

Effects of selected demographic variables on music student teachers' self-reported cross-cultural competence.

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Abstract:

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of race/ethnicity and school community setting for early field experience practica and student teaching on music student teachers' self-reported cross-cultural competence. Participants (N = 337) from 36 colleges and universities across the United States completed a survey designed to examine the extent of cross-cultural competence as specified by three constructs: (a) factors fostering readiness to teach in culturally diverse educational environments, (b) factors constraining readiness to teach in culturally diverse educational environments, and (c) educational experiences during teacher preparation relative to multicultural education and multicultural music education. The "Foster," "Constrain," and "Teacher Preparation" dimension subscales served as the dependent variables. Results indicated no significant main effect of school community setting on participants' cross-cultural competence; however, a significant main effect of race/ethnicity ($p < .05$) was observed for the Constrain subscale of the survey

Keywords: music education | music teacher preparation | cross-cultural competence | race | ethnicity | multiculturalism | school community settings

Article:

The contrast between the sociocultural heterogeneity of U.S. public school student populations and the sociocultural homogeneity reflected in the population of many teacher preparation programs has become axiomatic. That the average teacher candidate is White, female, and middle class is a demographic trend that has remained consistent for some time. Additionally, many preservice teachers have been found to be unaware of and nonresponsive to how culture may impact student learning and lack a commitment to teach in schools with culturally diverse student populations (Bradfield- Kreider, 2001; Dieker, Voltz, & Epanchin, 2002; Nierman, Zeichner, & Hobbel, 2002). These findings have prompted a focus in teacher education on

developing prospective teachers who are sensitive to and knowledgeable about the influence that culture may have on students' learning (Banks, 1994; G. Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Nieto & Bode, 2008; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Moreover, current standards established by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) obligate teacher education programs desiring accreditation to address issues of diversity in the preparation of teachers (NCATE, 2008). Consequently, cross-cultural competence has become a primary focus for learning outcomes in general teacher education.

According to Cross, Bazron, Dennis, and Isaacs (1989), cross-cultural competence is “a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or amongst professionals and enables that system, agency or those professionals to work effectively in cross-cultural situations” (p. iv). Culture refers to integrated patterns of behavior (i.e., language, actions, customs, beliefs, and values) of racial, ethnic, religious, or social groups. Competence implies the capacity to function effectively within the context of the cultural beliefs, behaviors, and needs presented by consumers and their communities (Cross et al., 1989). In the context of education, cross-cultural competence is reflected in teachers who are able to affirm the unique cultural experiences, values, and knowledge students bring to the classroom and use these resources as tools to teach more effectively, thereby increasing student learning and achievement.

Research on Cross-Cultural Competence

Much of the research on cross-cultural competence falls into two categories: (a) research into the effect of varying instructional content on preservice teachers' cross-cultural competence and (b) research on the nature of cross-cultural competence and its process of development. Across research studies focused on how individuals develop cross-cultural competence, quantitative methodologies (Cho & DeCastro- Ambrosetti, 2005–2006; Grottkau & Nickolai-Mays, 1989; Wiggins, Follo, & Eberly, 2007) and qualitative methodologies (Buehler, Gere, Dallavis, & Haviland, 2009; Burnstein & Cabello, 1989; Keengwe, 2010) have been used. These studies were designed to assess the extent of change in participants' cross-cultural competence as a consequence of instructional interventions and/or co- and extracurricular instructional field experiences. The results of these studies indicated that some gains may be made in cross-cultural competence among preservice teachers through a variety of instructional experiences; however, even with these gains, some teacher candidates felt ill equipped to teach students of diverse cultural backgrounds (Cho & DeCastro- Ambrosetti, 2005-2006; Keengwe, 2010).

