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The Influences of Environment on the Music Preferences of Children with and without Disabilities

Madoka Hirano
Florida State University

THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF MUSIC

THE INFLUENCES OF ENVIRONMENT ON THE MUSIC PREFERENCES OF CHILDREN WITH AND WITHOUT DISABILITIES

By

MADOKA HIRANO

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The members of the committee approve the thesis of Madoka Hirano defended on October, 29, 2010.

_____
Alice-Ann Darrow
Professor Directing Thesis

_____
Jayne Standley
Committee Member

_____
Dianne Gregory
Committee Member

Approved:

_____
Don Gibson, Dean, College of Music

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

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of the study were to: (1) to investigate the musical preferences of children with and without disabilities, (2) to better understand the musical environments in which children with and without disabilities listen to music, (3) to determine the extent to which children with and without disabilities participate in different music activities in or outside of school, and (4) to determine whether parents of children with disabilities identify the musical preferences of their children differently than their children do. Participants (N = 497) in the study included parents of children who attend a regular school in Japan (n = 382), children who attend a special education school in Japan (n = 107), and their parents (n = 107). Two survey questionnaires addressing the purposes of the study were administered to participants. Results indicate that Japanese children with disabilities prefer to listen to songs from TV shows for children, nursery rhymes, Enka, and jazz significantly more than children without disabilities, while children without disabilities prefer to listen to cartoon songs and Japanese Pop music. The study revealed that more than one third of children with and without disabilities listen to music with either parent(s) or grandparent(s). Additionally, children without disabilities are more likely to listen to music with a sibling(s) and/or friend(s) than are children with disabilities—a result perhaps of their social isolation. There were no significant differences between children with and without disabilities and the musical activities in which they engage. Results also indicated that children with disabilities prefer Japanese Pop music more than their parents realize. Clinical implications for the study are the need for music therapists: (1) to attend to the musical differences between children with and without disabilities, (2) to be attune to the musical preferences of children with disabilities, and (3) to not rely on parental reports of children's musical preferences, but rather, to attend to verbal expressions, or when necessary—nonverbal indicators of children's musical preferences.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

By 1918, all of the then 48 states of the United States of America had passed compulsory education laws requiring children to attend school. Most children with disabilities, however, were still excluded from public schools. For many of these children, the only choices were either home schooling or individual tutoring. Some children with moderate disabilities, who were able to attend public schools, dropped out because they had difficulties keeping up with the other students in their classes. By the late 1960s, advocacy groups began to seek equal education rights for children with disabilities (Scotch, 1989).

The Mainstreaming of Inclusion Education in the United State

In 1975, the "Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142)" was passed. The purpose of P.L. 94-142 was to create the least restrictive environment for the public education of all children with physical and intellectual disabilities (Madden & Slavin, 1983). In 1990, the Act was renamed the "Individuals with Disabilities Education Act" (IDEA). IDEA has six main principles.

1) The Zero Reject Principle ensures that all individuals aged 3 to 21 receive a free and appropriate education (FAPE) regardless of disabilities. IDEA stipulates that no educational facility, public nor private, may exclude a child because of his or her disability or because he or she has a contagious disease unless there is a high risk that the child will infect other students.
2) The Appropriate Education Principle ensures that all children with disabilities have the right to receive a publicly-funded education that enables them to maximize their academic progress. Their education is provided through the Individual Education Program (IEP) (Turnbull, 2005). IEP is a team-developed program. It is based on a non-discriminatory evaluation and is available to all individuals between the ages of 3 and 22 who have disabilities. One of the program's goals is to help children with disabilities achieve individualized educational goals. Its implementation, based on each child's specific needs, is a team-driven process that includes the parents of the child.

3) The purpose of the Nondiscriminatory and Appropriate Evaluation Principle is to ensure that an individual suspected of having a disability is assessed using non-discriminatory measures. In using such an assessment, the extent to which any possible disability may negatively impact the evaluation process must be determined. This principle also ensures that any child assessed with a disability receives appropriate special education services. IDEA categorizes disabilities into the following thirteen categories: 1) autism, 2) deaf-blindness, 3) deafness, 4) hearing impairment, 5) emotional disturbance, 6) mental retardation, 7) multiple disabilities, 8) orthopedic impairment, 9) other health impairment, 10) specific learning disability, 11) speech or language impairment, 12) traumatic brain injury, or 13) visual impairment (Muller & Markowitz, 2004). When an individual is determined to have a disability, the IEP team must collect as much functional and developmental information as possible. Parents must give informed consent at all implemented stages of the evaluation process and for all service provisions.
4) The Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) Principle states that all children with disabilities have the right to be educated in the same environment as children without disabilities. The goal is to enhance the independence of children with disabilities. Mainstream or inclusion is terms often used to refer to this principle, but such terms are not a part of IDEA (Crokett & Kauffman, 1999). Children with disabilities in regular classrooms are provided supplementary aids and services in order to achieve their educational goals. Resource rooms are also made available to provide individualized services for the children outside of the regular classroom.
5) The Procedural Due Process Principle mandates safeguards to ensure that parents and schools are accountable to each other. When parents and schools disagree about services, an IEP, or other educational issues, IDEA permits them to participate in mediation to resolve their differences. If the mediation process is unsuccessful, a hearing can be held.
6) The Parental and Student Participation Principle ensures the right of parents and students to be involved in all stages of program development, implementation, and decision-making (Heward, 2006). It ensures, for example, the right of parents to be notified of all evaluations, to have access to their children's records, and to be considered full members of all evaluation processes, including their children's IEP.

IDEA has made it possible for children with disabilities to receive the kind of education that is their legal right. The Least Restrictive Environment Principle, which encourages inclusion education, is not only beneficial for children with disabilities but also for their peers and teachers. An inclusive environment provides all students with opportunities for leadership, for peer tutoring, and for understanding each other's strengths and weaknesses. Teachers are also able to enhance their understanding of individual differences and improve their pedagogical strategies.

Barriers to inclusion education environments can arise at any time, however, and they must be overcome for inclusion to be successful. Adamek and Darrow (2005), for example, have categorized these barriers as organizational, attitudinal, and knowledge barriers. *Organizational barriers* refer to those barriers that may be created in how goals for students with disabilities are defined, how instruction is provided, and how classrooms are managed. *Attitudinal barriers* include attitudes, both negative and positive, shown by teachers towards children with disabilities. Teachers' misconceptions of children with disabilities and the fear that such teachers may have about not being effective may lead to the emergence of unintentional negative attitudes on their part. On the other hand, a well-meaning teacher placing too much attention on a child with a disability may alienate other students and/or put the student with a disability in a compromised position with other students. *Knowledge barriers* refer to teachers' or administrators' lack of the knowledge and skills, or lack of access to the knowledge and skills, needed to effectively provide students with the services they deserve.

The Mainstreaming of Inclusion Education in Japan

Special education in Japan started with the establishment of Moain School in Kyoto in 1878 (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 1979). Moain School was a training institute for the blind and deaf. In 1886, the section for Kun-Moain (training for the blind and deaf) was established in the General Affairs Bureau of the Monbu-sho (Ministry of Education). In 1947, the School Education Act was enacted. The law required all children to attend an elementary school for six years and junior high school for three years. The law categorized children's disabilities had into the following: 1) intellectual disabilities, 2) physical disabilities, 3) health impairments, 4) visual impairments, 5) hearing difficulties, and 6) other disabilities.

In 1948, the compulsory education law was enforced in schools for children with visual impairments and hearing difficulties. However, education for children with intellectual and physical disabilities was delayed because of teachers' lack of knowledge about the field and because of financial constrains experienced by Japan following the Second World War. For similar reasons, children with severe or multiple disabilities were precluded from receiving appropriate education (Abe, 1998).

In 1979, compulsory education for children with intellectual disabilities, physical disabilities and health impairments became law. The law made it possible for all children with disabilities to attend special schools. As a result, the number of schools for children with disabilities increased dramatically. For example, the number of schools for children with intellectual disabilities increased from 96 in 1970 to 502 in 1995 (Monbu-sho, 1995).

In 1981, the United Nations proclaimed the International Year of the Disabled Person (IYDP). The proclamation drew attention to the rights of, and the need for equal opportunities for people with disabilities. It also influenced the creation of the idea of normalization in Japan. The concept of normalization means that people with disabilities should live according to the same norms and patterns as others in the community (Nirje, 1994). The concept of normalization encouraged parents of children with disabilities, and many of them began to demand that their children receive an education in regular classes instead of special education classes or special schools.

In 1994, the World Conference on Special Needs Education was held in Salamanca, Spain. At the conference, a standard of inclusion for all children with disabilities was agreed upon. The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action of Special Needs Education stated that:

> Ordinary schools should accommodate all children, regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. All educational policies, says the Framework, should stipulate that disabled children attend the neighborhood school that would be attended if the child did not have a disability. UNESCO & Ministry of Education and Science Spain, 1994

The Salamanca Statement made it more possible for mainstream inclusion to be reinforced.

In 2001, Monbu-sho (Ministry of Education) was renamed Monbu-Kagaku-sho ('Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology,' or 'MEXT'). In that year, a MEXT

advisory committee stated the following in its annual report, '*Future Directions for Special Education in the 21st Century:*'

> Special support education is meant to grasp individual educational needs of children/students not only with disabilities taken care of in the conventional special education but also with other disabilities such as LD, ADHD, and high functioning autism, and to provide necessary support through appropriate education and guidance for enhancing power inherent in them and for reducing or overcoming difficulties in their learning and living. (P. 4)

In their 2003 final report 'Special Support Education in the Future,' MEXT began to use the terms 'special support education' and 'special needs education' rather than 'special education.' Its Advisory Committee on the 'National Agenda for Special Support Education' has also recently published the document, "Future Directions of Special Support Education." In 2007, Japanese education for children with disabilities was renamed 'special needs education' in an amendment to the School Education Law. Under previous practices, educators assessed and evaluated students according to their disability type. 'Special needs education' encouraged educators to attach more importance to each individual child's educational needs, without abandoning the classification of disabilities by type. The education of children with disabilities was accepted as an education that could be given in regular classes in public schools.

