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**Adolescent perceptions of singing: exploring gendered differences in musical confidence, identity and ambition**

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# Adolescent perceptions of singing: exploring gendered differences in musical confidence, identity and ambition

## Abstract

Previous research on adolescents and singing has focused on understanding the physiological changes in the voice during the age range 11-16 (Cooksey and Welch, 2008), and addressing the lack of male participation in singing (Ashley, 2013; Hall, 2005). This study makes a new contribution by exploring adolescent girls' perceptions of singing as compared with those of boys. Through an inductive, two-phase research design, the language of the students themselves is used to describe their perceptions of singing. The roles of motivation, confidence, self-efficacy and autonomy come through as strong influences on the students' enjoyment of singing. Boys have a tendency to exhibit static ability evaluations in this age group, and demonstrate a lack of cognitive understanding of their changing voices. Girls, however, recognise that effort, ability and confidence interact in different ways depending on the social context for their singing. Recommendations for teachers are made, that could challenge ~~some of the~~ boys' fixed views of their vocal abilities, and strengthen the appeal of group singing for all adolescents.

Keywords: adolescent; singing; motivation; changing voice; self-efficacy

## Research context

Adolescent reluctance to sing is a familiar challenge for music educators and has attracted increasing research attention in recent years, with studies focusing on the physiological changes in the voice during the age range 11-16 (Cooksey and Welch, 2008; Gackle, 1991), and the effects of gender stereotyping and curriculum design on an apparent lack of male participation in singing (Ashley, 2013; Hall, 2005). Enjoyment of singing in both sexes has

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3 been shown to decrease before and during adolescence (Welch et al. 2009; Lamont,  
4 Hargreaves, Marshall and Tarrant, 2003), and with an emphasis in the research literature  
5 on boys' perceptions of singing, this study aims to explore girls' attitudes and experiences  
6 and to compare the strategies used (or avoided) by pupils of both sexes to adjust to their  
7 changing adolescent voices.  
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12 The need to support singing in schools comes not just from its inclusion in the UK  
13 National Curriculum and its international equivalents (DfE, 2013), but also from the  
14 benefits attributed to singing throughout the lifespan, which include both physical factors  
15 of positive affect and benefits for immune function (Kreutz, Bongard, Rohrmann, Hodapp,  
16 Grebe, 2003; Beck, Cesario, Yousefi, Enamoto, 2000) and psychological factors of social  
17 bonding, self-expression and identity development (Pearce, Launay, van Duijn, Rotkirch,  
18 David-Barrett, Dunbar, 2016). Singing in a choir helps to enhance positive emotions and  
19 reduces stress levels (Judd and Pooley, 2013), partly through the physical release of  
20 endorphins and decrease in cortisol, which reduces stress (Beck et al. 2000), but also  
21 through the effects of group participation and expression of emotions which can contribute  
22 to feelings of wellbeing and belonging (Mellor, 2013). Durrant's (2005) work on the role of  
23 choral singing in the development of social identity noted that the social function of the  
24 experience was of equal importance to the musical function, and highlighted the pivotal  
25 role of the choral director in developing expression, motivating the group and attending to  
26 its cohesion and development. Judd and Pooley (2013) note that school experience heavily  
27 influences an interest in choral singing later in life and there is much evidence to suggest  
28 that the adolescent age group (11-14 years) is a critical period where engagement with  
29 singing and music in general can be a contentious issue (Legg, 2013; Lamont et al. 2003).  
30 This is further reinforced by Powell (2017) in her work on male singers' possible selves.  
31 The choral experiences provided in school are shown through several of these studies to be  
32 important in helping young singers to develop strong future choral identities.  
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50 While the collective understanding of the value of singing continues to grow, much of  
51 the existing research has focused on teachers' perceptions of adolescent singers (Finney,  
52 2000), or on adults reflecting back upon their experiences (Harrison, 2007; Turton and  
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3 Durrant, 2002). Difficulties of motivating adolescent singers in the face of inappropriate  
4 primary school experiences, peer pressure and embarrassment were reported in Finney's  
5 (2000) study with of 40 secondary school music teachers, leaving them who were left with  
6 a feeling of uncertainty with regards to motivating their students. This uncertainty could in  
7 turn reduce teachers' effectiveness in supporting students to develop the cognitive  
8 strategies that lead to self-reflection and self-goal setting (Austin, Renwick and McPherson,  
9 2006); indeed, the teaching of metacognition requires a clear understanding of the  
10 processes at work in learning a skill, a facet that is often missing in the teaching of singing  
11 (Cooksey and Welch, 2008). Little wonder then that the adults involved in retrospective  
12 studies of school experiences of singing (Turton and Durrant, 2002) recall uninspiring or  
13 off-putting singing lessons, with female respondents typically concerned that the style of  
14 the music sung at school did not represent their preferences, and males much more  
15 concerned with their own inadequacies as singers.

