

Learning and Teaching Music in the Twenty-First Century



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0 1 Introduction: Waking Up from a Deep Sleep

1 Some years ago, in an analysis on what is happening in primary and secondary
2 education classrooms, one of us (Pozo, 2006) referred to the film “The Sleeper”
3 directed by Woody Allen in 1973, to serve as a metaphor for the educational situation.
4 Many readers and particularly the younger ones may not be familiar with this film. It
5 is a comical narration of how, after hibernating for 200 years after forced cryogenic
6 storage, Miles Monroe, a clarinetist, played by Woody Allen himself, wakes up
7 in USA, his home country, finding himself in a police state with its citizens under
8 surveillance. Leaving aside other more political aspects of the film (and of Allen
9 himself) which coincide with other, perhaps better known dystopias such as “1984”,
10 we wish to emphasize that Miles Monroe, the clarinetist stumbles upon situations
11 which hilariously illustrate what changes have occurred in the most everyday culture
12 and habits that Miles does not know how to respond or adapt to, giving rise to
13 multiple comical situations. In this future, Miles the clarinetist does not go to any
14 music classes to update his musical knowledge, but if he had, we would fear that his
15 reaction would have been totally different because beyond shallow appearances and
16 the presence of new artefacts and technologies, the ways of learning and teaching
17 would have changed very little.

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3

18 It has become a cliché to say that musical education is crisis-ridden and that the
 19 ways of teaching in conservatories and music classrooms in general have not adapted
 20 to social and cultural changes nor helped students to develop the skills and tools
 21 required for this new millennium. In fact, all the analyses carried out in recent years
 22 on the state of instrumental music teaching, many of them centred on conservatories
 23 but also encompassing other teaching environments, agree that it has reached a serious
 24 crossroads (e.g., Sarath et al., 2014; Tregear et al., 2016). For example, one report
 25 undertaken a few years ago which aimed at tracing the upgrading of the curriculum
 26 in North American conservatories categorically stated that “significant change is
 27 essential [in musical education] if we are to bridge the gap between academic music
 28 study and the musical world into which our students and the students of our future
 29 will graduate” (Sarath et al., 2014, p. 11).

30 Several authors (e.g., López-Íñiguez & Bennett, 2020, 2021; Tregear et al., 2016)
 31 agree with the insights of this report. It purports that the gap between the musical
 32 education being provided for future musicians and the competences they will need to
 33 deploy in their professional and personal future is increasingly broader and deeper.
 34 A similar gap exists between the “musician in the academy” and the “musician in
 35 the real world” (Sarath et al., 2014, p. 2) and as a result the report advocates radical
 36 or paradigmatic changes, to intensely rethink the suppositions, goals and methods of
 37 this type of musical education.

38 Many factors are involved in widening these gaps, some of which will be anal-
 39 ysed in this chapter and some in the next. Improving the quality of education
 40 in musical interpretation beyond mere cosmetic changes in the periphery of the
 41 curriculum which characterises the new curricular proposals, means undertaking
 42 genuine paradigmatic change (Sarath et al., 2014), to overcome the traditional conser-
 43 vatory model (Burwell, 2005; Musumeci, 2002; Tregear et al., 2016). Jørgensen
 44 (2000, p. 68) describes this tradition as the arrangement “where the teacher is gener-
 45 ally looked upon as a model to follow and a source of identification for the student,
 46 and where the dominant learning mode of the student is imitation”. The student is
 47 therefore, “the one who observes, listens, imitates and seeks [the] approval [from
 48 the teacher]” (Uzler, 1992, p. 584). This particular type of didactic relationship
 49 between teacher and learner (see Chapter “[Teaching Music: Old Traditions and New
 50 Approaches](#)” and also Burwell, 2012, 2016; Persson, 2000) inhibits the development
 51 of the autonomy of future musicians as learners, and the development of artistic
 52 identity (Gaunt, 2008, 2010, 2011).

