years 1975-2000. Upon closer examination research has indicated that embedded sex-role stereotypes have led to sex stratification in the work force hidden from previous investigations (Acker, J. 1973, 1990, 1992a, 1992b; Budig, 2002; Gatta & Roos, 2005; Jacobs, 1989; Reskin, 1993; Reskin & Bielby, 2005; Reskin, McBrier, & Kmec, 1999; Standing, 1999). Although employers reported greater numbers of women in the workforce, sex stratification and sex segregation were still occurring, remaining unseen within the inner hierarchies of companies.

There is a large body of research detailing the history, postulated causes, and social replication of sex segregation (Acker, J. 1973, 1990, 1992a, 1992b; Budig, 2002; Gatta & Roos, 2005; Reskin, 1991, 1993, 2000; Reskin & Bielby, 2005; Reskin & McBrier, 2000; Reskin, McBrier, & Kmec, 1999; Roska, 2005). For example, Acker, J. (1992a) argued that organizations are segregated along gender lines at their most fundamental and historical levels. The researcher theorizes:

Gender is present in the processes, practices, images and ideologies, and distributions of power in the various sectors of social life...The law, politics, religion, the academy, the state, and the economy...are institutions historically developed by men, currently dominated by men, and symbolically interpreted from the standpoint of men in leading positions, both in the present and historically. These institutions have been defined by the absence of women (p. 567).

In examining the phenomenon of women and men in occupations traditionally held by the opposite sex Budig (2002) found that while women face a "glass ceiling" in organizations, men do not face similar barriers. She suggested that men have open access to

higher levels of power and authority as they ride a “glass escalator” to success. Gatta and Roos (2005) examined data from the U. S. Census Bureau from 1970 to 1990 about occupations that had equal or near equal representation of men and women. They discovered that even in integrated occupations sex-role segregation continued to exist in the form of lower incomes and lack of access to higher job ranks and positions of authority. The barriers that exist for women are formed, in part, by the individuals who make up the body of the institution (Reskin, 2000). “Who gets the job is the product of the actions of individuals (who are motivated partly by the sex and race group to which they belong) and the organizational practices that to varying degrees constrain and are circumvented by individuals” (p. 709).

Research shows that both biological and social differences contribute to sex segregation and sex stratification (Maccoby, 1988), however the measurable differences between the sexes are commonly perceived to be greater than what is commonly believed (Block, 1976; Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Maccoby, 1990; Marini, 1990; Ridgeway, 2001; Standing, 1999). A study conducted by Reskin and Bielby (2005) summarized that exaggerating sex differences is used to justify sex segregation in the workplace. Similar views were expressed by Marini (1990) in a review of literature on the subject: “There is no consistent evidence, for example, that the sexes differ in cognitive style, creativity, independence, susceptibility to influence, general self-esteem, emotionality, empathy, nurturance, sociability, or loquaciousness” (p. 98).

Albrecht (1976) found that educational level was significantly related to sex-role attitudes for occupations. The higher an individual’s education level the more likely they were to report that a given occupation was suitable for both men and women. Those with lower educational attainment viewed occupations along stronger sex-segregated lines. He concluded that although legal changes had removed traditional barriers, other factors, both psychological and social, maintain traditional sex-role associations, especially among those having less formal education.

Researchers have consistently discovered that as the number of women in the labor force increased, a greater percentage of females were found to hold positions in occupations with lower prestige and with a higher degree of sex segregation (Acker, J., 1992b; Carli & Eagly, 2001; Jacobs, 1992; McGuire & Reskin, 1993; Pratto & Espinoza, 2001; Rosen & Jerdee 1974a, 1974b; Standing, 1999; Yoder, 2001; Yoder, Crumpton, & Zipp, 2008; Xu & Leffler, 1992). Positions traditionally held by males are often referred to as “good” jobs while the increased numbers of women in the workforce and the changes in workforce trends have been labeled the “feminization of labor” (Standing, 1989, p. 583). Women have made gains in areas once exclusively dominated by men, however “the majority of women are still in the large, low-wage ‘women’s job’ categories where benefits are relatively low and promotion unlikely” (Acker, J. 1992b, p. 57). More recently, Roksa (2005) found that graduates of female-dominated fields such as education, health services, and social services earn substantially lower incomes than graduates of male-dominated fields such as engineering, which may account for the disproportionate number of females employed in the lower-paying public and non-profit work sectors.

Researchers have found evidence of sex segregation and sex stratification in the workforce evidenced salary differences between men and women; men have historically earned significantly more money than women in the workplace (Allen & Chung, 2000; Almquist, 1979; Budig, 2002; Cable & Mix, 2003; Hill, 2000; Keith & Herring, 1991; Marini, 1989; McGuire & Reskin, 1993; Siegelman, Milward, & Shepard, 1982; Telles & Murguia, 1990; Wu & Leffler). In 1968, the median income for women was estimated as 63.3% of men’s median income (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1969). The U.S. Census Bureau’s American Community Survey Reports (ACS) found in 2007 the median earnings of men were \$44,255, while median earnings for women were \$34,278, or 77.5 percent of men’s earnings (Alemayehu & Semega, 2008). They also noted that in all 50 states, women’s median earnings were less than men’s median earnings. Xu and Leffler (1992) found a complex interaction between social variables, but results indicated an individual’s sex was the largest factor negatively affecting earnings.

Biernat and Fuegen (2001) summarized that to be male is to be viewed as competent and an agent of change and work; this perception is due solely to ingrained gender stereotypes. However, their findings suggest that gender stereotyping and predicting individual raters' behavior are much more complex. Despite the general acceptance of women as participatory members of the workforce, gender stereotyping and attitudes towards them as subordinates continue to be perpetuated by society (Acker, J., 1992b).

Power and Authority

Hillman, in his book *Kinds of Power* (1995) explored power as a psychological construct. He stated:

In brief, *subordination* [author's emphasis] of any sort arouses the power complex. The definition implies that to assert self over other, whatever that other may be, puts the other down...The means to rise above may take many paths. Subordination may use force, strength of will, persuasion by mood, logic of argument, conversion by faith, conviction by reason, terror, manipulation, entanglement or deception. Whatever the method, the power complex subordinates to get and stay on top (p. 95).

Acker, J. (1973) insisted on the inclusion of gender as a necessary variable in sociological research of the workplace, or otherwise speculation into gender inequalities in workplace authority would remain little more than an intellectual exercise. Indeed, researchers have followed trends of women's authority in the workplace since just after the passing of civil rights legislation (Cann, Siegfried, & Pearce, 1981; Cash, Gillen, & Burns, 1977; Cohen & Bunker, 1975; Dipboye, Fromkin, & Wiback, 1975; Haefner, 1977; 1979; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973, 1974a, 1974b, 1978). Repeatedly these studies have documented that equally qualified females are consistently rated lower than their male counterparts when being considered for employment or for managerial positions.

Lyness and Heilman (2006) found women in non-managerial line positions traditionally associated with males were often overlooked for promotions due to a perceived

lack of fitness for managerial positions. Women who were promoted outperformed men who had received similar promotions, suggesting a need for females to over-compensate to achieve parity in the workplace. McGuire and Reskin (2003) found that education improved both men's and women's chances of obtaining job authority, but advantaged men to a significantly higher degree than women in proportion to each year of school completed. They found a similar effect for job tenure. While men and women benefitted from longer tenure within a company, males received greater rewards at a significantly higher rate than women. Reskin and Ross (1992) examined managers throughout the state of Illinois. Overall, they found that women's access to positions of authority had improved, however upon closer examination:

Women managers were concentrated near the bottom of chains of command; they tended to supervise workers of their own sex, consistent with conventions that women should not supervise men; they were substantially less likely than men to exercise decision-making authority; and their involvement in decision-making was largely confined to offering input into decisions that men made (p. 359).

Heilman (2001) argued the causes of women's under-representation at the highest levels of authority stem primarily from bias in performance evaluations. She summarized that women are penalized due both to descriptive stereotypes, that is, what women are like as a group, compared to what is called for in the job description, and to prescriptive stereotypes, that is, women who display competency in "male" occupations rather than acting as women as a group "should" act. In a review of literature on the subject, Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) concluded:

For women, the path to power contains many impediments and barriers and can best be characterized as an obstacle course. In contrast, the path to power for men contains few obstacles that derive from their gender and may actually contain sources of support unavailable to their female counterparts (p. 81).

Researchers have explored differences in the managerial styles of men and women as one reason for the discrepancy in equal representation of females in managerial positions (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Rosen & Jerdee, 1978; Ridgeway, 2001; Rudman & Glick, 2001). The dual-edged impact of sex-role stereotyping for both males and females with regard to managerial promotion was investigated in a line of research by Rosen, and Jerdee (1974a; 1974b). They found support for the hypothesis that equally qualified females were discriminated against solely on the basis of their sex. Conversely, men were discriminated against in decisions involving personal and family matters. In a later study, Rosen & Jerdee (1978) examined male managers' perception of sex differences with regard to suitability for promotions to managerial positions. Overall results showed male managers and supervisors uniformly perceived females as being less able than males in vocationally relevant functions. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) examined differences in women's and men's supervisory styles. They found that women tended to use more contingent rewards, individualized consideration, and inspired motivation, optimism and transformation of their subordinates. Men tended to focus more on workers' problems and mistakes, used a hands-off approach to problem-solving and were often absent or uninvested during crucial moments. Rudman and Glick (2001) examined the difficulties that assertive women have in the workplace. Although assertive female managerial candidates were viewed as competent, they were penalized for being perceived as not being nice whereas male applicants did not suffer the same perception of niceness penalty. They concluded:

Failing to 'soften' female agency—to explicitly counteract it by projecting an image that is both nice and able—results in backlash. Whether intentionally, or unintentionally, individuals who believe women should be nicer than men undermine women's ability to achieve economic parity (p. 759).

One factor explaining the continued barriers women face in the workplace is that sex-role stereotypes are embedded in the culture (Schein, 2001). Careers have specific male, female, or neutral associations. For instance females are consistently rated lower in

managerial positions that are perceived as demanding (Rosen & Jerdee, 1974). Researchers have also found that regardless of the traditional association with the position, men hold an advantage in access to higher wages and promotion, so that even with improvements in closing the wage gap, the culturally embedded attitudes towards women in the workplace have resulted in their lack of proportionate representation in positions of power and authority (Gatta & Roos, 2005; Jacobs, 1989; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Reskin & Ross, 1992). In a study investigating barriers to women's access to authority Ridgeway (2001) suggested:

“[the] unacknowledged network of constraining expectations and interpersonal reactions is the principal cause of the ‘glass ceiling.’ The cumulative effect of its multiple, often small effects, repeated over many contexts throughout a career, is to substantially reduce the number of women who successfully attain positions of high authority in the work world, especially in occupations and contexts not culturally linked with women” (p. 652).

In an analysis of women in the workplace, Jacobs (1992) found a genuine, steady increase in women's representation in managerial positions. Stewart and Gudykunst (1982) found that females received a higher number of promotions within financial institutions, yet males still dominated at the highest tiers of power.

Smith (2002) surveyed the existing theories and literature surrounding gender, among other factors, and authority in the workplace and concluded that the best explanation for the social reproduction of gender inequalities in workplace authority was the demographic make-up of the workplace itself. His analysis suggested there was a tendency for those in positions of authority to reproduce themselves through processes that were inclusionary of individuals who were demographically similar to themselves, and exclusionary of individuals who were demographically different. Reskin and McBrier (2000) examined the hiring practices within organizations and concluded that although changes had been made with regard to organizational policy, the inertia of the status quo favoring the hiring of male managers results in sex-based ascription unless conscious and

systematic fair hiring practices are purposefully employed. Reskin & Bielby (2005) cautioned, “Hiring workers regardless of their sex, but using their gender in making job assignments, maintains job segregation within firms, while lowering across-firm segregation” (p. 82). This filtering system places women in sex-role appropriate positions with limited opportunities for promotion.

Examining women’s access to positions of authority Roska (2005) noted the commitment of the federal government to Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) programs to aid women in accessing positions of power and authority. She concluded that due to the transparency inherent in public and non-profit work sectors they tend to embrace EEO hiring practices more quickly. Although overall incomes are lower in these work sectors, the disadvantages of sex with regard to access to positions of power and authority are greatly reduced, if not eliminated. Huffman and Cohen (2004) noted that occupations that drew upon a national labor pool resulted in a decrease in likelihood of a female holding a position of authority. Even more surprisingly they discovered that the sex of the individual was the single most influential factor in limiting access to workplace authority among many variables. Their findings indicate that:

Even among women and men employed in the same industry who work comparable hours and have comparable levels of education, tenure with one’s employer, and similar family obligations, women are markedly less likely to have authority at work. Among men and women who are comparable on those variables, women’s odds of possessing authority are only 56% as large as men’s odds (p. 137).

Another popular explanation for under-representation of women in managerial positions is the “pipeline” theory. This theory states that women with the appropriate skill-set, education and background drop out of the workplace job track to get married and raise children (Wolfinger, Mason, & Goulden, 2008). Other researchers disagree (Carli, 2001; Carli and Eagly, 2001) and point to the dramatic increases in women’s access to managerial positions as evidence that women are remaining in the workforce and are being

compensated similarly to their male counterparts. Hoffnung (2004) investigated women's expectations for career, marriage, and motherhood during their senior year of college and then evaluated them again seven years later. Results indicated that during their senior year of college women overwhelmingly wanted it all. In the follow-up, she found that career was still the major focus for women, even for those that were married. Women with children were found to have earned fewer graduate degrees and held lower occupational status. Although more women stay in the workplace "pipeline" longer, Hom, Roberson, and Ellis (2008) found that women employed in corporate America tend to quit early in the process thus removing themselves from future promotional opportunities. Bartol (1980) suggested the lower quality of the overall work environment for women as they attempt to fit in with their male counterparts, while at the same time attempting to maintain friendships with other women, was an important factor explaining the attrition of females in the workplace.

Purpose of Study

It has been established that sex segregation has been reduced in the years since the passing of Civil Rights legislation in the late 1960's and 1970's. According to the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2003) nearly half of the workforce is female, and there has been a steady increase in the number of females holding management positions, rising from 18% in 1972 to about 46% in 2002. Even so, sex discrimination has moved from the macro to the micro within organizations: sex stratification occurs within institutions, with specific job responsibilities taking on male or female associations, which explain why, within many female-dominated career fields, males still tend to hold the majority of positions of authority. Social scientists have called for further research in specific career fields to examine if sex segregation and stratification are occurring within specific areas of organizations and careers. In response, this study sought to investigate these issues among college and university voice teachers.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Gender and Authority in the Teaching Profession

Summarizing the history of the teaching profession as it relates to gender, Griffins (1997) concluded, “teaching is a gendered experience, and as such, is oppressive to female teachers” (p.13). On one hand female teachers have been championed as being the protectors of morality, instilling in children the proper values in an ever-growing nation (Spring, 2006). On the other hand, they have often been exploited; prohibited from marrying, paid less than males, and having had little say in educational policies or curriculum (Acker, S., 1995b; Spring, 2006). Many of these observations remain valid today. Budig (2002) noted that jobs associated with males pay more than jobs associated with females and men out earn women holding similar positions, even in careers fields traditionally viewed as female occupations such as teaching.

Researchers have examined the role that schools and teacher training programs play in reproducing the social-class structure of society by examining the fabric of institutions and organizations (Acker, J., 1990; Acker, S., 1987, 1995b).

To say that an organization, or any other analytic unit, is gendered means that advantage and disadvantage, exploitation and control, action and emotion, meaning and identity, are patterned through and in terms of a distinction between male and female, masculine and feminine. Gender is not an addition to ongoing processes, conceived as gender neutral. Rather it is an integral part of these processes, which cannot be properly understood without the analysis of gender (Acker, J., 1990; p. 146).

Schools also exhibit an organization permeated by gender effects (Acker, S. 1995b). The very institutions that train teachers perpetuate gender inequalities in the teaching profession (Acker, S., 1988). S. Acker (1995b) compiled a series of interviews conducted over a period of several years in England that included several major issues involving

gender and teaching. She found both male and female teachers perceive that male teachers had a career advantage; yet the general response of the women to this perceived state was one of acquiescence and resignation.

The institutionalization of gender inequality results in entrenched social constructs that are resistant to change. S. Acker (1988) speculated as to why legislation and policies promoting greater equality of the sexes have failed to bring about real change in schools and suggested four areas in which gender resistance is played out: the characteristics and implementation of gender equality initiatives; the characteristics and backgrounds of teachers; the beliefs teachers hold; and the conditions in which teachers work, both in the classroom and among colleagues. Albrecht (1976) found a strong negative correlation between education level and sex-stereotyping attitudes, that is, the more education an individual had, the less likely they were to limit career choices for other people based strictly on stereotypical sex-roles. In related studies Kane (1995); Kane and Kyyrö (2001); and Kane and Schippers (1996) examined ways in which education influenced beliefs about social inequalities. Overall these researchers found that education did not improve recognition of discrimination, but more education was associated with rejection of beliefs about group segregation and victim-blaming explanations for inequality. Poole and Isaacs (1993) found that despite an awareness of gender and racial problems and inequalities in teacher training by the institutions granting teaching degrees, the administration and faculty at these institutions exhibited reluctance to address these concerns. They further found that male teaching-staff members held resentment toward affirmative-action hiring policies. A case study conducted by Addison and Al-Khalifa (1988) of a secondary school with no overt reputation of sexual harassment found that males in authority had difficulty identifying harassing behaviors, whereas women gave concise definitions with specific examples of behaviors that made them uncomfortable. Their research suggests that the existing hegemony is able to reproduce itself through a combination of insensitivity and inertia.

The 2006 American Community Survey, from the U.S. Census Bureau (<http://www.census.gov/>, accessed July 30, 2008) showed that females comprised 73.6% of persons in the fields of education, training, and library occupations while males accounted for 26.4%; yet the median earnings for males were 35% higher than the median earnings for females (\$42,487 and \$31,338, respectively). Similarly, the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported that teaching remains a female-dominated profession (2007). In 2003-2004, 75% of all public and private elementary- and secondary-school teachers were female; however in the same year, the number of females accounted for less than half (48%) of all administrators (NCES, Digest for Education Statistics, 2007). Moreover, the NCES reports that the percentage of females to males decreased as grade level increased; females comprised 79% of the total number of elementary and middle school teachers, 59% of the secondary school teachers, and 46% of the post-secondary level teachers. Although teaching has traditionally been a female career, it seems that within the profession some job responsibilities are specific to the sexes. For example, in addition to elementary education, there is a predominance of females teaching pre-school and kindergarten (98%) as well as special education classes (87%).

Researchers have documented warnings against the feminization of the profession and the negative impact this may have on the social development of boys (Acker, S. 1995a; Oram, 1989; Sugawara, O'Neill & Edelbrock, 1976) or on the perceptions of the profession (DeCorse & Vogtle, 1997). Conversely, other studies have suggested female-dominated school environments and female leadership lead to working and learning environments with greater cooperation and caretaking (Adkinson, 1981).

Historically, caring is a highly valued trait for educators, especially those teaching the lower grade levels, and is generally viewed as an innate, positive, female attribute (DeCorse & Vogtle, 1997; Noddings, 2001; Spring, 2006). Those calling for school reform argue that a school's first and most important responsibility is to foster caring and loving behaviors (Noddings, 1988, 2001). However, other research (DeCorse & Vogtle, 1997; Noddings, 1988) throws doubt on whether caring behavior is the sole domain of female

teachers. Both S. Acker (1995a) and Noddings (1988, 1990, 2001) view such essential quality arguments—that women are disposed toward caring behavior due to their gender—with skepticism. Dispelling idealistic notions of the classroom mother surrogate Acker summarized, “Although a gender analysis is extremely important in understanding teachers’ work, this does not mean that teachers’ caring activities or workplace cultures are simply derived from any essential qualities of women” (p. 21).

Although teaching is a female-dominated profession, males still outnumber females in school administrative positions. According to the NCES 2007 report, 75% of teachers and 48% of administrators were female. In a review of the literature on the subject spanning the years 1974 – 1980, Adkinson (1981) noted the dominant explanations for women’s underrepresentation in administrative positions focused primarily on sex-role stereotyping and socialization. Similar ideas were echoed by S. Acker (1995) who suggested the rigidity of sex-roles within organizations result in limited upward mobility for women in a chosen career field. Other research has suggested that women are limited by the structural essence of the institution which favors the existing male-dominated power structure (Acker, J., 1990, 1992a; Acker, S., 1995b; Griffin, 1997).

Conflict theorists view differences between men and women in leadership positions as resulting from competition for limited resources (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). In this framework the dominant male group loses when females gain. In these situations males maintain superiority by demeaning and punishing women who refuse to follow the acceptable social script. An example of how this occurs is documented by Oritz and Covell (1978) and Addison and Al-Khalifa (1988) who observed that women were frequently the subjects of jokes and banter about their competence, anatomy and mannerisms. Male administrators were often confused about, or unable to identify behaviors which would be considered harassing or inappropriate. Women on the other hand felt a constant reminder of their inferior position through the countless subtle, and not so subtle, joking reminders (Addison & Al-Khalifa, 1988).

Post-Secondary Education

Exploring the history of women in higher education, co-education and women's colleges, Watson summarized: "The emergence of women as professors in colleges necessitated opening graduate education to women...In the years 1898-99, 1,021 women represented 26.8 percent of graduate students" (p. 143). The NCES collects demographic information on both teachers and students in all areas of education including post-secondary education. An examination of these data provides insight into current demographic trends in both teacher and student populations. The number of women enrolled in bachelor's and master's degree programs has exceeded the number of males for over 30 years, yet males have consistently out-numbered females in doctoral degrees conferred in every year including 2005, the most recent year with compiled data available (NCES, 2007). The number of females earning doctoral degrees has increased from 14% in 1971 to 49% of the total in 2005 (NCES, 2007). Perna (2004) noted that women were overrepresented in college majors associated with the lowest quartile of starting salaries, such as education. These women were also more likely to pursue a master's degree whereas men who earned degrees in the lowest quartile of starting salaries were no more or less likely to enroll in master's degree programs than men in college majors in the top two quartiles. Although more women are receiving doctoral degrees than ever before, they continue to choose careers along traditional sex-role associations (England et al., 2007). England et al. (2007) found that once a doctoral degree became "feminized" meaning approximately 25% of the degrees being awarded to women, it acted as a deterrent for men seeking a doctorate in the same field.