16  
17 In studies where adolescents themselves have been active research participants,  
18 they have tended to be existing singers who choose take part in singing classes or choirs  
19 (Lucas, 2011; Monks, 2003). Some research with younger pupils took place around the  
20 introduction of Sing Up, the national primary school singing initiative that began in England  
21 in 2007 ([www.singup.org](http://www.singup.org)), aiming to establish a baseline of singing competence and  
22 confidence from which the success of the programme could be measured (Welch et al.,  
23 2009). The older children were significantly more able singers than their younger  
24 counterparts, both in terms of comfortable singing pitch range and in their singing  
25 competency; across all age groups there were significant gender differences, with girls  
26 scoring more highly for competency, which was in line with previous research (Welch,  
27 2006). Longitudinal studies with the Sing Up programme demonstrated improvements in  
28 singing skills, teacher confidence and, interestingly for this research, young people's 'ability  
29 to see their weak and strong points as singers' (CUREE, 2012: 9).

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32 Reluctance to sing needs to be understood in the broader context of the importance  
33 of music to adolescents, with active listening to music ranking above other leisure pursuits  
34 (Fitzgerald, Hayes and O'Regan, 1995), and contributing strongly to emerging personal and  
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3 social identity (North and Hargreaves, 1999). The majority of adolescents' musical  
4 engagement therefore involves elements of choice and self-direction (Green, 2008; 2002),  
5 and as such will form a stark contrast with the loss of vocal control in adolescence, which  
6 may be little understood by the pupils and indeed their teachers (Cooksey and Welch,  
7 2008). Attempts to increase this understanding, through the use of peer modelling by older  
8 singers (Hall, 2005) or the formation of 'cambiata' choirs to accommodate boys' changing  
9 voices (Cooper, 1964; Ashley, 2013), have evidenced some success. Similarly accounts of  
10 schools with a strong tradition of singing have shown that positive experiences can be  
11 sustained through adolescence, but these have tended to be independent cathedral schools  
12 (Ashley, 2013) or private boys' schools (Bennetts, 2013). The need to transfer approaches  
13 from these elite educational environments to the mainstream remains under-explored, and  
14 Monks' (2003) makes the critical assertion, drawn from her longitudinal study with  
15 adolescent singers, that teachers must help adolescents through the changing voice stage  
16 by encouraging and helping them understand that it is not a permanent state.

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19 ~~The~~With the voices of adolescents, and in particular girls, are under-represented in  
20 the research literature, and -this study aims to redress that balance, ~~and~~ to increase  
21 awareness of the complexities of personal development, musical preference and social  
22 identity that contribute to young people's experiences of singing. Investigations with the  
23 adolescent population of a British international school in Bangkok, Thailand will focus on  
24 their emergent identities as singers (or non-singers), drawing on theories of confidence,  
25 self-efficacy, motivation and 'possible-selves', each of which have been shown to have an  
26 effect on singers (Bandura, 1977; Freer, 2010; Bonshor, 2014).  
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## 46 **Aims, methods and participants**

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48 The aims of this research project were to investigate the perceptions of Key Stage 3 (ages  
49 11-14) students towards singing in the context of other musical activities and gender. The  
50 following research questions defined the parameters of the research:  
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- 3 1. How does singing rate in the opinion of KS3 students compared with other musical
- 4 activities?
- 5
- 6 2. What factors affect adolescents' attitudes towards singing – and do these factors
- 7 demonstrate a gender dimension?
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12 The study design incorporated a questionnaire, intended to gather an overview of student