Other researchers have examined the nature of cross-cultural competence as a construct by developing assessment instruments comprising indicators that reflect multiple dimensions of the construct (Kumasi & Hill, 2011; Liang & Zhang, 2009; McAllister & Irvine, 2000; Wiggins & Follo, 1999) or by drawing relationships between cross-cultural competence and other constructs, such as self-concept or self-efficacy (Brown, 2004; Yang & Montgomery, 2011). McAllister and Irvine (2000) favored the use of process-oriented models that “describe the

cognitive, behavioral, and affective changes related to how adults develop cross-cultural competence” (p. 4). They believed that because such models outline the processes involved in cross-cultural learning, they can assist teacher educators in developing teacher candidates’ cross-cultural competence more consistently and effectively.

Cross-Cultural Competence and Music Education

These aforementioned studies on cross-cultural competence demonstrate that general teacher education programs are working to address issues of cross-cultural competence with their teacher candidates. Do music teacher education programs face these same challenges? Although I found no data on the race or ethnicity of students enrolled in music teacher education programs nationally, an approximation of the demographic profile of that population may be extrapolated from annual data summaries of music programs accredited by the National Association of Schools of Music (NASM) reported by the Higher Education Arts Data Services (HEADS). Of students receiving baccalaureate professional degrees in music in the 2010–2011 academic year, 6.6% were African American, 0.6% were American Indian or Native Alaskan, 3.7% were Asian, 7.6% were Hispanic or Latino, 0.4% were Pacific Islander, 71.9% were White, and 9.1% were Other or Race/Ethnicity Unknown (HEADS, 2011).¹

An estimate of the racial and ethnic makeup of the music education profession nationally may be inferred from results of a 2004 membership profile and segmentation study sponsored by MENC: The National Association for Music Education. Results indicated that slightly more than 90% of MENC members were White. Members identifying themselves as Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, Asian, or Other, respectively, represented 5.8%, 1.7%, .6% and 1.2% of the total MENC membership (Eureka Facts, 2004).

The HEADS and MENC data suggested that racial and ethnic diversity were not characteristics either of in-service or preservice music teacher populations. These data also underscore why considerations of how to prepare music teachers who can function effectively in and have positive attitudes toward culturally diverse educational environments have gained importance in music teacher education.

Research in music teacher preparation has revealed issues of cross-cultural competency that correspond to those found in general teacher preparation programs. Some researchers have indicated that preservice music teachers were comfortable with the idea of teaching in ethnically and racially diverse educational environments; however, when asked to indicate in which educational environments they would prefer to teach, they demonstrated greater preference for teaching in suburban schools with student populations that reflect their own cultural backgrounds (Kelly, 2003; McKoy, 2006).

Reeder-Lundquist (2002) noted that preservice music educators were expected to “operate effectively in a social, historical, and aesthetic context, which is not at all the same—and is vastly more complex—than the cultural context for which they have been prepared in typical

higher education” (p. 634). Moreover, Barry (1996) found that incongruence between the contexts of college music education classes and those of some public school classrooms posed substantial difficulties for preservice music teachers and impeded their ability to translate their knowledge of multicultural music instruction to teaching practices that reflect cross-cultural competence.

In a previous study (McKoy, 2009), I assessed the extent of cross-cultural competence reported by music student teachers who were only a few months away from completing their degree programs and obtaining in-service teaching positions. Study results indicated that students had obtained knowledge and skills as related to cultural and pedagogical issues as well as experiences in teacher preparation related to multicultural content in music teaching. Most respondents were ambivalent, however, as to issues of personal attitude toward and awareness of cultural differences. A small percentage of students—composed primarily of White males who conducted their practicum and student teaching in programs that specifically used a combination of suburban, urban, and rural school settings—held beliefs that certain racial groups were less capable of learning than were others. I recommended further investigation of the effects of the demographic variables of race and school community setting for practicum and student teaching on preservice teachers’ cross-cultural competence.

A conceptual model (Butler, Lind, & McKoy, 2007) further illustrates the implications of race/ethnicity and school community setting as variables affecting the development of cross-cultural competence (see Figure 1). The model outlines five dimensions (i.e., teacher, student, content, instruction, and context) that by virtue of being impacted by race, ethnicity, or culture can serve as barriers to or supports for music learning and teaching. Among several purposes, the model was designed to provide a means to “specify components comprising a process or phenomenon, and allow for the investigation of possible relationships among and between phenomenological components” (Butler et al., 2007, p. 242).