Currently, there are various forms of special support education available for children with disabilities in Japan: 1) Special support schools, 2) Special support classrooms, and 3) Tsukyu class (resource rooms). According to the National Institute of Special Education (2003), about 1.6% of all children in compulsory education stages receive special support education services. Of those children, 47% receive education in special support schools, 78% receive education in special support classes, and 31% receive education in Tsukyu classes (resource rooms). MEXT notes that the number of children who are receiving special support education is increasing even though the number of children in regular schools is decreasing due to the low birthrate in Japan (MEXT, 2007).

The term 'Inclusion Education (Houkatsuteki-kyoiku)' and 'Integration (Tougou-kyoiku)' are used differently in Japan. The idea of inclusion education came from the special education system in the United States. Its goal is to have all students in a school, regardless of their

strengths or weaknesses in any area, become part of the school community. The goal of the idea of integration is that all children with disabilities study in regular classrooms. The idea distinguishes between children with and without disabilities even though it encourages that they be in the same classroom. In Japan, the idea of integration has been gradually accepted.

In many cities, however, parents are not able to choose the school their child will attend. Moreover, although a child with a disability is allowed to be in a regular school in the community, there is no law requiring an educational specialist to be in every regular school, nor does every school have a special support education classroom. Children with disabilities are, therefore, less likely than other students to receive adequate education in the regular classroom. Educators concerned with the establishment of inclusion education must attend to such matters.

Musical Preferences

Music is a ubiquitous social phenomenon. It plays an important role in the social and personal lives of both young and old people. Nevertheless, just as some people vary in their preferences for movies, foods, and clothing, they vary in their preferences for music. Some people may like rock or Pop, while others prefer classical or jazz. A number of factors are involved in the development of music preferences. Cultural factors are very important in music because music is developed differently in different communities (Tighe & Dowling, 1993). Another factor is familiarity. Song preference and familiarity has significant correlations (Siebenaler, 1999). In general, people express preferences toward familiar, rather than non-familiar music.

Accordingly, the study of music taste has attracted researchers in psychology, aesthetics, education, and music for many years. Some researchers prefer to use the term "music taste" instead of "music preference." Rentfrow and Gosling (2003) have studied the relationship between personality and music preference. Farnsworth (1950) and LeBlanc, Coleman, McCrary, Sherrill, & Malin (1988) have studied the relationship between age. LeBlac et al. (1988) found that preference of traditional jazz music declines the more the higher the grade. LeBlanc and Cote (1983) and Montgomery (1996) have studied the relationship between tempos and music preference. Some researchers have explored the relationship between cultural environments and music preference (Morrison, 1998; Morrison & Yeh, 1999, & Siebenaler, 1999), while others have examined if familiarity has a positive relationship to music preference (Shehan, 1985;

Siebenaler, 1999).

Studies of children and music preference focus on four groups: infants, toddlers, school-aged children, and adolescents. From birth, infants already have the ability to receive, distinguish, and remember a variety of both musical and linguistic sounds (Saffran, Loman, & Robertson, 2000). Infants also display clear auditory preferences after birth. Research has also shown that they are attracted to familiar voices. They exhibit, for example, a listening preference for their mother's voice over another women's voice (Standley & Madsen, 1990). Age differences, especially those between infants and adolescents, are one of the most influential factors on music preferences. Musical preferences change dramatically over time.

Rationale and Statement of Purpose

For many years, music therapists and music educators have studied how music allows children with disabilities to both express themselves and provide meaningful communication with others. It is generally accepted that music is as important a social tool for children with disabilities as it is for children without disabilities. In special education fields, music therapists have been using music as an education-related service to enhance such skills as children's academic skills, social skills, and gross/fine motor skills. On the AMTA website (1999), it is suggested that client-preferred music is more effective in enhancing mood and attention, and in optimizing students' ability to learn and interact. According to the AMTA Standards of Clinical Practice, all music therapy assessment methods will be appropriate for the client's chronological age, diagnoses, functioning level, and culture. However, because children with disabilities often have a developmental age lower than their chronological age, many teachers working with them have a tendency to use music designed for younger-aged children. As a result, children with disabilities are not likely to receive age-appropriate music education. This tendency may prevent them from developing socialization skills. In short, although it is accepted that music preference may play an important role in helping children socialize with others, especially peers, the music preferences of children with disabilities has not been adequately studied. Therefore, the purposes of the study were to: (1) to investigate the musical preferences of children with disabilities and those without disabilities, (2) to better understand the musical environment in which children with and without disabilities listen to music, (3) to determine the extent to which children with and without disabilities participate in different music activities in or outside of school, and (4) to

determine whether parents of children with disabilities identify the musical preferences of their children differently than their children do.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review of literature examines research on: (1) mainstreamed school settings, (2) attitudes of typically developing children towards peers with disabilities and attitudes of parents of children with disabilities, (3) music preferences of children with/without disabilities. This review will provide a framework for the study of the musical preferences of children with disabilities, an area in which there is little research.

Mainstream in a Regular School Setting

Since the 'Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 92-142) was mandated in 1975, mainstreamed school settings have affected students with disabilities in various ways. Such environments have made it possible to provide children with disabilities the social opportunities they need to be a part of their community. In a comparative research study of children in a mainstreamed classroom and children in a special education classroom, Madden and Slavin (1983) found that students in a mainstreamed classroom displayed more appropriate behavior than students who were in a special education classroom. Their research also suggested that children displayed such positive behavior when they received adequate support as well. Shapon-Shevin (1996) argued that students with disabilities in a mainstreamed classroom learn important social skills that help them to become compassionate adults.

Guralnik et al. (1996) conducted a study to determine if mainstreamed settings affect peer interactions among preschool children. Researchers made three playgroups of preschool-aged children: (1) A group of typically developing children, (2) a group of children with developmental delays, and (3) a mainstreamed group (a group for children both with/without developmental delays). Then the researchers asked each group to play for two weeks and observed the level of peer interaction in each group. The study revealed that the mainstreamed group displayed higher interaction levels than the other two groups. A mainstreamed classroom is an important environment for children with disabilities to improve their appropriate social skills.

Children do not only receive education at school to learn appropriate socialization. They are also required to achieve academic skills. Moreover, social acceptance and the acquisition of academic skills are strongly connected. Some research has indicated a strong relationship between the academic reports of students with/without disabilities and their social acceptance by peers (Roberts & Zubrick, 1993); however, there are few research studies of how the academic growth of mainstreamed students with disabilities is affected by teacher assessments and peer interaction (Miller, Fullmer, & Walls, 1996). Although some studies have found that there were no significant differences (Deno, Maruyama, Espin & Cohen, 1990; Gottlieb, 1981; Sharpe, et al., 1994) between the academic growth of children in a mainstreamed environment and those in special education classrooms, many researchers have found that the academic skills increased for students with disabilities in a regular classroom.

In an early study Dunn (1968), questioned the appropriateness of children with mild cognitive disabilities receiving education in a special classroom. He reported that children who were educated in a special class displayed less academic achievement than those who were educated in a regular classroom. In recent studies, many researchers (Freeman & Alkin, 2000; Madden & Slavin, 1983; Miller, Fullmer, & Walls, 1996) have found that children in mainstreamed environments gained significant academic achievement beyond those who were in segregated school environments.

Mainstreamed school environments are effective not only for children with disabilities but also for students without disabilities. Many researchers have investigated the effect of mainstreamed school environments on children with disabilities; however, there is little research on how the environment positively affects children without disabilities. Some researchers have found that students without disabilities are personally enriched through positive experiences with peers who have special needs, and that such students were better prepared to deal with people who differ from themselves (Raynes, Snell & Sailor, 1991; Vandercook, Fleetham, Sinclair, & Tetlie, 1988). Staub and Peck (1995) identified five positive effects of inclusion on students without disabilities that also facilitate integration:

1) *Reduced fear of human differences accompanied by increased comfort and awareness*

In a survey of high school students, researchers found that through interaction with people with disabilities, students' fear of people who looked or behaved differently was reduced (Peck et al., 1992).

2) *Growth in social cognition*

A study has shown that mainstreamed high schools students without disabilities learn how to be tolerant of others. It also found that these students displayed more positive feelings towards themselves after spending time helping classmates with severe disabilities (Murray-Seegert, 1989)

3) *Improvements in self-concept*

Studies have shown that the self-esteem of students without disabilities increased through having experiences, such as peer tutoring, with people with disabilities (Peck et al., 1992; Peck et al., 1990; Voeltz & Brennan, 1983).

4) *Development of personal principles*

Parents of students without disabilities reported that their children decreased prejudice towards people who looked or behaved differently (Peck et al., 1992). The responsiveness of students without disabilities toward the needs of other people increased. (Helmstetter et al., 1994).

5) *Warm and caring friendships*

A mainstreaming environment enables children with/without disabilities to gain long-lasting relationship (Amado, 1993; Strully & Strully, 1985; Voeltz & Brennan, 1983).

In conclusion, many researchers have shown that a mainstreamed school setting helps to improve the social and academic skills of students with disabilities. Studies also emphasize the importance of adequate support for children with disabilities in making it possible for these students to improve their social and academic skills.

Teachers' Attitudes to Mainstreaming

Although mainstream school environments have become more common, teachers and students without disabilities are not always ready to accept students with disabilities. Teachers' attitudes play an important role in the success of the mainstream school environment, and their behaviors often affects the behaviors of students without disabilities towards students with disabilities in the classroom (Darrow, Colwel & Kim, 2002; Williams, & Algozinne, 1979).