The path taken from undergraduate through doctoral degrees is often different for women from that taken by men. Marini (1978) examined societal factors that would lead to sex differences in educational attainment and age at marriage for individuals graduating from an Illinois high school. Results indicated that both males and females considered educational attainment the most important variable marking the transition into adulthood, which in turn influenced other life events such as marriage, beginning a family, and

launching a career. However, she noted that due to societal factors, women traditionally obtained financial security and social status through marriage. Therefore women tended to marry earlier than men and postponed, often indefinitely, their entrance into college degree programs. In a qualitative study examining the role that gender played in 20 doctoral students' academic experiences, Kurtz-Costes, Helmke, and Ülkü-Steiner found that both men and women experienced less stress and greater follow-through when faculty mentors were supportive of balancing personal and career goals. The implications are that for individuals attempting to balance career, academia, and family to successfully complete a doctoral degree, the traditional male attitudes of status, productivity, competition, and self-promotion need to be balanced with the more feminine care-taking and cooperative attitudes often absent in academia. Boyd (2001) reported that female faculty members in sociology remarked that students often expected caretaking and nurturing behaviors from women faculty members, but did not expect this from male faculty members.

Institutions are resistant to change (Acker, J., 1988; Poole & Isaacs, 1993). Campbell and Sanders (1997) found an ambivalent attitude toward teaching gender equity. Their study revealed that, although 91% of math, science, and technology professors in teacher-training institutions expressed interest in gender equity, 71% indicated they felt that time constraints prohibited covering the issue in class, while 57% of respondents indicated they felt unprepared to discuss the issue, and 40% considered gender equity a marginal topic. Bressler and Wendell (1980) found more encouraging results. Their findings suggested college experiences and education led to both men and women challenging conventional occupational sex-roles.

Researchers have speculated that female students may face a chilly class-room climate in their undergraduate studies. However, a survey by Drew and Work (1998) investigating classroom climate for female undergraduate students indicated that, although women were omitted from close, informal relationships with faculty members, especially on research projects, the data showed little evidence of a chilly classroom climate for female students. Allan and Madden (2006) utilized a comprehensive qualitative and quantitative

approach in an attempt to ascertain the differences in classroom climates for male and female undergraduate students. In part, their results point to the difficulty in observing and measuring differential treatment of males and females as there is often little agreement among observers as to what the true interactions are between professors and students.

Jacobs (1996) examined gender inequalities in higher education on an international scale. He noted that overall females' access to higher education has increased steadily over the years, but the quality of their education is lower than males and the outcomes of their education upon graduation are quite different from males. This outcome is often cited as proof that single-sex educational institutes are necessary to provide unbiased opportunities for male and female students seeking degrees and careers in professions traditionally held by the opposite sex. Bressler and Wendell (1980) attempted to ascertain the veracity of such arguments. They found, "Gender explains by far the greatest proportion of the variances in the overall preferences for masculine or feminine careers" (p. 661). Their findings also suggest that students who attend single-sex institutions are more likely to explore career options outside the traditional sex-role stereotypes. They concluded, "More immediately, our evidence suggests that sexual parity in the occupational domain might be better served if larger numbers of young women were to enroll in single-sex colleges" (p. 662).

In a line of research Jacobs (1986, 1995, 1996, and 1999) examined trends of sex-segregation and sex-integration by academic specialties. He found a steady 20-year increase of sex-integration occurred from 1960-1980 (1986), however a follow-up study (1995) revealed a slow-down in integration throughout the 80's. In conclusion Jacobs stated:

A final point to be made is that few men have entered female-dominated fields and thus that most of the movement toward the greater integration of majors has been due to a greater number of women entering previously male-dominated fields. Therefore, the factors that inhibit men's interest in female-dominated fields, such as teaching...need further attention (p. 96).

In a later study (1996), Jacobs found that women's access to higher education had increased over time, both within the United States and internationally, however by 1990,

women were still choosing specific academic tracks leading to lower-tier incomes and fewer opportunities for promotion. Although women's access to higher education has increased over time, and the number of women involved in doctoral programs has approached parity with men, Jacobs (1999) confirmed earlier research (Persell, Catsambis, & Cookson, 1992) "indicating women do indeed graduate from colleges and universities with lower school standings than do their male counterparts" (p. 179).

In another international study, Bradley (2000) used data obtained from the UNESCO Statistical Yearbook from 51 countries for the years 1960 through 1990 to analyze academic specialties by sex. Although she noted that women had greater access to higher education over time, results indicated little change in the proportion of female graduates across a range of academic fields: "Women are more likely to graduate from education, arts, humanities, social sciences, and law, and men are more likely to graduate from natural sciences, mathematics, and engineering" (p. 1). Moreover, although cultural differences exist, the proportion of women in these fields was relatively stable across national and cultural boundaries. Similar results were obtained by Charles and Bradley (2002) in a study of sex-segregation and sex-integration by academic field for 12 countries.

Gender Trends in Post-Secondary Faculty

Although gains have been made by women in graduate and terminal degree programs, they have yet to materialize in representational post-secondary faculty employment. According to the NCES Digest of Educational Statistics for 2007, the number of female faculty members has steadily increased since 1987. In that year women accounted for 33% of all faculty members while men accounted for 67%. In 1995 the number of female faculty members had increased to 40% and in 2005, females accounted for 45 % of all faculty members, while males continued to hold the majority of faculty positions (NCES, 2007). However upon closer examination this apparent parity in employment is misleading. The NCES data indicate that in 2005 males still held the majority of full-time faculty positions at 59% compared to 41 % for females. When faculty rank is considered, females

accounted for 36% of full-time faculty holding the rank of Professor, Associate Professor, or Assistant Professor whereas males accounted for 64% of full-time faculty holding professor ranked positions. Females are underrepresented at the top tiers of faculty employment. In 2005 women accounted for only 25% of all Professors, 39% of all Associate Professors, and 46% all Assistant Professors. An equal percentage of males and females were listed as holding full-time employment with the rank of instructor, lecturer, or an unspecified full-time position. In addition, males held 51% of all part-time faculty positions while females held 49%. While the actual number of males was slightly greater than the number of females employed part-time, a larger percentage of all female faculty members (52%) compared to male faculty members (44%) accounted for these positions. Although the number of females employed in post-secondary institutes has increased over time, the NCES data indicates that inequalities exist within academe.

The very institutions that train teachers perpetuate gender inequalities in the teaching profession (Acker, S. 1988). In an examination of retrenchment and restructuring within universities in response to education policy changes in the 1980s, Slaughter (1993) noted a pattern with regard to discontinued programs. She concluded:

The fields that were cut became “have-not” fields within the university. They were generally fields marked by low faculty pay, high student loads, at least after 1984, and high use of part-time or off-track labor. These fields had a relatively high presence of women faculty, although the women were frequently at junior levels or in off-track or part-time positions. The clientele of these fields had an unusually high proportion of women students. The faculty in these areas, whether on or off-track, whether male or female, seem to become the second tier of a two-tier labor force within the university” (p. 276).

Several studies have been conducted investigating hiring practices within university sociology departments. Roos (1997) noted an increase in women graduating from doctoral programs in sociology beginning in the 70s, thus increasing the number of females in the

potential faculty employment pool. However these gains had not been manifested in proportionate representation of women in sociology departments as might be expected. Hargens and Long (2002) investigated what they termed demographic inertia among post-secondary faculty hiring practices in sociology. They hypothesize that the demographic makeup of existing sociology faculty members reproduces itself through hiring discrimination, thus limiting women's access to post-secondary faculty positions, even though representation of women graduating with doctorates in the career field continued to increase. In a follow-up study, Marschke, Laursen, Nielsen, and Rankin (2007) examined the hiring practices in the sociology department of a single Research-Extensive University and developed several intervention programs to increase female representation in its faculty. They predicted, "Barring purposeful and radical intervention, complete gender integration among the tenure-track faculty...will not occur any time soon (p. 20). They continued: "Without intervention, the faculty population...will never be more than 34% female, and reaching that point will take some 40 years" (p. 20).

The traditional pipeline for post-secondary faculty favors males, and generally flows, uninterrupted, from undergraduate degree, to master's degree, to doctorate degree, to professorship. Women, on the other hand, are disadvantaged when they take detours to marry and begin families, which may help to explain their underrepresentation on college faculties (Acker, S. 1992; Jacobs, 2004; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004; Mason & Goulden, 2004; McElrath, 1992; Wolfinger, Mason, & Goulden, 2006, 2008). The traditional roles of child-rearing and homemaking may continue to hamper women's access to higher ranks in post-secondary teaching. Using statistics available from the NCES, Perna (2001) investigated the relationship between family responsibility and faculty employment status. She found that, even controlling for other variables, "women are more likely than men to hold full-time, non-tenure positions, positions of lower status in the academic labor market hierarchy" (p. 603). Her results indicated that marriage increased the likelihood of women holding lower-prestige, part-time non-tenure track positions, whereas no such relationship exists between marriage and employment status for men. In another examination of the subject Jacobs

(2004) concluded, “Thus faculty in poorly paid, part-time positions with no job security and often no benefits work what many consider to be nearly a full-time work week” (p. 15). The issues surrounding part-time employment for women are complex. These positions are often inconsistently defined and researchers have made little differentiation between good versus bad part-time employment or of workers’ satisfaction with these positions in the broader contexts of their lives (Kalleberg, 2000). A more recent study by Toutkoushian and Bellas (2003) concluded that satisfaction exists on a continuum between feelings of exploitation and powerlessness to satisfaction with regard to part-time employment. Their study also suggested that, unlike married men, married women were more satisfied with part-time employment as they attempted to balance a career with family responsibilities.

Recently researchers have begun investigating the effects of greater gender equity within academe on family life. In the presidential address given at the Eastern Sociological Society, Jacobs (2004) outlined differences in faculty workloads for males and females. Although he noted that full-time faculty members are generally overworked, averaging 54.8 hours for males and 52.8 hours for females, women often have the additional responsibility of caretaking and household management at home. Davis and Astin (1987) examined the high-pressure imperative that faculty members face to publish in order to obtain promotion and academic prestige. Jacobs and Winslow (2004) noted a direct positive correlation between the number of hours worked and overall faculty productivity. For women faculty members attempting to balance career and family, the pipeline may be an unobtainable myth (Wolfinger, Mason, & Goulden, 2004, 2006).

Unlike their male counterparts, women professors are often placed in a position of sacrificing career aspirations for family responsibilities (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004). For women to compete with men’s productivity in the academy, they often have to postpone having children. McElrath (1992) believes that interruptions in the ladder-rank career path result in a decrease in probability of obtaining tenure. However Jacobs noted that if a woman delays beginning a family until she reaches tenure, it may be too late to begin having children, let alone if she were to stay within the ranks to climb the promotion ladder.

Mason and Goulden (2004) found similar results, but added “ladder-rank faculty women are less likely to marry and have children and are more likely to divorce” (p. 100). In a longitudinal study conducted by Hoffnung (2004) found that upon obtaining an undergraduate degree, women, perhaps naively, wanted and expected to have it all: “career, marriage, and motherhood” (p. 719); however seven years after the initial interview participants had tempered their aspirations with a more realistic view. The social institutions of career and family present faculty women with an irresolvable dilemma and so, as S. Acker (1980) summarized:

Women are marginalized to the enterprise, because full tribute to institutions is only feasible for persons without competing claims from other greedy institutions; because token status results in invisibility, powerlessness and lack of opportunity; because dominant groups deny the contributions and distort the characteristics of subordinates (p. 88).

According to the NCES Digest of Educational Statistics for 2007, the number of females who hold executive or administrative/managerial positions in post-secondary institutions has steadily increased since 1987. In that year women accounted for 38% of all administrators whereas men accounted for 62%. In 2003 the number of female administrators had increased to 50% and in 2005, the number of female administrators had increased to 51%, surpassing the number of male administrators (NCES, 2007). Even so, difficulties faced by women in the workforce are also faced by women in administrative positions in post-secondary institutions, including lower salaries (Siegelman, Milward, & Shepard, 1982), difficulties in advancement (Johnsrud, 1991; Sagaria, 1988), and lower prestige (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994).

Elementary and Secondary Music Education

Trends among music educators are similar to the broader education career field in that females dominate the field of music education in elementary grades and males tend to dominate the field in secondary and post-secondary education settings. In 2001 the Music

Educators National Conference (MENC) reported that females accounted for 70% of the total number of elementary school music teachers and that the percentage of females decreased as grade level increased. MENC stated that the percentage of females teaching music at the middle school level was 54% and at the secondary school level was 41%. Striking is the near complete reversal of representation at the collegiate level. Nationally, only 35% of MENC members teaching at the college or university level were female.

Although the percentage of male and female music educators was nearly equal at middle and high school levels, teaching responsibilities were gender-specific (MENC, 2001). The MENC (2001) study summarized that:

In the general music, choral, private studio, and keyboard categories, women outnumber men roughly two to one; in band and administration, men predominate by a similar ratio. The number of men teaching jazz outstrips the number of women three to one, but more than four times the number of women teach in the special learners area (p. 52).

Reasons and attitudes for this have been largely uninvestigated. Noting this general trend, Gould (1992) concluded that through purposeful intervention music education could transcend sex-role segregation. "Moreover" she continued, "the quality of the profession improves when individuals select occupations based on talent and qualifications instead of on gender" (p. 11).

As it exists today however, it would seem that music education is experienced differently by males and females, both as a profession and as a curriculum. O'Toole (2000) argued, "[I]n our society there is a conspiracy produced by values of the dominant class to silence and erase a multitude of diverse experiences" (p. 38). Her criticism of the music education field is that investigations into the effects of gender are largely dismissed, suppressed, or viewed as irrelevant. Yet she points out that researchers in education and the social sciences consider these matters dire and of the utmost significance. In an investigation of gender within specific areas of music, Green (2002) concluded:

Schools help to reproduce girls' and women's, boys' and men's long-

standing historical musical practices...Girls and boys on the whole respectively tend to choose particular activities and styles that already symbolically affirm conventional discursive constructions of femininity or masculinity in the wider world outside the school...[T]he school perpetuates subtle definitions of femininity and masculinity as connotations of different musical practices and musical styles, in which pupils invest their desires to conform, not necessarily to the school, but to the wider social construction of gender (p. 142).

Summarizing the conservative nature of music education, Gould (2005) noted: “Professions and institutions change slowly and previous research regarding gender in music education, including segregation of occupations, instrument preference, gendered music, and pedagogical materials seems to have had little impact in accelerating it” (p. 158). Jellison (1993) noted that changes in the curriculum are met with embedded resistance. Although music educators may be open to cursory exposure to ideas they have little personal investment in, they are not willing to “spend the time to learn about ideas of the past that are dissonant with those ideas that [they] held to be true for many years (p. 67).

In her acceptance address for the MENC’s Senior Researcher Award, Yarbrough (1996) noted a provincial myopia in music education research and urged music educators and researchers to increase their depth of interdisciplinary knowledge and skills, building connections with the work and techniques being used in related fields in the humanities and social sciences. “Music education research is a maturing, relatively young field sustaining a consistent, productive research community dedicated to long-term contributions to the field for approximately thirty years” (Yarbrough,1996). Even so, there is at best, notable apathy, or at worst, a tacit prohibition against exploring sex and gender in music education research. Schmidt and Zdzinski (1993) examined the top 25 cited articles from music education research journals between the years 1975-1990. Although unreported in their discussion their results indicated only two research articles, both dealing with perception/discrimination tasks, which designated gender (sex) as a possible variable. Similar evidence can be found in Ebie’s (2002) examination of 50 years of research

published in the *Journal of Research in Music Education* (JRME) 1953-2002. Of the 819 articles reviewed only 1% ($n=10$) used gender-specific samples targeting male-only or female-only subjects. Ebie's article is also interesting in its implications which highlight the gendered nature of music education research. In his conclusion he noted a lack of research in choral, vocal, and general music—teaching areas traditionally held by females.

In an issue devoted to present and future concerns of music education, Elliott (2004) noted “many music educators past and present have either ignored or dismissed issues of gender and sexuality in music and music education on the grounds that these are not truly ‘musical’ issues” (p. 99). The very fact that a musician is female contains social implications. Elliot summarized: “By not including gender in our discussions and interpretations of music, we fool ourselves into believing that boys and girls have the same experiences when, clearly, they do not” (p. 98). Males are given greater latitude and freedom in exploring their musicality. In discussing differences in males’ and females’ experiences in music-making, O’Toole (2000) argued: “[Males] can be sensitive, aggressive, passionate, and pudgy. But women who are too aggressive, overly sexualized, or physically unattractive will meet with resistance and possible dismissal” (p. 35).

At the turn of the twentieth-century writers lamented the feminization of American society, citing increasing numbers of females employed in education and fine arts as a root cause (Campbell, 2003). Yet ideas of masculinity and femininity in musicians are not as clearly defined and immutable as in other professions. In an investigation of the origins of sex-segregation in music, Eaklor (1993) noted that at the turn of the century music careers became problematic for both sexes: “neither masculine enough for males at any level (the only legitimate professionals) nor feminine enough for females, depending upon the selected activity, arena, and level of education and training to be acquired or taught” (p. 45).

In investigations into more contemporary times, Kemp (1982, 1985) argued that individuals with stereotypic, rigid, gender identification seem ill-fitted to successful careers in music. Although he found evidence that would suggest that specific areas in music retain strong sex-type associations, for the most part psychologically androgynous individuals

who possessed an optimal level of both masculine and feminine traits appeared to be best suited to successful careers in music. The entrenched sex-typed areas of professional musicians were documented by Macleod (1993). She found stable sex-segregation of instruments in professional orchestras from the 1940s through the 1980s despite the introduction of blind auditions. She concluded that despite public rhetoric encouraging males and females to choose to study any instrument they wished there remains social pressure to conform to acceptable musical stereotypes. In short, she found that gendered stereotyping of musical instruments and roles “stunted women’s musical growth, forcing many even of those who achieved public prominence to battle stresses created by social isolation and condescension” (p. 303). In a study investigating undergraduate students’ perceptions of males and females playing instruments with strong sex-role associations, Cramer, Million, and Perreault (2002) found that although both males and females who played instruments with strong female associations were perceived as being more caring, sensitive, warm, and well-adjusted, males playing these instruments were judged negatively in the areas of leadership, dominance, and productivity.

The results of the Cramer et al. study (2002) suggested that strong social pressures exist for males to conform to stereotypical musical sex-roles. In a series of interviews with four adolescent females identified as musically talented, O’Neill, Ivaldi, and Fox (2002) were able to get the interviewees to disclose their undercurrents of frustration at low-level discrimination and limited opportunities for females. Bennett (2008) noted disruptions in a performance career were found to have negative effects on women’s attempting to obtain leadership positions or to re-enter the field at a later date. This often led women to change career fields from performing to teaching, or to part-time employment.

Sex-Role Stereotypes in Music

Music education research has delved deeper into the issue of sex-role segregation by examining instrument preference. Research in this area has repeatedly verified the existence of the sex-stereotyping of musical instruments and music occupations. A series of studies

conducted by Abeles and Porter (1978) verified their assumption that both adults and children tended to associate the flute, violin and clarinet with females, while males tend to be associated with percussion and brass instruments. Griswold and Chroback (1981) expanded the study to investigate undergraduate students' perceptions of sex-role associations with music instruments. They found that regardless of the sex of the rater, specific instruments were associated with males while others were associated with females, results similar to those of Abeles and Porter (1978). Delzell and Leppla (1992) found that a lessening in sex associations with musical instruments in fourth-graders had occurred since the 1978 Abeles and Porter study. However Fortney, Boyle and DeCarbo (1992) found strong sex associations with certain instruments for middle-school aged students. Byo (1991) found third-grade school students demonstrated instrument preferences along the lines of traditional sex associations, but that these preferences were the result of differences in the manner the instruments were presented to male and female students. Zervoudakes and Tanur (1994) found that female involvement in instrumental groups had increased over time and a greater number of females were found to be playing instruments that were traditionally considered male. The researchers found that, despite the greater number of females playing these instruments, the actual percentage had decreased over time. They speculated that the data may indicate sex-role biases in instrumental education and training programs.

Several studies have been conducted exploring gender preference for instrumental timbre (Elliot & Yoder-White, 1997; Kelly, 1997; O'Neill & Boulton, 1996). Elliot and Yoder-White (1997) investigated seven-, eight- and nine-year old children's preferences for instrumental timbre. Results indicated that by the time children had reached the primary grades instrumental timbres had strong masculine and feminine associations. Similar results were found by Kelly (1997) who investigated third-grade students' preferences for instrumental timbre. He concluded that "students with little or no previous music ensemble experience appear to have already established gender-timbre associations" (p. 54). In a study conducted by O'Neill and Boulton (1996) girls aged 9-11 showed a preference for

piano, flute and violin while boys showed a preference for guitar, drums and trumpet. Additionally, they found that regardless of sex, students agreed on which instruments were not appropriate for members of each sex. Although students indicated that preference was based on the sound of the instrument, they found that sex association with certain instruments was the actual determining factor for instrument selection. Sinsel, Dixon Jr., and Blades-Zeller (1997) investigated the social construct of gender on elementary school students' music instrument preference. They found that, regardless of the child's biological sex, students with masculine attributes preferred masculine-stereotyped instruments, feminine sex-typed students preferred feminine-stereotyped instruments, and androgynous students preferred neutral instruments.

An investigation of gender preference for musical instruments was conducted in the U.K. by Hallam, Rogers, and Creech (2008). Results indicated that certain musical instrument preference continues to divide along gender lines. They theorized that instrument preference is a complex process involving the interaction of social factors, individual factors, the individual's response to the instrument's attributes, and practical considerations such as cost. They concluded that the music educator is responsible for creating an environment in which children are free to explore their own preferences, and to provide role-models contrary to the stereotypes.

More recently, Conway (2000) conducted a phenomenological investigation of gender and instrument choice. The results of her research provide insight to the influences that specific high school music students felt they encountered when choosing an instrument during their elementary school experiences. Harrison and O'Neill (2000) showed that exposure to models counter to traditional stereotypes exposure had an immediate impact on instrument preference. More recently Johnson and Stewart (2004) investigated the criteria by which band directors assign instruments to beginning band students. They found that in the majority of cases, sex was not a determining factor for instrument assignment. In a review of literature on the psychological constructs of sex and gender in music education research, Maidlow and Bruce (1999) noted that the biological differences between the sexes

are not great enough to explain the historically strong sex-role stereotypes of instrument preference. In their conclusion, they call upon researchers to move beyond simple categorization of biological sex and to delve deeper into the more complicated constructs of gender, and the repercussions of perceptions of masculinity and femininity as they relate to the many facets of music. A similar call to action was expressed by Trollinger (1993) after conducting a review of literature of sex and gender research in music education spanning the years 1968-1992. The researcher noted a lack of overall interest in the subject matter yet stressed the importance of such research: "Music educators may not recognize subtle and unintentional gender bias in their classroom behavior....We need to know how to educate teachers to be gender fair in the classroom" (p.35).