The components of the teacher dimension of the model (i.e., age, gender, cultural identity, cultural values, cultural learning style, musical preferences, musical experiences, beliefs, and expectations) were formulated on the basis of results of a review of research suggesting that preservice teachers’ racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds and experiences, among other factors, influenced how they developed as teachers (Butler et al., 2007). Consequently, the components of the teacher dimension, to the extent that they are mediated by race, ethnicity, and culture, may impact teacher candidates’ ability to develop knowledge, skills, and dispositions contributing to crosscultural competence and, therefore, may influence their preferences for teaching in culturally diverse educational settings as in-service professionals.

Figure 1 was omitted from this formatted document.

The context in which music learning occurs is an important dimension to consider when exploring cross-cultural competence. Some components of the context dimension of the model

(i.e., classroom environment, school culture, and community expectations) reflect research indicating that the community setting of a school and the associated expectations between the school and community presented unique educational challenges that may affect classroom environment and instructional effectiveness. Some researchers have suggested that providing early field experience practica in diverse community settings assisted preservice teachers in gaining awareness of and appreciation for diverse student populations. Curricula that include specific course activities in conjunction with field site visits (Aaronsohn, Carter, & Howell, 1995), service-learning projects in both urban and rural communities (Baldwin, Buchanan, & Rudisill, 2007), tutoring in public-housing neighborhoods (Bondy, Schmitz, & Johnson, 1993), and teaching practica in schools in low-income communities (Gomez, Strage, Knutson-Miller, & Garcia-Nevarez, 2009; Mason, 1997; Wiggins & Follo, 1999) were effective in changing preservice students' initial negative perceptions about teaching students culturally different from themselves. Alternately, the results of other studies indicated that such field experiences reinforced teacher candidates' negative preconceptions about students from cultural backgrounds different from their own (Haberman & Post, 1992; Murthada-Watts, 1998; Reed, 1993).

The aforesaid research in music teacher education and the teacher and context dimensions of the conceptual model provide a strong basis for investigating variables impacting the development of cross-cultural competence among preservice music teachers. Additionally, the implications of the cited research and model dimensions for music teacher education programs are that issues of cross-cultural competence are particularly relevant and that the attainment of such competencies among preservice music teachers should be of concern to music teacher educators and to the music education profession.

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the following research questions: (1) What is the effect of race/ethnicity on music student teachers' self-reported cross-cultural competence? (2) What is the effect of school community setting for early field experience practicum and student teaching on music student teachers' self-reported cross-cultural competence? (3) Is there an interaction effect of race/ethnicity and school community setting on music student teachers' self-reported cross-cultural competence?

Method

Survey

To address the research questions in this study, I used a survey (McKoy, 2009) that was adapted from Wiggins and Follo (1999). The modified survey (see appendix, available online at <http://jrme.sagepub.com/supplemental>) consists of 31 statements, each with a 5-point Likert-type response scale designed to assess participants' crosscultural competence as indicated by three constructs: (a) factors fostering readiness to teach in culturally diverse educational environments, (b) factors constraining readiness to teach in culturally diverse educational environments, and (c) educational experiences during teacher preparation relative to multicultural education and

multicultural music education. Factors fostering readiness for teaching in culturally diverse educational environments pertained primarily to knowledge and skills associated with culture and pedagogical issues. Factors constraining readiness referred to awareness of cultural differences and personal attitudes. Teacher preparation referred to preservice teachers' exposure to or experience with multicultural issues or multicultural teaching practices in their teacher preparation programs.

Response options for the Likert-type scale were strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree, with respective score values ranging from 5 points to 1 point for items addressing the "Foster" and "Teacher Preparation" dimension subscales of the survey. For the "Constrain" dimension subscale, score values for item response options were reversed, ranging from 1 point for strongly agree to 5 points for strongly disagree. The remaining items in the survey solicited demographic information pertaining to the two independent variables of race/ethnicity and school community setting for early field experience practicum and student teaching as well as participants' gender, primary area of concentration in the music education program, and the U.S. census geographical region or country outside of the United States in which participants grew up.