Several early studies indicated that teachers tend to respond positively, behave supportively, and interact more with high-achieving students than with low-achieving students (Hoehn, 1954; Brophy & Good, 1974; Carne & Bing, 1973). On the other hand, another study found that teachers are likely to pay more attention to students who have academic, rather than behavioral problem, and will provide them with more response and praise than they will other students (Brophy & Good, 1974). Furthermore, research conducted by Forness and Esveldt (1975) found that students with disabilities in a mainstream environment have more interactions with their teachers than they do with students without disabilities. These studies indicate that although they do pay attention to students with disabilities, teachers in a mainstreamed setting may feel that students with disabilities are a burden.

Teachers often display their preferences for students with disabilities based on the extent or characteristics of their disabilities (Rapier, et al., 1972; Sheares & Jensema, 1969; Tringo, 1970). According to surveys conducted by several researchers (Mooney & Algozzine, 1987; Frisque et al., 1994), mainstream teachers feel that students with emotional or behavioral disabilities are more difficult and bothersome than other students who have other disabilities. Similarly, teachers are willing to have students in their mainstreamed classroom as long as the students do not exhibit emotional or behavioral problems (Schumm & Vaughn, 1992). In addition, teachers are generally more comfortable working with students with physical disabilities and students with speech impairments (Frisque et al., 1994; Williams & Algozzine, 1977) than students who have other disabilities.

Teachers' lack of knowledge, experience, training, and time for preparation often prompt their negative feelings about teaching in a mainstream school environment. Many studies have found that teachers' acceptance of students with disabilities in a mainstreamed setting is related to the knowledge and experience of teachers (Stoler, 1992; McLesky & Waldron, 1996). Hodge and Jansma (2000) found that teachers who have experienced working with students who have disabilities displayed a positive attitude towards the mainstream classroom environment. Moreover, the research also found that female teachers showed more positive attitudes to mainstreamed students than male teachers. According to a survey of music teachers in Arizona, 40% of teachers who had experience working with children with disabilities had no training in special education tasks (Frisque, et al., 1994). The study also found that many of these teachers

felt that they do not have adequate preparation time (89%) and resources (69%) to individualize instruction in a mainstreamed setting. Morsink (1979) also pointed out that the teachers in mainstream environments do not have adequate preparation time.

Teachers' class management techniques sometimes affect their attitude toward mainstreaming. Some studies found that teachers who had low tolerance for behavior and learning problems were more likely to display reluctance to having students with disabilities their classrooms (Kauffman, Lloyd, & McGee, 1989). In addition, Gersten et al. (1988) found that teachers who have high standards and use classroom time efficiently are likely to resist the placement of students with disabilities in their class. They also stated that students who are required to be in a high standards classroom may have difficulty in the intensive instruction environment.

From the above studies, we can note that: (a) teachers tend to behave differently towards students with different levels of achievement, (b) teachers often feel they have inadequate time to prepare and inadequate training to work with students with disabilities, (c) teachers who have previous experience with students with disabilities feel more comfortable teaching in a mainstream environment, and (d) female teachers are likely to display more positive attitudes towards students with disabilities than male teachers.

Attitudes towards Mainstreaming; Typically Developing peers

As do teachers, children without disabilities play an important role in the success or failure of mainstreamed classroom environment in helping children with disabilities. There are several studies that have investigated children's attitude towards peers with disabilities. In early studies, researchers found that students with disabilities are likely to be rejected and isolated from their peers without disabilities (Johnson & Kirk, 1950; Hutton & Polo, 1976).

There are more studies of children's attitude towards peers with physical disabilities than other disabilities because these children are more frequently involved in a mainstream classroom than children with other disabilities (Center & Ward, 1987). Several studies found that children without disabilities displayed more preference for peers with physical disabilities than other disabilities such as emotional or learning disabilities (Harasymiw, Horne & Lewis, 1976; Parish, Ohlsen, & Parish, 1978). Sigelman, Miller, and Whitworth (1986) examined preschool-aged students' reactions towards peers with physical disabilities. The research found

that 5-year-old children displayed preferences for peers without disabilities as playmates. This research also found that girls displayed more acceptance of peers in wheelchairs than boys did. Siperstein, Bak, and O'Keefe (1988) explored the relationship between children's attitude towards their peers with disabilities and their social acceptance of children with cognitive disabilities. They found that children who displayed positive attitudes towards peers with disabilities are likely to accept children with disabilities, while children who display negative attitudes towards peers with disabilities are likely to reject their peers with disabilities.

Ferguson (1999) found that the majority (67%) of high school students do not want students with disabilities to be in their classes, although half of them feel that having students with disabilities in their classrooms is socially beneficial. In the study, Ferguson also found that students without disabilities who had participated in peer tutoring for students with disabilities displayed more positive attitudes than those who had not. Moreover, she found that female students are more likely to display positive attitudes towards peers with disabilities than male students. The literature on the attitudes of teachers and peers without disabilities towards children with disabilities indicate that: (a) both prefer children with physical disabilities than with other disabilities, (b) teachers or peers with experiences with students with disabilities are likely to be accepting of children with disabilities, and (c) females display a greater acceptance of students with disabilities than males.

Although children with disabilities have been physically mainstreamed into regular school environments, their social integration in these settings has often been unsatisfactory. Cullinan, Sabornie, and Crossland (1992) defined socially integrated children with disabilities as: (a) being socially accepted by peers, (b) having at least one reciprocal friendship with a child without a disability, and (c) being an active and equal participant in activities performed by peers without disabilities. One of the reasons why children with disabilities have not integrated socially is due to their social and behavioral problems. There are many substantial social problems among children with disabilities. Several researchers have investigated the reasons why children with disabilities are likely to be rejected by their peers. Some studies found that many children with learning difficulties often display inappropriate social behavior (Scruggus & Mastropieri, 1992; Zetlin & Murtaugh, 1988). In addition, children with cognitive disabilities often display an inability to understand or have

difficulty understanding other's nonverbal behavior, intentions, and desires (Bryan, & Bryand, 1986). Academic competence also influences peers' status, and many children with disabilities are likely to have poor academic skills (Horne, 1985). As a result, students with disabilities are likely to be rejected by their peers.

Attitudes of Parents of Children with Disabilities

Problems related to the social, emotional, and psychological development of children with disabilities place a lot of pressure on the parents and other family members. Parents of children with disabilities often display different attitudes towards their children than other parents. Many researchers have investigated parents' reactions and attitudes upon becoming aware that their children had disabilities. Karnes and Teska (1980) stated that the process of parental reactions is similar regardless of the condition of the children with disabilities. Parents of children with disabilities often experience depression and shock and begin to feel that life is unfair (Roos, 1975). Grays (1963) identified four stages that parents experience when they are informed that their children have disabilities: (1) guilt and shame, (2) knowledge and understanding, (3) acceptance, and (4) readiness to help the child, while Marion (1981) indentified the following seven stages: (1) projection of blame, (2) guilt, (3) denial, (4) grief, (5) withdrawal, (6) rejection, and (7) acceptance. These stages are similar to those identified by Kübler-Ross (1969) in her study of responses to grief and tragedy. Marion (1981) stated that the stage of denial can be destructive because parents and the child may not have the opportunity to be part of an early intervention program and because parents are likely to avoid talking about the problem with others.

The feeling of rejection and over-protectiveness are also feelings parents of children with disabilities are likely to experience (Faerstein, 1981). Wetter (1972) found that parents of children with learning disabilities are more likely to both reject and overindulge their children than parents of children without disabilities.

On the other hand, several researchers have pointed out parents' overprotective behaviors towards their children with disabilities. According to Blum, Resnick, Nelson, and St. Germaine (1991), many adolescents with physical disabilities reported that their parents overprotected them and that their parents did not treat them in age-appropriate ways. Parents also often display an

indulgent behavior towards their children with disabilities and that behavior may cause parents' feeling of guilt and anxious parental attachment to their children (Thomasgard & Metz, 1993).

Several researchers found that parents of children with disabilities are vulnerable to stress and parents of children with disabilities are more likely to experience depression and stress than parents of children without disabilities (Cadman, Rosenbaum, Boyle & Offord, 1991). A study found that 70% of mothers and 40% of fathers of children with severe disabilities displayed high distress (Sloper & Turner, 1993). There are several factors related to parents' stress. Sleeping disturbances of the children with disabilities is one of the common problems. Several studies found that there is a prevalence of sleeping disorders among children with disabilities, such as those with learning disabilities (Bartlett, Rooney & Spedding, 1985), autism (Patzold, Richdale & Tonge, 1998), and Angelman syndrome (Clarke & Marston, 2000).

Material resources are strongly related to families' well-being (Quine & Pahl, 1991), and many parents of children with disabilities have financial problems. Parents of children with disabilities have lower incomes than parents of children without disabilities on average (Quine & Pahl, 1991; Sloper & Turner, 1993; Gordon, Parker, Loughran & Heslop, 2000). Moreover, according to Lee, Sillis and Oh (2002), low-income families are almost 50% more likely to have children with disabilities. Parents of children with disabilities affect their employment situation. For example, mothers of children with disabilities are less likely to be employed and, even if they are employed, their income is likely to be less than others (Beresford, Sloper, Baldwin & Newman, 1996). Several studies found that mothers of children with disabilities frequently experience high stress, and mothers reported that they receive less than adequate emotional support (Quittner, Glueckauf & Jackson, 1990). Mothers of children with disabilities are less likely to experience stress if they have adequate social support (Bristol, 1985). There is little research about fathers of children with disabilities too. In an early study, Tallman (1965) found that fathers displayed more difficulties coping with their children with disabilities and were more concerned about the stigma of having a child with disabilities.

Research on Musical Preferences of Children and Adults

For many years, a number of researchers have explored people's music preferences and related factors. Positive correlations have been observed between music preference and music experiences (Geringer & McManus, 1979; Gregory, 1993). Some researchers have explored

music preferences of musicians or music major college students and non-musicians or non-music major college students and have found differences in their music preferences. Buzalovski, Humphreys, and Wells (1992-1993) found that music major college students displayed a significant preference toward classical and contemporary classical music, whereas non-music major college students displayed a preference toward rock music. The same study also found that students with high levels of school music ensemble experience displayed significantly more positive attitudes towards jazz music than students who had less school ensemble experience. Brittin (1991) examined the listeners' preferences towards "crossover" excerpts. She found that subjects with previous musical experiences responded more positively to the music than those who had no experience.