13 opinions on music in and out of school: students were asked to rate their enjoyment of a

14 range of musical activities, using an ordinal scale from 1-6 (with 1 indicating a low level of

15 enjoyment) intended to encourage the students to consider their responses rather than

16 opting for a neutral response each time. A second section with an open question asked

17 them to explain their reasons for enjoying or not enjoying a selection of four musical

18 activities: playing an instrument, singing, listening to music at home and composing –

19 selected to give a broad picture of the young people's musical activities and so to

20 contextualise their statements on singing. The open questions resulted in comments in the

21 students' own words, which were subsequently coded for content. In the coding, the

22 language the students used to express themselves was retained where possible, though

23 some extrapolation of meaning was necessary in order to categorise in a meaningful way.

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34 The questionnaire participants (see Table 1) were all Key Stage 3 students at a

35 private British international school located in Bangkok, Thailand, where [Author 1the first](#)

36 [author](#) is a music teacher. The cohort is representative of the multi-cultural nature of the

37 school where the curriculum is delivered in English and many of the students are bilingual

38 with some English as an Additional Language (EAL). All students have two class music

39 lessons per week, of which singing is a compulsory part, so all responses are from 11-14

40 year olds who have experienced some level of singing. Participation in the research was

41 voluntary and consent was sought from both students and parents, in accordance with the

42 ethical approval granted by the University of Anon. As part of the introduction to the

43 questionnaire, it was made clear to the students that this activity was not part of school

44 work, that the researcher's role was not that of a teacher in this instance and that all

45 responses would be anonymous. All students, except one, subsequently took part in the

46 questionnaire.

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6 *INSERT: Table 1 – Key Stage 3 Participants*  
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10 The questionnaire data served to identify students for the second phase of the research,  
11 during which a series of semi-structured group interviews were conducted. These  
12 interviews explored the meaning and importance of singing in the adolescents' lives, and  
13 were intended to illuminate any particular attitudes towards singing in and out of school.  
14 Group rather than individual interviews were chosen in order to encourage peer-to-peer  
15 discussion. Students were interviewed with others who had indicated a similar level of  
16 preference for singing in their questionnaires (enjoyment ratings of 1 or 6, classified as  
17 'non-keen' and 'keen' singers), with the hope that this would discourage social consensus  
18 and invite more open responses. This selection process resulted in four interviews per year  
19 group: male keen singers, female keen singers, male non-keen singers, female non-keen  
20 singers. Questions were open and flexible enough to allow further probing and elucidate  
21 the meaning of responses (Judd and Pooley, 2013): they included topics of current and past  
22 singing preferences and behaviours, attitudes of friends to singing, likelihood of joining a  
23 choir, and opinions on the place of singing in the curriculum.  
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35 Interviews were transcribed in full and analysed thematically, enabling comparison  
36 with the questionnaire data and paying particular attention to gender differences. The  
37 following section presents the questionnaire findings first, in order to provide the wider  
38 context for the group discussions, in which the pupils' experiences and ambitions as  
39 singers were explored in greater depth. Individual participant codes (a, b, c) are used to  
40 refer to the anonymous responses, along with a group code indicating the age, gender and  
41 rating for singing (e.g. the group M8.1 are the Year 8 males who indicated a low rating for  
42 singing enjoyment in the questionnaire; F9.6 are the Year 9 females with the highest  
43 singing enjoyment rating).  
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## 54 **Analysis and Discussion**

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### *Phase 1 – Questionnaire*

The student questionnaire asked pupils to express their enjoyment of different musical activities on an ordinal scale marked 1-6, with 1 representing the least enjoyment and 6 as the highest level of enjoyment. Table 2.1 displays the mean ratings for the school musical activities, in which two activities showed a marked difference by gender: singing and music technology. These were equally popular among the total sample (3.8), though girls showed a marked preference for singing (4.4) and boys demonstrated a preference for music technology (4.2). In music technology, a particularly high rating for Year 7 boys (4.8) coupled with a particularly low rating for Year 8 girls (2.8), affected the overall mean rating for each gender, while in relation to singing there was greater consistency across age groups.