A study conducted by Kopetz (1988) illustrates how biological sex and gender associations of musical instruments may influence hiring decisions for instrumental teaching positions. The researcher examined the effect of applicants' gender, graduating institution, and musical instrument on hiring decisions. Although results indicated the sex of the applicant only slightly influenced hiring decisions, the applied instrument played by the applicant was more important. Applicants listed as playing trumpet, an instrument with strong male associations, were ranked higher, regardless of sex, than applicants who played clarinet, oboe, or violin, instruments with feminine or gender-neutral associations, regardless of the applicant's biological sex. Kopetz's (1988) article clearly demonstrates the need for music education research to begin the process of examining gender attributes in a deeper, more meaningful way than simply assigning biological sex as a research variable.

Gender research in vocal and general music education centers on the "missing males" phenomenon as well as the lack of males teaching general music. In a historical comparison by Gates (1989), the researcher noted a complete reversal from the male domination of public singing groups in the early 18th century, with steady declines in involvement throughout the 20th century. He also noted the situation in the latter half of the 20th century in which women dominated public singing-groups both in membership and in leadership. He warned that without strong advocacy and leadership, participation for both

sexes would continue to decline. It has been suggested the problem may lie with music educators' selection of musical activities in the classroom (Mizener, 1993). Her study investigated fifth- and sixth-grade students' perceptions of singing. Results indicated that most students enjoyed singing activities, however less than half were interested in choral singing. These results suggested that singing itself seemed not to have negative connotations for either male or female students, but specific activities, such as choral singing tend to be viewed more favorably by female students. Killian (1990) investigated the effect that race and gender role-models play in junior-high school students' musical preferences. Results indicated that students preferred musical examples sung by models with the same gender and race attributes as themselves, and that this effect was stronger for boys than girls.

In a line of research examining the 'missing males' phenomenon in different areas, Koza investigated female representation in music journals (1993b), middle school music textbooks (1994), and college choral methods texts (1993a). In the examination of music publications from 1914 - 1924, Koza (1993b) found great concern expressed by teachers and administrators for male participation in music programs while concerns for female participation were largely ignored. Similar results were found after a review of middle-school music textbooks published in 1988 in which Koza (1994) found a lack of equal female representation in illustration pictures. In addition, females and males were represented participating in traditional sex-stereotyped activities. A review of college-level choral methods text-books (1993a) revealed a gender/sex agenda that perpetuated the status quo. In her analysis of the texts she concluded that the books:

accepted as commonsense and natural traditional sex-gender systems, as well as dominant views about males, females, masculinity, femininity, and (implicitly) sexual orientation... The proposed solutions involved changes in perceptions about singing or voices but not about gender or sexual orientation... Although several references openly argued that singing is masculine, and one suggested that it is both

masculine and feminine, no text recognized that like mathematics, sports, and needlework, singing is not intrinsically gendered (p. 59).

In a study investigating male teachers in the feminized teaching area of general choral music, the results of Roulston and Mills (2000) echoed those of Koza's analysis. They found that male teachers tended to adopt compensatory behaviors that reinforced sex-role stereotypes. Interviewees made implicit homophobic remarks and recruited males by strongly associating singing with masculinity. They concluded that increasing the number of males teaching at the elementary general music level would not necessarily change embedded sex-role stereotypes unless the underlying assumptions of masculinity and femininity held by teachers are examined. Madsen and Hancock (2002) investigated issues surrounding music teacher retention and attrition. Results indicated that women tended to leave the field early in their careers, perhaps due to changes in marital status or to a decision to have children. Recently, Hancock (2008) further investigated the subject through an examination of a national school staffing survey for predictors of teacher attrition. The researcher found that females were more likely than males to be susceptible to teacher attrition when several variable were considered including age (under 30), and teacher salaries. It would seem that being a woman in the music field carries a double penalty. After deciding to withdraw from their careers to marry or raise children, barriers may exist that keep them from re-entering at a later date (Bennett, 2008).

Post-Secondary Music Programs

According to data available from the College Music Society (CMS), in post-secondary music programs the demographic make-up of students is similar to the broader higher-education student population (2008). In 2004, females accounted for 56% of the student population while males accounted for 44%. The ranks of tomorrow's future elementary and secondary music educators are predominantly drawn from undergraduate music education majors. Similarly, positions for vocal music educators in academe are filled increasingly by those earning terminal degrees from accredited post-secondary programs.

Data from the National Association of Schools of Music's Higher Education Arts Data Survey (HEADS, 1999) listed twice as many females as males enrolled in doctoral degrees in 1998-1999; however, of particular relevance for the current study, in the same year the number of males and females completing a doctoral degree in voice was approximately equal. The HEADS (2005) data again listed almost twice as many females ($n=309$) enrolled in doctoral degrees in 2004-2005 as males ($n=178$); however, unlike in past years the number of doctoral degrees awarded to females ($n=49$) in 2004 - 2005 was also almost twice as high as the number of doctoral degrees awarded to males ($n=26$) in that same year. It is unknown if this is an anomaly in the general trend, or if the data signal a demographic change.

The HEADS survey for 1998-1999 showed that 71% of music teachers in both public and private post-secondary institutions were male. The trends indicated by the last several years of the HEADS survey would suggest that, although improvements have been made, gender inequalities still exist and remain far from mirroring the demographics of the United States' population. Other data available from the College Music Society (CMS) showed that the gender gap had closed somewhat in 2001, although males still held 62% of the faculty positions (CMS, 2001). According to more recent data, males still held 57% of the faculty positions in post-secondary institutions (CMS, 2006).

The HEADS data have been used in several studies investigating the status of women in college music and gender issues in post-secondary music programs. Neuls-Bates (1976) presented a report to the CMS noting that women in post-secondary institutions tended to have lower employment status; however the issue was even more pronounced working in music programs. She stressed the need for active participation by all member of the academy to address this situation, especially by women faculty. Block (1988) completed a follow-up study assessing any gains women may have made in the intervening years. Although small gains had been made by women in tenure-track positions, these changes were in no way representative of the pool of qualified women that had graduated with doctorates in music. It was concluded that institutions may be responsible for perpetuating

of the status quo. A related study by Weaver (1993) investigating faculty status of males and females in Big Ten music schools, divisions and departments showed that men continued to maintain their advantage in higher-ranking and higher-paying positions. In light of the CMS reports Weaver concluded: “For women, the problems of underrepresentation and inequitable compensation have not gone away. The proportions of female music faculty at each academic rank are not representative of the pool from which higher education are hired...” (p. 99).

Hoke (2005) reported to the CMS specific examples of how post-secondary music institutions marginalize women, including a lack of courses that explore gender studies and issues in music, a peripheral mention of women’s contributions to music in the commonly adopted text books and taught histories, and a paucity of visible female role models within the academic ranks. In an editorial Koza (1993c) acknowledged that a more assertive and visible female faculty would have consequences for the existing social structure of post-secondary music institutions. She cautioned:

When marginalized groups are brought to the table, they may not know the rules or may think the rules are irrelevant; they may want to change the rules that do not serve them well. They may ignore standard table talk and instead bring up subjects that are not to be discussed in polite company. They may say things people do not want to hear, upsetting and disturbing things, and sometimes they may seem to have no manners at all. Most of all, once they have been invited and especially if they speak up, things are never the same, never the way they used to be in the “good” old days (p. 4).

In a qualitative analysis of her own experience as a female music education faculty member, Lamb (1996) remarked that by the time students enter into post-secondary studies they have already been indoctrinated into the gendered experience of musical culture. She found resistance from students, challenges to her authority, and questioning of her competence in overt and covert ways. Her analysis suggested that female professors must

continually establish trust with their students on both a social and a musical level in ways and degrees not experienced by male professors.

Gould (2005) explored a philosophical argument that draws a parallel between displaced and disenfranchised female nomads with the experiences of female band conductors—a faculty position traditionally held by men. She concluded that attitudes and stereotypes are so deeply entrenched that, despite recent efforts, little has changed. She suggested that unless purposeful intervention is undertaken, future generations will continue to be limited in their choice of occupations and instrument choices and, “[p]erhaps most significantly, the profession will continue to suffer from the loss of their contributions” (p. 158).

Two studies have examined sex-role associations as they pertain to post-secondary music education. A demographic study conducted by Hewitt and Thompson (2006) revealed that, at the post-secondary level, the population of music teacher educators was similar to the entire population of post-secondary teacher educators. Specifically, they found that music teacher educators were predominately white (94.0%) and male (56.1%). Their study also discovered that music teacher educators often had teaching duties outside the field of teacher preparation; many conducted ensembles (38.9%), taught applied lessons (25.7%), and instructed class voice or class piano (9.1%). In an earlier study examining the demographics of university choral conductors VanWeelden (2003) found that females made up 27%, of all conductors, and 17% of the total number of directors of choral activities. She concluded that due to the lack of gender-centered research in music, it was not possible to determine whether an organizational power structure existed within four-year institutions that mirrored similar findings in other careers. However, the results corroborated data for the distribution of the sexes in post-secondary music programs within the United States.

Gender and Authority in Post-Secondary Music Education

Women comprised 17% of college music administrators in 1987; however the majority of these positions were at the lowest administrative level (Block, 1988). More

recent data indicate gains have been made, although women still lag behind men in accessing higher ranks and administrative positions (HEADS, 2005). Little quantitative or qualitative research has been conducted examining women's roles in administration within post-secondary music departments. Humphreys and Stauffer (2000) examined the editorial committee of the *Journal of Research in Music Education* from 1953 to 1992. Although not specific to administrators within departments, the study helps elucidate barriers women have faced within music academe in obtaining positions of prestige. Their results indicated that appointment of women to the committee increased from 1% in the first decade examined to 28% in the last decade, yet women were only represented in 16 of the 117 terms investigated. In addition, the researchers found that female membership on the committee lagged behind women's overall research productivity; females appointed to the committee in the third decade had published twice as many articles as male committee members, suggesting that women may somehow have to work harder to earn the same types of prestige and acknowledgement in the field as men. A study conducted by Brown (2003) examining preparatory course work and experience obtained by music department chairs included sex as a variable. Results indicated no differences in preparatory coursework for male and female administrators.

Summary

Critical theorists argue that institutions perpetuate sex-role stereotypes and sex and gender discrimination (Acker, J., 1990, 1992a; Acker, S., 1995b). Teachers tend to teach the way they were taught, which may explain, how sex-roles and sex-stereotypes in music are passed on to subsequent generations. Future music educators, by and large, project an image of themselves teaching in similar situations to those of the teaching role models they have experienced (Madsen & Kelly, 2002). Within the larger field of music education applied instruction is strongly conservative by nature, following an apprenticeship model which has remained predominantly unchanged in methodology for over 300 years (Madsen, 1988). According to Bergee, Coffman, Demorest, Humphreys, and Thornton (2001), 54% of

respondents indicated a private music instructor, and approximately 32% of respondents indicated a college music instructor as having had a significant influence on their decision to become a music educator, yet little research has been conducted exploring these influential groups of people.

As in the overall workforce, women in post-secondary institutions encounter sex-role discrimination, difficulties in obtaining the highest ranks, and have limited access to positions of authority. It has been shown that even in institutions that appear to have greater sex-equality, sex-role stratification occurs (Acker, J. 1973, 1990, 1992a, 1992b; Budig, 2002; Gatta & Roos, 2005; Jacobs, 1989; Reskin, 1993; Reskin & Bielby, 2005; Reskin, McBrier & Kmec, 1999; Standing, 1999). Music education is a predominantly female occupation, however females dominate the ranks of elementary and choral education, losing representation as grade level increases and have minimal representation in the areas of instrumental and jazz music education. Gains have been made in post-secondary music education, with women now occupying 43% of faculty positions. However there still remains a paucity of relevant demographic research in specific areas of post-secondary music education. Due to the specific gendered nature of voice parts, it may be that applied voice teacher training programs have an equal distribution of females (sopranos, mezzo-sopranos, contraltos) and males (counter-tenors, tenors, baritone, basses). Greater equality in the workplace may influence hiring practices, promotions, and access to administrative positions, thereby mitigating gender inequalities and sex-role biases which exist in academe. Therefore this study is an initial investigation of gender and authority as they relate to applied voice teachers in four-year institutions in the United States. Specifically, the study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the number of four-year undergraduate-degree granting institutions in the United States offering applied voice instruction?
2. What is the number of teachers of applied voice in four-year institutions in the United States by sex, degrees held, and employment status?

3. What is the number of teachers of applied voice in four-year institutions in the United States who hold positions of authority—area heads, department chairs, deans, and assistants to these positions—by gender, highest degree listed, and employment status?
4. How many voice teachers have instructional duties outside the applied area by sex, employment status, degrees held, and position of authority?
5. For those voice teachers who have instructional duties outside the applied area, how many additional classes do they teach, and what classes are being taught?
6. How many voice teachers have specific teaching duties in vocal pedagogy by sex, employment status, degrees held, and positions of authority?
7. Can sufficient data collection be obtained from information listed on college and university websites to indicate a power hierarchy and/or sex inequalities in the applied voice area?

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

A demographic profile of voice programs in four-year institutions within the United States ($N=1,885$) was completed between January 2008 and July 2008. An online website directory of colleges and universities in the United States (<http://www.collegescolleges.com/>) was used to complete the study. This website lists four-year degree institutions by state and provides direct links to each institution's web-accessible general bulletin. All 50 states were included in the study as well as the District of Columbia; however Guam, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands were not included, even though all are possessions of the United States and were listed in the directory. Institutions listed but not linked to the collegescolleges.com website were investigated using a search engine.

All institutions investigated were placed into one of two categories: those with music programs and those without music programs. Those institutions without music programs were not considered for this study. An institution was considered to have a music program if the website listed a college, school, department or area of music granting an undergraduate bachelor's degree in music, a minor in music, or a concentration in music. The category 'institutions not considered in this study' included those colleges or universities that did not have a college, school, department, or area of music granting an undergraduate degree in music, a minor in music, or a concentration in music. An institution that listed a department of music, but did not offer a bachelor's degree in music, a minor in music, or a concentration in music was placed in the category 'institutions not considered in this study'. Institutions were also included in this category if: a college or university had insufficient information displayed on the institutions website to determine what, if any, musical programs existed; an institutional website was under construction; and/or an institution's website was unable to be accessed over the course of two separate days.

An institution was counted as having a voice program if it offered applied voice lessons for academic credit as listed in the course catalog even if the institution was not counted as having a music program. A university was listed as not offering voice lessons if voice lessons were not listed in the course catalog for academic credit. Therefore, data collection was not limited to institutions offering degrees, majors, minors, or concentrations in music.

The colleges and universities offering voice lessons were further investigated to determine: (a) the number of voice teachers by gender, highest degree earned, and employment status; (b) positions of authority held by voice teachers by gender, highest degree earned, and employment; (c) the types of classes taught by voice teachers, other than applied lessons, by gender, and faculty status including teachers with positions of authority; and (d) the number of teachers of vocal of vocal pedagogy, including those with positions of authority by gender, and highest degree earned. Several guidelines were set *a priori* to create a consistent system for categorizing the data. First, only those teachers specifically designated as voice teachers and listed as teaching voice on the college or university's website were counted. Voice coaches, opera directors, musical theater directors, and choral directors were not counted unless specific duties listed included applied voice teaching.

Gender data were collected when a photograph and other gender-specific identifying information were included (i.e., voice types or roles sung). Due to the numerous gender-neutral names and their alternative spellings (i.e., Sandy, Pat, Casey, Jamie) gender data were not collected if an institution's website only provided a list of names. In this study, the term 'gender' is used to denote male and female biological sex, and is used interchangeably with the term 'sex'. It was not within the scope of the current research to delve deeper into the social and psychological constructs of gender.

Voice teacher *status* was categorized as being *Professor Status*, *Other Status*, or *Unknown Status*. Professor Status was further divided into teachers listed as having Professor, Associate Professor, or Assistant Professor Status. Other Employment Status was further divided into several categories including a category titled Adjunct/Lecturer Status.

This broad category was selected *a priori* based on two pilot studies in which it was discovered that the terms listed for employment status were often used interchangeably and inconsistently. These findings were consistent with Kalleberg's (2000) investigation into non-standard employment within the workforce who concluded that more consistent measures should be taken to standardize these positions' definitions. The National Association of Schools of Music (NASM) has clearer definitions for these positions; however not all institutions considered in this study have accreditation through this organization, nor do all colleges and universities participate in the organizations' Higher Education Arts Data Service (HEADS). Included in this category were voice teachers who held employment status positions with the following titles: part-time professor, instructor, adjunct professor, lecturer, affiliate, and applied teacher. Additional categories under Other Employment Status included Artist/Artist in Residence, Visiting Professor/Visiting Artist, Professor Emeritus, and Titled Administrators (Deans, Vice-Presidents, and Assistant Deans).

Teachers were listed as holding positions of authority if they held any of the following positions: Director of Choral Activities, Director of Vocal Activities, Program Coordinator, Program Director, Chair, Co-Chair, Dean, Assistant or Associate Dean or other similar titles. Director of Opera and Director of Musical Theatre were not considered administrative positions unless Opera or Musical Theatre was listed as a separate area or department requiring specific administrative duties.

Both faculty profiles as well as the institutions' most recent course schedules were used to determine what, if any, other courses were taught in addition to applied voice. Classes were recorded as listed on the institution's website. Once all data had been collected, closely related areas were grouped together. For example, the classes Musical Theatre Workshop, Musical Theatre Director, Opera Workshop, and Opera Director were grouped into a single category. The same was true for the classes Ear Training, Aural Skills, and Sight-Singing.

Data for voice instructors who included vocal pedagogy as a teaching responsibility were extracted for further analysis. Only information available with regard to degrees held, gender, faculty status and other classes taught was used. Institutions and individuals that did not list specific gender, degree, or faculty status information were not counted when considering those specific variables. The collected data were then entered into a database created with Microsoft Access 2007® to facilitate further analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

1: What is the number of four-year undergraduate-degree granting institutions in the United States offering applied voice instruction?

Of the total number of four-year institutions ($N=1,865$) listed on the collegescolleges.com © website, approximately 64 % were counted as having music programs ($n=1,189$). Institutions without music programs ($n=696$) accounted for approximately 37 % of the total. Institutions that offered applied voice instruction ($n=1,148$) constituted 62 % of the total. This total included all institutions that offered applied voice regardless of whether or not the institution had a music program. Fifty-seven institutions with a music program did not offer voice instruction while sixteen institutions without music programs offered voice instruction. Voice faculty information was available from 91% ($n=1,039$) of the institutions. Results for the combined total and for each state by music program, applied voice program, and voice faculty information availability can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1

Institutions with Music and Voice Programs by Combined Total and Individual State

States ($N=51$)	Institutions ($N=1,865$)	Music Programs ($n=1,189$)	Voice Lessons ($n=1,148$)	Voice-NoProfiles ($n=109$)
Alabama	35	24	25	7
Alaska	6	2	4	1
Arizona	19	4	3	—
Arkansas	20	18	17	—

Table 1 – continued

States (N=51)	Institutions (N=1,185)	Music Programs (n=1,189)	Voice Lessons (n=1,148)	No Profiles (n=109)
California	128	71	69	2
Colorado	29	17	17	—
Connecticut	23	18	12	1
Delaware	5	3	3	—
Florida	59	29	29	3
Georgia	53	39	39	4
Hawaii	7	4	4	1
Idaho	9	6	6	—
Illinois	75	46	47	1
Indiana	59	33	32	—
Iowa	34	29	29	4
Kansas	27	22	23	2
Kentucky	33	20	22	2
Louisiana	26	17	17	2
Maine	19	8	7	1
Maryland	37	20	20	1
Massachusetts	73	50	39	7
Michigan	46	30	29	7
Minnesota	43	29	27	1
Mississippi	18	15	15	2
Missouri	50	35	33	4
Montana	10	5	5	—

Table 1 – continued

States (<i>N</i> =51)	Institutions (<i>N</i> =1,185)	Music Programs (<i>n</i> =1,189)	Voice Lessons (<i>n</i> =1,148)	No Profiles (<i>n</i> =109)
Nebraska	22	16	16	2
Nevada	6	2	2	—
New Hampshire	16	7	6	1
New Jersey	27	20	18	3
New Mexico	12	5	5	2
New York	146	72	65	4
North Carolina	54	48	48	5
North Dakota	9	8	8	—
Ohio	74	46	47	4
Oklahoma	23	21	21	3
Oregon	31	19	19	2
Pennsylvania	129	69	66	10
Rhode Island	12	6	6	—
South Carolina	38	28	27	3
South Dakota	14	9	9	3
Tennessee	44	34	33	3
Texas	101	65	64	1
Utah	10	8	8	—
Vermont	18	10	6	1
Wyoming	1	1	1	—
Virginia	53	34	34	2
Washington	29	16	16	2

Table 1 – continued

States (<i>N</i> =51)	Institutions (<i>N</i> =1,185)	Music Programs (<i>n</i> =1,189)	Voice Lessons (<i>n</i> =1,148)	No Profiles (<i>n</i> =109)
Washington DC	13	7	6	—
West Virginia	21	14	14	4
Wisconsin	39	30	30	1

2: What is the number of teachers of applied voice in four-year institutions in the United States by sex, degrees held, and employment status?

Results for question 2 are presented for each variable, separately and combined, in Tables 2-6. The quantity and type of information listed for each individual faculty member varied greatly within an institute’s website as well as from one institution to another. In total 3,523 voice instructors were listed with specific information germane to this question including gender, educational background, and employment status. For the first part of this question, which related to gender, results found that within all institutions male teachers (*n*=1,360) comprised 39% of the total number of voice teachers with specific information listed, and female teachers (*n*=2,151) accounted for 61% of the total. Gender could not be determined for less than 1% (*n*=12) of the number of voice teachers listed. Table 2 displays voice teachers’ genders by combined total and individual state.