I reported alpha coefficients of reliability of .81, .76, and .72, respectively, for the Foster, Constrain, and Teacher Preparation dimension subscales of the 2009 survey. Internal consistency reliability for the overall survey was .87 (McKoy, 2009).

Participants and Data Collection

The population of interest in the current study comprised music education majors engaged in student teaching during the spring 2010 academic semester. The population estimate from which the sample was drawn was 3,308, the number of undergraduate music education degrees conferred during the 2008–2009 academic year (U.S. Department of Education, 2009, Table 275). An online sample size calculator was used to determine an appropriate sample size to reflect the target population. The calculation was based on input values for the margin of error (5%), the confidence level (95%), and the population size (3,308). Results of the calculation indicated that 344 (i.e., a little more than 10% of the population) would be an acceptable minimum sample size.

Because the population of interest occurs in natural clusters (i.e., colleges and universities), a one-stage cluster sampling method was used. In cluster sampling, the population of interest is divided into nonoverlapping groups called "clusters," which are the primary units of sampling. The members of the cluster are the secondary units of sampling. If all of the members of each selected cluster are included in the sample (of secondary units), the method is called one-stage cluster sampling (L. Gay & Airasian, 2002).

The sampling frame comprised colleges and universities with 200 or more music majors accredited by the NASM. A systematic random sample of colleges and universities from each of

six geographic divisions (Southern, Eastern, Southwestern, Western, North Central, and Northwest) of the National Association for Music Education (NAfME) was selected from the list. Because the number of music student teachers could not be known until contact was made with the selected college or university, I estimated a mean of 10 music student teachers per cluster on the basis of a previous study (McKoy, 2009). Random selections of clusters were made until the total number of reported potential participants surpassed the established minimum sample size. The initial goal was to have 50 colleges and universities (i.e., 9 each from the Southern and Eastern divisions and 8 from each of the remaining four divisions). Ultimately, positive responses were received from 40 colleges and universities.

Music education faculty members at the targeted institutions were contacted and asked to provide their music student teachers with an opportunity to take the survey. As an additional incentive, a monetary donation was offered to a college's or university's collegiate chapter of NAfME commensurate with the percentage of surveys returned (e.g., a college or university returning 100% of its surveys would receive a \$100 donation to its chapter; if 80% of surveys were returned, the chapter would receive \$80). When the total number of student teachers was determined (N = 401) and, where required, approval from the targeted institutions' institutional review boards was secured, paper copies of the survey along with a cover letter, information about informed consent, a script to use in presenting the survey, and a self-addressed envelope with prepaid postage were sent by land mail to faculty contacts for dissemination to students. Survey completion time was estimated to be 10 minutes. Students' completion of the survey constituted their consent to participate in the study. Paper surveys were used instead of an online survey because research literature indicated widely varying response rates and possible psychometric biasing effects for webbased surveys (Dolnicar, Laesser, & Matus, 2009; Greenlaw & Brown-Welty, 2009; Idleman, 2003; McCoy, Marks, Carr, & Mbarika, 2004). Surveys were returned by land mail from 36 of the 40 institutions whose faculty contacts initially agreed to conduct the survey with their student teachers (N = 337). The number of institutions and Participants from each NAfME geographical area were as follows: Southern, 13 (n = 112); Eastern, 6 (n = 52); Southwestern, 4 (n = 60); Western, 5 (n = 44); North Central, 6 (n = 58); and Northwest, 2 (n = 11). Thirty-one were public state institutions and 5 were private institutions.