Familiarity also seems to affect music preferences. In the research conducted by Hargreaves, Masserschmidt and Pubert (1980), subjects displayed a stronger preference towards familiar music than unfamiliar music. According to a study conducted by Fung (1994), American college-age students displayed greater preference toward Latin American music when they listened to various other types of world music such as African and Asian music. Moskovitz (1992) found that children's preference for slow music from various genres increased the more they were exposed to it. Both the experimental and control group completed a pretest to indicate their preference to several pairs of music selections. During the experiment, the experimental group listened to a recording of the slow music excerpts that repeated from time to time throughout the recording. The control group only listened to each excerpt once during the experiment. Bradley (1971) found that seventh-grade subjects displayed strong preferences towards contemporary art music after listening to contemporary art music for a span of 14 weeks. Fung suggested that the reason why American students preferred more Latin American music than other world music might be Latin American music's similarity to western music. Peery and Peery (1986) studied whether repeated music exposure affected preschoolers' music preferences. An experimental group of pre-school children listened to, sang, and played musical games with classical music for ten months. Researchers found that the experimental group of pre-school children displayed significantly greater preference for classical music than the control group.

Cultural environment also affects people's music preferences. In an early study, Madsen and Madsen (1975) asked fifth-grade students to choose either candy or the chance to listen to

soul music. The research found that African-American students preferred to listen to soul music, whereas Caucasian students prefer candies. MacCrary (1993) found that African-American listeners displayed a stronger preference for the music when they were informed the performers were African-America, while Caucasians' preferences remained the same whether they were informed the musicians were African-American or Caucasian performers. In a study conducted by Darrow, Haack, and Kuribayashi (1987), students in Japan and in the United States were asked to listen to Western and Eastern excerpts. They were then asked to describe the character of each except. In addition, they were asked to indicate their preference for each excerpt. Both Japanese and American students displayed preferences for western music, and Japanese students displayed a more positive acceptance of Eastern excerpts than American students. Moreover, this research also found that Japanese and American students were more likely to describe Eastern excerpts differently than Western excerpts. For example, in describing the characteristics of Japanese *nogaku*, many American students used "mournful" while Japanese students used "majestic."

Some researchers have studied whether listeners' gender affects their music preferences. Several studies of music preferences have revealed that there are no significant differences in music preferences between genders (LeBlanc & McCrary, 1983); however, many studies also found that, in general, females display more positive attitudes towards music than males (Baumann, 1960; Brittin, 1991; Schuessler, 1948; Wheeler, 1985). Schwartz and Fouts (2003) investigated adolescents' music preferences. They included hard rock, classic rock, heavy metal, and rap under the category "heavy music," and Pop, teen Pop, and dance music under the category "light music." They found that male adolescents displayed more preferences towards "heavy music" than "light music", while female adolescents preferred light music to heavy music. McNamara and Ballard (1999) found that male adolescents prefer heavy music more than female adolescents because they are likely to listen to music as a sensation-seeking activity. On the other hand, females are likely to listen to music to reduce feelings of loneliness (Roe, 1984). Boyle, Hosterman, and Ramsey (1981) found that female students rated the lyrics; melody and sentiment were important factor in Popular music, while male students rated instruments and peer interactions are more important than other factors in music. According to LeBlanc and Cote (1983), fifth grade female students displayed a preference for female vocalists, while male

students displayed a significant preference for male vocalists. LeBlanc, Smis, Malin, and Sherrill (1992) found that females pay significantly much more attention to the lyrics of music than males. In a study of college students (1992-1993), Buzalovski, Humphreys, and Wells found that females displayed more positive attitudes towards country and spiritual music than males. On the other hand, males exhibited more preference for rap music than females.

As it has for gender differences, research has consistently revealed age differences in music preferences. Schwarz and Fouts (1998) compared music preferences between younger adolescents and older adolescents. They found that younger adolescents prefer 'heavy music' (e.g. hard rock, classic rock, heavy metal, and rap) more than older adolescents. LeBlanc, Colman, McCrary, Sherrill, and Malin (1988) investigated music preferences for traditional jazz music for students from grade 3 to college age. They found that preference was highest at the youngest age level (grade 3), then gradually declined to a low point in adolescence (grade 7), and rose again to the highest level at college age. May (1985) reported that the higher the grades students have, the more they prefer current Popular music than lower grade students. Montgomery (1996) found that in general, the younger children (kindergarten to grade 2) are more open and positive they are to music, while Farnsworth (1950) reported that the more people age, the more narrower their music preferences become. According to Greer, Dorow, and Randall (1974), music preferences are likely to be established younger than fifth and sixth graders. LeBlanc and Cote (1983) examined fifth and sixth graders' reactions to traditional jazz. They expressed a preference for a faster tempo than a slower tempo and for a vocal medium rather than an instrumental medium.

The relationships between music preferences and tempo have also been studied by several researchers. Finnas (1989) stated that the tempo of music may play an important role in children's music preferences. Many researchers have found that people generally prefer music with a faster tempo (Geringer & Madsen, 1987; LeBlanc, 1981; LeBlanc & Cote, 1983). Moreover, Geringer and Madsen found that listeners prefer the unaltered tempo of Popular music. Montgomery (1996) examined the relationship between tempo preferences and children of different school ages. She found that children from grade 3 to 8 displayed significantly greater musical preferences for faster tempos than did younger children (Kindergarten to grade 2).

Music preferences and personality have also been investigated by many researchers. Schwartz and Founts (2003) investigated the personalities of adolescents who listen to "heavy music (hard rock, classic rock, heavy metal, and rap)" and "light music (Pop, teen Pop, and dance)" using MAPI (Million Adolescent Personality Inventory). They found that adolescents who preferred heavy music were significantly more tough-minded and assertive in their relationship with others than those who listen to light music. Moreover, adolescents who preferred heavy music were significantly more disrespectful towards others and the rules of society, and also likely to have problem with families than those who prefer light music. Adolescents who prefer light music were more responsible and rule-conscious than those who prefer heavy music. Adolescents who prefer light music also struggled significantly more with their developing sexuality and feel more uncomfortable in sexual relationship than those who prefer heavy music.

There are numerous researchers who have investigated the relationship between preferences for the heavy metal music and listeners' personalities. Growensmith and Bloom (1997) investigated the difference between heavy metal fans and country fans. They found that heavy metal fans are likely to have a higher resting arousal than country fans. Moreover, the same study revealed that heavy metal fans' arousal level increased more when they listened to heavy metal than country fans' level of arousal increased when they listened to country music. Arnett (1991) found that adolescents who prefer heavy metal were more likely to use illegal drugs than those who do not prefer heavy metal. Arnett also found that heavy metal listeners are likely to have lower self-esteem. Singer, Levine, and Jou (1993) found that youth who prefer heavy metal were significantly more delinquent than youth who do not listen to heavy metal. They also found that many youth who prefer heavy metal had lower parental supervision than youth who do not listen to heavy metal. Music preference and sensation-seeking behaviors are linked with each other. Litle and Zuckerman (1986) found that high sensation seekers are likely to prefer rock and heavy metal music and disliked religious and soundtrack music. Hansen and Hansen (1991) found that punk rock and heavy metal fans are likely to distrust authority more than Popular music fans. Moreover, both male heavy metal fans are in general less respect for women and have a hyper sexuality. According to an early study that examined the relationships between music preferences and social and political attitudes, people who prefer folk music are

likely to be more politically alienated than people who listen to other types of music (Mashkin & Volgy, 1975).

Comparison of Music Perception, Performance, and Preferences among People with and without Disabilities

Since Public Low 94-142, music educators who work in mainstreamed environments have considered whether children with disabilities learn music differently. Few researchers have examined the musical skills of children with and without disabilities. Atterbury (1983) investigated the rhythm perception of children with/without learning disabilities. Atterbury found that there was no significant difference in the perception of simple same and different rhythm patterns between children with and those without learning disabilities; however, children with learning disabilities displayed more difficulties in perceiving difficult rhythm patterns than children without disabilities. According to a study conducted by Darrow (1984), children with hearing impairments performed as well as or better than normal hearing children in beat identification, tempo change, meter discrimination and rhythm pattern maintenance. McGiven, Berka, Languis, and Chapman (1991) found that children with reading impairments displayed significantly poorer ability to discriminate rhythm patterns on the Seashore Rhythm Test than children without disabilities.

Studies also exist on whether background music affects children with and those without disabilities positively or negatively. Abikoff, Courtney, Szeibel, and Koplewocz (1996) investigated the arithmetic abilities of children with ADHD and without disabilities under three conditions: 1) high stimulation (with back ground music), 2) low stimulation (speech), and 3) no stimulation (silence). The researchers found that children with ADHD answered more questions correctly under the music stimulus then conditions of speech and silence, while children without disabilities performed similarly under all three conditions. In a similar study, Wolfe (1982) examined the effects of background music on task performance of third-grade students who do not frequently display hyperactive behaviors and those who frequently display hyperactive behaviors. Students' body movements were observed while they were doing academic tasks and receiving music stimuli. Wolfe found that there were no significant differences in task performance and body movements during the academic tasks between normal children and children who display hyperactive behaviors.