#### *INSERT: Table 2.1 – Mean Ratings for School Based Musical Activities*

When compared with the other musical activities singing appears to rate quite highly, with the highest mean rating for girls overall appearing in this activity. The gender difference is marked and this is most obvious at Year 7. This trend exists throughout KS3, however by Year 9, enjoyment of singing in girls is less, with over 40% of Year 9 girls indicating a rating of 4. In each year group, the boys' responses show a peak rating of 3 or 4, indicating an indifferent attitude towards singing, tending towards a more positive rating in Years 7 and 8. By Year 9, the boys are clearly oriented towards the lower ratings.

#### *INSERT: Table 2.2 – Mean Ratings for Musical Activities Outside of School Curriculum*

Table 2.2 displays the mean ratings for activities the students took part in outside school. In the design of the questionnaire, the extent of singing outside school was underestimated: the 27 responses noting 'additional activities' included 11 references to singing, suggesting that this may be a significant informal musical pastime outside school. Therefore, it would be useful in future studies to investigate the perceptions KS3 students have towards singing under various circumstances and to compare singing in and out of school.

The open-ended responses in which the students commented on their enjoyment or otherwise of four musical activities – playing an instrument, singing, listening to music at

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3 home and composing – provided qualitative insight on the ratings obtained above. Three  
4 main themes were evident following coding of these responses: intrinsic benefits,  
5 indications of self-efficacy and issues of autonomy.  
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10 *(i) Intrinsic benefits*

11 The students reported receptive benefits from their musical activities, including relaxation  
12 (40%) and the invocation of a positive feeling (27%) such as happiness, peacefulness or a  
13 sense of fun (45%). Listening to music at home provided the students with the strongest  
14 benefits, however they also identified the benefits of singing as a factor contributing to  
15 enjoyment. This was particularly true of the sense of fun gained through participation in  
16 singing. This finding was consistent with responses to given statements in Lucas's (2011)  
17 study with adolescent male choir members, but demonstrates that 'fun' is a word that  
18 adolescents themselves use to describe singing, and therefore bring to their expectations of  
19 singing in school. Both boys and girls also showed recognition of the psychological benefits  
20 of singing for expressing emotions, achieving relaxation and feeling positive.  
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29 For each of the four musical activities, girls refer more readily to intrinsic benefits  
30 than boys. This could be explained in part by boys' tendency to avoid 'emotional self-  
31 disclosure' when adults are asking the questions (O'Kearney and Dadds, 2004), although  
32 the anonymity of the questionnaire should have alleviated this to some extent.  
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37 *(ii) Indications of self-efficacy*

38 The adolescents in this study made a link between their enjoyment of an activity and their  
39 perceptions of their own abilities, demonstrating both self-evaluation and task oriented  
40 motivations. For singing, the self-evaluation factors were particularly strong, most often in  
41 a negative sense for boys, with 73% of the responses "I'm not good at it" (n = 33) being  
42 from boys. While 24% of the boys reflected on their ability to sing, as compared with 10%  
43 of girls, the girls showed more inclination to describe a lack of confidence. This finding  
44 raised questions of self-efficacy (O'Neill and Sloboda, 1997), consistent with the cyclical  
45 pattern identified in previous music-related studies, whereby low self-efficacy leads to  
46 poor effort and persistence towards achievement goals, and ultimately results in poorer  
47 self-efficacy (Creech and Hallam, 2003). Boys' perceptions of their ability to sing and  
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3 girls' expressions of lack of confidence were therefore highlighted for further exploration in  
4 the group interviews (see Phase 2 analysis below).  
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7 The comments pertaining to ~~task-oriented~~task-oriented motivations gave a clearer  
8 view of how the students approach their learning. The use of the word 'challenging' by 30  
9 of the students suggests a more malleable approach where challenge is embraced and  
10 recognised as a positive force for improvement. It was clear from the context of the  
11 statements, that students were intrinsically motivated by challenge and enjoyed it.  
12 Conversely, the students who were less motivated by musical challenge would describe  
13 activities as "too difficult": this can either be seen as a reflection on the learning goals set in  
14 the teaching, or as evidence of a 'helpless' view of ability (O'Neill and Sloboda, 1997),  
15 voiced as a displacement from their own inability towards the difficulty of the task.  
16 Addressing notions of challenge and difficulty more explicitly in the classroom could be an  
17 area for development, with potential to contribute to boys developing a more practical  
18 understanding of how to progress in singing.  
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### 29 *(iii) Autonomy*