53 However, it is not just the personal development of the learner that is limited by
 54 traditional teaching. The social function of music as a cultural activity is also encased
 55 in models which appear to respond, in a similar nature as that which occurred with
 56 Miles Monroe, some 200 years ago. This more or less corresponds to the foundation
 57 of the first conservatories we had, and not with today where we should be waking up to
 58 a new reality. Society which surrounds and sustains the conservatories is completely
 59 different from that which induced its first foundations, and the ‘social contract’
 60 between society and the centres of musical education is therefore also burnt out,
 61 with the commitment between them in need of updating and modifying (Tregear
 62 et al., 2016).

63 Neither is the music which is taught and learned in the conservatories, for good or
64 for bad, the same as that which is listened to and participated in within most social
65 spaces. There is also a widening chasm between music which fills conservatory
66 classrooms and its potential listeners, its public, who nobody bothers to train. It is
67 increasingly necessary that conservatories work to promote attentive listening from
68 their citizens.

69 Maybe the problem of passive audiences in concert halls, invoked with such frequency, is
70 due to the fact that the embodied part of the musical experience has become irrelevant and
71 yet the embodied element of music is central to the listening experience. (Tregear et al.,
72 2016, p. 10)

73 Recognition of this gap or possibly now chasm, therefore, has a good many dimensions
74 which do not peter out in the relationships taking place in the classroom between
75 teacher, student and music, often determined by a specific instrument. Although this
76 book precisely centres on how to improve or radically change these forms of making
77 music and learning it and teaching it in classrooms, we believe it is necessary in this
78 first chapter to also point out other dimensions that in our opinion are also essential for
79 defining a new educational culture in conservatories and in general in music education
80 spheres. We will therefore identify three pillars or essential dimensions in this
81 chapter, as we shall see in the following subsections. These appear to be intertwined
82 into current research on new musical educational culture, which both researchers and
83 a growing number of music teachers appear to be pursuing in recent decades, and
84 also with the professional practices and educational policies of institutions where
85 music is taught and learnt:

- 86 • The *integrating aspect* of musical education, by which holistic competences are
87 defined that expand instrumental mastery, since they are required for the musicians
88 to find their professional function in an increasingly changing society.
- 89 • The *social function* of musical education and interpretation, as the organising
90 centre of musical practices and musical education which benefit people in many
91 aspects of life, particularly the diversity of existing cultural expressions.
- 92 • The *restructuring element* inherent to music through which autonomous, open,
93 creative, expressive and flexible learning and teaching practices are brought about.
94 Also, as explained in this and successive chapters of the book, there is a need for
95 this restructuring element to acquire greater presence in institutional curriculums,
96 instructional practices and education policies.

97 **2 Comprehensive Preparation in Music Education:** 98 **Towards Professionalism in Higher Level Instrument** 99 **Studies**

100 The need to accept restructuring instruction in formal musical education contexts,
101 which is the very kernel of this book is strongly connected to more general research
102 studies on education and psychology that define effective learning as that which

103 promotes autonomy but also resilience and competencies to confront new problems
 104 (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Boud, 2012; Pozo & Pérez Echeverría, 2009; Yeager & Dweck,
 105 2012). This wouldn't be a bad thing for our clarinettist Miles Monroe as a learner in a
 106 society which is so impacting for him. However, teachers usually have difficulties in
 107 accepting these ideas, both theoretically and practically, (see Chapter “[How Teachers
 108 and Students Envisage Music Education: Towards Changing Mentalities](#)”) and the
 109 same occurs with students who seem to be particularly focused on the instrumental
 110 issues (Gaunt, 2010; Presland, 2005), forgetting that in order to develop their careers
 111 they also need other, different skills (Burwell, 2005; Carey, 2008; Gaunt, 2008, 2010;
 112 Gaunt et al., 2012; Jørgensen, 2000; López-Íñiguez & Bennett, 2020, 2021; Mills,
 113 2002; López-Íñiguez & Burnard, 2021). This is why Lebler (2008) suggests that
 114 for future music professionals to know how to navigate the working world, today's
 115 music conservatories need to provide students with comprehensive instruction which
 116 is musically inclusive and leads to both flexibility and a great variety of musical skills.
 117 Such issues as these, as will be illustrated in this section, do not appear as frequently
 118 as they should in the classroom.