There are few researchers who have investigated the music preferences of children with disabilities. In a study conducted by Thaut (1987), it was found that children with autism spent significantly more time with musical stimulus than children without disabilities. According to a study by Flower (1984), children with Down syndrome preferred music at the *piano* level significantly more, while children without disabilities preferred music at the *forte* level more. Jellison and Flowers (1991) developed a questionnaire to determine the music preferences of children with and without disabilities. Questions were based on their listening behaviors and interests, music performance experiences, and ability to sing a favorite song and clap to a steady beat, and all children were required to answer verbally. Jellison and Flowers found that the music preferences of children with and without disabilities were similar; however, the study suggested that children without disabilities displayed a higher frequency of verbal responses than children without disabilities. Madsen, Capperela-Sheldon, and Johnson (1991) investigated the abilities of preschool children with and without disabilities to express their feelings for music non-verbally using the Continuous Response Digital Interface (CRDI). They found that there were no differences in such abilities between children with and without disabilities. Getz (1966) reported that there seems to be no differences in the enjoyment of music between children with and without disabilities.

Rationale

This study addresses a need in the research literature to exam the musical preferences of Japanese children with and without disabilities, and Japanese parents' identification of their children's music preferences. Comparative research on the music preferences of children with and without disabilities is lacking, although a number of studies exist which reveal the musical preferences of children without disabilities. Music educators and music therapists are required to consider age-appropriate music when they plan music activities for students with disabilities (Adamek, 2001; Nevin, 1993). In special education settings, however, teachers often use non age-appropriate music for students with disabilities; for example, teachers use music with adolescent students who have disabilities that is designed for younger children. Teachers are likely to be concerned with: 1) students' mental age rather than their chronological age, 2) students' developmental level, and 3) the possibility that their students are "not ready" socially, emotionally, intellectually, physically, economically, cognitively, etc. for chronological

age-appropriate music (Brown et al., 2001). An age-appropriate environment is important for children with disabilities to increase normalization and peer interactions.

Like teachers, parents of children with disabilities often treat those children according to their mental age, not their chronological age. Many adolescents with disabilities feel their parents do not treat them in age-appropriate ways (Blum, Resnick, Nelson & St. Germaine, 1991). This study explores the differences between the musical preferences of children with and without disabilities and parents' perceptions of their children's music preferences.

Research Questions

The following research questions will be investigated:

1. Do children with and without disabilities have different music preferences?
2. Do children with and without disabilities have different music environments in which they listen to music?
3. Do children with and without disabilities participate in different musical activities in or outside of school?
4. Do parents of children with disabilities identify their children's music preferences differently than their children do?

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Parent Participants

Parent participants in this study were parents of elementary students, attending four mainstreamed schools grades 1 to 6 with/without disabilities and parents of elementary students who were attending special education schools grade 1 to 6. All schools were public schools in Ibaraki prefecture in Japan.

The parent participants' demographic data (relationship to child, children's school, and grade) as reported by their parents are provided in Table 1.

Table 1:*Parent Participants' Demographic Data*

		Parent Participants' Relationship with their Children			
School Environment	Child's Grade	Mothers n =	Fathers n =	Grandparents n =	Other n =
Regular School	1	60	1	0	0
	2	66	1	0	0
	3	56	1	1	0
	4	68	1	0	0
	5	67	2	0	1
	6	65	2	0	2
Total		382	8	1	3
Special Education School	1	7	0	0	1
	2	19	2	0	0
	3	16	0	0	0
	4	22	3	0	0
	5	21	1	0	0
	6	13	1	1	0
Total		98	7	1	1

Child Participants

Children participants in this study consisted of 1st to 6th grade children with disabilities who were attending special education schools. The children's demographic data (grade and gender) are listed in Table 2.

Table 2: *Child Participants by Gender and Grade Level*

Grade	Males *n* =	Females *n* =	Total *n* =
1	7	1	8
2	14	7	21
3	12	4	16
4	18	7	25
5	17	5	22
6	11	4	15
Total	78	27	107

Procedure for Questionnaire

A description of the research purposes and parental consent forms were distributed to parents of children in 4 public regular schools (n=428) and parents of children in 4 public special education schools (n=317, N=745) in Ibaraki prefecture in Japan. The latter schools were mainly for children with cognitive disabilities, including autism and Down syndrome.

The children's music preference survey (Survey 1; See appendix A) was created by the researcher based on a survey used by Jellison and Flowers (1991). Parent-participants of children who were attending either a regular school or special education school were asked to answer the survey. The questionnaire consisted of three parts: (1) the parents' and children's demographic information (relationship with children, children's, sex), (2) child's school environment (grade, school setting, and children's disability level), (3) children's music preferences (how much and what kinds of music their children preferred, and why they like the music) and (3) children's musical environment (what kinds of equipment children use, with whom and how they listen to

music, and if children participate in music activities). Completion time for the questionnaire was about 10-15 minutes. All parent-participants were allowed to answer the questions at home. They were instructed to return the questionnaire within five days.

In addition, children attending a special education school and their parents were asked to listen to 10 songs (Table 3) and respond to questions about the songs. *The Survey of Parents' Perception towards their Children's Music Preferences* (Survey 2;See Appendix B) was created by researcher. Five songs were children's songs that had been selected randomly from a CD (*Best 100 Kodomo no Uta Daizensyu*: "Complete Collection of Children's Best 100 Songs"). The another five songs that were current Japanese Pop songs that were randomly selected from the top thirty songs on *Count Down TV Japan* in May 2010. Each song was excerpt approximately 30 seconds long. Table 3 lists the songs that were used for the survey.

Table 3: *Music Excerpts Used on Stimulus CD*

Title	Performer	Source	Style
1 おおきな古時計 *My Grandfather's Clock*	Yuko Kanzaki	Nippon Crown CRCD-2313	Children's Song
2 Trounlemaker *Troublemaker*	Arashi	J Storm JACA-5192	Japanese Pop
3 Butterfly *Butterfly*	Kaera Kimura	Colombia Music COCP-36004	Japanese Pop
4 むすんでひらいて *Musunde Hiraite*	Ryoko Tsunoda	Nippon Crown CRCD-2310	Children's Song
5 ぐーちょきぱー *Gu Choki Pa*	Osamu Sakata	Nippon Crown CRCD-2311	Children's Song
6 大丈夫 *Daijoubu*	Hilcrhyme	Universal J UPCH-5648	Japanese Pop
7 GO! GO! MANIC *Go! Go! Maniac*	Houkago Teatime	Pony Canyon PCCG-70071	Japanese Pop
8 ふしぎなポケット *Fujigi na Pocket*	Ritsuko Owada	Nippon Crown CRCD-2312	Children's Song
9 ジャングルポケット *Jungle Pocket*	Kentaro Hayami	Nippon Crown CRCD-2311	Children's Song
10 魔法の料理　～君から君へ～ *Mahou no Ryouri ~Kimi kara Kimi e~*	Bump of Chicken	Toys Factory TFCC-89303	Japanese Pop

The children were asked to listen to the excerpts from each song. After listening to the excerpts, the children were given 10 seconds to indicate their degree of preference by checking on the answer sheet, verbally answering, or pointing to a picture of facial expressions in response to the question "How much do you like this song?" A 3-point Likert-scale (like it, neutral, or dislike it) with corresponding pictures of facial expressions was used (see Appendix B).

The CD of the excerpts was distributed to participants' parents. Similar answer sheets were used by both parents and children (see Appendix B). The parents were asked to listen to the CD and answer the question "How much do you think your child would like each song?" on the provided answer sheet. The parents were also asked to complete the questionnaire without their children present. Finally, the parents were instructed to return their questionnaires via their children's schoolteachers within five days.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Out of the 745 consent forms sent, 501 subjects (67.2%) participated in the study. Of the 394 parents of regular school students, 382 subjects (92%) participated in the study. Out of the 317 parents of special education school students, 107 subjects (33.7%) participated in the study.

Demographic and Educational Environment Profiles

The majority of respondents (*n*=479; 96.9%) who completed the survey were mothers. Parents of children who attended regular schools reported that 92.3% (=364) of their children were in a regular classroom, while 7.6% (*n*=30) of their children were in a special classroom. Of the children who were said to attend a regular school, 47.7 % (*n*=188) of the children were boys, while 52.2% (*n*=206) were girls. Among children who were reported to attend a special education school, 73.8% (*n*=79) were boys, while 26.1% (*n*=28) were girls. Table 4 (below) lists children's demographic information as identified by their parents.

Table 4**:** *Respondents' Demographic Information*

	Regular School				Special Education School	
	Regular Classroom		Special Classroom			
	Boys *n* =	Girls *n* =	Boys *n* =	Girls *n* =	Boys *n* =	Girls *n* =
Grade 1	26	32	3	0	7	1
Grade 2	26	33	6	2	14	7
Grade 3	21	31	3	3	12	4
Grade 4	33	34	2	0	18	7
Grade 5	30	37	3	0	17	5
Grade 6	29	32	6	2	11	4
Total	165 (45.3%)	199 (54.6%)	23 (76.6%)	7 (233%)	79 (73.8%)	28 (26.1%)

Parents were asked if their children were with or without disabilities. All parents of children attending either a special classroom in a regular school or special education school indicated that their children had disabilities. In contrast, there were no parents of children attending classrooms in the regular school who identified their children as having disabilities. Parents of children with disabilities identified their children's disability level as Profound, or IQ less than 20, (*n*=10; 9.3%), Severe, or IQ 20-34, (*n*=55; 51.4%), moderate, or IQ 35-49, (*n*=30; 21.8%), Mild, or IQ 50-69, (*n*=20; 14.5%), Borderline, or IQ 75-85, (*n*=6; 20%), others or IQ above 90 (*n*=4; 13.3%), and Unknown (*n*=11; 8%).

Data Analysis for Research Question One

Do children with and without disabilities have different music preferences?