30 The KS3 students showed that they valued the opportunity to choose their own music for  
31 listening, performing (instrumental and singing) and for composing. This supports the  
32 work by Ryan and Deci (2000) on self-determination theory, which identifies competence  
33 and autonomy as inherent psychological needs that are required for intrinsic motivation.  
34 The students were not directly asked about opportunities for musical choice, but 27% of  
35 them mentioned autonomy and choice as contributing to enjoyment, so demonstrating that  
36 these are considerable factors in their relationship with music.  
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44 A fifth of the students (19%) commented that they 'Enjoy singing with friends or  
45 alone (rather than at school)' implying an element of self-determination. Such informal  
46 situations give students choices over whether they want to sing or not, where they do it,  
47 with whom, what they sing and for how long. Several students also mentioned that they  
48 felt more comfortable with people they knew well and who would not judge them as  
49 opposed to in front of their peers in a school lesson.  
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## Phase 2 – Group interviews

The in-depth discussions with the interview groups allowed for greater exploration of the themes identified above, as the students reflected on their experiences alongside group members of the same age, gender and singing preference. After transcription of the interviews, eleven themes were identified in the responses, and then grouped into three superordinate themes as shown below (Braun and Clarke, 2006). These themes are closely related to the questionnaire data, but give a greater insight into contributing and interrelated factors.

### (i) *Personal – expression, effort and self-efficacy*

Music as means of ~~expressing emotion~~ expression emerged in questionnaire findings, and the interviews gave more insight into how the students use singing as a tool for expressing themselves:

If something bad happens at home, I just put my headphones on and start singing along to it. And if I'm upset, I choose songs that make me feel I'm not the only one who's feeling this, and that I'm not alone. So it usually works. (F8.6a)

This girl's response indicates the uninhibited use of singing for emotional release, but boys appeared less comfortable with their voices, with one stating that "nowadays I'm more shy about my singing" (M8.6a). They also reported difficulties in "fitting" to the songs they heard:

I already have a deep voice. And for most of the songs you have to use a high voice and when I try that, it's just too high. It goes through the ceiling. (M8.1b)

While boys with already changed voices struggled with this fit to repertoire, some younger male pupils felt their voices to be "too high" (Y7.1b), rejecting this vocal identity as making them sound "a bit young", though there was some anxiety evident in the statement, "I'm just used to this voice" (Y7.1b). Older boys expressed uncertainty about how their changed

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3 voices sounded and this was a further inhibitor to singing, particularly “in front of a crowd”  
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5 (M8.6b):

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7 This sound that I hear and the sound that everyone else hears is  
8  
9 different. I don’t know what my voice is like now. (M8.1b)

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11 Other boys seemed less troubled by the unfamiliar sounds of their voices, and reported that  
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13 the change did not affect their likelihood of singing:

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15 It still cracks sometimes, when I try to sing like high notes, it makes  
16  
17 like a weird..... so, like it’ll go high and then low, but very quickly.  
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19 I’m not sure how to explain. It feels like my here (*gestures to throat*)  
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21 is kind of vibrating. (M7.1c)

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23 Girls’ voices also change in adolescence, with implications for identity and confidence  
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25 (Monks, 2003), but in these group interviews the girls seemed less aware of the specific  
26  
27 qualities of their voices, often describing them in very neutral terms as “fine” or “boring”.  
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29 The more detailed descriptions tended to be positive, in contrast to the boys’ negativity:

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31 Mine has changed a lot. There’s more power in it. It’s not like plain, I do  
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33 more variations in it and my voice sounds...completely different. It  
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35 sounds more like a singer than just a girl singing. (F7.6a)