Of the 337 surveys returned, one missing item response was noted for each of 8 surveys (one for Survey Item 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, and 25 and two for Survey Item 21). Rather than omit these 8 surveys, a maximum likelihood estimation procedure was conducted to impute values for the missing data, using the Missing Variables Analysis (MVA) module for the SPSS Base Version 17.0 software (SPSS, 2008). The adjusted data set was analyzed using the SPSS Base Version 17.0 for Windows statistical analysis software package (SPSS, 2008). Descriptive analyses and a twoway (race/ethnicity by school community setting for early field experience practicum and student teaching) MANOVA procedure was used to analyze the main and interaction effects of the independent variables on each of the three survey dimension subscales. For purposes of the analyses, the race/ethnicity variable had two levels: majority and minority. The racial/ethnic

majority reflected the category with the greatest representation among respondents, in this case, those who self-identified as White; the racial/ethnic minority comprised all other racial/ethnic categories, including Other. The school community setting for early field experience practicum and student teaching had four levels: urban, suburban, rural, and combination. Urban, suburban, and rural community designations were defined on the survey on the basis of U.S. Census Bureau (2008) definitions: urban = an urbanized area of 50,000 people or more; suburban = at least 10,000 but less than 50,000 people; and rural = no urban areas of at least 10,000 people.

The sample size of 337 was 2% lower than the minimum sample size of 344 recommended by sample size calculations. Therefore, another sample size calculation was conducted to determine if the achieved sample size would still accommodate the established alpha level. The margin of error was 5.1% and the confidence level associated with this particular sample size was 94.9%. Thus, I was satisfied that an alpha level of .05 and a confidence level of 95% would be sufficient for data analyses.

Results

Demographic Data

The number of male respondents (53%; $n = 177$) exceeded the number of females (47%; $n = 160$). The majority of respondents identified their racial/ethnic background as White (83%; $n = 280$). Of the remaining respondents, 12 (4%) were African American, 6 (2%) were Asian American, 14 (4%) were Multiracial, 20 (6%) were Hispanic/Latino, and 1 respondent each (0.3%) self-identified as Pacific Islander and Portuguese. Two respondents (0.6%) indicated they did not want to identify themselves racially or ethnically. Other was the racial/ethnic category indicated by 1 (0.3%) respondent; however, no additional clarifying information was provided.

Nearly an equal number of respondents grew up in the South Atlantic (18%; $n = 59$) and Middle Atlantic (17%; $n = 57$) U.S. geographic census regions. Other regions reported by respondents included West North Central (13%; $n = 43$), West South Central (12%; $n = 39$), East North Central (11%; $n = 38$), Pacific (9%; $n = 30$), Mountain (7%; $n = 25$), East South Central (7%; $n = 25$), and New England (5%; $n = 17$). Four respondents (1%) grew up in countries outside of the United States: 3 reported having grown up in Bosnia, Germany, and Honduras, respectively, and 1 indicated having spent an equal amount of time living in Germany, France, Portugal, Spain, Afghanistan, India, Pakistan, Austria, Morocco, and Egypt. Nearly an equal number of respondents conducted their early field experience practicum and student teaching only in suburban (26%; $n = 88$) or only in urban (25%; $n = 85$) school community settings; whereas 2% of respondents ($n = 5$) conducted their early practicum field experience and student teaching only in schools in rural communities. Forty-seven percent ($n = 158$) of respondents indicated they had conducted their early field experience practicum and student teaching in combinations of suburban, rural, and urban community settings.

Research Questions

Internal consistency reliability for the survey dimension subscales and the total survey were examined using Cronbach's Alpha procedure. Observed alpha coefficients, means, and standard deviations are presented in Table 1. Reliability coefficients of .75, .73, and .75 were observed for the Foster, Constrain, and Teacher Preparation dimension subscales of the survey, respectively. A reliability coefficient of .86 was observed for the overall survey. Because the observed reliability coefficients were above .70, the internal consistency for the survey dimension subscales and the total survey were acceptable for this investigation (George & Mallery, 2003).