Table 5: *Preferences of Children with and without Disabilities for Types of Music*

	Children without Disabilities (*n* = 365)		Children with Disabilities (*n*= 136)			
	n	%	*n*	%	Chi-square	p-value
Songs in TV shows for children	172	48.6%	108	79.4%	38.12	.000***
Nursery rhymes	84	23.7%	83	61.0%	60.85	.000***
Cartoon songs	242	68.4%	75	55.1%	7.51	.006**
Japanese Pop or rock	238	67.2%	64	47.1%	16.91	.000***
American Pop or rock	38	10.7%	15	11.0%	.01	.925
Enka	1	.3%	5	3.7%	9.36	.002**
Jazz	0	.0%	2	1.5%	5.23	.022*
Others	29	8.1%	15	11.0%	.97	.325

Note: A 2 by 2 contingency table was created and a chi-square statistic was calculated for each type of music.
*Significant at .05
**Significant at .01
***Significant at .001

Response to Research Question One. Parents reported that a large majority of their children, 490 of 501 students with and without disabilities, reported positive or neutral feelings about music (i.e., answered that their children either *like music very much*, *like it*, or *neither neither likes nor dislikes it)*. Of the 136 students with disabilities surveyed, only 1 was reported

to have negative feelings (i.e., dislike) toward music. Of the 365 students without disabilities surveyed, only 10 were reported to have negative feelings toward music. Participants were also asked to answer whether their children like each type of music listed in Question 8 on Survey 1. For each type of music, a 2 by 2 contingency table was created and a chi-square statistic was calculated to investigate the preference for music of children with and without disabilities. Compared to children without disabilities, children with disabilities reported a significantly greater preference for *Songs from TV shows for children:* $\chi 2\ (1, N = 108) = 38.12, p < .001$ *)*, *Nursery rhyme:* $\chi 2\ (1, N = 83) = 60.85$, *p<.001)*, *Enka:* $\chi 2\ (1, N = 5) = 9.36, p < .01$, and *Jazz:* $\chi 2\ (1, N = 2) = 5.23, p < .05$*).* On the other hand, children without disabilities were more likely to enjoy *Cartoon songs:* $\chi 2\ (1, N = 242) = 7.51, p < .01)$ and *Japanese Pop or rock*:$\chi 2\ (1, N = 238) = 16.91,\ p < .001$).

Parents reported that a large number of their children, 340 (of 355 without disabilities) and 119 (of 136 with disabilities) felt positively or neutrally about singing. Only 23 (6.2%) without disabilities and 17 (12.5%) with disabilities did not like to sing. While the frequency of negative feelings about singing is low for both groups, those with disabilities were proportionally twice as likely to dislike singing.

When asked why their children like music, parents of children without disabilities answered similarly to parents of children with disabilities. Among parents of children without disabilities, 70% (*n*=256) indicated enjoyment "because their children like these songs from their favorite movie or TV shows," "because parents like it" (39%; *n*=142), "because siblings like it" (*n*=104; 28.5%), and "because they have listened to it since they were younger" (*n*=102; 28%). As with parents of children without disabilities, almost half of parents of children with disabilities reported that "because their children like these songs from their favorite movies of TV shows" (*n*=68; 49.6%). Additionally, 43.7% (*n*=60) of them answered "because children have been listening since they are younger."

Data Analysis for Research Question Two

Do children with and without disabilities have different music environments in which they listen to music?

Table 6: *Music Co-listener choices of Children with and without Disabilities*

	Children without Disabilities (*n*= 364)		Children with Disabilities (*n* = 137)			
	n	%	*n*	%	Chi-square	p-value
Alone	134	36.8%	52	38.0%	.06	.81
With parent(s) or grandparent(s)	265	72.8%	95	69.3%	.59	.44
With sibling(s)	241	66.2%	47	34.3%	41.45	.00***
With friend(s)	26	7.1%	1	.7%	8.03	.00***
Others	4	1.1%	4	2.9%	2.10	.15

Note: A 2 by 2 contingency table was created and a chi-square statistic was calculated for each row.
*Significant at .05
**Significant at .01
*** Significant at .001

Response to Research Question Two. For the most part, parents reported that children with disabilities use the same devices as children without disabilities to listen to music. Both groups (children without disabilities and children with disabilities) were reported by their parents to be most likely (72.2% and 70.8%, respectively) to use Compact Disc (CD) or MiniDisc (MD) players and less likely to use portable CD/MD players (7.4% and 7.2%), MP3 players (13.1% and 7.2%), Computers (13.7% and 19.7%), and other various or unspecified devices (15.6% and 29.9%). For the parents of children without disabilities, "others" consisted of car stereos (*n*=22), TVs/DVDs (*n*=21), MP3 players in a portable game (*n*=6), cell phones (n=3). Some parents did not specify (*n*=5). For the parents of children with disabilities, "others" consisted of car stereos (*n*=17), TVs/DVDs (*n*=11), cell phones (*n*=3), MP3 players in a portable game (*n*=3). Some of these parents also did not specify (*n*=7).

Children's music environment was investigated from two different perspectives: partners with whom children listen to music (Question 12 on Survey 1) and children's music activities in addition to music class in school (Questions 14 and 15 on Survey 1). The former is summarized in Table 6. More than one third of all children in the study were reported to listen to music with either parent(s) or grandparent(s). Children without disabilities listen to music with sibling(s) and friend(s) significantly more than children with disabilities.

Data Analysis for Research Question Three

Do children with and without disabilities have different participation in music activities in or outside of school?

Table 7**:** *Percentage of Children Participating in Music Activities in and out of School*

			Children without disabilities (n = 364)		Children with disabilities (*n* = 137)	
			n	%	n	%
In-School	Brass band or Orchestra		7	1.9%	0	.0%
	Choir		1	.3%	0	.0%
	Others		0	.0%	3	2.2%
Outside-School	Private Lesson	Piano	67	18.4%	18	13.1%
		Electone	8	2.2%	0	.0%
		Percussion	0	.0%	4	2.9%
		Others	1	.3%	0	.0%
	Music Therapy		0	.0%	4	2.9%
	Others		12	3.3%	3	2.2%

Note: No child has music activities both in and outside school. There is one child without disabilities and two children with disabilities participating in two music activities outside school.

Response to Research Question Three. Results indicated that 25.8% (*n*=94) of children without disabilities and 19.7% (n=27) of children with disabilities participate in music activities outside of music class. There were no children who participated in choir or brass band/orchestra in the community. Almost all children without disabilities who were receiving private instrument lessons reported that they were being trained to play the piano or Electone (an electronic organ produced by Yamaha).

Music activities for children with and without disabilities are summarized in Table 7. Ninety-four out of 364 children (25.8%) without disabilities and 27 out of 137 children (19.7%) with disabilities participated in at least one music activity. Only one child without a disability reported two music activities (piano and dance; categorized as the others in Table 7). Among children with disabilities, one child was reported as training in piano and dance, while another was reported to participate in piano lessons and music therapy. No significant difference in participation of music activities between children with and without disabilities was found

$\chi 2\ (2, N = 380)$ =2.033, p = .154). There is no evidence to suggest any significant difference in frequency of musical activity between students without and students with disabilities.

Data Analysis for Research Question Four

Do parents of children with disabilities identify their children's music preferences differently than their children do?

Table 8: *Children's Music Preferences and Parents' Awareness of those Preferences*

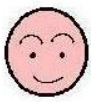
		Children (N = 79)			Parents (N = 107)				
								chi-square	p-value
No.1	n	60	16	3	70	29	8	2.64	.27
	%	75.9%	20.3%	3.8%	65.4%	27.1%	7.5%		
No.2	n	45	29	5	53	45	9	1.06	.59
	%	57.0%	36.7%	6.3%	49.5%	42.1%	8.4%		
No.3	n	45	25	9	48	53	6	6.68	.04*
	%	57.0%	31.6%	11.4%	44.9%	49.5%	5.6%		
No.4	n	56	16	7	82	14	11	1.75	.42
	%	70.9%	20.3%	8.9%	76.6%	13.1%	10.3%		
No.5	n	62	14	3	84	20	3	.16	.92
	%	78.5%	17.7%	3.8%	78.5%	18.7%	2.8%		
No.6	n	34	32	13	23	59	25	9.93	.01**
	%	43.0%	40.5%	16.5%	21.5%	55.1%	23.4%		
No.7	n	39	25	15	26	51	30	12.56	.00***
	%	49.4%	31.6%	19.0%	24.3%	47.7%	28.0%		
No.8	n	55	18	6	71	32	4	2.19	.34
	%	69.6%	22.8%	7.6%	66.4%	29.9%	3.7%		

Table 8—continued

Children's Music Preferences and Parents' Awareness of those Preferences

No.9	n	53	15	11	80	24	3	8.10	.02*
	%	67.1%	19.0%	13.9%	74.8%	22.4%	2.8%		
No.10	n	38	31	10	27	60	20	10.46	.01**
	%	48.1%	39.2%	12.7%	25.2%	56.1%	18.7%		

Note:

 ＝I like it (children)/I think my child likes it (parents)

 = I neither like nor dislike it or I don't know (children)/ I think my child neither likes nor dislikes it, or I don't know (parents)

 = I don't like it (children)/ I think my child does not like it (parents)

No.1, 4, 5, 8, 9 (white): Children's music
No.2, 3, 6, 7, 10 (shade): Japanese Pop music

*Significant at .05
**Significant at .01
***Significant at .001

Response to Research Question Four. One hundred and seven children attending a special education school participated in a *Survey of Children's Music Preferences* and their parents agreed to participate in an additional survey. They listened to excerpts (approximately 30 seconds each) of 10 songs that were either children's songs or Japanese Pop music songs. For each song, children were asked to choose whether they liked the song, disliked it or neither liked nor disliked it. Their parents were asked to answer whether they believed their children would like the song, dislike it or neither like nor dislike it. Twenty-eight children, however, were not able to give any responses to any songs due to the severity of their cognitive disabilities. The responses are summarized in Table 8. For each song, a 2 by 3 contingency table was created and a chi-square statistic was computed. The analysis, summarized in Table 8, revealed that children's responses were statistically different from their parents' responses for 4 out of 5 Japanese Pop songs. On the other hand, children's and their parents' responses differed

for only one children's song. The findings indicate that children with disabilities like Japanese Pop music songs more than their parents realize they do.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate if children with and children without disabilities have different musical preferences, listen to music in different environments, and/or participate in different music activities. Furthermore, the study focused on whether parents of children with disabilities identify their children's music preferences differently than do their children.