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37 Another striking difference was that the girls reported actively exploring and developing  
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39 their changing voices, rather than identifying their limitations, as the boys had. Several girls  
40  
41 described watching YouTube videos on how to perform specific songs, using Apps on their  
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43 iPads to record and assess their own singing, and practising or performing with members  
44  
45 of their families whenever they had the opportunity:

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47 Actually, at home sometimes I record my voice. Turn all the aircon off,  
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49 to actually see, and then I try to just improve it. I do that on different  
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51 days. So I see like with the same song and I see why. I actually write  
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53 down if I was super angry or super happy and I compare my voice and  
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55 try to make it better. (F8.6b)

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3 The changes that these girls witnessed in their voices were part of an active desire to  
4 achieve performance goals and improve their voices. The boys had more of a sense of  
5 something happening *to* them and in most cases responded passively to those changes.  
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9 Singing in front of others had variable effects on vocal confidence, with one girl  
10 describing how she had “many types of singing voice” (F9.6b) and would not use her “real”  
11 one in school, choosing only to “go more full out when I’m alone”. However, while  
12 performance nerves would make the voice “start getting shaky and stuff” (F8.6a) in some  
13 cases, others were motivated by a performance situation to “try more”, and so “to sound  
14 more smooth and just better when I’m singing in front of someone” (F9.6c). These  
15 responses all suggest some level of vocal control in social singing, whether holding back to  
16 avoid taking risks, or singing out and trying harder. Generally, the girls appeared to be  
17 evaluating their own singing ability, however accurately, while the boys relinquished those  
18 judgements to others with the subsequent anxiety that “I don’t know what people think”  
19 (M8.6b).  
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31 (ii) *Social – social benefits and challenges, influence of others, confidence*

32 Despite some uncertainties about singing in public, the students commonly identified the  
33 mutual benefits of singing in social settings, echoing Mellor’s (2013) study of choral singing  
34 and well-being by reporting the pleasure of being with friends as a factor that contributed  
35 considerably to the enjoyment of singing in school.  
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41 I’m not sure....it’s just a certain something that makes it fun! Maybe  
42 just being with friends I guess. (F7.6a)  
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45 The social experience of singing was the main motivating factor for some students, either  
46 to avoid being left out of a group, or for the vocal security of singing together: “when we’re  
47 with friends and we’re having fun we might sing, but if I’m alone, I don’t really” (M7.1a).  
48 Friends’ decisions over joining a choir could also have an effect on motivation to sing, and  
49 the pleasures of singing in harmony were described by one Year 7 choir member: “it makes  
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me feel like instead of just being a small part, it feels like I'm doing a little more for the team" (M7.6a). Singing in a group could, however, bring its own musical challenges:

I think, not mentioning names, but when we sing as a group, some people overtake voices. [...] Yeah, some people just mouth it and some people overtake so you can't even listen to your own voice just to check. And it's actually kind of annoying, we should be singing at the same level. (F8.6b)

Amongst respondents who were not current choir members, there was little evidence of the peer pressure against singing reported in other studies (Harrison, 2007), though this could have been due in part to the teacher-researcher eliciting an expected desired response. Instead, joining a choir was seen as a "brave" or "confident" choice, allowing people to "show something that they're good at" (M9.6b) and demonstrate that "they're not scared" (F7.1c) to sing "in front of a lot of people" (F7.1b). Nonetheless, an absence of boys in the choir was noted in several group discussions, and explained with reference to boys being "more sporty" (M8.1a): indeed the scheduling of sports teams and choir rehearsals against each other has been noted as a 'cost factor' in other studies (Wigfield and Eccles, 2000) and was referred to by both sexes, in six of the interviews, as a reason for not taking part in choir.