A MANOVA procedure was used to address the research questions in the current study. The Box's M test upheld the assumption of homogeneity of covariance: Box's $M = 42.706$, $F(36, 2789.66) = 1.071$, $p = .356$. Additionally, Levene's test of the assumption of homogeneity of variance indicated no violation of the assumption for the Foster, Constrain, and Teacher Preparation survey dimension subscales serving as the dependent variables.

The first research question was whether there was a significant main effect of race/ethnicity on participants' self-reported cross-cultural competence. A significant multivariate main effect for race/ethnicity, Wilks's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(4, 326) = 2.56$, $p = .038$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$, was accompanied by a significant univariate effect for the Constrain dimension of the survey, $F(1, 336) = 7.18$, $p = .008$, $\eta^2 = .021$. Items for the Constrain survey dimension were worded negatively and thus were reverse scored. Individual items for this survey subscale were examined more closely using t test analyses. Means, standard deviation, and t values are summarized in Table 2. Results indicated that in general, respondents expressed neutral opinions or disagreement with items in the Constrain dimension. With the exception of Survey Item 9, respondents in the racial/ethnic minority demonstrated greater disagreement with survey items reflecting attitudes that might constrain their readiness to teach in culturally diverse educational environments than did participants in the racial/ethnic majority. Additionally, mean differences between the two racial/ethnic groups were significant for Survey Items 3, 8, 14, 16, and 18.

The second research question assessed whether there was a significant main effect of school community setting for early field experience practicum and student teaching on participants' self-reported cross-cultural competence. The multivariate main effect for school community setting was not significant, Wilks's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(12, 86) = .75$, $p = .70$, partial $\eta^2 = .009$. The type of school community setting in which participants conducted their practica and student teaching had no main effect on their crosscultural competence as reflected by their survey responses.

The third research question I asked was whether there was a significant interaction effect of race and school community setting on participants' self-reported crosscultural competence. No significant multivariate interaction effect for race and school community setting was observed,

Wilks's Lambda = .97, $F(12, 862) = .79$, $p = .66$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. Mean scores for racial groups and school community settings were not interdependent.

Table 1. Observed Internal Consistency Reliability for Survey Subscales and Overall Survey

Survey Subscale	α	M	SD
Foster	.75	4.09	4.84
Constrain	.73	3.50	5.23
Teacher Preparation	.75	3.89	4.12
Overall	.86	3.85	1.44

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Discussion

An 84% response rate was obtained in the current study, well above the 70% minimum acceptable survey response rate suggested by L. Gay and Airasian (2002). This high response rate may be attributed to at least two factors. First, paper surveys were administered to participants by music student teaching coordinators at the participating institutions rather than providing participants access to a web-based survey. As mentioned earlier, the decision to use paper surveys was supported by previous research indicating that web-based surveys result in varying response rates (Dolnicar et al., 2009; Greenlaw & Brown-Welty, 2009; Idleman, 2003; McCoy et al., 2004). Second, the incentive of a monetary contribution to the participants' collegiate chapter of NAFME commensurate with the percentage of surveys returned may also have had positive influence on the response rate.

Race/Ethnicity

As indicated previously, survey response options (and associated score values) were strongly agree (5), agree (4), neutral (3), disagree (2), and strongly disagree (1). Among the three dimension subscales (i.e., Foster, Constrain, Teacher Preparation) that composed cross-cultural competence in the survey used in the current study, the Constrain dimension subscale was the only one that evidenced a significant main effect of race/ethnicity. Items in this dimension subscale were designed to investigate the extent to which respondents held personal attitudes and levels of awareness regarding other cultures that might impede their readiness to teach in culturally diverse educational settings. Additionally, items for this survey dimension subscale were worded negatively and thus reverse scored. In general, participants in the raciaethnic minority held fewer beliefs and attitudes that would hinder their readiness to teach in culturally diverse educational environments.