119 This is extremely worrying since we know that the employability of musicians who
 120 graduate is minimal, but also “complex and disorganised” (Bennett, 2016, p. 112), and
 121 when they leave the higher conservatories or music universities with their diploma
 122 as professional instrumentalists, they will have to address their professional options,
 123 not only in keeping with their skills as instrumentalists, but also with other informal
 124 aspects and their ability to take decisions and adopt a variety of professional roles in
 125 the music area (Burnard, 2014), a rather uncertain career for those who are profes-
 126 sionally dedicated to it (Bennett, 2007; Bennett & Bridgstock, 2015; Shihabi, 2017).
 127 Being the principal player or *tutti* in an orchestra, or establishing a chamber musical
 128 group with an agenda replete with concerts and commercial recordings is attainable to
 129 very few instrumentalists (Bartleet et al., 2012; Bennett, 2014). Furthermore, a great
 130 majority of them will be dedicated to teaching their instrument and for this, as we
 131 shall see in Chapter “[Instrumentalist Teacher Training: Fostering the Change Towards
 132 Student-Centered Practices in the Twenty-First Century](#)”, comprehensive teaching
 133 of instrumentalists as music teachers is essential to ensure them an empowering and
 134 motivating future.

135 Here, studies undertaken by Zhukov (2019, among others) repeat the need for
 136 change in dyadic teaching in higher conservatories and music universities, putting
 137 emphasis also on creative aspects and professional development during studies (e.g.,
 138 López-Íñiguez & Bennett, 2021). Moreover, Perkins (2013) advocates authentic
 139 learning activities which arouse students' curiosity and therefore their motivation,
 140 beyond the necessary skills with the instrument. These specific skills of the instru-
 141 mental discipline have been defined in a range of studies (in the American context,
 142 e.g., Chin, 2002; Young, 2016), for example, with pianists, indicating those which
 143 are truly important in interpretation evaluation: sight-reading, playing the Western
 144 canonical repertory, harmonizing melodies, transposition, improvisation and accom-
 145 paniment. We all agree that skills with the instrument must necessarily have to be
 146 refined to the utmost. It is a fact that students of musical instruments in higher educa-
 147 tion centre their efforts on this (Creech et al., 2008; Gaunt, 2010). However, these

148 skills are not enough to make a musician successful nor adapt to the contextual and
149 professional demands of this society.

150 Hence, the curriculums of music teaching have always considered this a central
151 aspect (Barrett, 2007; Carey & Lebler, 2012; Walmsley, 2013). However, the addition
152 of representative subjects of the aspects mentioned in the previous paragraph
153 in the curriculums as we have just suggested, do not appear to be sufficient and
154 therefore, students must also be exposed to pedagogic environments where they
155 develop traits which are relevant in our current western society, including adapt-
156 ability, flexibility and resilience (Burnard, 2012; Gaunt et al., 2012). Our students
157 also need to develop their social skills and organisation, their motivation, their confi-
158 dence, their artistic agency and autonomy, and the necessary strategies to cope with
159 their professional demands (Burland & Davidson, 2004; Juuti & Littleton, 2012;
160 MacNamara et al., 2006, 2008). They also have to be able to reflect critically on
161 their professional learning pathways (López-Íñiguez & Burnard, 2021), and on their
162 abilities and profiles as future music professionals (Blom et al., 2014; Brown, 2009).
163 Essential qualities, without forgetting also generic matters such as critical thinking,
164 leadership or working in a team (Bennett, 2009; Bennett & Bridgstock, 2015).

165 Recent research studies conducted within the Icelandic framework (Jónanson &
166 Lisboa, 2019) or the Australian framework (Lebler, 2008, 2019), emphasize the
167 offer of additional engagement in investigation for music students in higher studies
168 (see also Chapter “[Instrumentalist Teacher Training: Fostering the Change Towards](#)
169 [Student-Centered Practices in the Twenty-First Century](#)”), since it is only in this way
170 that they may be prepared to lead in bringing about the necessary change we have
171 been suggesting and to improve the curriculums of the different centres where they
172 will work in the future. Such is the significance of these aspects that, for example, in
173 the Australian framework, after having researched these issues, they have insisted on
174 designing the higher musical education curriculum to be more centred on offering
175 authentic learning and assessment experiences (Carey & Lebler, 2012; Harrison et al.,
176 2013). As a result the students come out of what several authors (e.g., Burwell et al.,
177 2017; Rostvall & West, 2003) define as the ‘secret garden’ or the ‘black box’ of
178 the conservatory classroom or the rehearsal soundproof booth to new and inspiring
179 environments (Perkins & Williamon, 2014; Smilde, Page & Alheit, 2014) which
180 include collaboration (Gaunt & Westerlund, 2013; Pozo et al., 2008); innovation
181 in musical styles and pedagogic practices (Lebler, 2007), and diverse creativities
182 (Burnard & Haddon, 2015).