(iii) *Musical – musical influences and choice*

Adolescent musical preferences are often strongly held and socially significant (North and Hargreaves, 1999), and in general, the students in this study felt that the musical choices made for them by music teachers were not representative of their own tastes: "sometimes the songs are different to what I listen to, what I enjoy" (M8.1a). Contrasting their own preferences for "modern pop songs" with the "old kind of songs" (F8.1a) sung in class, the students attributed "boredom" and lack of enjoyment with singing songs that "not a lot of people know" (F8.6a). The main suggestion for improving singing in school was therefore to find out "what kind of singing music they like" (M8.6a), but while the Year 9s acknowledged the partial success of having recently voted on the choice of song for a

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3 singing project, they still felt that the song choices were not sufficiently up to date: “The  
4 three choices you gave us were all 2010, all old” (M9.1b).  
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7 Male students across the year groups noted potential difficulties in selecting songs  
8 according to student preference:  
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11 It’s weird because it depends on the person and what you like. So one  
12 person can’t say “it’s better we sing this”, ‘cos different people have  
13 different opinions. (M7.1a)  
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16 Like when we were young, we only had a couple of songs that we could all  
17 remember, but right now we all like different pop songs and we like different  
18 genres of music, so we like don’t really get along with each other. (M9.1b)  
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26 Some recognition was made of the importance of being introduced to different kinds of  
27 music in school, with exposure to unfamiliar repertoire leading to new preferences and  
28 discoveries:  
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31 [In school] it’s like usually, a type that I would never sing, but then I sing  
32 that and I kind of like it and I would go home and listen to it and sing. Can I  
33 give examples? For example in History class there’s a song Glory by John  
34 Lennon. So first when you listen to it, I just hated it, it was not my type, but  
35 then you listen to it again and again, and then go home and I tried singing  
36 it. I actually like it, so now I’m obsessed with it! (F8.6b)  
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43 Avoiding songs that were “babyish” (F9.6a) was also a clear priority for the students,  
44 though their definitions of these were sometimes unexpected, with some simple folk songs  
45 being described as “fun” by a girl who had enjoyed singing them at a choral day at another  
46 school. These reflections on the musical contributors to enjoyment of singing all suggest  
47 that a balance has to be sought between giving the students some degree of group-  
48 determination and some recognition of the music they are interested in as well as exposing  
49 them to new material.  
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## Conclusions and implications

A pervading feature of this study was the extent to which singing was part of these adolescents' lives. Despite the absence of this age group from school choirs, they still choose to sing and do so regularly. Accounts were given of going to karaoke booths with friends, improvising songs about their everyday life, singing in shows in shopping malls, singing as part of cultural celebrations and, of course, singing in the shower. The KS3 students who took part in this research recognised that singing holds psychological benefits and attributed these to their general level of enjoyment when singing. Further to Mellor's (2013) work on singing and well-being where the participants were all members of singing groups, our research suggests that a more general population of adolescents find similar benefits, even when they are not actively seeking them in an organised activity. Further study into the nature and extent of singing arising through student choice in informal settings could yield much useful insight into the motivations and psychological effect of singing in adolescence.

Both sexes identified difficulties with singing, which affected their overall enjoyment of the activity, but boys were more negatively impacted by these difficulties than girls and reported lower enjoyment ratings. As with Turton and Durrant's (2002) study of adults reflecting on their adolescent experiences of singing and Freer's work (2010) on possible selves, the adolescent boys in this study were most concerned with their own inadequacies in relation to skill. Those who described vocal inability seemed unable to see a path that would lead them to improvement and none identified effort as being a factor that would lead to skill development. Like the boys in Freer's (2016) study, adolescent vocal change was viewed by male respondents as 'something to endure, ignore or bemoan' (p. 85). Girls, however, were more affected by psychosocial factors such as perceived judgements by others: some girls demonstrated lower self-efficacy for singing in social situations and attributed this to both effort and performance anxiety. This differs from Turton and Durrant's (2002) work as they found that girls were most preoccupied with the choice of music. In the current study, boys and girls showed equal concern for musical choice, both

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3 as a limiting factor preventing enjoyment in relation to singing in school and also as their  
4 solution for making singing in school more enjoyable.  
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### 10 *Implications for teachers*