The results revealed that children without disabilities prefer to listen to cartoon songs and Japanese Pop, while children with disabilities prefer to listen to songs from children's TV shows, nursery rhymes, Enka and jazz. With regard to students' music environments, the results revealed that both children with and without disabilities listen to music with their parents or grandparents. The results also revealed that children without disabilities are more likely to listen to music with siblings and friends than children with disabilities. This could be due to social isolation or alienation that results from living with a disability. There were no significant differences in the amount of participation in music activities between children with and without disabilities.

Results obtained through the use of the *Survey of Parents' Perception towards their Children's Music Preference* showed that parents of children with disabilities often believed that their children prefer children's music to Japanese Pop songs, while their children indicated that they prefer both children's music and Japanese Pop.

At the end of the *Children's Music Preference Survey*, parents had the option to write any comment. Out of 364 parents of children without disabilities, 11 parents (3%) wrote comments. Six of those comments provided additional information about their children's music preferences and music environment. Four were positive comments about the research project and music therapy, and one was a request about the current music class in their schools. Out of the 137 parents of children with disabilities, 40 parents (29%) wrote comments. Twenty-two provided additional information about their children's music preferences and music environment. Twelve were positive comments about the research project and music therapy, four were advice about

the research project and survey format, and two parents stated that they would like to know the results of the research. Given the different percentages of parents who commented, one might infer that parents of children with disabilities are more inclined to express curiosity either about this research or their children's music preferences. Children without disabilities, in general, are able to express their preferences easily compared to children with disabilities; therefore, parents of children with disabilities may have been attempting to express their desire to better understand their children through this research.

Limitations of the Present Study

There are several factors that may have influenced the results of the present study. Consent from parents of children in a special education school was difficult because both parents and children were asked to participate in this research, while only parents of children attending a regular school were asked to participate. In effect, the participation rate of parents and children in the special education school was lower due to the extra requirements. The participation rate of parents of younger children attending a special education school, such as first grade, was especially lower than the parents of older children such as those in grades 5 or 6.

Parents were required to complete the *Survey for Children's Music Preferences* and the *Survey of Parents' Perception towards their Children's Music Preference*. However, many parents misunderstood the instructions of the study. Rather than completing the surveys without interaction with their children, many parents of children without disabilities commented that they answered the survey with their children. In contrast, parents of children with disabilities seemed to answer these questions without interaction with their children due to the incapacity of their children to answer the questions. The uncontrolled interaction of the parent with the child across groups during survey completion may have confounded the research. This procedural variable must be controlled in future research. Some parents reported uncertainty about their children's musical preferences due to the children's inability to clearly express their thoughts.

The present research showed that children with disabilities prefer songs for children's TV shows, nursery rhymes, jazz, and Enka. Although children with disabilities prefer to listen to jazz (n=2) and Enka (n=5) statistically, the sample was too small for these two genres; however, perhaps, the present study might imply children with disabilities prefer various kinds of music. Montgomery (1996) found that, in general, younger children (kindergarten to grade 2) are more

open and positive toward music. Children with disabilities tend to have a younger mental age. For that reason, Montgomery's research results may supply an appropriate explanation of the students with disabilities' openness to various kinds.

Concerning the survey for children with disabilities, participants' lack of cognitive abilities to express preferences may have influenced the results. Many children seemed to have difficulty understanding the concept of "neither like nor dislike" or "I don't know [if I like this song]" and many of them answered "like" or "dislike" or did not respond if they did not know if they liked or disliked a selection. In this case the answer was marked as "I don't know." This behavior might have occurred due to limitations in their ability to engage in abstract thinking (Harris, 2006).

The tempi of current Japanese Pop songs that were selected for the survey was varied. Many studies have found that children in general prefer fast tempo music to slow tempo (Geringer & Madsen, 1987; LeBlanc, 1981; LeBlanc & Cote, 1983). In addition, many children in this study displayed a more positive affect toward one particular Japanese Pop song (No. 2; *Troublemaker*) than other songs. Some students and teachers stated that the song was used in a school event. Parents also commented that their children like the song because the song was used at school. These data clearly indicate the importance of familiarity in musical preference and obviously influenced the results.

Suggestions for Future Research

First of all, as found in the *Survey of Parents' Perception of their Children's Music Preference*, parents' perception of their children's music preferences was different from their children, especially for the parents of children who reported difficulty knowing their children's musical preferences due to severe cognitive disabilities that hinder clear communication. In addition, children with disabilities have difficulties expressing abstract feelings as neutrality or complex phrases such as "neither like nor dislike." Future researchers may not be able to assess children with disabilities, especially those who have severe cognitive disabilities. In the present research, children were required to listen to 10 songs. Some children, especially in the lower grades, seemed to lose attention during the last few songs. Some of them made statements such as "Can I go back?" and "I want to play outside." This loss of attention may have affected the results. Future research must focus on meeting the need for an appropriate environment to focus

children's attention on the survey and possibly allowing for multiple sessions that do not require a prolonged attention span.

Secondly, all subjects in this study were people in Japan. The cultural differences might affect results too. Many researchers have found cultural differences affect music preferences (Darrow, Haack & Kuribayashi, 1987; McCrary, 1993; Madsen & Madsen, 1975). Therefore, future researchers should consider subjects' cultural background.

Conclusions

In the United States, 17% of children younger than age 17 have disabilities (Boyle, Decoufle & Yeargin-Allsopp, 1994). After the "Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142)" was passed, children with disabilities have had the same rights as children without disabilities to study in a regular school in the community. As a result, many professionals have had opportunities to work with children with disabilities. The American Music Therapy Association (AMTA, 1999) emphasizes the importance of age-appropriate music when music therapists implement music therapy interventions. Many researchers have also noted the increased effectiveness of using preferred music (Jorgenson, 1971; Standley, 1996; Walworth, 2003). Some children with disabilities may not be able to verbalize or express their music preferences. In such cases, parents will play an important role in determining their children's musical preferences; however, results of the present study indicate children with disabilities are more attune to popular music than their parents realize. For children who are not able to verbally express their preferences, parents and therapists may need to look for nonverbal indicators of these children's musical preferences. The results of this study indicate that children with and without disabilities have differing music preferences. Children without disabilities are more likely to listen to music with a sibling(s) and/or friend(s) than are children with disabilities. Results also indicated that children with disabilities prefer Japanese Pop music more than their parents realize. In addition to attending to children's preferences and chronological age-appropriateness, it is important for clinicians to consider differences related to disabilities when providing group and individualized music therapy sessions.

APPENDIX A

CHILDREN'S MUSIC PREFERENCE SURVEY

お子様の好きな音楽に関するアンケート
Children's Music Preference Survey

１．あなたとお子様の関係をお答えください。

What is the relationship with your child?

□母	*Mother*	□父	*Father*
□祖父母	*Grandparent*	□その他	*Other(s)*

２．お子様の学年をお答えください。
What is your child's grade?

□　１年生	*Grade 1*	□４年生	*Grade 4*
□　２年生	*Grade 2*	□５年生	*Grade 5*
□　３年生	*Grade 3*	□６年生	*Grade 6*

３．お子様の性別をお答えください。
What is your child's sex?

□男子	*Boy*	□女子	Girl

４．　お子様の就学状況を選んでください。

What is your child's school environment?

□普通学校・普通学級	*Regular classroom in a regular school*
□普通学校・特別支援学級	*Segregated classroom in a regular school*
□普通学校・通級	*Special education classroom or resource room in a regular school*
□特別支援学校	*School for special needs*

５．お子様に知的な障がいはありますか？

Does your child have a developmental disability?

□はい　　*Yes*　　□いいえ　　*No*

６．　５で「はい」と答えた方のみ、お答えください。お子様の障がいのレベルであてはまるものをチェックしてください。*If you answered "yes" to question 5, please answer.*

ここにチェックしてください *Check here*	療育手帳による表記 *According to the "disabled person's certificate"*	知能指数 IQ	*English*
	A 最重度	～２０	*Profound*
	A　重度	２０～３４	*Severe*
	B　中度	３５～４９	*Moderate*
	C　軽度	５０～６９	*Mild*
	D　境界線	７０～８５程度	*Borderline*
		８０～	
	わからない　　*I don't know*		

７．　お子様は音楽が好きですか？　　*Does your child like music?*

□大好き　　*Likes it very much*

□好き　　*Likes it*

□好きでもきらいでもない　　*Neither likes nor dislikes it*

□あまりすきではない　　*Does not like it much*

□きらい　　*Dislikes it*

８．　７で「大好き」、「好き」、「好きでもきらいでもない」と答えた方のみ、お答えください。お子様の好きな音楽のジャンルをお答えください。

If you answered "likes it very much," "likes it," or "neither likes nor dislikes it" on the previous question, please answer. What kind of music does your child listen to?

□子供向けテレビ番組の歌　*Songs in TV shows for children*

□童謡　*Nursery rhymes*

□アニメソング（ディズニーや宮崎アニメを含む）　*Cartoon songs, including Disney and Miyazaki*

□邦楽（日本のポップ・ロック等）　*Japanese Pop or rock*

□洋楽（アメリカのポップ・ロック等）　*American Pop or rock*

□ジャズ　*Jazz*

□演歌　*Enka*

□その他（　　）　*Others*

９．どうして、お子様はその音楽が好きですか？　*Why does your child like the music?*

□小さいころからいつもきいているから　*Because listen to it since he/she was younger*

□親が好きだから　*Because parent(s) likes it*

□兄弟が好きだから　*Because sibling(s) likes it*

□友達が好きだから　*Because friend(s) likes it*

□その音楽が今、流行っているから　*Because it is Popular now*

□その音楽がつかわれている映画・テレビ番組・ゲームなどがすきだから　B*ecause he/she like the music used in his/her favorite TV shows movies, or games*

□その他（　　）　*Others; please specify*

１０．　お子様は歌を歌うのがすきですか？ *Does your child like to sing？*

□大好き　*Likes to sing very much*

□好き　*Likes to sing*

□好きでもきらいでもない　*Neutral*

□あまりすきではない　*Does not like to sing much*

□きらい　*Dislikes to sing*

１１．　お子様が音楽をきくとき、どのような機材を使いますか？

When your child listens to music, what kind of equipment does he/she use?