Table 2

Gender Distribution of Voice Teachers by Combined Total and Individual State

States (N=51)	Teachers (N=3,523)	Males (n=1,360)	Females (n=2,151)	Undetermined (n=12)
Alabama	55	25	30	—
Alaska	9	2	7	—
Arizona	16	7	9	—
Arkansas	53	20	33	—
California	223	76	145	2
Colorado	45	15	30	—
Connecticut	40	16	24	—
Delaware	7	3	3	1
Florida	105	40	65	—
Georgia	93	37	54	2
Hawaii	7	4	3	—
Idaho	20	8	10	2
Illinois	172	73	98	1
Indiana	123	51	72	—
Iowa	85	34	51	—
Kansas	51	24	26	1
Kentucky	55	23	32	—
Louisiana	45	20	25	—
Maine	18	6	12	—
Maryland	58	27	31	—
Massachusetts	157	53	103	1

Table 2 – continued

States (<i>N</i> =51)	Teachers (<i>N</i> =3,523)	Males (<i>n</i> =1,360)	Females (<i>n</i> =2,151)	Undetermined (<i>n</i> =12)
Michigan	96	35	60	1
Minnesota	108	46	62	—
Mississippi	38	17	21	—
Missouri	95	32	63	—
Montana	9	5	4	—
Nebraska	38	17	20	1
Nevada	15	7	8	—
New Hampshire	13	3	10	—
New Jersey	87	34	53	—
New Mexico	9	3	6	—
New York	254	95	159	—
North Carolina	116	44	72	—
North Dakota	17	5	12	—
Ohio	168	68	100	—
Oklahoma	59	23	36	—
Oregon	56	21	35	—
Pennsylvania	177	63	114	—
Rhode Island	18	6	12	—
South Carolina	72	25	47	—
South Dakota	19	7	12	—
Tennessee	101	40	61	—
Texas	196	79	117	—

Table 2 – continued

States (<i>N</i> =51)	Teachers (<i>N</i> =3,523)	Males (<i>n</i> =1,360)	Females (<i>n</i> =2,151)	Undetermined (<i>n</i> =12)
Utah	25	9	16	—
Vermont	15	5	10	—
Wyoming	4	1	3	—
Virginia	112	41	71	—
Washington	47	18	29	—
Washington D.C.	19	5	14	—
West Virginia	26	12	14	—
Wisconsin	77	30	47	—

The second part of question 2 examined the degrees held by voice faculty by gender. The institutions varied greatly in the manner that they listed specific faculty degree information. Of the total number of teachers investigated (*N*=3,523) only 77% (*n*=2,716) provided at least some information in their web profiles about degrees earned. Male teachers who included at least some degree information constituted approximately 40% (*n*=1,077), and females 60% of the total. There were 3 teachers who listed degree information but whose gender could not be determined from the information available in their faculty profiles. Of the 2,716 teachers with degree information listed, 1,100 teachers (40%) specified having earned a doctoral degree (548 males, 550 females, 2 gender unknown); 1,377 teachers (51%) specified having earned a master’s degree (459 males, 917 females, 1 gender unknown); and 233 teachers (9%) specified having earned a bachelor’s degree (66 males; 167 females). Approximately 19% (*n*=517) of teachers listing degree information reported earning a degree in education as part of their professional training (221 males; 296

females). Teachers having earned an Artist or Performance Diploma as part of their professional training ($n=133$) accounted for 5% of those with degree information listed (50 males; 83 females). In total, 807 teachers (283 males, 515 females, and 9 gender-undetermined) or 23% did not list any specific educational background information in their faculty biographies. Results for voice teachers' highest-listed degree by gender can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3
Voice Teachers' Highest Listed Degree by Gender (N=2,716)

Highest Degree Listed	Instructors (N=2,716)	Male (n=1,077)	Female (n=1,636)	Unknown (n=3)
<u>Bachelor's Degree</u>	233	66	167	—
Bachelor's Alone	180	56	124	—
With Both ED & AD	—	—	—	—
With ED	28	5	23	—
With AD	25	5	20	—
<u>Master's Degree</u>	1,377	459	917	1
Master's Alone	1,062	347	714	1
With Both ED & AD	11	4	7	—
With ED	243	82	161	—
With AD	61	26	35	—
<u>Doctoral Degree</u>	1,100	548	550	2
Doctorate Alone	846	414	430	2
With Both ED & AD	11	7	4	—

Table 3 – continued

Highest Degree Listed	Instructors (N=2,716)	Male (n=1,077)	Female (n=1,636)	Unknown (n=3)
With ED	223	122	101	—
<u>Doctoral Degree</u>	1,100	548	550	2
With AD	20	5	15	—
<u>Unspecified Degree</u>	6	4	2	—
ED Listed	1	1	—	—
AD Listed	5	3	2	—
No Degree Information	807	283	515	9

Note. ED indicates Education Degree, AD indicates Artist Diploma

The third part of question 2 examined the employment status of voice faculty by gender. Ninety-five percent of the total number of teachers for whom gender could be inferred ($n=3,349$), 39% were male ($n=1,290$) while and 61% female ($n=2,054$). Teachers listed as Assistant Professor, Associate Professor or Professor constituted 44% ($n=1,461$) of the total number of teachers with discernible employment status. These professorial positions were held nearly equally by males (49%, $n=718$) and females (51%, $n=743$). For the combined Other Status category (adjunct, lecturer, part-time, visiting, artist, applied-faculty, emeritus, administration) females ($n=1,311$) held more than twice the number of those positions as their male counterparts ($n=572$). Results for all institutions by employment status and gender can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Employment Status of Voice Teachers by Gender (N=3,523)

Employment Status	Instructors (N=3,349)	Male (n=1,290)	Female (n=2,054)	Undetermined (n=12)
<u>Professor Status</u>	1461	718	743	—
Assistant	506	226	280	—
Associate	506	239	267	—
Professor	449	253	196	—
<u>Other Status</u>	1,888	572	1,311	5
Artist	177	57	120	—
Visiting	37	15	22	—
Adjunct	1638	479	1154	5
Emeritus	27	15	12	—
Administrator	9	6	3	—
<u>Status Unknown</u>	174	70	97	7

Results were compiled for voice teachers by gender, degree earned and employment status. Of the total number of teachers with at least some biographical information listed ($N=3,523$) approximately 74% or 2,590 teachers (75% males, $n=1,018$; 73% females, $n=1,572$) included all of the necessary information—gender, employment status, and educational background—to answer research question number 1: What is the number of teachers in applied voice in four-year institutions in the United States by gender, highest degree listed, and employment status? The proportion of males and females with all

information available was equivalent to the overall population of males and females studied. Males comprised 39% ($n=1,360$) and females 61% ($n=2,151$) of the overall number of voice teachers for whom gender could be assigned ($n=3,511$). Similarly, males comprised 39% ($n=1,018$) and females 61% ($n=1,572$) of the total number of teachers who included all information necessary to answer question 1 ($n=2,590$).

Although the overall ratio of male voice teachers to female voice teachers was approximately 2:3, there was only a slightly larger number of females ($n=675$) than males ($n=630$) holding professor employment status (assistant, associate, or full) which indicated a difference in proportionate representation. Sixty-two percent of the total number of males and 43% of all females listing the necessary information for the analysis held professor employment status. Females held the majority of the lower professor status positions, 56% of all assistant professor positions, and 54% of all associate professor positions. In contrast, males held 55% of the highest professor status positions. Males listed as having earned a doctorate and who were employed as full professors ($n=161$) constituted 63% of all teachers meeting those criteria ($n=257$).

At the master's degree level, the number of teachers decreased as employment status increased; for both males and females the number of individuals holding the rank of Assistant Professor was greater than the number of teachers with the rank of Associate Professor, which again, was greater than the number of teachers with the rank of Professor. However, males who had earned doctorates increased in number as employment rank increased while the trend for females was the same as at the master's degree level. Forty-percent ($n= 411$) of all males ($n=1,018$) and 24% ($n=376$) of all females ($n=1,572$) with a doctoral degree held some type of professor employment status (assistant, associate, or full), while 20% of all males, and 17% of all females with a master's degree held some type of professor employment status. For comparison the sub-categories for Other Employment Status have been grouped together into a single category. Results for voice teachers' highest degree listed, by gender and employment status can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5

Voice Teachers' Highest Degree Listed by Gender and Employment Status (N=3,523)

Degree Listed	Teachers (n=2,590)	Assist. (n=452)	Assoc. (n=451)	Full (n=402)	Total Professors (n=1,305)	Total Other (n=1,285)
Male (n=1,360)	1,018	200	208	222	630	388
Female (n=2,151)	1,572	252	243	180	675	897
<u>Bachelor's</u>	221	18	12	17	47	174
Male	63	7	2	9	18	45
Female	158	11	10	8	29	129
<u>Master's</u>	1,323	187	156	128	471	852
Male	435	80	69	52	201	234
Female	888	107	87	76	270	618
<u>Doctorate</u>	1,046	247	283	257	787	259
Male	520	113	137	161	411	109
Female	526	134	146	96	376	150

The total number of teachers with a status other than professor was 1,285. Females held 70% (n=897), and males 30% (n=388) of these “Other Status” teaching positions (Artist in Residence, Visiting Artist/Professor, Adjunct, Lecturer, Part-Time, Emeritus, or Administrator). Fifty-seven percent of the total number of females and 38% of males listing the necessary information for the analysis held employment statuses categorized as “Other”.

A large majority of teachers (86%) categorized as holding “Other Employment Status” held positions as Adjunct/Lecturer (adjunct professors, lecturers, instructors, and/or part-time faculty). These titles were used inconsistently and interchangeably by voice teachers and institutions alike and were therefore placed into a single category.

Males ($n=109$), and females ($n=150$) categorized as holding “Other Employment Status” who also held doctoral degrees constituted 11%, and 10 % respectively, of the total number of males ($n=1,018$), and the total number of females ($n=1,572$) with all information present in their faculty profiles. Those male ($n=234$), and female ($n=618$) teachers who listed a master’s degree in their faculty profiles and who held employment status other than professorships accounted for 23% and 39% of male and female teachers respectively. Results for voice teachers’ highest degree listed by gender and employment status other than professorships are listed in Table 6.

Table 6

Teachers with “Other Employment Status” by Highest Degree Listed and Gender

Degree Listed	Teachers ($n=2,590$)	“Other” ($n=1,285$)	Adj. ($n=1,109$)	Artist ($n=117$)	Visiting ($n=27$)	Emerit ($n=25$)	Admin. ($n=7$)
Male ($n=1,360$)	1,018	388	327	31	12	14	4
Female ($n=2,151$)	1,572	897	782	86	15	11	3
<u>Bach.</u>	221	174	147	24	1	2	—
Male	63	45	38	6	1	—	—
Female	158	129	109	18	—	2	—

Table 6 – continued

Degree Listed	Teachers (<i>n</i> =2,590)	“Other” (<i>n</i> =1,285)	Adj. (<i>n</i> =1,109)	Artist (<i>n</i> =117)	Visiting (<i>n</i> =27)	Emerit (<i>n</i> =25)	Admin. (<i>n</i> =7)
<u>Master’s</u>	1,323	852	752	75	13	10	2
Male	435	234	210	16	4	3	1
Female	888	618	542	59	9	7	1
<u>Doctorate</u>	1,046	259	210	18	13	13	5
Male	520	109	79	9	7	11	3
Female	526	150	131	9	6	2	2

3: What is the number of teachers in applied voice in four-year institutions in the United States who hold positions of authority—area heads, department chairs, deans, and assistants to these positions—by gender, highest degree listed, and employment status?

Results for question 3 are displayed in Tables 7 and 8. Positions of authority were held by 16% (*n*=564) of voice teachers. Males held 54% (*n*=306) of these positions while females held 46% (*n*=257). Teachers listed as having earned a doctorate as the highest level of education attained accounted for 58% (*n*= 327) of those with positions of authority, while those having earned a masters degree as the highest level of education attained accounted for 31% (*n*=177), and those listing only a bachelor’s degree accounted for 3% (*n*=15). Specific degree information could not be determined for 8% (*n*=44) of all teachers with authority positions. Sixty-five percent of males (*n*=200) and 49% of females (*n*=127) listed as having earned a doctorate. Results for voice teachers who held positions of authority by gender and highest degree earned are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Voice Teachers with Positions of Authority by Gender and Highest Degree Listed

Degree	Total	%	Total Males	% Males	Total Females	% Females
Totals	564	100	306	54	257	46
Bachelor's	15	3%	4	1%	11	4%
Master's	177	31%	77	25%	100	39%
Doctorate	327	58%	200	65%	127	49%
Unlisted	44	8%	25	8%	19	7%

Results were compiled for voice teachers holding positions of authority (Director of Choral Activities, Director of Vocal Activities, Program Coordinator, Program Director, Chair, Co-Chair, Dean, Assistant or Associate Dean or other similar titles) by gender, degree earned and employment status. Of the total number of teachers ($n=564$) who included some biographical information in their profiles and held positions of authority, approximately 86% or 485 teachers (86% of all males, $n=222$; 86% of all females, $n=263$) included all of the necessary information—gender, employment status, and educational background—to answer research question 2. Roughly two thirds of teachers with positions of authority ($n=324$) were listed as having Professor ($n=172$ or 35%), or Associate Professor ($n=152$, or 31%) employment status, while teachers listed as Assistant Professors accounted for approximately 20% ($n=95$), teachers listed in the combined “Other Employment Status”—excepting those with titled administrative positions—accounted for about 12% ($n=59$), and teachers with specific administrative titles 1% ($n=7$) of the total.

More than twice as many male teachers ($n=117$) as female teachers ($n=53$) with positions of authority were listed having the rank of Professor. Of the professors, 74%

($n=128$) listed a doctoral degree as the highest degree earned. Within this category males ($n=95$) outnumbered females ($n=33$) by almost 3:1. Results for voice teachers with positions of authority by gender, highest degree listed, and employment status can be seen in Table 8.

Table 8

Voice Teachers with Positions of Authority by Gender, Highest Degree Listed and Employment Status Including Titled Administrative Positions

Highest Degree	Teachers ($n=485$)	Asst. ($n=95$)	Assoc. ($n=152$)	Prof. ($n=172$)	Admin. ($n=7$)	Other ($n=59$)
Male ($n=306$)	263	43	77	117	4	20
Female ($n=257$)	222	52	75	53	3	39
<u>Bachelor's</u>	13	4	2	2	—	5
Male	4	2	—	2	—	—
Female	9	2	2	—	—	5
<u>Master's</u>	165	34	50	42	2	37
Male	70	11	23	22	1	13
Female	95	23	27	20	1	24
<u>Doctorate</u>	307	57	100	128	5	17
Male	189	30	54	95	3	7
Female	118	27	46	33	2	10

4: How many voice teachers have instructional duties outside the applied area by gender, employment status, degrees held, and positions of authority?

Results for question 4 are displayed in Tables 9-11. Approximately half ($n=1,746$) of the voice teachers had instructional duties in addition to applied voice. Of the 1,360 total number of males 55% ($n=745$) had teaching duties in addition to applied voice while of the 2,151 total number of females 46% ($n=999$) had instructional duties in addition to applied voice. Teachers with additional teaching duties with no discernible gender ($n=85$) accounted for 5% of the total.

There were a total of 1,659 teachers with all information available in their institutional profiles germane to question 3. Females ($n=953$) made up 57%, and males ($n=706$) made up 43% of this total. Teachers holding Professor Employment Status ($n=1,048$) made up 63%, while those categorized as holding “Other” Employment Status ($n=611$) accounted for 37% of the total number of teachers with additional instructional duties. Males holding Professor Employment Status ($n=532$) accounted for 75% of the total number of male teachers with additional instructional duties. The number and percentage of females holding Professor Employment Status ($n=516$, or 54%) versus those holding Other Employment Status ($n=437$, or 46%) were more similar than their male counterparts.

Male teachers holding Professor Employment Status ($n=532$, or 51%) outnumbered females ($n=516$, or 49%) with similar employment status, but only marginally. The number of Professor Employment Status females with additional instructional duties decreased as faculty rank increased. The opposite was true for male professors whose numbers increased as faculty rank increased. Males accounted for 44%, and females 56% of the total number of teachers holding the rank of Assistant Professor; males accounted for 47%, and females 53% of the total number of teachers holding the rank of Associate Professor; males accounted for 63%, and females 36% of the total number of teachers holding the rank of Professor. Males accounted for 28%, and females 72% of the total number of teachers classified as having Other Employment Status.

Females with additional instructional duties who listed either a Bachelor's ($n=58$) or a Master's degree ($n=393$) as their highest degree, outnumbered males who had listed the same degree levels ($n=21$, and $n=223$, respectively). Approximately 59% of all females who listed a Master's degree were categorized as having Other Employment Status ($n=232$), while 39% of all males listing a similar degree were categorized as having Other Employment Status ($n=87$). Males with additional instructional duties who listed a Doctoral degree ($n=388$) outnumbered females who had listed the same degree level ($n=355$). Females held the majority of Assistant Professor ($n=108$, or 56%) and Associate Professor positions ($n=116$, or 51%) compared to their male counterparts ($n=86$, or 44%, and $n=111$, or 49% respectively). Females steadily lost ground as faculty rank increased with a sharp drop-off noted in the number of female teachers with doctorates holding Professor status. At this level males ($n=139$, or 67% of the total number of doctoral level teachers at Full Professor rank) outnumbered females ($n=69$, or 33%) by almost 2:1. Results for teachers with instructional duties in addition to applied voice by gender, highest degree earned and employment status are listed in Table 9.

Table 9

Teachers with Instructional Duties in Addition to Applied Voice by Gender, Highest Degree Listed and Employment Status ($n=1,659$)

Highest Degree	Teachers ($N=1,659$)	Professor Status ($n=1,048$)			Other ($n=611$)
		<u>Assistant</u> ($n=377$)	<u>Associate</u> ($n=359$)	<u>Full</u> ($n=312$)	
Male	706	165	169	198	174
Female	953	212	190	114	437

Table 9 - continued

Highest Degree	Teachers (N=1,659)	Professor Status (n=1,048)			Other (n=611)
		<u>Assistant</u> (n=377)	<u>Associate</u> (n=359)	<u>Full</u> (n=312)	
<u>Bachelor's</u>	79	13	6	8	52
Male	21	5	1	5	10
Female	58	8	5	3	42
<u>Master's</u>	616	130	97	70	319
Male	223	57	42	37	87
Female	393	73	55	33	232
<u>Doctorate</u>	743	194	227	208	114
Male	388	86	111	139	52
Female	355	108	116	69	62
<u>Degree Unlisted</u>	221	40	29	26	126
Male	74	17	15	17	25
Female	147	23	14	9	101

Results of voice teachers with positions of authority who also had additional instructional duties were compiled to complete the investigation of question 4. Of the 564 listed teachers with authority, 76% (n=429) also had other instructional duties. In total, 377 teachers, or 88% of the total number of teachers with positions of authority with additional instructional duties, included all of the necessary information germane to the study.

Table 10

Voice Teachers with Positions of Authority and Additional Instructional Duties by Gender, Highest Degree Listed and Employment Status Including Titled Administrative Positions (N=377)

Highest Degree	Teachers (N=377)	Total Professors and Administrators (n=339)				Other (n=38)
		<u>Assistant</u> (n=82)	<u>Associate</u> (n=118)	<u>Full</u> (n=134)	<u>Admin.</u> (n=5)	
Male	218	36	60	101	3	18
Female	159	46	58	33	2	20
<u>Bachelor's</u>	8	3	1	1	—	3
Male	2	1	—	1	—	—
Female	6	2	1	—	—	3
<u>Master's</u>	117	27	36	29	2	23
Male	53	9	14	17	1	12
Female	64	18	22	12	1	11
<u>Doctorate</u>	252	52	81	104	3	12
Male	163	26	46	83	2	6
Female	89	26	35	21	1	6

Note: Degree information was unavailable for 29 teachers.

5: For those voice teachers who have instructional duties outside the applied voice area, how many additional classes do they teach, and what classes are being taught?

Teachers who had instructional duties in addition to applied voice ($n=1,746$) taught a variety of classes; males accounted for 43% ($n=745$) and females for 57% ($n=999$) of the total, and gender could not be determined for two teachers who each had one class in addition to applied voice. On average, teachers were responsible for two other areas in addition to voice. Combined, 70% of voice teachers ($n=1,215$) had either one ($n=750$, or 43%) or two ($n= 465$, or 27%) additional instructional areas. A larger number, and a larger percentage of females ($n= 476$, or 48% of females) than males ($n=274$, or 37% of males) had one additional instructional area. In one instance a male teacher was responsible for 10 additional areas, and in another instance, 12. The number and percentage of voice teachers by the total number of additional instructional areas are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Number and Percentage of Voice Teachers by Total Number of Additional Instructional Areas (N=1,744 voice teachers)

Additional Areas	Total Teachers (N=1,744)	% Teachers (100%)	Males (n=745)	% Males (100%)	Female (n=999)	% Females (100%)
1	750	43%	274	37%	476	48%
2	465	27%	212	28%	253	25%
3	284	16%	135	18%	149	15%
4	145	8%	72	10%	73	7%
5 or more	100	6%	52	7%	48	5%

The ten instructional areas most frequently listed included: ensembles (348 males, 218 females); opera/musical theatre workshop and/or director (214 males, 279 females); singer’s diction (144 males, 261 females); vocal pedagogy (115 males, 209 females); class voice (89 males, 185 females); vocal and opera literature (88 males, 140 females); conducting (137 males, 34 females); non-classical voice instruction (34 males, 116 females); music education methods (74 males, 60 females); and music history (69 males, 56 females). Table 12 lists the total number of teachers—as well as for males and females separately—by each additional teaching area, from highest to lowest frequency.