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12 The social setting of singing together was identified by both sexes in this study as an  
13 important factor in enjoyment. It was described as *the* motivating factor in getting involved  
14 and it was also noted that the product of a group singing together could be very 'beautiful'.  
15 This suggests that by emphasising the positive social benefits, such as social cohesion,  
16 inclusivity and bonding as part of a team, some of the social worries displayed by girls  
17 could be allayed. Singers can feel more secure if they have their fixed spatial positions  
18 where they feel supported within their vocal grouping (Bonshor, 2014). A sense of  
19 teamwork can be achieved through positive reinforcement of the factors that contribute to  
20 overall outcome, such as shared responsibility (Parker, 2014). Additionally, by heightening  
21 awareness of the musical outcome and praising performance success, individual and group  
22 efficacy can be improved (Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). By taking a positive psychology  
23 approach and working on social identity development, students could be helped to identify  
24 the benefits of group singing more readily than the disadvantages.  
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36 The fixed view of singing ability expressed by the boys in this study needs to be  
37 challenged. This could be achieved by developing metacognition, providing appropriate  
38 repertoire and guiding boys in identifying development targets (Freer, 2010; Cooksey and  
39 Welch, 2008; Finney, 2000). The benefits of single sex singing have been discussed in  
40 previous research (Ashley, 2013; Demorest, 2000): however, the current study shows an  
41 additional benefit of single sex singing for boys in providing safe opportunities for them to  
42 learn "what my voice is like now" (M8.1). Helping boys to understand and accept their new  
43 voices was a clear priority arising from the data, with some evidence that this approach  
44 would also benefit girls, some of whom could not explain why they did not like their voices  
45 and may not have understood that they too are undergoing change as part of adolescence.  
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### *A challenge for music education*

The importance of group singing for adolescents is intrinsically linked with the benefits that can be derived from the activity. These benefits occur on personal, social and musical levels and are so numerous that every adolescent should have the opportunity to profit from them. The barriers to adolescent singing are just as numerous and it takes a thorough understanding of these to address them. Music education is ultimately responsible for breaking through these barriers. This can only be achieved through developing a curriculum that takes account of relevant research and supports teachers in selecting appropriate repertoire. Training in choral leadership also needs to be made available for all teachers, not only those with the motivation to look for it. This training needs to incorporate understanding of the anatomical changes girls and boys are undergoing and the implications of these, and also make teachers aware of the perceptions adolescents have towards singing. Through this, programmes of study may be developed that incorporate the metacognitive elements of understanding physiological changes in the voice, exploit the positive social benefits of group singing and offer a balance of student- and teacher-selected repertoire that excites, challenges and motivates adolescent singers.

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*Table 1 – Key Stage 3 Participants*

<b>Year Group</b>	<b>Total <i>n</i></b>	<b>Female <i>n</i></b>	<b>Male <i>n</i></b>
Year 7 (ages 11-12)	69	27	42
Year 8 (ages 12-13)	66	33	33
Year 9 (ages 13-14)	57	32	25
Total	192	92	100

Table 2.1 – Mean Ratings for School Based Musical Activities

Gender and Year group	Playing an instrument	Listening to and discussing music	Singing	Music Technology	Learning about different styles	Performing	Composing
F	3.5	4.1	4.4	3.5	3.4	3.6	3.1
7	3.8	4.3	4.5	3.8	3.5	3.4	3.4
8	3.4	3.7	4.3	2.8	3.1	3.6	2.5
9	3.4	4.3	4.3	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.6
M	3.5	4.0	3.3	4.2	3.3	3.2	3.0
7	3.6	4.0	3.2	4.8	3.3	3.5	3.0
8	3.8	4.2	3.6	3.7	3.3	3.5	3.4
9	2.9	3.6	3.1	3.8	3.4	2.4	2.6
Whole Sample	3.5	4.0	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.1

Table 2.2 – Mean Ratings for Musical Activities Outside of School Curriculum

Gender and Year group	Listening to music alone	Listening to music with friends	Music lessons outside school	Playing music with friends	Going to concerts	Creating own music
F	5.7	5.4	4.4	4.4	4.8	3.8
7	5.7	5.5	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.1
8	5.8	5.4	4.1	4.1	4.9	3.6
9	5.7	5.3	4.5	4.4	4.8	3.7
M	5.5	4.8	3.9	4.1	4.2	3.8
7	5.6	4.6	4.1	4.0	4.5	3.9
8	5.6	5.2	3.9	4.6	4.5	4.4
9	5.4	4.6	3.7	3.3	3.7	2.9
Whole Sample	5.6	5.1	4.1	4.2	4.5	3.8