183 All of these issues, but also aspects such as the criticism of musical studies in
184 formal institutions, the lack of exposure to professional situations during studies, or
185 the focalising on soloist careers (Bartleet et al., 2012)—which really is a dream only
186 within the reach of very few (Juuti & Littleton, 2012)—comes to light when profes-
187 sional musicians are asked whether their musical education prepared them for what
188 truly was their profession within the musical framework (López-Íñiguez & Bennett,
189 2020), i.e., a comprehensive or holistic education in which a broad identity was devel-
190 oped as musical citizens their whole life long, as identified in research in musical
191 education as the ‘living curriculum’ (Bath et al., 2014; Johnsson & Hager, 2008).
192 For this reason several studies in music have identified the need to expose students

193 to real experiences with professionals who enrich them and help them develop a
 194 variety of essential competences in life as musicians, such as versatility, personal
 195 growth or social and emotional skills (Ascenso et al., 2019; Burland & Davidson,
 196 2004; MacNamara et al., 2006, 2008).

197 To conclude, the future instrumentalists will have greater or lesser success as
 198 professionals depending on the variety and quality of their interpretation activities
 199 during their studies and the potentiality of these for promoting self-discipline and
 200 autonomy (Creech et al., 2008). However they will also possess realistic anticipation
 201 about the professional opportunities available to them (Brown, 2019; Reid et al.,
 202 2011), which will necessarily have to be defined within a framework of expansion
 203 within and without the educational framework in the professional environment.

204 **3 The Social Function of Music: Playing and Learning** 205 **Music in an Increasingly Open, Diverse, and Changing** 206 **Society**

207 During the last few decades, the expressive and creative dimensions of music have
 208 changed considerably, and as a result, Miles Monroe would need not only to under-
 209 stand which novel questions would occur musically around them but to understand
 210 that these new artistic manifestations of great diversity respond to constant social
 211 changes. These changes respond, for example, to the diverse cultural influences of a
 212 global society which is increasingly more interconnected and constantly expanding,
 213 to the growing interest of professional musicians in improvisation and composition,
 214 to the artistic expression mixing a great variety of musical genres, or the acoustic
 215 and electronic productions and interpretations which take place in unconventional
 216 contexts and which are enabled in turn, by the genuine technological advances that
 217 facilitate their access and transmission to audiences who are different from those of
 218 the opera or classical ballet.

219 Furthermore, as stated by Tregear et al. (2016), educating professional musicians
 220 has been highly selective and exclusive, particularly over the last two centuries, and
 221 for this reason we may call it “elitist” since a “talent” or musical predisposition was
 222 required, which supposedly only some people had, and which was something that
 223 could not be taught. At the same time, these people interpreted for elitist audiences
 224 because the language to communicate was highly intellectual and therefore accessible
 225 to select and erudite audiences. Throughout this book we will try to demonstrate that
 226 a more open view is required regarding musical education and that it should not be
 227 reduced to the virtuosity of the individual interpreter. Instead of being merely limited
 228 to an exclusive form of musical education it should open up to new audiences, new
 229 social settings outside of the ones it has been used to. To do so, greater efforts need
 230 to be dedicated to educating not just the musicians but the audiences too, without
 231 whom those musicians would not be able to professionally develop (Tregear et al.,
 232 2016).