Table 12

Frequency of Additional Instruction Areas Listed by Gender (N=1,744)

Instructional Areas	Teachers (N=1,744)	Male (n=745)	Female (n=999)
Choral Ensembles	566	348	218
Opera/M.T. Workshop/Director	493	214	279
Diction	405	144	261
Pedagogy	324	115	209
Class Voice	275	89	185
Vocal Literature	229	88	140
Conducting	171	137	34
Commercial Voice	150	34	116
Music Education Methods Class	134	74	60
Music History	125	69	56
Music Appreciation	102	43	59
Music Theory	86	46	40

Table 12 – continued

Instructional Areas	Teachers (<i>N</i> =1,744)	Male (<i>n</i> =745)	Female (<i>n</i> =999)
Aural Skills/Sight Singing	76	37	39
Piano/Organ/Keyboard	76	31	45
Church Music	49	34	15
Socio. Issues/World Music	48	20	28
Vocal Methods	46	11	35
Intro. to Music/Fine Arts	39	10	29
Fundamentals/Basic Musicality	28	10	18
Choral Literature	27	21	6
Vocal Coaching	26	10	16
Acting/Stage Craft	19	9	10
Mus. Theatre & Theatre History	18	13	5
Hand Bells	17	10	7
Intern Supervision	14	7	7
Arranging/Orchestrating	13	8	5
Instrumental Ensembles	12	9	3
Body Work	11	—	11
Music Technology	11	9	2
Performance Practice	8	2	6
Staff Accompanist	8	1	7
Strings/Guitar	8	6	2
Composition	6	5	1
Speech & Public Speaking	6		6
Brass	5	5	—

Table 12 – continued

Instructional Areas	Teachers (N=1,744)	Male (n=745)	Female (n=999)
Arts Administration	4	4	—
Freshman Seminar	4	2	2
Woodwinds	4	1	3
Accompanying	3	2	1
Interdisciplinary Studies	3	1	2
Librarian	3	1	2
Music Industry/Business	3	1	2
Research Meth./Music Writing	3	2	1
Song/Hymn Writing	3	1	2
Costume Design	2	—	2
Improvisation	2	1	1
Introduction to Music Ed.	2	1	1
Music Therapy	2		2
Philosophy/Aesthetics	2	1	1
Religion Classes/Bible Study	2	1	1
Acoustics	1	—	1
Anatomy & Physiology	1	1	—
Dance	1	—	1
Greek	1	1	—
Poetry	1	—	1
Psychology	1	1	—
Special Education/Learners	1	—	1

Table 12 – continued

Instructional Areas	Teachers (<i>N</i> =1,744)	Male (<i>n</i> =745)	Female (<i>n</i> =999)
Vocal Pathology	1	—	1

*Note: Gender could not be determined for one teacher of class voice and one teacher of vocal literature: they were not included in Table 12.

6: How many voice teachers have specific teaching duties in vocal pedagogy by sex, employment status, degrees held, and positions of authority?

Less than 10% of all voice teachers (*n*=324) had specific instructional duties in vocal pedagogy (see Table 10). Of the males teaching pedagogy, 82% held faculty status positions (Professor, Associate Professor, or Assistant Professor), while 69% of females teaching pedagogy held similar positions. Approximately 31% of male faculty members and 23% of female faculty members teaching vocal pedagogy also had administrative duties. Male teachers holding positions other than Professor, Associate Professor or Assistant Professor accounted for 12% of all male pedagogy teachers, while almost one-third of all female pedagogy teachers (27%) were classified as having statuses other than Professor, Associate Professor, or Assistant Professor. Table 13 lists teachers of pedagogy by gender, positions of authority and faculty status.

Table 13

Pedagogy Teachers by Gender, Highest Degree Listed and Positions of Authority (N=324)

	Males (n=115)		Females (n=209)	
	<u>Pos. Of Auth.</u> (n=42)	<u>Teachers</u> (n=73)	<u>Pos. Of Auth.</u> (n=50)	<u>Teachers</u> (n=159)
Faculty Status	34	60	45	99
Other Status	2	12	4	52
Status Unknown	6	1	1	8

7: Can sufficient data collection be obtained from information listed on college and university websites to indicate a power hierarchy and/or sex inequalities in the applied voice area?

The variables of gender, educational background, employment status, positions of authority, and additional instructional duties were considered when attempting to answer this question. More women were listed as teaching applied voice than men (see Table 2). Although nearly equal numbers of men and women listed a doctoral degree, this was equivalent to 51% of all males, and 34% of all females (see Table 3). Although nearly equal numbers of men and women were listed as holding some type of Professor Employment Status, this was equivalent to 56% of all males and 36% of all females (see Table 4). A larger number and a larger percentage of females held some type of Other Employment Status with the majority of these positions falling under the combined group heading Adjunct/Lecturer/ Instructor/Part-Time (see Tables 5 and 6). Men outnumbered women in total number of administrative positions held (see Tables 7 and 8). With regard to additional instructional duties, results for males differed from those for females and are displayed in Table 14.

Table 14

Ten Most Frequently Listed Instructional Areas Taught Compared by Gender (N=1,744)

	All Teachers (N=1,744)	Male (n=745)	Female (n=999)
1	Ensemble 566	Ensembles 348	Opera/MT Dir. 279
2	Op/MT Dir. 493	Opera/MT Dir. 214	Diction 261
3	Diction 405	Diction 144	Ensembles 218
4	Pedagogy 324	Conducting 137	Pedagogy 209
5	Class Voice 275	Pedagogy 115	Class Voice 185
6	Vocal Lit 229	Class Voice 89	Vocal Lit. 140
7	Conducting 171	Vocal Lit. 88	CCV 116
8	CCV 150	Methods 74	Methods 60
9	Methods 134	History 69	Appreciation 59
10	History 125	Theory 46	History 56

Results were compiled for all voice teachers with additional instructional duties by gender and employment status. Employment status could not be determined for approximately 5% of male teachers ($n=39$) and 5% of female teachers ($n=46$). Of the total number of female directors of ensembles ($n=218$) approximately 60% ($n=130$) held some type of professor employment status, while approximately 40% ($n=76$) held some type of other employment status. Of the total number of male directors of ensembles ($n=348$) approximately 80% ($n=255$) held some type of professor employment status, while approximately 20% ($n=67$) held some type of other employment status. For male ensemble directors and teachers of conducting the number of teachers increased as professor status increased. Otherwise, the number of males in each professor status category was relatively

stable except in Contemporary Commercial Voice Instruction. For females with professor status, the opposite tended to be true; there were fewer females occupying Professor status positions than Assistant Professor status positions in nine of the top ten instructional areas excepting Music History. Table 15 displays the overall top ten instructional areas taught by voice teachers by gender and employment status.

Table 15

Ten Most Frequently Listed Areas Compared by Gender and Faculty Status (N=1,744)

	Teachers (N=1,744)	Assist. (n=377)	Assoc. (n=359)	Prof. (n=312)	Admin. (n=6)	∑ PES (n=1,054)	OES (n=611)
Male	745	165	169	198	4	536	170
Female	999	212	190	114	2	518	435
Area	Teachers	Assist.	Assoc.	Prof.	Admin.	∑ PES	OES
<u>Ensembles</u>	566	129	123	133	5	390	138
Male	348	68	83	104	3	258	64
Female	218	61	40	29	2	132	74
<u>Op./MT Dir.</u>	493	126	111	106	3	346	136
Male	214	59	44	56	2	161	46
Female	279	67	67	40	1	175	90

Table 15 –continued

Area	Teachers	Assist.	Assoc.	Prof.	Admin.	Σ PES	OES
<u>Diction</u>	405	103	98	73	1	275	112
Male	144	37	38	36	—	111	28
Female	261	66	60	37	1	164	84
<u>Pedagogy</u>	324	72	99	67	1	239	69
Male	115	28	33	33	—	94	14
Female	209	44	66	34	1	145	55
<u>Class Voice</u>	276	54	35	35	—	124	134
Male	89	22	14	20	—	56	25
Female	185	32	21	15	—	68	109
<u>Vocal Lit.</u>	228	71	64	45	2	182	141
Male	88	26	23	23	1	73	13
Female	140	45	41	22	1	109	128
<u>Conducting</u>	171	38	48	61	—	147	13
Male	137	27	41	51	—	119	9
Female	34	11	7	10	—	28	4
<u>CCV</u>	150	30	28	14	—	72	75
Male	34	11	13	4	—	28	6
Female	116	19	15	10	—	44	69

Table 15 –continued

Area	Teachers	Assist.	Assoc.	Prof.	Admin.	∑ PES	OES
<u>Methods</u>	134	44	27	36	—	107	14
Male	74	19	14	28	—	61	1
Female	60	25	13	8	—	46	13
<u>History</u>	125	21	31	37	—	89	28
Male	69	9	18	23	—	50	15
Female	56	12	13	14	—	39	13

Note. PES = Professor Employment Status; OES=Other Employment Status

The ten classes most frequently taught by teachers with administration duties included: ensembles (165 males, 60 females); opera/musical theatre workshop and/or director (55 males, 68 females); conducting (85 males, 22 females); vocal pedagogy (42 males, 50 females); diction (34 males, 51 females); vocal and opera literature (32 males, 38 females); music education methods (45 males, 19 females); music history (26 males, 15 females); class voice (21 males, 12 females) and music theory courses (20 males, 12 females). Table 16 lists the total number of teachers with positions of authority with additional instructional duties by instructional area and gender.

Table 16

Frequency of Courses Taught by Gender and Position of Authority (N=432)

Instructional Area	Teachers (n=432)	Male (n=250)	Female (n=182)
Ensembles	225	165	60
Opera/M.T. Director	143	55	68
Conducting	107	85	22
Pedagogy	92	42	50
Diction	85	34	51
Vocal Literature	70	32	38
Music Education Methods	64	45	19
History	41	26	15
Class Voice	33	21	12
Theory	32	20	12

Results of additional areas were compiled and compared by gender, positions of authority (POA), and employment status. Areas that appeared to be associated with authority included ensemble directing, opera and/or musical theatre productions or workshops, and teaching conducting. The top teaching areas for male voice teachers involved leadership positions: ensemble director, and director of opera and/or musical theatre productions or workshops regardless of positions of authority, or employment status. Table 17 compares the instructional areas of voice teachers by gender, positions of authority, and employment status.

Table 17

Comparison of the Ten Most Frequently Listed Areas by Gender, Employment Status and Position of Authority

All Teachers	POA	Male POA	Female POA	PES	Male PES	Female PES	OES	Male OES	Female OES
Ensembles	Ensembles	Ensembles	Opera/MT.	Ensembles	Ensembles	Opera/MT	Ensembles	Ensembles	Cl. Voice
Opera/MT	Opera/MT	Conduct.	Ensembles	Opera/MT	Opera/MT	Diction	Opera/MT	Opera/MT	Opera/MT
Diction	Conduct.	Opera/MT	Pedagogy	Diction	Conduct.	Pedagogy	Cl. Voice	Cl. Voice	Diction
Pedagogy	Pedagogy	Methods	Diction	Pedagogy	Diction	Ensemble	Diction	Diction	Ensembles
Cl. Voice	Diction	Pedagogy	Vocal Lit.	Vocal Lit	Pedagogy	Vocal Lit	CCV	History	CCV
Vocal Lit	Vocal Lit.	Diction	Conduct.	Conduct.	Vocal Lit	Cl. Voice	Pedagogy	Pedagogy	Pedagogy
Conduct.	Methods	Vocal Lit.	Methods	Cl. Voice	Methods	Methods	Vocal Lit	Vocal Lit.	Piano
CCV	History	History	History	Methods	Cl. Voice	CCV	Piano	Theory	Apprec.
Methods	Cl. Voice	Cl. Voice	Cl. Voice	History	History	History	Apprec.	Conduct.	Vocal Lit
History	Theory	Theory	Theory	CCV	CCV	Conduct.	History	Apprec.	Aural Skill

Note. CCV=Contemporary Commercial Voice, POA=Position of Authority, PES=Professor Employment Status, OES=Other Employment Status

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Voice Teachers by Gender, Employment Status and Educational Degrees

Nationally, university music programs employ more than twice as many males ($n=6,237$) as females ($n=2,781$) (HEADS, 2005). A closer examination of the microcosm of voice teaching within the university yields quite a different picture. If voice teaching were representative of the career field as a whole then it could be expected there would be more than twice as many men as women teaching voice at the collegiate level, yet almost the opposite is true; female teachers account for roughly two-thirds of the total number of voice teachers at the post-secondary level. This may indicate that voice teaching is considered a female sex role. Evidence for this hypothesis can be garnered from Gates (1989) who found a proportion of 5:2 (males:females) in secondary choral ensembles. In addition, Koza (1993) found that males historically hold a general perception that singing is not a masculine activity. This may account for the overwhelming number of females in the applied voice teaching profession. A communication from the National Association of Teachers of Singing (NATS) Membership Secretary, S. Grizzard (personal communication, August 1, 2007) listed 5,739 members. Of these, 1,557 were male and 4,162 were female, more than twice as many females as males. In a preliminary investigation to the current study, the author noted nearly three times as many female members ($n=1,943$) as male members ($n=728$) listed in the NATS on-line database of teachers, even when gender neutral names were discounted.

Although nationally post-secondary institutions employ more males than females in their music programs, the sexes held a near equal percentage of professor status employment; 84% ($n=5,253$) of all males and 82% ($n=2,278$) of all females were listed as having Professor, Associate Professor, or Assistant Professor status (HEADS, 2005). Further evidence of voice teaching having a strongly female sex-role association can be inferred from a cautious comparison of the current data to the previously reported data. The

current data would indicate that roughly one-third of all female teachers holding professor-status positions are concentrated in the voice teaching area compared to only 14% of male teachers. Admittedly, these results are gross estimates, taken from different years. In addition, the HEADS data do not include all voice teachers, but only those employed in participating member institutions of NASM (National Association of Schools of Music).

As females outnumbered males in the voice teaching area, it is not surprising that they held the majority of professor status positions, but only marginally ($n=718$ males; $n=743$ females). Of the total number of male teachers with employment status listed in their biographies ($n=1,290$) more than half (56% or $n=718$) held positions as Assistant Professors, Associate Professors, or Professors while only 36%, ($n=743$) of female teachers ($n=2,054$) held similar positions. Even though females outnumbered males in total number of professor status positions, overall they held lower status within the ranks—37% held the title of Assistant Professor and only 26% held Professor status—while males had a more equal distribution ranging from 31% for Assistant Professors to 35% for Professors. In fact, both a larger number ($n=253$) as well as a larger percentage (35%) of males were listed as Professors than females ($n=196$, or 26%). These results are consistent with other research indicating within organization sex-role bias despite outward appearances of equality.

As indicated, the number of female teachers holding adjunct, part-time, lecturer, or instructor teaching positions was greater than those of males. It may be that females are seeking other professional or personal avenues. For example, females may hold more part-time positions because they are seeking to balance careers with family responsibilities. If this is the case, a part-time position may fit well with the needs of a working mother with professional training and a desire to raise her children. In addition, those females who left positions to raise families may face difficulties re-entering the work force at a later date. Further research in this area is warranted, as it is not known why professionally trained females hold twice as many non-faculty positions, however the results of the current study are consistent with similar findings by Hewitt & Thompson (2006), and Weaver (1993).

A weakness of the current study was the manner in which employment status was defined. Several voice teachers were listed as having professorial status as well as a status that was also counted as *Other*. Specifically, the terms Artist in Residence and Visiting Artist were at times used in conjunction with Professor, Associate Professor or Assistant Professor. This may indicate that, unlike professor Status, these terms may not be used consistently among all music degree-granting institutions. Further investigations should take this into consideration

Historically the voice performance degree attracts more females than males. The 2005 HEADS data showed more than twice as many females ($n=657$) as males ($n=267$) earning undergraduate voice degrees; almost three times as many females ($n=360$) as males ($n=131$) earning master's degrees in voice; and almost twice as many females ($n=49$) as males ($n=26$) earning a doctoral degree in voice. However, the long-term trends are not quite as clear; the HEADS report from 1999 listed an equal number of males and females receiving doctorates in voice performance even though there were twice as many females than males enrolled in doctoral voice programs. Further investigation in this area is warranted; it may be that women do not complete doctoral degrees for the same reasons they hold more part-time, adjunct positions.

Less clear is how employment status correlates to degree status within the voice teaching profession. Nationally, within music programs 59% of males and 62% of females teaching in post-secondary music programs held doctoral degrees (HEADS, 2005). However, the percentages obtained for voice teachers differ from the overall trend within music programs in four-year institutions as this investigation found that 40% of teachers (51% of males and 34% of females) with degree information listed indicated they had earned a doctoral degree. It may be that earning a doctoral degree is a less significant determinant than other factors when considering candidates for applied faculty positions; however what these other factors are has yet to be investigated.

Determining an accurate picture of voice teachers' educational backgrounds based solely on the biographical information available on university websites remains suspect.

Difficulties arise as there is no standard format for faculty biographies used within a single institution, let alone across institutions state-wide or nationally. In addition, specific degree information was lacking for roughly 25% of the teachers. In the current study, there was no way to determine if the degree information listed was complete or accurate. Only teachers specifically stating they had completed a degree were counted. This meant that in many cases an individual may have completed a higher degree, but unless the biography specifically indicated completion it was not counted. Overall, performance faculty, and especially active, applied performance faculty may attach a stigma (for real or imagined reasons) to listing degree information, especially if the degree is a terminal degree.

Yet other educational and training information appeared to be important to voice teachers, including training pedigree and teacher lineage; national and international performance experience; prominent artist training programs; and noteworthy teachers, coaches, directors and performance venues. The purpose of including faculty biographies on an institution's website may be, in part, for recruitment purposes of both potential students and faculty members. Further study is called for to determine who finds this information useful or important, and what exact biographical information is useful and effective in attracting future students, or employees. In addition, if specific educational degree information is listed, are performance faculty penalized or rewarded for its inclusion, and if so, by whom? Although the methodology used in the current study allowed for a large percentage of individuals to be investigated, methods involving direct contact with teachers, and/or the use of questionnaires and surveys could produce more accurate educational background data.

Voice Teachers with Positions of Authority

Further evidence of sex-role segregation may be suggested by the number of males and females holding positions of authority (area heads, department chairs, college deans, or other titled university administrators). Again, although females outnumbered males in total numbers of employed voice teachers, more males ($n=306$) held positions of authority than

did females ($n=257$). Kalleberg (2000) noted the influx of women seeking part-time employment as a cause for the creation of non-standard employment positions. Researchers (Mason and Goulden, 2004; McElarath, 1992); Perna, 2001; Wolfinger, 2006; Wolfinger, Mason, and Goulden, 2008) have theorized that females kept from advancing by the competing societal sex-role of family caretaker. In brief, these studies suggest that due to family sex-role pressures, women are unable to remain within the academic pipeline long enough to achieve authority positions. An examination of the data from the current study may support this hypothesis as, for both males and females, the majority of those teachers holding positions of authority also had remained in academe long enough to earn either Professor or Associate Professor status. Despite the overwhelming number of females employed in a career with a strong female sex-role association, factors must exist that allow males to rise through the ranks to gain positions of authority while at the same time prevent women from achieving anywhere close to representative proportions. Interestingly, for those teachers holding positions of authority and who were listed as having earned a master's as their highest degree, the number of males and females was similar. However males ($n=95$) with the rank of Professor and who were listed having earned a doctoral degree outnumbered females ($n=33$) by almost 3:1. These data may suggest that males receive some sort of benefit for earning a doctorate that women may not receive.

Another factor which may limit women from obtaining positions of authority is the evaluation process itself. There exists a body of research investigating the effect attractiveness may have on musical performance evaluations (Bermingham, G. A., 2000; Elliott, 2005; Ryan & Costa-Giomi, 2004; Wapnick, Darrow, Kovacs, & Dalrypmle, 1997; Ryan, Wapnick, Lacaille, & Darrow, 2006; Wapnick, Mazza, & Darrow, 1998; 2000). The results of these studies may indicate that attractiveness may influence musical performance evaluations. In particular, Wapnick, Darrow, Kovacs, and Dalrypmle's (1997) investigation of the effect of attractiveness on vocal performance evaluations has relevance to the current study. They found that attractive males were rated more highly than less attractive males, but this advantage did not appear in an audio-only condition. Other investigations in the

workplace show similar advantages to attractive individuals (Beehr & Gilmore, 1982; Cann, Siegfried, & Pearce, 1981; Cash, Gillen, & Burns, 1977; Dion, Bersheid, & Walster, 1972; Dipboye, Arvey, & Terpstra, 1977; Gilmore, Beehr, & Love, 1986; Griffin & Langlois, 2006; Snyder, Berscheid, & Matwychuk, 1988). Specifically, Cann, Siegfried, and Pearce (1981) found that attractiveness affected hiring decisions, and that overall, men were preferred to women. This is consistent with early work conducted by Rosen & Jerdee (1974a, 1974b) who found that even highly qualified females were hired less often than males.

Combined, these two separate fields of research may, in part, explain why women lack proportional representation in higher faculty ranks and in positions of authority. It could be inferred that an attractiveness bias, combined with a gender bias assists an individual, especially males, throughout a lifetime; attractive individuals may be reinforced and promoted over less attractive, but perhaps equally talented singers starting with early vocal studies, continuing through the undergraduate and graduate admissions process, and culminating with entrance into the post-secondary workforce and promotion to higher ranks and positions of authority. What, if any, effect attractiveness plays within promotion and accolades within the music classroom, college admissions, or academic hiring and promotion remains uninvestigated.

In the current study all positions of authority were treated equally, that is no differentiation was made between program head, area head, department chair, or any other position of authority and individual held. However, during the data collection it was noted that women held fewer positions at the highest levels of authority. A more detailed investigation may find sex-role stratification within these ranks with females holding lower-ranking positions than males.

Voice Teachers with Additional Instructional Responsibilities

Approximately half ($n=1746$) of all voice teachers listed teaching responsibilities other than applied voice. The overall number of males ($n=532$) and females ($n=516$) with

professorial status teaching other courses was nearly equal, however more than twice as many women ($n=437$) than men ($n=174$) with other employment status taught other classes in addition to applied voice. The data suggest that specific classes may carry greater status weight, or may have a strong male or female association, while other classes could be considered less prestigious, being delegated to part-time and adjunct faculty. Interestingly, among those teachers with Professor status, twice as many males ($n=139$) as females ($n=69$) taught courses in addition to applied voice. Both the teacher's employment status as well as the teacher's gender were related to differences in what additional courses were taught.

An investigation of faculty job postings in the College Music Society's Music Vacancy List (Fredrickson & McCabe, 2007) noted that the vast majority of entry-level job positions required candidates to have a variety of teaching areas. They concluded: "For graduate students to be competitive as they enter the profession it appears to be prudent for them to look for ways to develop their expertise in at least one other area at some point during graduate study" (p. 45). In their analysis they found that Voice positions were often linked with Pedagogy, Opera, Music Literature, and Class Voice. In addition, Choral Conducting positions were linked with Voice, Conducting, Music Education, and Music Theory. It may be that those listed as teaching voice have two very different career paths leading them to post-secondary teaching positions—The Performer/Teacher, and the Conductor/Educator—each with, presumably, a very different concept of what it means to teach voice at the post-secondary level, with very different outcomes in mind. However, these issues have been unexplored.