Specifically, the responses of participants across race/ethnicity were significantly different with regard to preferences for teaching in environments composed of students who are culturally similar to each other or to the teachers instructing them (Survey Items 3 and 14), experience with other cultures (Survey Item 8), awareness of personal racial or ethnic biases that might affect their teaching (Survey Item 18), and the extent to which their own teachers were ethnically or racially similar to each other (Survey Item 16). Interestingly, Survey Item 16 was the item in the Constrain dimension subscale with the lowest mean score and also was the only survey item reflecting the agree response option, although the 2.60 mean response of the racial/ethnic minority was beyond the midpoint between the agree and the neutral response options. This finding suggested that participants in the racial/ethnic minority were taught by teachers representing a greater range of ethnic and racial diversity than that represented by the teachers of respondents in the racial/ethnic majority. This finding was unexpected; if the majority of public school teachers are White, then the expectation would be that respondents in both racial categories would indicate that their teachers were more racially or ethnically homogeneous than heterogeneous. The reasons for this finding are unclear. The respondents in the racial/ethnic minority may have misinterpreted the survey item and thought the statement referred to whether their teachers were racially or ethnically similar or dissimilar to themselves. On the other hand, their families may have made efforts to educate them in environments that reflected racial and ethnic diversity in terms of both teaching faculty and student population.

Notably, only 6 of the 20 mean scores reported in Table 2 fall between 2.50 and 3.50; one score falls below 2.50, and the other 13 are above 3.50 (the midpoint between neutral and disagree). These results support previous research results suggesting either that the participants generally were ambivalent regarding the item statements or that they found the neutral response option to be a more socially acceptable alternative in light of negative attitudes and beliefs they might actually hold (Kelly, 2003; McKoy, 2006). One exception to this trend was in the response to Item 9, which assessed the extent to which participants believed that certain racial/ethnic groups had greater capacity for learning than others. Although the racial/ethnic majority disagreed more strongly with the item statement than did the racial/ethnic minority, it was only by .03 points; both groups firmly disagreed with the notion that some minority groups may not be as capable of learning as other minority groups. However, closer examination of the individual responses for the agree and strongly agree options for each racial/ethnic group revealed that 4.6% (n = 13) of the participants in the racial/ethnic majority agreed with the item statement, and 1.4% (n = 4) agreed strongly with the item statement; whereas, 5.3% (n = 3) of the participants in the racial/ethnic minority (1 African American, 1 Hispanic, and 1 Multiracial) agreed strongly with the statement. Interestingly, when summed across both response options, the percentages for the racial/ethnic minority (5.3%) and the racial/ethnic majority (6%) are close. This result was unexpected, particularly given that African American and Hispanic groups historically have experienced lower expectations for academic achievement from teachers (G. Gay, 2010; Villegas & Lucas, 2002) and thus might be assumed to be more sensitive to the harm generated by such biases.

The greater concern is that of the participants who presumably will secure music teaching positions, 5.9% (n = 20) held the belief that students of some racial/ethnic groups are less capable of learning than others, and 7% (n = 23) were neutral. There is the possibility that other respondents also may have held these beliefs but responded in ways that they believed to be more socially acceptable, even though they knew their responses would be anonymous. If teacher expectations influence student learning, then viewing all students as capable of learning, regardless of gender, socioeconomic status, or racial/ethnic background is a disposition that should be engendered among preservice teachers.

Although the effect of the race/ethnicity variable was significant, it accounted for only 2% (univariate) to 3% (multivariate) of the overall variance. The small effect size for this variable was unexpected and may be attributable to a number of factors. Certainly the greater percentage of respondents in the racial/ethnic majority as compared to those in the racial/ethnic minority could have impacted the effect size. The results might have been different had there been less of a disparity in the number of respondents in each racial/ethnic category.

Another consideration is that race and ethnicity are among numerous factors identified in the literature that impact the extent of preservice teachers' cultural awareness and attitudes about other racial/ethnic groups, including self-concept and self-efficacy (Allinder, 1994; Brand & Glasson, 2004; Brown, 2004; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Alternately, the small effect size may indicate the difficulty in measuring this particular dimension of cross-cultural competence. The investigation of attitudes regarding race and ethnicity is challenging, as the topic is a sensitive one that often generates discomfort among survey participants. Additional research is needed in this area to parse whether and to what extent race/ethnicity may interact alone or in concert with other factors to affect preservice music teachers' cross-cultural competencies.