233 However, if understanding all of this were not enough for Mr. Monroe, he also
234 should accept that music not just evolves as a response to social changes but that it also
235 occasions them (e.g., Green, 2017; Regelski, 2006), with the relationship between
236 music and society being a similar dilemma to the ‘what came first, the chicken
237 or the egg?’. The social function of the music would therefore be more related to
238 cultural enrichment through its multidisciplinary and trans-disciplinary character (see
239 Chapter “[Learning Outside the Music Classroom: From Informal to Formal Learning
240 as Musical Learning Cultures](#)”), connecting it both to other arts and diverse scientific
241 domains. A dialogue therefore arises which could contribute to sensitisation on
242 ecological sustainability through more local cultural projects in small communities,
243 or exercising as the essential focus in the development of social justice through the
244 integration of immigrants in musical experiences derived from their folklore. Some
245 of these issues have come about in macroprojects of relatively recent research such
246 as the *ArtsEqual* in Finland which includes interventions of social cohesion and
247 integration through projects in which the arts are used to improve peoples’ health.
248 Educational policies are designed to support the development of artistic institutions
249 which act in the most responsible manner possible towards society. The impact of
250 the arts on equality and wellbeing has been studied, as has the importance of the
251 arts as an element creating diversity in general schools (e.g., Anttila & Suominen,
252 2018; Jääskeläinen & López-Íñiguez, 2017; Kallio & Heimonen, 2018; Kivijärvi &
253 Väkevä, 2020). In Latin America we also found individual research initiatives on
254 the accessibility of music in schools of developing countries such as Chile (Angel-
255 Alvarado & Lira-Cerda, 2017), or “*El Sistema*” in Venezuela. The latter originated as
256 an experience which went on to have great success in these social aspects according
257 to several authors, (e.g., Verhagen et al., 2016), and was then adapted to other countries
258 such as the United States (e.g., D’Alexander & Ilari, 2016), although it also
259 received severe criticism regarding its results, which were far from conclusive on
260 the said social benefits. Further rigorous research is required as to the real effects of
261 their practices (Baker et al., 2018).

262 **4 Creativity and Restructured Pedagogies: Towards** 263 **Genuine Change in Instrument Learning and Teaching**

264 The dimensions dealt with in the previous sections and others we cannot embark upon
265 here, conclude that there is a need for profound change in the ways music is taught and
266 learned in our classrooms - the key aim of this book. Since the millennium, several
267 studies in educational sciences (e.g., Bransford et al., 2000; Mayer & Alexander,
268 2016; Pozo, 2008, 2016; Pozo & Pérez Echeverría, 2009; Sawyer, 2015), and in the
269 psychology of music and musical education have stressed the need for a change in
270 model to reinforce the role of the learner with respect to taking decisions on their own
271 learning, so that their learning processes are appropriated (Hallam, 2001a, 2001b,
272 2006; Gatién, 2009; O’Neill, 2012; Virkkula, 2015; see also Chapters “[Teaching](#)

273 Music: Old Traditions and New Approaches” through “How Teachers and Students
 274 Envisage Music Education: Towards Changing Mentalities”) and to autonomously
 275 manage which goals and contents should be learned (Gilbert, 2016; see, e.g., Chap-
 276 ters “SAPEA: A System for the Analysis of Instrumental Learning and Teaching
 277 Practices” and “Student-Centred Music Education: Some Ideas to Improve Learning
 278 and Teaching”) through the most innovative and constructive approaches, centred
 279 on the student and on the development of their competences (Bautista et al., 2006;
 280 Musumeci, 2005; Zarzo, 2017). According to these studies, the traditional *teacher-*
 281 *learner* approach—currently the most used in the majority of musical teaching
 282 institutions in the Western world (Daniel & Parkes, 2017; Duffy, 2016)—, do not
 283 encourage students to be autonomous nor to self-regulate their learning (Gaunt, 2005;
 284 López-Íñiguez & Pozo, 2014a, 2014b), but neither do they exercise the necessary crit-
 285 ical, reflexive and independent thinking to continue learning throughout life, some-
 286 thing which is crucial in the musical environment (Boud, 1989; Boud et al., 1999;
 287 Carey, 2010; Carey et al., 2017; Daniel & Parkes, 2017; Duffy, 2016; Falchikov,
 288 2007; Gaunt, 2008; López-Íñiguez & Burnard, 2021; Montalvo & Torres, 2004), and
 289 without which professional opportunities in music would be limited (Hennekam &
 290 Bennett, 2017), as we saw in the previous section.