Males employed as professors outnumbered females four to one in teaching conducting and almost two to one in conducting ensembles. Females employed as professors outnumbered males in several areas (Opera/Musical Theatre Workshop/Conductor, Diction, Pedagogy, Class Voice, Vocal Literature, and Contemporary Commercial Voice) but the numbers did not approach the dominance males held over females in the Conducting and Ensemble Director areas. However, females with "Other" employment status outnumbered males roughly 2:1 teaching Opera/Musical Theatre

Workshop/Conductor ($n=91$) and Vocal Literature ($n=29$), 3:1 teaching Diction ($n=85$), 4:1 teaching Pedagogy ($n=56$) and Class Voice ($n=109$) and 11:1 ($n=69$) teaching Contemporary Commercial Voice. To date there has been no research exploring sex-roles in relation to the types of music classes taught by faculty or non-faculty members, therefore it is not possible to determine if an organizational power structure exists among voice faculty in four-year institutions, or whether areas such as singing, opera direction, class voice, conducting and diction have predominantly masculine or feminine associations. However, the results from this study as well as those by Hewitt & Thompson (2006) and VanWeelden (2003) would suggest that such an organizational power structure could, indeed, exist, especially in the area of conducting ensembles. This is also consistent with research from outside music education (Acker 1990; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Reskin 1993) which shows that even in professions with strong female associations, sex-role segregation exists which allows males to be promoted to positions of authority while women continue to hold the majority of non-managerial positions. Within post-secondary music it is not known which areas hold specific gender associations of masculine, feminine or neutral, regardless of the biological sex of the teacher.

Vocal Pedagogy

The percentage of females to males teaching vocal pedagogy was consistent with the population. However of interest was the employment status of the female teachers: roughly 25% were not full-time faculty members, whereas all male teachers responsible for teaching vocal pedagogy were full-time faculty members. Vocal pedagogy may be the sole music education methods class taken by performance majors, yet its importance and effectiveness in training future post-secondary teachers has not been investigated. In addition only 19% of all teachers indicated they had obtained a degree in music education at some point in their studies. To date, there have been no studies comparing the effectiveness of teachers with music education degrees or classes in their educational background and those with only performance degrees and professional experience in their backgrounds

Recommendations for Further Research

While investigating four-year institutions' websites, it was noted that smaller colleges and universities tended to have fewer music teachers, and those teachers who were employed were responsible for teaching up to eight other classes in related music areas. As the majority of degrees earned were master's and doctoral degrees in performance, and only 19% of voice teachers listed a degree in education in their background, questions arise as to where and how teaching skills are acquired and refined.

Approximately half ($n=1746$) of all voice teachers listed teaching responsibilities other than applied voice, in many cases to future voice teachers and music educators. Further research is called for in the area of applied teacher training, real and perceived expectations of those entering graduate performance programs, and the perceived outcomes for those same graduate performance majors by the faculty and administration of the four-year institutions granting the degrees. Finally, research is needed in the area of gender as it pertains to voice teaching and the role that institutions granting teacher degrees may play in perpetuating the status quo.

The biographical information available through the institutions' and voice teachers' websites provided a unique perspective into the voice profession. Many teachers listed paragraphs of performances, past, present and future, various accolades, former teachers, and collaborations with national and international professional musicians, yet offered little information with regard to educational training, teaching philosophy, courses taught, or student accomplishments. Of the total number of teachers listing biographical information, it was unclear what the employment status was for 18%. Similarly, the exact degrees earned by voice teachers were unavailable for 25% of those listed. It is unknown how applied voice teachers define their roles as artists and teachers. The results of this study may indicate a strong bias in the practices of hiring applied voice teachers for performers over teachers, and further research is needed. What results may be a perpetuation of the myth that "if one can't perform then one teaches, but if one can perform then one can also teach." These stereotypes, which can be divisive in music programs, have yet to be investigated.

The Internet has allowed great quantities of information to be shared almost immediately by large numbers of people. However, unless the website's content is reviewed, monitored or standardized in some way, the utility of the information contained can be questioned. For this reason, the results obtained from this study may be of interest to the colleges and universities from a marketing standpoint. What attracts undergraduate students to a specific program or teacher should be investigated. Is it the reputation of the school, or teacher? Is it due to the accomplishments of the teacher as a performer, or the accomplishments of the teacher's students? Do future undergraduates perceive individuals with doctoral degrees as being more competent teachers than individuals with significant national or international performance experience? Are females or males perceived as being more effective teachers? How do the more complicated social constructs of gender and sexual orientation influence students' perceptions of effectiveness?

The information obtained from four-year institutions in the United States may represent a snapshot at a particular moment of time representing the faculty and programs of the institutions. Upon reviewing the institutions' websites several were noted to have outdated information, in some cases, listing teachers who had retired or resigned from their positions, and in others not listing teachers who were currently employed. Other teachers listed degree information that was suspect, for example a PhD in performance or pedagogy from an institution that only grants DM or DMA degrees. Be that as it may, to conduct a study of this magnitude, attempting to collect information from every four-year institution in all states, would require surveys, questionnaires, follow-ups and inevitably delayed or absent responses. Although the information presented on the institution's website may have been inaccurate in some cases, it can probably be said that what was listed was an accurate representation at one point, presented in good faith, and therefore could be counted as being part of the sample. With these limitations in mind, the results from the current study should be viewed cautiously.

APPENDIX A
ALPHABETICAL LISTING OF INSTITUTIONS BY STATE

Alabama (n=35)

Air University
Alabama A & M
Alabama State University
Athens State University
Auburn University
Auburn University at Montgomery
Birmingham Southern College
Concordia College of Selma
Faulkner University
Huntingdon College
ITT Technical Institute
Jacksonville State University
Judson College
Miles College
Oakwood University
Samford University
Southeastern Bible College
Southern Christian University
Spring Hill College
Stillman College
Talladega College
Troy State University Main Campus
Troy State at Dothan

Alabama – continued

Troy State at Phenix City
Troy State at Montgomery
Tuskegee University
United States Sports Academy
University of Alabama at Birmingham
University of Alabama at Huntsville
University of Alabama Main Campus
University of Mobile
University of Montevallo
University of North Alabama
University of South Alabama
University of West Alabama

Alaska (n=6)

Alaska Bible College
Alaska Pacific University
Sheldon Jackson College
University of Alaska at Anchorage
University of Alaska at Fairbanks
University of Alaska Southeast at Juneau

Arizona (n=19)

American Indian College of the Assemblies of God
Arizona State University
Arizona State University Polytechnic Campus
Arizona State University West Campus
Collins College: A School of Design and Technology

Arizona - continued.

DeVry University
Embry Riddle Aeronautic University
Grand Canyon University
ITT Technical Institute
Keller Graduate School of Management
Northern Arizona University
Prescott College
Scottsdale Culinary Institute
Southwestern College
Thunderbird School of Global Management
University of Arizona
University of Phoenix (Main Web Page)
University of Phoenix (General Web Page)
Western International University

Arkansas (n=20)

Arkansas State University at Jonesville
Arkansas Tech University
Central Baptist College
Harding University
Henderson State University
Hendrix College
ITT Technical Institute
John Brown University
Lyons College
Ouchita Baptist University
Philander Smith College

Arkansas - continued

Southern Arkansas University
University of Arkansas Main Campus at Fayetteville
University of Arkansas at Little Rock
University of Arkansas Medical Sciences
University of Arkansas at Monticello
University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff
University of Central Arkansas
University of the Ozarks
Willows Baptist College

California (n=128)

Alliant International University
Art Center College of Design
Azusa Pacific University
American Intercontinental University
Bethany College
Biola University
Brooks Institute
California Baptist University
California College of Arts and Crafts
California Culinary Academy
California Institute of the Arts
California Institute of Integral Studies
California Institute of Technology
California Lutheran University
California National University
California Pacific University

California - continued

California School of Culinary Arts
California School of Professional Psychology
California State University Bakersfield
California State University Maritime Academy
California State University California Polytechnic San Luis/Obispo
California State University Polytechnic University Pomona
California State University Channel Islands
California State University Dominguez Hills
California State University Chico
California State University Fresno
California State University Fullerton
California State University Hayward Cal-State East Bay
California State University Humboldt State University
California State University Longbeach
California State University Los Angeles
California State University Monterey Bay
California State University Northridge
California State University Sacramento
California State University San Bernadino
California State University San Diego
California State University San Francisco
California State University San Jose State
California State University San Marcos
California State University Sonoma State
California State University Stanislaus
Chapman University

California – continued

Claremont Consortium - Graduate University
Claremont Consortium - McKenna College
Claremont Consortium - Harvey Mudd College
Claremont Consortium - Pitzer College
Claremont Consortium - Pomona College
Claremont Consortium - Scripps College
Cogswell Polytechnical College
Concordia University Irvine
Defense Language Institute Presidio of Monterey
DeVry University
Dominican University of California
Fielding Institute
Fresno Pacific University
Fuller Theological Seminary
Golden Gate University
Holy Names University
Hope International University
Humphreys College
Institute of Transpersonal Psychology
ITT Technical Institute
John F. Kennedy University
Keller Graduate School of Management
LIFE Pacific College
La Sierra University
Lincoln University
Loma Lind University

California – continued

Loyola Marymount University
Marymount College
The Master's College
Master's Seminary
Menlo College
Mills College
Monterey Institute of International Studies
Mount St. Mary's College
National Hispanic University
National University
Naval Post Graduate School
New College of California
Notre Dame de Namur University
Occidental College
Otis College of Art and Design
Pacific Oaks College
Pacific Union College
Pacifica Graduate Institute
Patten University
Pepperdine University
Platt College
Saint Mary's College of California
Samuel Merritt College
Santa Clara University
San Diego Christian College
Saybrook Graduate School and Research Center

California – continued

Simpson University
Southern California Institute of Architecture
Southwestern Law School
Stanford University
Thomas Aquinas College
University of California at Berkeley
University of California at Davis
University of California at Hastings College of Law
University of California at Irvine
University of California at Los Angeles
University of California at Riverside
University of California at San Diego
University of California at San Francisco
University of California at Santa Barbara
University of California at Santa Cruz
University of Judaism American Jewish University
University of La Verne
University of Northern California
University of Phoenix
University of the Pacific
University of Redlands
University of San Diego
University of San Francisco
University of Southern California
University of West Los Angeles
Vanguard University of Southern California

California – continued

Western University of Health Sciences

Westminster Seminary of California

Westmont College

Westwood College

Whittier College

William Howard Taft University

William Jessup University

Woodbury University

Colorado (n=29)

Adams State College

Colorado Christian University

Colorado College

Colorado School of Mines

Colorado State University

Colorado State University Pueblo

Colorado Technical University

DeVry University

Fort Lewis College

ITT Technical Institute

Jones International University

Keller Graduate School of Management

Messa State College

Metropolitan State College of Denver

Naropa University

Natural Technological University of Walden University

Nazarene Bible College

Colorado - continued

Regis University
Rocky Mountain College of Art and Design
United States Air Force Academy
University of Colorado at Boulder
University of Colorado at Colorado Springs
University of Colorado at Denver
University of Colorado at Denver Health Sciences Programs
University of Denver
University of Northern Colorado
University of Phoenix
Western State College
Westwood College

Connecticut (n=33)

Albertus Magnus College
Central Connecticut State University
Charter Oak State College
Connecticut College
Eastern Connecticut State University
Fairfield University
Holy Apostles College and Seminary
Mitchell College
Quinnipiac University
Rensselaer at Hartford
Sacred Heart University
St. Joseph College
Southern Connecticut State University

Connecticut - continued

Post University of Waterbury Connecticut
Trinity College
United States Coast Guard Academy
University of Bridgeport
University of Connecticut
University of Hartford
University of New Haven
Wesleyan University
Western Connecticut State University
Yale University

Delaware (n=5)

Delaware State University
Goldey-Beacon College
University of Delaware
Wesley College Delaware
Wilmington College

Florida (n=59)

American Intercontinental University
Argosy University
Barry University
Bethune-Cookman College
Carlos Albizu University at Miami
Clearwater Christian College
DeVry University
Eckerd College
Edward Waters College

Florida - continued

Embry-Riddle Aeronautic University
Everglades University
Flagler College
Florida A & M University
Florida Atlantic University
Florida Christian College
Florida College
Florida Gulf Coast University
Florida Hospital College of Health Sciences
Florida Institute of Technology
Florida International University
Florida Memorial University
Everest University formerly Florida Metropolitan University
Florida Southern College
Florida State University
Florida State University at Panama City
Herzing College
Hobe Sound Bible College
International Academy of Design Technology
Hodges University formerly International University
ITT Technical Institute
Jacksonville State University
Jones College
Keiser College
Keller Graduate School of Management
Lynn University

Florida - continued

Miami International University of Art and Design
Northwood University
Nova Southeastern University
Palm Beach Atlantic University
Rigby College of Art and Design
Rollins College
Saint John Vianney College Seminary
Saint Leo College
St. Thomas University
South Florida Bible College and Theological Seminary
Southeastern University
Stetson University
Trinity College of Florida
Troy University Online
University of Central Florida
University of Florida
University of Miami
University of North Florida
University of Phoenix
University of South Florida
University of Tampa
University of West Florida
Warner Southern College
Webber International University

Georgia (n=53)

Agnes Scott College

Georgia - continued

American Intercontinental University
Art Institute of Atlanta
Atlanta Christian College
Berry College
Brenau University
Brewton-Parker College
Chubb Institute
Clark Atlanta University
Covenant College
Dalton State College
DeVry University
Emmanuel College
Emory University
Georgia Tech
Herzing College
Keller Graduate School of Management
La Grange College
Mercer University
Morehouse College
Morris Brown College
Oglethorpe University
Paine College
Piedmont College
Reinhardt College
Savannah College of Art and Design
Shorter College

Georgia - continued

South University

Spelman College

Thomas University

Toccoa Falls College

University of Georgia - Albany State University

University of Georgia - Armstrong Atlantic State University

University of Georgia - Augusta State University

University of Georgia - Clayton State University

University of Georgia - Columbus State University

University of Georgia - Fort Valley State University

University of Georgia - Georgia College and State University

University of Georgia - Georgia Institute of Technology College of Architecture

University of Georgia - Georgia Southern University

University of Georgia - Georgia Southwestern State University

University of Georgia - Georgia State University

University of Georgia - Kennesaw State University

University of Georgia - Macon State University

University of Georgia - Medical College of Georgia

University of Georgia - Middle Georgia College

University of Georgia - North Georgia College and State University

University of Georgia - Savannah State University

University of Georgia - Southern Polytechnic University

University of Georgia - State University of West Georgia

University of Georgia – UG Main Campus

University of Georgia - Valdosta State University

Wesleyan College

Hawaii (n=7)

Brigham Young University at Hawaii
Chaminade University
Hawaii Pacific University
University of Hawaii Hilo
University of Phoenix HI
University of Hawaii Manoa
University of Hawaii West Oahu

Idaho (n=9)

Albertson College of Idaho
Boise State University
Idaho State University
ITT Technical Institute Idaho
Lewis and Clark State College
New Saint Andrews College
Northwest Nazarene University
University of Idaho
University of Phoenix Idaho

Illinois (n=75)

American College of Education
Augustana College
Aurora University
Benedictine University
Blackburn College
Bradley University
Chicago School of Professional Psychology
Chicago State University

Illinois - continued

Chubb Institute and Banner Institute
College of DuPage
Columbia College
Concordia University at Chicago
Cooking and Hospitality Institute
DeVry University & Keller Graduate School of Management
Dominican University
East-West University
DePaul University
Eastern Illinois University
Elmhurst College
Erikson Institute
Eureka College
Governor's State University
Greenville College
Harrington College of Design
Illinois College
Illinois Institute of Technology
Illinois State University
Illinois Wesleyan University
International Academy of Design and Technology
ITT Technical Institute
Judson College
Kendall College
Knox College
Lake Forest College

Illinois - continued

Lakeview College of Nursing
Lewis University
Lincoln Christian College and Seminary
Loyola University
McKendree College
MacMurray College
Midwestern College
Milliken University
Monmouth College
Moody Bible Institute
National University of Health Sciences
National-Louis University
North Central College
North Park College and Theological Seminary
Northeastern Illinois University
Northern Illinois University
Northwestern University
Olivet Nazarene University
Principia College
Quincy University
Robert Morris College
Rockford College
Roosevelt University
Rush University
Saint Anthony College of Nursing
St. Xavier College

Illinois - continued

School of the Art Institute of Chicago
Shimer College
Southern Illinois University Carbondale
Southern Illinois University Edwardsville
Spertus Institute of Jewish Studies
Trinity Christian College
Trinity International University
University of Chicago
University of Illinois Chicago
University of Illinois Springfield
University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign
University of St. Francis
Western Illinois University
Westwood College
Wheaton College

Indiana (n=59)

Anderson University
Ball State University
Bethel College
Butler University
Calumet College
Christian Theological Seminary
Concordia Theological Seminary at Fort Wayne
DePauw University
Earlham College
Franklin College

Indiana - continued

Goshen College
Grace College
Hanover College
Holy Cross College
Huntington University
Indiana Institute of Technology
Indiana State University
Indiana University Bloomington
Indiana University East
Indiana University Kokomo
Indiana University Northwest
Indiana University South Bend
Indiana University Southeast
Indiana University/Purdue Columbus
Indiana University/Purdue Fort Wayne
Indiana University/Purdue Indianapolis
Indiana Wesleyan University at Marion
ITT Technical Institute
Keller Graduate School of Management
Manchester College
Marian College
Martin University
Oakland City University
Purdue University – Main Campus
Purdue at Calumet
Purdue University/Indiana University North Central

Indiana - continued

Purdue University/Indiana University at Columbus (see Indiana University)
Purdue University/Indiana University at Fort Wayne (see Indiana University)
Purdue University/Indiana University at Indianapolis (see Indiana University)
Purdue University College of Technology at Anderson and Muncie
Purdue University College of Technology at Columbus and Greensburg
Purdue University College of Technology at Indianapolis
Purdue University College of Technology at Kokomo
Purdue University College of Technology at New Albany
Purdue University College of Technology at Richmond
Purdue University College of Technology at South Bend/Elkhart
Rose-Hulman Institute of Technology
St. Joseph's College
Saint Mary of the Woods College
Saint Mary's College
Taylor University
Tri-State University
University of Evansville
University of Indianapolis
University of Notre Dame
University of St. Francis
University of Southern Indiana
Valparaiso University
Wabash College

Iowa (n34)

Allen College
Ashford University

Iowa - continued

Briar Cliff University

Buena Vista University

Central College

Clarke College

Coe College

Cornell College

Des Moines University College of Osteopathic Medicine

Divine Word College

Dordt College

Drake University

Emmaus Bible College

Faith Baptist Bible College and Seminary

Graceland College

Grandview College

Grinnell College

Iowa State University

Iowa Wesleyan College

Loras College

Morningside College

Luther College

Maharishi University

Mount Mercy College

Northwestern College of Iowa

St. Ambrose University

Simpson College

University of Dubuque

Iowa - continued

University of Iowa

University of Northern Iowa

Upper Iowa University

Vennard College

Wartburg College

William Penn University

Kansas (*n=27*)

Baker University

Barclay College

Benedictine College

Bethany College

Bethel College

Central Christian College

Emporia State University

Fort Hayes State University

Friends University

Haskell Indian Nations University

Hesston College

Kansas State University

Kansas Wesleyan University

Manhattan Christian College

McPherson College

Mid-American Nazarene University

Newman University

Ottawa University

Pittsburg State University

Kansas - continued

Southwestern College
Sterling College
Taber College
University of Kansas
University of Kansas Medical Center
University of Saint Mary
Washburn University
Wichita State University

Kentucky (n=33)

Alice Lloyd College
Asbury College
Asbury Theological Seminary
Bellarmino College
Berea College
Brescia College
Campbellsville University
Centre College
Clear Creek Baptist Bible College
Eastern Kentucky University
Georgetown College
ITT Technical Institute
Kentucky Christian University
Kentucky Mountain Bible College
Kentucky State University
Kentucky Wesleyan College
Lindsey Wilson College

Kentucky - continued

Mid-Continent College
Midway College
Morehead State University
Murray State University
Northern Kentucky University
Pikeville College
Southern Baptist Theological Seminary
Spalding University
Sullivan University
Thomas More College
Transylvania University
Union College
University of the Cumberlands
University of Kentucky
University of Louisville
Western Kentucky University

Louisiana (n=26)

Centenary College of Louisiana
Dillard University
Grambling University
Herzing College
ITT Technical Institute
Louisiana College
Louisiana State University at Alexandria
Louisiana State University at Baton Rouge
Louisiana State University at Eunice

Louisiana - continued

Louisiana State University at Shreveport
University of New Orleans
Louisiana Tech University
Loyola University New Orleans
McNeese State University
Nicholls State University
Northwestern State University of Louisiana
Our Lady of Holy Cross College
Our Lady of the Lake College
Southeastern Louisiana University
Southern University System at Baton Rouge
Southern University System at New Orleans
Tulane University Louisiana
University of Louisiana at Monroe
University of Louisiana at Lafayette
University of Phoenix
Xavier University of Louisiana

Maine (n=19)

Bates College
Bowdoin College
Colby College
College of the Atlantic
Husson College
Maine College of Art
Maine Maritime Academy
New England School of Communications

Maine - continued

St. Joseph's College

Thomas College

Unity College

University of Maine at Augusta

University of Maine at Farmington

University of Maine at Fort Kent

University of Maine at Machias

University of Maine at Orono

University of Maine at Presque Isle

University of Maine – University of Southern Maine

University of New England Maine

Maryland (n=37)

Baltimore Hebrew University

Baltimore International College

Bowie State University

Capital College

Chesapeake College

College of Notre Dame of Maryland

Columbia Union College

Computer Career Institute

Coppin State College

Goucher College

Frostburg State University

Hood College

Johns Hopkins University

Computer Institute at Johns Hopkins University

Maryland - continued

Keller Graduate School of Management
Loyola College
Maryland Institute College of Art
McDaniel College
Morgan State University
Mount Saint Mary's University
St. John's College Annapolis
St. Mary's College of Maryland
Salisbury University
Soujourner-Douglass College
Towson University
The Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences
United States Naval Academy
University of Baltimore
University of Maryland at Baltimore
University of Maryland at Baltimore County
University of Maryland at College Park
University of Maryland at Eastern Shore
University of Maryland at University College
University of Phoenix
Washington Bible College
Washington College
Villa Julie College

Massachusetts (n=73)

American International College
Amherst College

Massachusetts - continued

Anna Maria College

Assumption College

Atlantic Union College

Babson College

Bay Path College

Becker College

Bentley College

Berklee College of Music

Boston College

Boston Conservatory

Boston Graduate School of Psychoanalysis

Boston University

Brandeis University

Bridgewater State College

Clark University

Clark University Computer Career Institute/American International College

College of the Holy Cross

Curry College

Eastern Nazarene College

Elms College

Emerson College

Emmanuel College

Endicott College

Fitchburg State College

Framingham State College

Gordon College

Massachusetts - continued

Hampshire College

Harvard University

ITT Technical Institute

Lasell College

Lesley College

Lincoln Technical Institute

Massachusetts College of Art

Massachusetts College of Pharmacy and Health Sciences

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Massachusetts Maritime Academy