School Community Setting

Results of research regarding the effect of school community setting on preservice teachers' cross-cultural competence are inconclusive; however, the findings of the current study suggest that the community setting of the school in which preservice teachers conduct their early field experience practicum and student teaching does not affect their cross-cultural competence to a significant extent. That school community setting was defined in the survey only in terms of population size may have been a limitation in the current investigation of this particular variable. Although schools in urban community settings are assumed either to be more racially or ethnically diverse than suburban or rural schools or to include students whose racial/ethnic backgrounds are different from most of the teachers providing instruction, these assumptions may not always be accurate. Including survey questions that would elicit a demographic profile of the schools in which respondents conducted their early field experience practicum and student teaching (including the racial and ethnic makeup of the student body) might have yielded data that would have allowed for clearer and more accurate categorization of instructional environments.

On the other hand, as some researchers (Haberman & Post, 1992; Murthada-Watts, 1998; Reed, 1993) have concluded, simply varying the school community settings may not be sufficient to counter racial/ethnic misperceptions and stereotypes. To be effective, experiences in a wide variety of culturally diverse teaching settings should be coupled with engagement with multicultural course work and opportunities for discussion and in-depth debriefing (Jordan, 1995; Walker-Dalhousie & Dalhousie, 2006). Additionally, providing cultural immersion opportunities for music teacher candidates may hold some promise for broadening their experiences with and perceptions about diverse cultures (Emmanuel, 2005; Henry & Emmanuel, 2010). Further research on community settings for preservice music teacher placement in conjunction with corresponding multicultural course content and instructional strategies might offer additional insight into how to effect positive change in the development of cross-cultural competence.

Conclusion

As with general teacher preparation programs, music teacher preparation programs continue to evidence teacher candidate populations that are racially and ethnically homogeneous. Thus, the attainment of cross-cultural competence continues to be at the forefront of identified competencies for teacher candidates. Music can be a source of cultural identity for many groups and communities and is one of several expressive forms through which cultures of the world and microcultures in the United States may be known and understood (McKoy, 2009). Consequently, cross-cultural competence has particular significance in terms of desired outcomes for candidates in music teacher preparation programs, and additional research is needed to discern how best to achieve these outcomes.

Research has indicated that the validity of self-reported data is likely to be affected by the extent to which respondents perceive that the questions are not threatening, are not embarrassing, or do not violate their privacy (Bradburn & Sudman, 1988; Lowman & Williams, 1987; Pace, 1985). Examining the racial and cultural attitudes of preservice teachers often is challenging because of the sensitive nature of the topic; respondents' answers may reflect beliefs that they deem socially acceptable rather than the actual beliefs they harbor. Research investigations that combine quantitative and qualitative methods and that employ multiple forms of data corroboration, such as examining observed practices of preservice teachers as well as their self-reported beliefs and attitudes, might address issues of respondent mendacity.

Developing cross-culturally competent music teachers goes directly to the heart of what it means to prepare music teachers who recognize and value as instructionally pertinent the diverse cultural knowledge bases and experiences that students bring to bear in the music learning process. Identifying those factors that may cultivate the critical knowledge, skills, and dispositions required for cross-cultural competence in music teaching may assist music teacher education programs in producing music education professionals who can provide effective, meaningful, and culturally viable music instruction for all students.

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Note

1. According to the *National Association of Schools of Music Handbook* (National Association of Schools of Music, 2012), baccalaureate music degrees meeting “professional” degree standards include majors requiring 65% music content (i.e., performance, theory, composition, theory, history or literature, sacred music, jazz studies) and 50% music content (i.e., music education and music therapy) and combined music degrees. When an institution is chartered to offer only a baccalaureate bachelor of arts or a bachelor of science and these degrees meet professional music degree standards, “the degree is listed as Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science along with a specific major” (National Association of Schools of Music, 2012, p. 90).

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