291 Improving the quality of education in musical interpretation therefore requires, as
 292 we noted at the beginning, overcoming the traditional *conservatory model* (Burwell,
 293 2005; Tregear et al., 2016) which has been so much in vogue since the eighteenth
 294 century. This model will be analysed in detail in Chapter “Teaching Music: Old
 295 Traditions and New Approaches” and revisited in Chapter “Instrumentalist Teacher
 296 Training: Fostering the Change Towards Student-Centered Practices in the Twen-
 297 ty-First Century”. Both researchers and teachers, and even students themselves are
 298 increasingly demanding a change in instructional practices in instrument or voice
 299 classes which results in student centred teaching. In fact, this type of teacher is the
 300 main focus of higher musical educational reforms in Europe (Klemenčič, 2017).
 301 Thus, for example, the new pedagogic forms which appeal to the social change
 302 confronting this passivity and reproductively by music learners is reminiscent in our
 303 context with the demand for change proposed by the *European Association of Conserv-*
 304 *vatoires* (AEC), which urges educational institutions to develop more comprehensive
 305 and enlightened curriculums where contemporary traditional teaching approaches
 306 which are “almost damaging the development of the student as a reflexive and innate
 307 musician” are eliminated (Cox, 2007, pp. 12–13). Recent auto-ethnographic arti-
 308 cles have reflected critically on the complex trajectory in educational institutions of
 309 professional musicians (López-Íñiguez, 2019; López-Íñiguez & Bennett, 2020).

310 In fact, this enlightened vision in musical education which appears to lead to the
 311 best results in learning (Biggs, 2003; Carey & Grant, 2014, 2015; Cranton, 1994;
 312 McGonigal, 2005; Mezirow, 1997, 2000; Taylor, 1998, 2007), has been receiving
 313 strong support from several groups and research projects during recent years. Beyond
 314 these and other specific investigations there are numerous initiatives by institutions,
 315 associations, universities or projects both on a national or international level, focused
 316 on improving musical education which shares to greater or lesser extent, the concerns

317 expressed in this chapter. Since it is not the aim of this book to list all the possible asso-
318 ciations, institutions or research and dissemination networks involved from different
319 paradigms and methodologies, and so as not to overwhelm the reader, some of the
320 initiatives we believe to be more relevant are listed overleaf in an appendix. The
321 interested reader may thus probe deeper into whichever direction they choose. In any
322 event, all of these initiatives, like many others from different and more or less global,
323 but we believe complementary perspectives, coincide in the need to promote radical
324 changes to the traditional forms of learning and teaching music in musical institu-
325 tions and in the functioning of the music industry in general (Tregear et al., 2016).
326 These traditions consequently require rethinking and alternative models must also
327 be put forward to help close the deep chasm between the academy and the society
328 with which we began this book. This is the aim of Chapter “[Teaching Music: Old](#)
329 [Traditions and New Approaches](#)”: to propose new approaches after a critical analysis
330 of still dominant traditions in our classrooms and educational institutions.

331 **Appendix: Some Relevant Initiatives for the Redevelopment** 332 **of Musical Education**

333 In the international arena there are or have been initiatives with similar interests
334 such as, for example, the Reflexive Conservatory in the United Kingdom, where
335 the emphasis was on improving specialized education in the performing arts (e.g.,
336 Gaunt, 2013) as also occurred with international professional networks *Innovative*
337 *Conservatory* (ICON, Duffy, 2016) and *Transforming 121* (see for example, Carey
338 et al., 2012; Carey & Grant, 2014, 2015; Carey, Bridgstock et al., 2013; Carey, Grant
339 et al., 2013), or the projects based on the format *Students as Partners* (Coutts, 2018;
340 Shihabi, 2017), which proposed restructuring ways of teaching at different education
341 levels of music mastery in general. In the report by Sarath et al. (2014, p. 14) we
342 mentioned previously, a long list of North American projects may also be consulted
343 which over the last 50 years have also proposed the need to reform musical education
344 from the conservatory model, such as the subject of music in primary schools and
345 secondary education institutions.