Massachusetts School of Professional Psychology

Merrimack College

Mount Holyoke College

Mount Ida College

New England College of Optometry

Newbury College

Nichols College

North Adams State College now Massachusetts College of Liberal Arts

New England Conservatory of Music

Northeastern University

Pine Manor College

Regis College

Salem State College

Simmons College

Simon's Rock College

Smith College

Massachusetts - continued

Springfield College

Stonehill College

Suffolk University

Tufts University

University of Massachusetts at Amherst

University of Massachusetts at Boston

University of Massachusetts at Dartmouth

University of Massachusetts at Lowell

University of Massachusetts Worcester Medical Center

University of Phoenix

Wellesley College

Wentworth Institute of Technology

Western New England College

Westfield State College

Wheaton College

Wheelock College

Williams College

Worcester Polytechnic Institute

Worcester State University

Michigan (n=46)

Adrian College

Albion College

Alma College

Andrews University

Aquinas College

Baker College

Michigan - continued

Calvin College

College of Creative Studies-College of Art & Design

Central Michigan University

Cleary College

Concordia University

Cornerstone University

Davenport University

Eastern Michigan University

Ferris State University

Finlandia University

Grace Bible College

Grand Valley State University

Hillsdale College

Hope College

ITT Technical Institute

Kalamazoo College

Kendall College of Art and Design

Kettering University

Lake Superior State University

Lawrence Technological University

Madonna University

Marygrove College

Michigan State University

Michigan Technological University

Northern Michigan University

Northwood University

Michigan - continued

Oakland University
Olivet College
Rochester College
Saginaw Valley State University
Siena Heights University
Spring Arbor University
University of Detroit Mercy
University of Michigan Ann Arbor
University of Michigan Dearborn
University of Michigan Flint
University of Phoenix
Walsh College
Wayne State University
Western Michigan University

Minnesota (n=43)

Alfred Adler Institute
Augsburg College
Bethel College and Seminary/Bethel University
Brown College
Capella University
Carleton College
College of Saint Benedict
College of St. Catherine
College of St. Scholastica
College of Visual Arts
Concordia College Moorhead

Minnesota - continued

Concordia University Saint Paul
Crossroads College
Crown College
Gustavus Adolphus College
Hamline University
Herzing College
Luther Seminary
Macalester College
Martin Luther College
Minneapolis College of Art and Design
Minnesota State University - Bemidji State University
Minnesota State University at Mankato
Minnesota State University at Moorhead
Minnesota State University - Metropolitan State University
Minnesota State University - Southwest State University
Minnesota State University - St. Cloud State University
Minnesota State University - Winona State University
North Central University
Northwestern College
Oak Hills Christian College
Pillsburg Baptist Bible College
Rasmussen College
Saint John's University (links with College of Saint Benedict)
Saint Mary's University of Minnesota
Saint Olaf College
University of Minnesota at Crookston

Minnesota - continued

University of Minnesota at Duluth
University of Minnesota at Morris
University of Minnesota at Twin Cities
University of Saint Thomas
Walden University
William Mitchell College of Law

Mississippi (*n*=18)

Alcorn State University
Belhaven College
Blue Mountain College
Delta State University
Jackson State University
Magnolia Bible College
Millsaps College
Mississippi College
Mississippi State University
Mississippi University for Women
Mississippi Valley State University
Rust College
Tougaloo College
University of Mississippi
University of Mississippi Medical Center
University of Phoenix
University of Southern Mississippi
William Carey College Mississippi

Missouri (n=50)

Avila University
Baptist Bible College
Central Bible College
Central Christian College of the Bible
Central Methodist University
Central Missouri State University
Cleveland Chiropractic College
College of the Ozarks
Columbia College
Concordia Seminary St. Louis
Culver-Stockton College
DeVry University
Drury University
Evangel University
Fontbonne College
Forest Institute of Professional Psychology
Greenleaf University
Hannibal-Lagrange College
Harris-Stowe State University
ITT Technical Institute
Keller Graduate School of Management
Kirksville College of Osteopathic Medicine
Lincoln University
Lindenwood University
Logan College of Chiropractic
Maryville University of St. Louis

Missouri - continued

Missouri Baptist College
Missouri Southern State College
Missouri State University
Missouri Valley College
Missouri Western State University
Northwest Missouri State University
Ozark Christian College
Park University Missouri
Rockhurst University
St. Louis College of Pharmacy
St. Louis University
Southern Missouri State University
Southwest Baptist University
Stephens College
Truman State University
University of Missouri Columbia
University of Missouri Kansas City
University of Missouri Rolla
University of Missouri St. Louis
Washington University
Webster University
Westminster College
William Jewell College
William Woods University

Montana (n=10)

Carroll College

Montana - continued

Montana State University at Billings
Montana State University at Bozeman
Montana State University - Northern
Rocky Mountain College
Salish Kootenai College
University of Great Falls
University of Montana at Missoula
University of Montana - Montana Tech
University of Montana - Western

Nebraska (*n*=22)

Bellevue University
Chadron State College
Clarkson College
College of Saint Mary
Concordia University
Creighton University
Dana College
Doane College
Grace University
Hastings College
ITT Technical Institute
Midland Lutheran College
Nebraska Christian College
Nebraska Wesleyan University
Peru State University
Union College

Nebraska – continued

University of Nebraska at Kearney
University of Nebraska at Lincoln
University of Nebraska at Omaha
University of Nebraska Medical Center
Wayne State College
York College

Nevada (*n*=6)

ITT Technical Institute
Lincoln Technical Institute
Sierra Nevada College
University of Nevada Las Vegas
University of Nevada Reno
University of Phoenix

New Hampshire (*n*=16)

Antioch University
Colby-Sawyer College
Daniel Webster College
Dartmouth College
Franklin Pierce University
Franklin Pierce Law Center
Granite State College
Keene State College
New England College
Plymouth State College
Rivier College
Saint Anselm College

New Hampshire – continued

Southern New Hampshire University
Thomas More College of Liberal Arts
University of New Hampshire
University of New Hampshire at Manchester

New Jersey (*n*=27)

Berkeley College
Bloomfield College
Caldwell College
Centenary College
College of New Jersey
College of Saint Elizabeth
Drew University
Farleigh Dickinson University
Felician College
Georgian Court College
Kean University
Monmouth University
Montclair State University
New Jersey City University
New Jersey Institute of Technology
Princeton University
Ramapo College
Richard Stockton College
Rider University
Rowan University
Rutgers State University

New Jersey – continued

Saint Peter's College

Seton Hall University

Stevens Institute of Technology

Thomas Edison State College

University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey

William Paterson University

New Mexico (n=12)

College of Santa Fe

College of the Southwest

Eastern New Mexico University

ITT Technical Institute

New Mexico Institute of Mining Technology

New Mexico Highlands University

New Mexico State University

St. John's College of Santa Fe

Southwestern College

University of New Mexico

University of Phoenix

Western New Mexico University

New York (n=146)

Adelphia University

Albany College of Pharmacy

Alfred University

Bank Street College of Education

Bard College

Barnard College

New York – continued

Berkeley College

Canisius College

Cazenovia College

City University of New York at Baruch

City University of New York - Brooklyn College

City University of New York - City College

City University of New York - College of Staten Island

City University of New York - Graduate School and University

City University of New York - Hunter College

City University of New York - John Jay College of Criminal Justice

City University of New York - Lehman College

City University of New York - Medger Evers College

City University of New York - Queens College

City University of New York - York College

Clarkson University

Colgate University

College of Mount St. Vincent

College of New Rochelle

College of Saint Rose

Columbia University

Concordia College Bronxville

Cooper Union of the Advancement of Science and Art

Cornell University

Daemen College

Dowling College

D'Youville College

New York – continued

Elmira College

Excelsior College

Fordham University

Hamilton College

Hartwick College

Hilbert College

Hobart and William Smith College

Hofstra University

Houghton College

Iona College

Ithaca College

Jamestown Business College

Jewish Theological Seminary of America

Juilliard School

Le Moyne College

LIU – Arnold and Marie Schwartz College of Pharmacy and Health Sciences

Long Island University at Brentwood

Long Island University at Brooklyn

Long Island University at C.W. Post

Long Island University at Rockland

Long Island University - Southampton College

Long Island University at Westchester

Manhattan College

Manhattan School of Music

Manhattanville College

Marist College

New York – continued

Marymount College

Marymount Manhattan College

Medaille College

Mercy College

Metropolitan College of New York

Molloy College

Monroe College

Mount Saint Mary College

Nazareth College

New School - Mannes College

New York College of Podiatric Medicine

New York Institute of Technology

New York Medical College

New York University

Niagara University

Nyack College

Pace University

Parson's School of Design

Paul Smith's College

Polytechnic University of New York

Pratt Institute

Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute

Roberts Wesleyan College

Rochester Institute of Technology

The Rockefeller University

The Sage Colleges

New York – continued

St. Bonaventure University

St. Francis College

St. John Fisher College

St. John's College

St. Joseph's College

St. Lawrence University

St. Thomas Aquinas College

Sarah Lawrence College

School of Visual Arts

Siena College

Skidmore College

SUNY Albany

SUNY Alfred State College of Technology

SUNY Binghamton University

SUNY Brockport

SUNY University of Buffalo

SUNY Buffalo State College

SUNY Canton

SUNY Cobleskill

SUNY Cornell University College of Agriculture and Life Sciences

SUNY Cornell College of Veterinary Medicine

SUNY Cornell College of Industrial Labor Relations

SUNY Cornell College of Human Ecology

SUNY Cortland

SUNY Delhi

SUNY Downstate Medical Center

New York – continued

SUNY Empire State College

SUNY Environmental Science and Forestry at Syracuse University

SUNY Farmingdale State College

SUNY Fashion Institute of Technology

SUNY Fredonia

SUNY Geneseo

SUNY Maritime College

SUNY Morrisville State College

SUNY New Paltz

SUNY Old Westbury

SUNY Oneonta

SUNY State College of Optometry

SUNY Oswego

SUNY Plattsburgh

SUNY Potsdam

SUNY Purchase

SUNY Stony Brook

SUNY Institute of Technology Utica/Rome

SUNY NY State College of Ceramics at Alfred University

SUNY Upstate Medical Center

Syracuse University

Teachers College at Columbia University

Touro College

Unification Theological Seminary

Union College

Union Theological Seminary

New York – continued

United States Merchant Marine Academy
United States Military Academy
University of Rochester - Eastman School of Music
Utica College of Syracuse University
Vassar College
Vaughn College of Aeronautics and Technology
Wagner College
Wells College
College of Westchester
Yeshiva University

North Carolina (*n*=54)

Appalachian State University
Barber-Scotia College
Barton College
Belmont Abbey College
Bennett College for Women
Brevard College
Campbell University
Catawba College
Chowan College
Davidson College
Duke University
East Carolina University
Elizabeth City State University
Elon University
Fayetteville State University

North Carolina - continued

Gardner-Webb University
Greensboro College
Guilford College
High Point University
Johnson J. Smith University
Keller Graduate School of Management
Lees-McRae College
Lenoir-Rhyne College
Livingstone College
Louisburg College
Mars Hill College
Meredith College
Methodist College
Mount Olive College
North Carolina Central University
North Carolina A & T State University
North Carolina School of the Arts
North Carolina State University
North Carolina Wesleyan College
Peace College
Pfeiffer University
Piedmont Baptist College
Queens College
Roanoke Bible College
St. Andrews Presbyterian College
St. Augustine's College

North Carolina - continued

Salem College
Shaw University
University of North Carolina at Asheville
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
University of North Carolina at Charlotte
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
University of North Carolina at Pembroke
University of North Carolina at Wilmington
Wake Forest University
Warren Wilson College
Western Carolina University
Wingate University
Winston-Salem State University

North Dakota (*n*=9)

Dickinson State University
Jamestown College
Mayville State University
Minot State University
North Dakota State University
Trinity Bible College
University of Mary
University of North Dakota
Valley City State University

Ohio (*n*=74)

Air Force Institute of Technology
Antioch College

Ohio – continued

Art Academy of Cincinnati
Ashland University
Baldwin-Wallace College
Bowling Green State University
Bluffton University
Capital University
Case Western Reserve University
Cedarville University
Central State University
Cincinnati Christian University
Circleville Bible College
Cleveland Institute of Art
Cleveland Institute of Music
Cleveland State University
College of Mount St. Joseph
College of Wooster
Columbus College of Art and Design
Defiance College
Denison University
DeVry University
Franciscan University of Steubenville
Franklin University
Heidelberg College
Hiram College
ITT Technical Institute
John Carroll University

Ohio - continued

Keller Graduate School of Management

Kent State University

Kenyon College

Lake Erie College

Laura and Alvin Siegal College of Judaic Studies

Lourdes College

Malone College

Marietta College

Medical College of Ohio

Miami University

Mount Union College

Mount Vernon Nazarene University

Muskingum College

Myers University

Northeastern Ohio Universities Colleges of Medicine and Pharmacy

Notre Dame College

Oberlin College and Conservatory of Music

Ohio Dominican University

Ohio Northern University

Ohio State University

Ohio State University at Lima

Ohio State University at Mansfield

Ohio State University at Marion

Ohio Wesleyan University

Ohio University, Athens

Otterbein College

Ohio - continued

Shawnee State University
Tiffin University
The Union Institute
University of Akron
University of Cincinnati
University of Dayton
University of Findlay
University of Northwestern Ohio
University of Phoenix
University of Rio Grande
University of Toledo
Urbana University
Ursuline College
Walsh University
Wilberforce University
Wilmington College
Wittenberg University
Wright State University
Xavier University
Youngstown State University

Oklahoma (*n*=23)

Cameron University
East Central University
Langston University
Mid-America Christian University
Northeastern State University

Oklahoma - continued

Northwestern Oklahoma State University
Oklahoma Baptist University
Oklahoma Christian University of Science and Arts
Oklahoma City University
Oklahoma Panhandle State University
Oklahoma State University
Oklahoma Wesleyan University
Oral Roberts University
St. Gregory's University
Southeastern Oklahoma State University
Southern Nazarene University
Southwestern Oklahoma State University
University of Central Oklahoma
University of Oklahoma
University of Phoenix
University of Oklahoma Health Science Center
University of Science and Arts of Oklahoma
University of Tulsa

Oregon (n=31)

Concordia University Portland
Corban College
Eastern Oregon University
Eugene Bible College
George Fox University
Gutenberg College
ITT Technical Institute

Oregon - continued

Lewis and Clark College

Linfield College

Marylhurst University

Mount Angel Abbey and Seminary

Multnomah Bible College and Seminary

Northwest Christian College

Oregon Graduate Institute of Science and Technology

Oregon Health Sciences University

Oregon Institute of Technology

Oregon State University

Pacific Northwest College of Art

Pacific University

Pioneer Pacific College

Portland State University

Reed College

Southern Oregon University

University of Oregon

University of Phoenix

University of Portland

Warner Pacific College

Western Culinary Institute

Western Oregon University

Western States Chiropractic College

Willamette University

Pennsylvania (n=129)

Albright College

Pennsylvania - continued

Allegheny College
Allentown College of Saint Francis de Sales
Alvernia College
American College
Arcadia University
Baptist Bible College
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania
Bryn Athyn College of the New Church
Bryn Mawr College
Bucknell University
Cabrini College
California University of Pennsylvania
Carlow College
Carnegie Mellon University
Cedar Crest College
Chatham College
Chestnut Hill College
Cheyney University
Chubb Institute
Clarion University
College Misericordia
Curtis Institute of Music
Delaware Valley College
DeVry University
Dickinson College
Drexel University

Pennsylvania - continued

Duquesne University
East Stroudsburg University
Eastern College
Edinboro University of Pennsylvania
Elizabethtown College
Franklin and Marshall College
Gannon University
Geneva College
Gettysburg College
Gratz College
Grove City College
Gwynedd-Mercy College
Haverford College
Holy Family College
Immaculata College
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Juniata College
Keystone College
King's College
Kutztown University of Pennsylvania
La Roche College
Lafayette College
Lancaster Bible College
La Salle University
Lebanon Valley College
Lehigh University

Pennsylvania - continued

Lincoln University
Lockhaven University of Pennsylvania
Lycoming College
Mansfield University
Marywood University
Mercyhurst College
Messiah College
Millersville University of Pennsylvania
Moore College of Art and Design
Moravian College
Mount Aloysius College
Muhlenberg College
Neumann College
Pierce College
Pennsylvania College of Optometry
Pennsylvania State University at Abington
Pennsylvania State University at Altoona
Pennsylvania State University at Berks
Pennsylvania State University at Beaver
Pennsylvania State University at DuBois
Pennsylvania State University at Erie, Behrend College
Pennsylvania State University at Fayette
Pennsylvania State University at Great Valley
Pennsylvania State University at Greater Allegheny
Pennsylvania State University at Harrisburg
Pennsylvania State University at Hazleton

Pennsylvania - continued

Pennsylvania State University at Lehigh Valley
Pennsylvania State University at Mont Alto
Pennsylvania State University at New Kensington
Pennsylvania State University at Schuylkill
Pennsylvania State University at Shenango
Pennsylvania State University at University Park - Main Campus
Pennsylvania State University at Wilkes-Barre
Pennsylvania State University at Worthington Scranton
Pennsylvania State University at York
Pennsylvania State University - College of Medicine
Pennsylvania State University - Delaware County at Brandywine
Pennsylvania State University - Pennsylvania College of Technology
Philadelphia Biblical University
Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science
Philadelphia University
Point Park University
Robert Morris College
Rosemont College
Saint Francis College
Saint Joseph's University
Saint Vincent College
Seton Hill College
Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania
Slippery Rock University
Susquehanna University
Swarthmore College

Pennsylvania - continued

Temple University

Thiel College

Thomas Jefferson University

University of Pennsylvania

University of Pittsburgh – Main Campus

University of Pittsburgh at Bradford

University of Pittsburgh at Greensburg

University of Pittsburgh at Johnstown

University of Scranton

University of the Arts

University of the Sciences in Philadelphia

University of Phoenix

Ursinus College

Valley Forge Christian College

Villanova University

Washington and Jefferson College

Waynesburg University

Westchester University

Westminster College

Westminster Theological Seminary

Widener University

Wilkes University

Wilson College

York College of Pennsylvania

Rhode Island (*n*=12)

Brown University

Rhode Island - continued

Bryant College
Jason and Wales University
Lincoln Technical Institute
Naval War College
New England Institute of Technology
Providence College
Rhode Island College
Rhode Island School of Design
Roger Williams University
Salve Regina University
University of Rhode Island

South Carolina (*n*=38)

Allen University
Anderson University
Benedict College
Bob Jones University
Charleston Southern University
The Citadel
Claflin University
Clemson University
Coastal Carolina University
Coker College
College of Charleston
Columbia College
Columbia International University
Converse College

South Carolina - continued

Erskine College
Francis Marion University
Furman University
ITT Technical Institute
Johnson and Wales University at Charleston
Lander University
Limestone College
Medical University of South Carolina
Newberry College
North Greenville College
Presbyterian College
Sherman College of Straight Chiropractic
South Carolina State University
Southern Wesleyan University
University of South Carolina Aiken
University of South Carolina Beaufort
University of South Carolina Columbia
University of South Carolina Lancaster
University of South Carolina Spartanburg
University of South Carolina Sumter
University of South Carolina Union
Voorhees College
Winthrop University
Wofford College

South Dakota (*n*=14)

Augustana College

South Dakota - continued

Black Hills State University
Dakota State University
Dakota Wesleyan University
Mount Marty College
National American University
Northern State University
Oglala Lakota College
Presentation College
Sinte Gleska University
South Dakota School of Mines and Technology
South Dakota State University
University of Sioux Falls
University of South Dakota

Tennessee (*n*=44)

Aquinas College
Austin Peay State University
Belmont University
Bethel College
Bryan College
Carson-Newman College
Christian Brothers University
Crichton College
Cumberland University
East Tennessee State University
Fisk University
Freed-Hardeman University

Tennessee - continued

ITT Technical Institute
Johnson Bible College
King College
Knoxville College
Lambuth University
Lane College
Lee University
Le Moyne-Owen College
Lincoln Memorial University
Lipscomb University
Martin Methodist College
Maryville College
Meharry Medical College
Memphis College of Art
Middle Tennessee State University
Milligan College
Rhodes College
Sewanee University of the South
Southern Adventist University
Tennessee State University
Tennessee Technological University
Tennessee Temple University
Tennessee Wesleyan College
Trevecca Nazarene University
Tusculum College
Union University

Tennessee - continued

University of Memphis
University of Tennessee at Chattanooga
University of Tennessee at Knoxville
University of Tennessee at Martin
University of Tennessee at Memphis
Vanderbilt University

Texas (n=101)

Abilene Christian University
Amberton University
Angelo State University
Arlington Baptist College
Art Institute of Dallas
Austin College

Austin Presbyterian Theological Seminary

Baylor College of Medicine
Baylor University
College of Saint Thomas More
Concordia University Austin
Criswell College
Dallas Baptist University
Dallas Christian College
Dallas Theological Seminary
DeVry University
East Texas Baptist University
Episcopal Theological Seminary of the Southwest
Global University

Texas - continued

Hardin-Simmons University
Houston Baptist University
Howard Payne University
Huston-Tillotson College
Institute for Christian Studies
ITT Technical Institute
Jarvis Christian College
Keller Graduate School of Management
Lamar University
Le Tourneau University
Lubbock Christian University
McMurry University
Midwestern State University
Northwood University
Our Lady of the Lake University
Paul Quinn College
Rice University
St. Edward's University
Saint Mary's University of San Antonio
Sam Houston State University
Schreiner University
Southern Methodist University
South Texas College of Law
Southwestern Texas State University
Southwestern Adventist University
Southwestern Assemblies of God University

Texas - continued

Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary
Southwestern Christian College
Southwestern University
Stephen F. Austin State University
Sul Ross State University
Texas A & M University/Baylor College of Dentistry
Texas A & M University College at Station
Texas A & M University at Commerce
Texas A & M University at Corpus Christi
Texas A & M University at Galveston
Texas A & M Health Sciences Center
Texas A & M at Kingsville
Texas A & M University at Prairie View A & M
Texas A & M University at Tarleton State University
Texas A & M University at Texarkana
Texas A & M International University at Laredo
Texas A & M University - West Texas A & M University
Texas Christian University
Texas College
Texas Culinary Academy
Texas Lutheran University
Texas Southern University
Texas Tech University
Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center
Texas Wesleyan University
Texas Woman's University