□大型の CD/MD プレイヤー　*CD/MD player*

□小型のポータブル CD/MD プレイヤー　*Portable CD/MD player*

□MP3 プレイヤー（i-Pod など）　*MP3 player(e.g. i-Pod)*

□パソコン　*Computer*

□その他（　　）　*Others; please specify*

１２．　お子様はよく誰と一緒に音楽をききますか？

With whom does your child listen to music?

□一人で　*Alone*

□両親または祖父母と　*With parents or grandparents*

□兄弟と　*With siblings*

□友達と　*With friends*

□その他（　　）　*Others; please specify*

１３．　お子様が音楽をきいているとき、どんなことをしていますか？

What is your child doing while listening to music?

□音楽をしずかにきいている　*Just listening to the music*

□音楽にあわせて歌ったりリズムにあわせて体をゆらしたりしている

Singing or moving his/her body in rhythm to the music

□だれかとおしゃべりしたり遊んでいる　*Chatting or interacting with someone*

□読書、宿題、パソコン、ゲームなど他のことをしている

Doing other activities such as reading, doing homework, or using the computer

□その他（　　）　*Others; please specify*

１４．　お子様は学校の音楽の授業以外で何か音楽活動をしていますか？
例：習い事・学校のクラブ活動

Does your child participate in any music activities beside music class in his/her school?

□はい　*Yes*　□いいえ　*No*

１５．１４で「はい」と答えた方のみお答えください。どのような音楽活動をしていますか？
If you answered "yes" to question 12, please answer. In what kind music activity does your child take part?

＜学校内の音楽に関する活動＞	*In-school activities*
□吹奏楽やオーケストラ	*Brass band or orchestra*
□合唱（コーラス）	*Choir*
□その他（　　）	*Others; please specify*
＜学校外での音楽に関する活動＞	*Outside-school activities*
□楽器の個人レッスン（楽器名：　　）	*Private instrumental lesson*
□歌の個人レッスン	*Private voice lesson*
□楽器のグループレッスン（楽器名：）	*Group instrumental lesson*
□地域の合唱団	*Choir in the community*
□地域のオーケストラ・吹奏楽等	*Orchestra or Brass band in the community*
□その他（　　）	*Others; please specify*

１６．最後に何かコメント等ございましたら記入をおねがいします。
If you have any comments about this research, please enter them below.

（　　）

アンケートにご協力いただきまして、ありがとうございました。
Thank you for participating in this survey

APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR CHILDREN'S MUSIC PREFERENCES

CD を用いたアンケート(保護者用：Parents' Survey)

保護者の皆様、

本日はアンケートにご協力いただきましてありがとうございます。本日配布した CD の中には１０曲、音楽の一部が入っています。それぞれの曲を聞いて、**その曲をお子様がどのくらい好きかどうかを予測して**、当てはまる項目に○をつけてください。このアンケートはあくまで保護者の皆様が答えるものです。**お子様に直接聞いて答えないようにお願いいたします。**
Thank you for participation in this survey. Listen to the 10 songs on the CD with which you have been provided. Then guess to what degree your child likes each song and check the appropriate box**. Do not ask your child about his/her opinion.**

	好きだと思う I think my child would like it.	普通だと思う わからない I think my child would neither like nor dislike it, or I don't know.	嫌いだと思う I don't think my child would like it.
１曲目　No. 1			
２曲目　No. 2			
３曲目　No. 3			
４曲目　No. 4			
５曲目　No. 5			
６曲目　No. 6			
７曲目　No. 7			
８曲目　No. 8			
９曲目　No. 9			
１０曲目　No. 10			

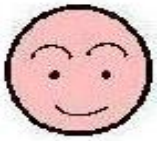
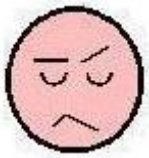
生徒氏名：　　（　　）年（　　）組

保護者氏名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

CD を用いたアンケート(生徒用：Children’s Survey)

なまえ：

今から１０きょくうたをききます。
そのうたが、すきだとおもったら左、まあまあ・わからないと思ったらまんなか、きらいだとおもったら右に○をつけてください。
You will listen to 10 songs on the CD with which you have been provided. Decide how much you like each song and select the appropriate box.

	すき I **like** it. 	まあまあ わからない I **don’t know** 	きらい I **don’t like** it. 
１きょくめ　No. 1			
２きょくめ　No. 2			
３きょくめ　No. 3			
４きょくめ　No. 4			
５きょくめ　No. 5			
６きょくめ　No. 6			
７きょくめ　No. 7			
８きょくめ　No. 8			
９きょくめ　No. 9			
１０きょくめ No. 10			

APPENDIX C

IRB APPROVAL AND CONSENT FORM

Office of the Vice President For Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742
(850) 644-8673 · FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 4/21/2010

To: Madoka Hirano

Dept.: MUSIC SCHOOL

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
Music preference of elementary school children with and without disabilities

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR § 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 4/19/2011 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the Chair of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving

human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations. This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Alice-Ann Darrow, Advisor
HSC No. 2010.3837

アンケート調査への参加同意書
Survey consent form: Japanese

私は平野まどかと申します。私は、現在アメリカのフロリダ州立大学の大学院で音楽療法を学んでいます。この度、修士論文を作成するにあたり、このアンケート調査をお願いしております。この調査は、公立の小学校に通うお子様をお持ちの保護者の皆様にお願いしています。

アンケートにご協力いただける場合は、主にお子様の好きな音楽について、お子様の障がいの有無について、そして音楽環境についての質問に答えていただきます。ご参加いただける方には１０分程度のアンケート調査をお願いいたします。この調査の目的は、障がいの有無によって、音楽嗜好がどのように違うのか、また、学校環境が音楽嗜好を左右するのかどうかを研究するために行われています。過去のいくつかの研究で、子供の音楽嗜好は年齢とともに変化するという結果が出ましたが、精神年齢が実際年齢より同じか否かの研究はほとんど見つかっていません。アンケートに参加いただけるかどうかは任意となっています。また、匿名でお答えいただけます。ここで、使用された情報は、研究以外に使用されることはなく、秘密を保持します。

アンケートに参加していただける場合は、下記にサインをお願いいたします。

この研究はフロリダ州立大学のアリス・アン・ダロウ教授の指示のもと行われています。質問等ございましたら、ダロウ教授、フロリダ州立大学 IRB 委員会、もしくは私本人までお問い合わせください。

Dr. Alice-Ann Darrow（アリス・アン・ダロウ教授）
TEL: +1-850-645-1438
E-mail: aadarrow@fsu.edu

Florida State University, the Institutional Review Board (IRB)
TEL:+1-850-644-8633
E-mail: humansubjects@magnet.fsu.edu

このアンケート調査の趣旨を理解し､障害をもつ子供とそうでない子供の音楽嗜好に関する研究に協力することに同意し、署名致します。

サイン：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

日付：平成２２年　　月　　日

Survey Consent Form (English translation)

My name is Madoka Hirano. I am a graduate student in the Music Therapy Program at the Florida State University. I am conducting a survey as part of my thesis. If you are parent of a child in a public school, you are eligible to participate in this survey.

You will be able to participate in two kinds of surveys. The first survey involves answering some general demographic questions and some questions about your child's music preference and school environment. The survey takes about 10 minutes to complete. The purpose of the survey is to investigate if there are any differences between children with disabilities and without disabilities, and between children with disabilities attending regular schools and those attending special schools. Some research has shown that children's music preference is affected by age; however, there is little research on if or how children's mental age also affects their music preference. Your participation is completely voluntary, and your responses will be completely anonymous and to the extent allowed by law.
If you agree to complete the surveys, please sign your name on the bottom of this form.

This course project is supervised by the course instructor, Dr. Alice-Ann Darrow. If you have any questions about the research, you can contact Dr. Darrow (850-645-1438, aadarrow@fsu.edu; FSU RIB 850-644-8633, humansubjects@magnet.fsu.edu) or myself.

Thank you for your participation.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

_____ _____

Signature Date

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

EDUCATION

2007-Present Florida State University, Master of Music Therapy

1994-1998 Kunitachi College of Music in Japan, Bachelor of Music Education

- Obtained a Teacher's Certificate at junior high school and high school in Music
- Major in Piano, Minor in voice

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

2009 Music Therapy Internship in Fort Myers, Florida

- Provided procedural support, individual sessions, and group music therapy interventions for the following pediatric units: General Pediatric, Surgical, PICU, Oncology/Hematology, and PPEC.

2002-2005 Hiyodori Clinic, Japan
Support Worker (Music Activity)

- Responsible for care giving to adults with schizophrenia, bi-polar disorder, depression, and Alzheimer's disease.
- Organized and led choral, singing, and instrument activities.

2003-2005 Mito High School for Developmentally Handicapped Children
Music Teacher

- Planned annual music curriculum for teenagers (age 15-18) with developmental disabilities.
- Arranged and led ensemble work (keyboard and percussion).
- Arranged and led choral work.
- Provided individualized instruction (keyboard, bells, solfege and chorus).

2002-2003 Kastuta Special Support School
Classroom Teacher

- Responsible for six children (age 7-8).
- Led numerous daily activities.
- Provided personal needs assistance.
- Responsible for daily communication with parents concerning goal setting and social development of children.

CERTIFICATION AND TRAINING

Newborn Intensive Care Unit Music Therapist (NICU MT)

Member of American Music Therapy Association (AMTA)

Completed the Orff Schulwerk Training, Level I