346 Moreover, the research project *Transforming Musicianship*, located in Finland
347 and the principal researcher of which is the main author of this chapter, begins
348 with the idea that this type of restructuring instructions—particularly in the area of
349 higher education in classic instrumentalists—are only possible from a construction
350 of the student identity as a true, life-long learner (see Chapter “[Student-Centred](#)
351 [Music Education: Some Ideas to Improve Learning and Teaching](#)”; see also, López-
352 [Íñiguez & Bennett, 2020, 2021](#)), who learns through the reflection on what s/he “does
353 not possess and is not” (Reay, 2010, p. 2), which necessarily occurs when the intrapsy-
354 chological processes (individual dimension) and interpsychological processes (social
355 dimension) of the individual connect. For our part, as mentioned already in the

356 preface, the GIACM, as part of the *Interdisciplinary Seminar on Learning and Educa-*
 357 *tional Change* (SEIACE), has spent 15 years studying aspects which are partly related
 358 to improving educational quality and developing musical competences, from which
 359 this book is largely derived.

360 All of these projects and initiatives have also had the support of several interna-
 361 tional associations which are constantly making efforts to support the visibility of
 362 the different research studies in the field this chapter focuses on in particular and the
 363 book centres on in general. For example, the *International Society for Music Educa-*
 364 *tion* (ISME), is managed by the *Commission on the Education of the Professional*
 365 *Musician* (CEPROM), which promotes comprehensive values in the education of the
 366 musician reflecting artistic vision and diversity of learning in people within different
 367 cultural and social contexts. It is also managed by special interest groups in *Applied*
 368 *Pedagogies*, that centers on offering the latest theoretical advances in education to
 369 teachers throughout the world, or in *Assessment, Measurement and Evaluation* which
 370 encompasses different aspects on how to measure instruction practices in music and
 371 its results. These issues are contained in many editorial lines and activities promoted
 372 by ISME.

373 Similarly, but from an integrating perspective between musical education and
 374 the psychology of music of a marked scientific bent and predominantly through
 375 psychometric studies, the *Society for Research on Education and Psychology of*
 376 *Music* (SEMPRE) fosters the promotion of different events and publications relating
 377 to the science of interpretation and the holistic education of the musician, taking into
 378 account sociological issues (gender, race, socioeconomic and employment status,
 379 etc.) and psychological issues (skills, motivation, self-concept, self-sufficiency, self-
 380 regulation, etc.) These aspects are also present through the combination of biological,
 381 cognitive and social processes enveloped in the acquisition of skills in the Australian
 382 megaproject *Understanding the Mechanism of Musical Mastery*, and in some of the
 383 topics present in the *International Symposium on Performance Science* (ISPS), one
 384 of the most important forums for dissemination research relating to the essential
 385 objectives of this book. From the Nordic framework, the interdisciplinary nature of
 386 musical education comes under the umbrella of the *Nordic Network for Research in*
 387 *Music Education* (NNMPF) which, like that of the *German Association for Research*
 388 *in Music Education* (AMPF) in the Central European area, publishes annual books
 389 and virtual journals each where the latest and most relevant research topics to their
 390 respective authors and members are contained.

391 In the Ibero-American context we have for example, *the Centre for Research in*
 392 *Psychology of Music and Music Education* (O-CIPEM), or the *Columbian Society*
 393 *for Investigation in Education and Psychology of Music* (PSICMUSE), with similar
 394 interests to those proposed by SEMPRE, but for the Portuguese and Colombian areas.
 395 There is also the *Spanish Association for Music Psychology and Musical Performance*
 396 (AEPMIM), which encompasses professionals from both areas simultaneously, from
 397 psychology and music. Its objectives highlight the diffusion of knowledge of this
 398 area through formative activities in formal education centres (conservatories and
 399 universities) and other informal areas, in periodic scientific activities, together with

400 the fostering of research into the Psychology of Music, through events, publica-
401 tions and cooperation with several of the previously mentioned organisations and
402 other similar ones in the international field. These include European (ESCOM),
403 Argentinean (SACCOM) and Brazilian (ABCAM) societies for Cognitive Sciences
404 of music. Also in Spain, with a long and exemplary trajectory is the *Society for Music*
405 *Education of the Spanish State* (SEM-EE) which has its own committees of *Music*
406 *Education and Training in the Conservatories and Schools of Music* (EFMCE) and
407 of *Musical Education and Training in Higher Education* (EFMES).

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