Texas - continued

Trinity University

University of Dallas

University of Houston at Clear Lake

University of Houston at Downtown

University of Houston at Victoria

University of Houston - Main Campus

University of Mary Hardin-Baylor

University of North Texas

University of North Texas Health Science Center

University of Phoenix

University of Saint Thomas

University of Texas at Arlington

University of Texas at Austin

University of Texas at Brownsville

University of Texas at Dallas

University of Texas at El Paso

University of Texas - Pan-American

University of Texas at Permian Basin

University of Texas at San Antonio

University of Texas at Tyler

University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston

University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio

University of Texas Health Center at Tyler

University of Texas - M.D. Anderson Cancer Center

University of Texas Medical Branch

University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center at Dallas

Texas - continued

University of the Incarnate Word

Wayland Baptist University

Westwood College TX

Wiley College TX

Utah (*n*=10)

Brigham Young University

College of Eastern Utah

ITT Technical Institute

Southern Utah University

University of Phoenix

University of Utah

Utah State University

Utah Valley State College

Weber State University

Westminster College of Salt Lake City

Vermont (*n*=18)

Bennington College

Burlington College

Castleton State University

Champlain College

College of St. Joseph

Goddard College

Green Mountain College

Johnson State College

Lyndon State College

Marlboro College

Vermont - continued

Middlebury College

Norwich University

Saint Michael's College

School for International Training - World Learning

Southern Vermont College

University of Vermont

Vermont Law School

Vermont Technical College

Virginia (n=53)

Averett College

Bluefield College

Bridgewater College

Christendom College

Christopher Newport University

Chubb Institute

College of William and Mary

DeVry University

Eastern Mennonite University

Eastern Virginia Medical School

Emory and Henry College

Ferrum College

George Mason University

George Washington University - Virginia Campus

Gibbs School

Hampden-Sydney College

Hampton University

Virginia - continued

Hollins University
Institute of Textile Technology
ITT Technical Institute
James Madison University
Jefferson College of Health Sciences
Keller Graduate School of Management
Liberty University
Longwood University
Lynchburg College
Marine Corps University
Mary Baldwin College
Marymount University
University of Mary Washington
Norfolk State University
Old Dominion University
Radford University
Randolph-Macon College
Randolph-Macon Women's College
Regent University
Roanoke College
Saint Paul's College
Shenandoah University
Southern Virginia College
Sweet Briar College
University of Richmond
University of Virginia

Virginia - continued

University of Virginia College at Wise
Virginia Commonwealth University
Virginia Intermont College
Virginia Military Institute
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Virginia State University
Virginia Union University
Virginia Wesleyan College
Washington Bible College-Capital Bible Seminary
Washington and Lee University

Washington (n=29)

Antioch University - Seattle
Art Institute of Seattle
Bastyr University
Central Washington University
City University
DeVry University
Eastern Washington University
Evergreen State College
Gonzaga University
Heritage College
ITT Technical Institute
Keller Graduate School of Management
Northwest College of the Assemblies of God
Pacific Lutheran University
St. Martin's College

Washington - continued

Seattle Pacific University

Seattle University

Trinity Lutheran College

University of Phoenix

University of Puget Sound

University of Washington

Walla Walla University

Washington State University at Pullman

Washington State University at Spokane

Washington State University at Tri Cities

Washington State University at Vancouver

Western Washington University

Whitman College

Whitworth College

Washington DC (*n*=13)

American University

Catholic University of America

Corcoran College of Art and Design

Gallaudet University

George Washington University

George Washington University Mount Vernon

Georgetown University

Howard University

National Defense University

Southeastern University

Strayer College

Washington DC – continued

Trinity College

University of the District of Columbia

West Virginia (n=21)

Alderson-Broaddus College

Bethany College

Bluefield State College

Concord College

Davis and Elkins College

Fairmont State University

Glenville State College

International Academy of Design Technology

Marshall University

Mountain State University

Ohio Valley University

Salem International University

Shepherd University

University of Charleston

West Liberty State College

West Virginia State University

West Virginia University

West Virginia Institute of Technology

West Virginia University at Parkersburg

West Virginia Wesleyan College

Wheeling Jesuit University

Wisconsin (n=39)

Alverno College

Wisconsin – continued

Beloit College
Cardinal Stritch College
Carroll College
Carthage College
Concordia University at Wisconsin
Edgewood College
Herzing College
ITT Technical Institute
Keller Graduate School of Management
Lakeland College
Lawrence University
Maranatha Baptist Bible College
Marian College of Fond du Lac
Marquette University
Medical College of Wisconsin
Milwaukee School of Engineering
Mount Mary College
Northland College
Ripon College
St. Norbert College
Silver Lake College
University of Phoenix
University of Wisconsin at Eau Claire
University of Wisconsin at Green Bay
University of Wisconsin at La Crosse
University of Wisconsin at Madison

Wisconsin – continued

University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee
University of Wisconsin at Oshkosh
University of Wisconsin at Parkside
University of Wisconsin at Platteville
University of Wisconsin at River Falls
University of Wisconsin at Stevens Point
University of Wisconsin at Stout
University of Wisconsin at Superior
University of Wisconsin at Whitewater
Viterbo University
Wisconsin Lutheran College
Wisconsin School of Professional Psychology

Wyoming (n=1)

University of Wyoming

APPENDIX B
ADDITIONAL INSTRUCTIONAL AREAS

Accompanying

- Accompanying Methods
- Accompanying Singers
- Accompanying Instrumentalists

Acoustics

Acting/Stage Craft

- Acting
- Acting for Singers
- Movement for the Stage
- Stage Craft for Singers

Anatomy & Physiology

Appreciation

- Music Appreciation
- Music 101

Arranging/Orchestrating

- Choral Arranging Including Vocal Jazz
- Instrumental Arranging Including Jazz
- Orchestration

Art History

Arts Administration

Aural Skills

- Aural Skills
- Sight-Singing
- Sight Reading

Body Work

Alexander Technique

Body Mapping

Feldenkrais

Brass

Applied Brass Instruction

Brass Methods

Choral Literature

Church Music

Church Music

Hymnody

Praise and Worship Music

Class Voice

Coaching

Opera Coach

Role Coach

Song Coach

Composition

Conducting

Including Choral and Instrumental Conducting

Costume Design

Dance

Diction

Ensembles

Including All Choral Ensembles

Ethno/Socio/World

 Ethnomusicology

 Ethno-music Ensembles

 Gender and Women's Studies

 Sociology of Music and Music Education

 World Music

Freshman Seminar

Fundamentals/Basic Musicianship

Greek

Hand Bells

 Hand Bell Methods

 Hand Bell Ensemble

History

 Music History

 History of Art Song

 History of Opera

Improvisation

Instrumental Ensembles

Inter-discipline

Intern Supervision

 Supervision of Pre-Service Teachers

 Supervision of Pre-Service Music Ministers

Introduction to Music Education

Introduction to Music or Introduction to Fine Arts

Librarian

Methods

Elementary Methods

Secondary Methods

Music Education Methods

Music Theatre History/Theatre History

Music Industry/Music Business

Music Business

Music Industry

Recording and Mixing

Music Therapy

Contemporary Commercial Voice

Applied Voice: Jazz

Applied Voice: Musical Theatre

Applied Voice: Pop and Rock

Opera/MT Shop/Director

Director of Musicals or Musical Theatre

Director of Opera

Musical Theatre Lab or Workshop

Opera Lab or Workshop

Preparing Opera Roles

Pedagogy

Percussion

Applied Percussion

Percussion Methods

Performance Practice

Philosophy/Aesthetics

Piano/Organ/Keyboard

Applied and Class Piano

Applied Organ

Applied Keyboards Including Harpsichord

Piano Pedagogy

Poetry

Psychology

Psychology

Psychology of Music

Religion/Bible Study

Homiletics

Bible Study Classes

Music and Worship

Research Methods/Writing About Music

Song Writing/Hymn Writing

Special Education/Special Learners

Speech & Voice/Public Speaking

Staff Accompanist

Strings/Guitar

Applied Guitar

Applied Strings

Guitar Methods

String Methods

Technology

Music Technology

Sibelius

Finale

Theory

Form and Analysis

Music Theory

Vocal Literature

Opera Literature

Song Literature

Vocal Literature

Vocal Methods

Vocal Pathology

Woodwinds

Applied Woodwinds

Woodwind Methods

APPENDIX C

GLOSSARY

Adjunct/Part-Time/Instructor/Lecturer. (Adjunct or Adj.) A large subcategory of Other Employment Status which included several employment statuses often used interchangeably and inconsistently between institutions and within institutions. Labeled as Adjunct, or abbreviated as Adj. in Tables and discussions.

collegescolleges.com ©. A nexus website with links to four-year institutions within the United States and its protectorates. The list is updated regularly.

College Music Society (CMS). A consortium of college, conservatory, university, and independent musicians and scholars interested in all disciplines of music. Its mission is to promote music teaching and learning, musical creativity and expression, research and dialogue, and diversity and interdisciplinary interaction.

Contemporary Commercial Voice (CCV): A term used to designate vocal styles other than classical and was previously labeled Non-Classical Voice Styles. In an attempt to change existing biases towards these styles by voice teachers The National Association of Teachers of Singing have adopted the more inclusive term. CCV includes: contemporary musical theatre, country, gospel, jazz, pop, and rock styles.

Higher Education Arts Data Survey (HEADS). A joint effort of the National Association of Schools of Music, the National Association of Schools of Art and Design, the National Association of Schools of Theatre, and the National Association of Schools of Dance. It is a statistics system that gathers and compiles data from member and non-member institutions. Compiled data is published annually in the form of HEADS Data Summaries. Participation in the project is mandatory for institutional members of the National Association of Schools of Music.

Music Educator's National Conference (MENC). MENC is the world's largest arts education organization and the only association that addresses all aspects of music education.

National Association of Schools of Music (NASM). Founded in 1924, is an organization of schools, conservatories, colleges and universities with approximately 615 accredited institutional members. It establishes national standards for undergraduate and graduate degrees and other credentials.

National Association of Teachers of Singing (NATS). A professional organization for teachers of singing. The organization is dedicated to encouraging the highest standards of singing through excellence in teaching and the promotion of vocal education and research.

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). A department of the National Census Bureau, it is the primary federal entity for collecting and analyzing data related to education.

Other Employment Status (OES). Large employment status category which includes Visiting Professors/Artists, Artists in Residence, Adjunct Faculty, Part-Time Faculty, Lecturers, Instructors, and Emeritus Faculty Still Employed, Administrators

Position of Authority (POA). Category assigned to any teacher holding one or more of the following positions: Program Head, Area Head, Department Chair, Dean, Vice-President, and Assistant titles attached to any of these categories.

Professor Employment Status (PES). Larger category which includes Assistant Professors, Associate Professors, and Professors.

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- stage behavior, and dress on evaluation of children's piano performances. *Journal of Research in Music Education*, 48(4), 323-335.
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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Shawn I. Puller

I. Teaching Experience

August 2007-Present: Albany State University, Albany, GA.

Assistant Professor of Music

- Applied voice lessons
- Diction
- Elementary music education methods
- Interim choral director (Fall 2008)
- Student intern supervisor
 - ASU Early Learning Center: Music specialist: After-school program
 - ASU Early College: Seventh-grade general music teacher

Summer 2006-Present: Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL

Summer Music Camps Instructor

- Applied lessons
- Music theory
- Diction
- Choral warm-ups

August 2005-May 2007: Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL.

Graduate Teaching Assistant

- Applied voice lessons with an emphasis in Musical Theatre.
- Secondary Choral Methods

August 2000-May 2005: Ithaca College, Ithaca NY.

Adjunct Professor/Lecturer

- Applied voice lessons
- Lyric Diction

August 2003-May 2005: State University of New York, Cortland, NY.

Adjunct Professor

- Applied voice with an emphasis in Musical Theatre.

Summer, 2004: Heifetz International Music Institute, Wolfeboro, NH.

Guest Teacher

- Applied voice

- Diction

January 2000-May 2004: Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.

Privately contracted voice instructor

Summer 2002-2004: North Allegany High School Marching Band, North Allegany, PA

Instructor

- Field conducting

March 2000-January 2002: Ithaca Community School of Music and Art.

Private Voice Studio

- Applied voice

2000-Present: Private Voice Studio.

- Applied voice in both classical and contemporary musical styles

December 1998- May 1999: Ithaca College, Ithaca, NY.

Graduate Teaching Assistant

- Applied voice
- Diction
- Elementary music education
- Conducting

1994-1995: Beacon Light Behavioral Health Systems, Bradford, PA

Therapeutic Recreation Coordinator

- Outdoor Skills Course Instructor
- HIV/AIDS Educator
- Music Director

1992-1995: Friendship Connection Children's Community Chorus, Bradford, PA

Musical Director

1991-1992: First United Presbyterian Church, Bradford, PA

Musical Director

- Children's music program director with Orff emphasis
- Adult and junior hand bells
- Adult and junior choirs

Autumn 1990: Marion Center School District, Marion Center, PA

Student Teacher

- High school and middle school band
- High school chorus

Summer 1988-1991: Bradford Area High School Marching Band, Bradford, PA

Instructor

- Field conducting
- Drill instructor

September 1988- May 1989: Indiana University of Pennsylvania Lab School, Indiana, PA.

Student Internship

- Elementary band

II. Educational Background

PhD Music Education, May, 2009
The Florida State University

MM Vocal Performance, May 2000
Ithaca College

Graduate Studies in Therapeutic Recreation, 1996-1997,
State University of New York at Cortland,

BS in Education, Music Education,
Minor emphasis in Educational Psychology, December 1990,
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

III. Publications/Performances (2002-2009):

April 2009, Macon, GA: Guest Performer with University of Macon Chorale

March 2009, Albany, GA: Faculty Recital: Songs of Innocence and Experience
Works by Vaughan-Williams, Donaudy, Schubert, Corigliano, Obradors

April 2008, Tallahassee, FL: Guest Performer. Lecture Recital: Vaughan-Williams' "10 Blake Songs" with Margaret Cracchiolo.

April 2008, Tallahassee, FL: Guest Performer. Chamber Music Recital:
Corigliano, 3 Irish Song Settings with flautist Karen McLaughlin.

December 2007, Albany, GA: Guest Soloist with Albany State Fine Arts
Department's Holiday Concert.

December 2006, Tallahassee, FL: Soloist. St. Paul's United Methodist Church:
Handel's "Messiah".

April 2007, Tallahassee, FL: Guest Performer. Chamber Music Recital: Vaughan Williams, 10 Blake Songs with oboist, Sherwood Wise.

November 2006, Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University Opera Program, Verdi's Falstaff, Fenton.

March 2006, Tallahassee, FL: Graduate Voice Recital featuring works by Rachmaninoff, Beethoven, Britten, Donaudy, and Corigliano.

February 2005, Cortland, NY: Faculty Gala Recital

April 2005, Ithaca, NY: Tabula Rasa, Guest Soloist, Morgan-Loy's "Four Love Songs".

January 2005-May 2005, Ithaca, NY: Kitchen Theatre Company, Frederick in Rachel Lampert's "Precious Nonsense"

February 2004, Cortland, NY: Faculty Gala Recital.

February 2004, Ithaca, NY: Faculty Recital featuring works by Beethoven and Britten and Lamb.

December 2004, Cortland, NY: Soloist. Arts and Grace Concert Series: Handel's "Messiah".

July 2003, Wolfeboro, NH: Heifetz International Music Institute's Wolfetrap Cabaret

April 2003, Ithaca NY: Soloist with the Ithaca College Chorus and Orchestra: Haydn's "Lord Nelson Mass".

November 2004, Ithaca, NY: Guest Performer. Faculty Recital: Bach's "Dein Blut so meine Schuld durchstreicht".

February 2002, Ithaca, NY: Soloist with the Caygua Chamber Orchestra: Mozart's "Mass in C minor".

2001/2002 and 2002/2003 Tri-Cities Opera, Binghamton, NY Opera Season:

Roles Performed:

Parpignol, La Bohème (Italian)

Dan Caïro, Carmen (French)

Kaspar, Amahl and the Night Visitors (English)

Fenton, Merry Wives of Windsor (English)

Roles Learned:

Remendado, Carmen (French)

Ferrando, Così fan Tutte (Italian)

Don Ottavio, Don Giovanni (Italian)

Paul, The Toy Shop (English)

Slender, Merry Wives of Windsor (English) Nemorino, L'elisir d'amore (Italian)

IV. Papers Presented (2002-2009):

January, 2007. *A Comparison of Graduate Teaching Assistants' and Expert Voice Teachers' Use of Time in the Initial Minutes Voice Lessons*. Bloomington, IN: New Voice Teacher Symposium.

V. Workshops and Poster Sessions (2002-2009):

April, 2009: *Creating Culturally Affirming Education for Students of Color*. Albany State University.

April, 2009: *Vocal Pedagogy for Non-Voice Majors*. The Florida State University.

March, 2009: *Gender, Positions of Authority and Educational Background of Undergraduate University Voice Teachers: Presentation of Dissertation*. Florida State University, Doctoral Defense Lecture.

March, 2009: *Gender, Positions of Authority and Educational Background of Undergraduate University Voice Teachers: Presentation of Dissertation*. Albany State University, Staff Development Lecture.

June, 2008: *Everything You Wanted to Know about the Voice, but Were Afraid to Ask: The Instrumental Major as a Potential Choral Teacher*. Florida State University, Guest clinician.

May, 2008: *Developing Kinesthetic Awareness for Piano Majors*, Auckland University, Auckland, New Zealand.

April, 2008. *A Demographic Profile of University Voice Teachers from Selected States: A Preliminary Study*. Milwaukee, WI: MENC National Conference Poster Session.

May, 2007. *Teaching Kinesthetics in the Choral Classroom*. Tallahassee, FL: Workshop presented to the Florida State University student chapter of ACDA.

March, 2007. *A Demographic Profile of University Voice Teachers in Florida*. Charleston, NC: Southern Division MENC Conference Poster Session.

November 2006. *Go Belt Yourself*. Tallahassee, FL: Guest Lecture and Workshop presented to graduate vocal pedagogy classes.

March 2005. University of Limerick, Limerick, Ireland: Guest Clinician.

VI. Professional Growth Activities - Seminars, Workshops, Professional Meetings, etc (2002-2008):

March, 2009: Creating Culturally Affirming Education for Students of Color, Ithaca, NY.

February, 2009: Georgia NATS Competition, Kennesaw State University, GA, Adjudicator

January, 2009: GMEA Annual In-service meeting, Savannah, GA

April, 2008: MENC National Conference, Milwaukee, WI.

Summer 2007: Flexible endoscope training and practicum.

March, 2007: Southern Regional Division NATS Competition, Tallahassee, FL, Adjudicator
March, 2007:

Southern Region MENC Conference, Charleston, SC.

January, 2007: New Voice Teachers Symposium, Bloomington, IN.

March 2006: Florida State University, Master Class with oboist, John Mack: Vaughan Williams' 10 Blake Songs.

September 2004-July 2005: Alexander Technique Lessons, Marty Hjortstoj, Instructor, Ithaca, NY.

Summer, 2005: NATS Summer Teaching Internship, Rochester, NY.
One of 12 young teachers selected to participate in an intensive voice teacher training program. Activities included supervised 1:1 teaching, master-classes, recitals, lectures, and performances.

October, 2004: NATS Upstate New York Regional Meeting: African American Composers of Art Songs presented by Dr. Darryl Taylor, Onondaga Community College, Onondaga, NY.

March 2004: The Foundation Center, Grant Writing Seminar, Washington, DC.

VII. Institutional Services Performed, including Committee Memberships (2002-2009):

2009 – Present: Albany State University Online Learning Initiative Committee

2008-Present: NASM Planning Team: Albany State University

2008-Present: Focus Group Chair: Greater Dougherty County Summer High School Summer Arts Program

2007-Present: Albany State University Committee Work:
Friendship Committee
Music Education Committee

2007-Present: Albany State University: Project Mentor

VIII. Professional-Related Community Activities, including Consulting (2002-2008):

February-March 2009: Albany Georgia: Adjudicator for Region 1-AAAA and 1-AAA High School Literary Competition hosted by Darton College.

February-March 2008: Albany Georgia: Adjudicator for Region 1-AAAA and 1-AAA High School Literary Competition hosted by Darton College.

September 2009-Present: ASU Early College: General music teacher.

January 2008-Present: Early Learning Center, Albany, GA: Music coordinator and volunteer teacher.

November 2007, Albany, GA: Albany State University's Community Veteran's Day Celebration: Preparation of ASU Chorus

2006-2007: St. John's Episcopal Church, substitute chorister.

Autumn 2005: Tallahassee Community Chorus Member.

October 2006: World AIDS Day Commemoration and Service, Tallahassee, FL, Guest Performer.

2002-2003 Outreach Program with Tri Cities Opera

September 2002: The Kitchen Theatre Company Fund Raising Event, Ithaca, NY, Guest Performer.

June 2002: Ithaca Opera Fund Raising Event, Ithaca, NY, Guest Performer

IX. Prior Experience Not In Education:

2006-2007: Beethoven and Company, Tallahassee, FL: Desk clerk

2002-2004: Heifetz International Music Institute, Wolfeboro, NH:
Assistant Director

2000-2001: The Bookery, Ithaca, NY: Desk Clerk and Receiving

1997-1998: Wegman's Grocery, Auburn, NY: General Merchandise Clerk.

1996-1997: Hillside Treatment Center, Auburn, NY: Supervisor boy's unit,
Assistant Supervisor girl's unit.

1991-1996: Beacon Light Behavioral Health Services, Bradford, PA:
Coordinator of recreational services, day treatment center counselor, direct
care counselor

1991-1992: Togi's Family Restaurant, Bradford, PA: Line Cook.

1989-1990: The Gingerbread Man Restaurant, Indiana, PA: Manager.

Summer, 1988: Smethport Drive-In: Line Cook

Summer 1987;1986: National Fuel Gas Company: Summer Employee

Summer 1982-1986: Custer City Drive-In: Line Cook

X. Professional Memberships, including offices held:

National Association of Teachers of Singing
Georgia NATS, Executive Officer: Organization Historian Elect
Music Educators National Conference
Georgia Music Educator's Association
College Music Society
Voice Foundation

XI. Recognition & Honors:

ASU Online Initiative \$1,300 Grant Award-Develop an Online Music Appreciation Course
Pi Kappa Lambda National Musical Honor Society
Thayler Theater Award: Graduate Scholarship
Charles Ingraham Scholarship Award
Tri-Cities Opera Guild Scholarship