

Lynn Maxfield, Associate Editor

Motor Learning and Teaching Singing: An Overview

Laura Crocco and David Meyer



Laura Crocco



David Meyer

MOTOR LEARNING: INTRODUCTION

WHAT IS “MOTOR LEARNING?” The scientific literature defines it as processes that, with practice and experience, may lead to changes in the ability to perform a motor activity.¹ Motor learning research examines how skilled tasks are acquired, practiced, and learned so they can be executed autonomously and with minimal energy expenditure.² Motor tasks can be as varied as riding a bicycle, learning to swim, dancing the foxtrot, and negotiating the *passaggio* in a Verdi aria. Singing may be one of our most complex neuromuscular coordinations.

How we teach (e.g., demonstrating and giving feedback) is just as important as *what* we teach (e.g., breathing, postural alignment).³ Motor learning research may improve the *how*.

Why should voice teachers care? Many of us teach as we ourselves were trained. This may serve students whose voices are similar to our own, but how often is that the case?⁴ Students bring a tremendous diversity to our studios, and they frequently want to sing in ways that we ourselves have not sung. Our professional ethics demand we serve *all* of our students to the best of our abilities.⁵ Motor learning research offers a fact-based framework to improve teaching and learning.⁶

Current singing instruction is predominantly teacher centered. At first glance, this seems logical; the teacher is the expert, and the student is the learner. However, a teacher centered model of voice instruction may create an unhealthy or unproductive power dynamic that deemphasizes student autonomy and learning, causing dependency on the teacher, as well as stress and dissatisfaction with training.⁷ Recent studies suggest that teachers spend *much* more time talking and dispensing knowledge in voice lessons than the student does singing.⁸ In fact, Crocco et al. found that teachers gave their students copious amounts of verbal instruction, modeling, and feedback, but spent surprisingly little time having them sing.⁹ Similar results have been found with teachers of other instruments.¹⁰ This is a clear area where lessons from motor learning research may support improvement in teaching and learning.

Even in the best of circumstances, students may have difficulty developing artistic independence and professional self-direction.¹¹ Motor learning principles promote student autonomy and an adaptive, flexible approach

Journal of Singing, May/June 2021
Volume 77, No. 5, pp. 693–702
Copyright © 2021
National Association of Teachers of Singing

to teaching and learning. This resilience and independence is increasingly necessary for a successful career in the arts.¹²

Motor learning researchers in various disciplines have highlighted principles of how we teach, including *motivation, perceptual training, modeling, instruction, and feedback*, and important components of learning such as *autonomy* and *internal reference-of-correctness*.¹³ This article presents an overview of these principles, recommendations for applying them in teaching, and what recent research suggests about current use of these principles in one to one singing lessons.

PHASES OF LEARNING

Voice students may be able to sing a new task correctly during a voice lesson, but their performance in a lesson may be temporary and does not reliably indicate that learning has occurred.¹⁴ This is especially easy to observe in the guest master class setting. Motor learning research suggests that learning cannot clearly be seen but can be inferred by performance changes over time.¹⁵ Motor skill learning is demonstrated in three phases: 1) *acquisition*: the *initial* attempt at and subsequent *practice* of a new skill; 2) *retention*: changes in a student's *capability* to execute the skill after the completion of practice (i.e., learning) and retained over time; and 3) *transfer*: whether a student's change in *capability* can be transferred to other similar, untrained skills.¹⁶

Recognizing at what stage of learning your student is, is important for implementing the recommendations presented here. Performance changes during a lesson or a student's private practice do not depict learning (i.e., retention/transfer).¹⁷ Instead, learning may be inferred by how a student performs once practice has stopped. True *performance* of a skill is when the student can sing accurately in various performance environments and conditions.¹⁸

INTERNAL REFERENCE-OF-CORRECTNESS

In voice lessons, students may feel as if they are borrowing their teacher's brain—relying on the teacher to both diagnose and correct issues with their technique. The problem with this arrangement is that they need to leave that borrowed brain behind when the lesson

is over. Students need to be trained to assess their own singing so that they can detect what is right and wrong for themselves when they leave the lesson and practice independently. In motor learning literature, this is known as an "internal reference-of-correctness."¹⁹ The teacher may help students develop their internal reference-of-correctness by: 1) ensuring that students have an understanding of the target and goal;²⁰ 2) asking students what they hear/feel;²¹ 3) slowly withdrawing feedback and asking students to assess their own performance.²² Ideally, we are training them to become their own voice teacher and to independently use the tools we help them develop.

MOTIVATION: INFLUENCES AND IMPORTANCE

Motivation refers to student perception of self-efficacy, competence, and autonomy.²³ Teachers may assume that because students are in singing lessons, they are intrinsically motivated. However, *successful* skill acquisition, learning, and performance require *explicit* teaching behaviors that enhance student sense of competence, self-efficacy, and autonomy, which in turn make up student motivation.²⁴ Teachers know that a singer's emotions influence the physical and psychological mechanisms involved in singing. A student's level of motivation does the same.

Teachers may explicitly enhance a student's sense of self-efficacy, competence, and autonomy by: 1) discussing and setting clear, achievable goals so that students know *what* they're doing and *why*;²⁵ 2) providing more positive feedback, (e.g., "correct"/"good");²⁶ 3) providing feedback on larger, rather than smaller errors;²⁷ 4) asking the student what they hear/feel;²⁸ 5) asking the student to assess themselves after performing a task, before or even instead of the teacher's input;²⁹ and 6) supporting and tending to the teacher-student relationship through open-communication, and mutual trust.³⁰

As that list may suggest, we influence student feelings of competence, self-efficacy, and autonomy with each of our teaching behaviors. These influences can leave longlasting effects on the student motivation. For example, a student's sense of self-efficacy, competence, and autonomy may be negatively influenced by: 1) providing *instruction* and/or *feedback* that is lengthy

or complex; 2) providing too much instruction, modeling and/or feedback; 3) little or no active attention to building a student's reference-of-correctness and ability to self-evaluate; and 4) not establishing goals, or setting goals without providing clear and simple directives, or without determining whether the student has truly understood the task.

Crocco et al. (2020) found that voice teachers displayed low use of motivational behaviors. This finding may come as a shock to teachers, but it suggests that teachers rely too much on student inherent love for singing to feed a willingness to continue training. Current motor learning research suggests that optimal learning requires explicit attention to motivational teaching behaviors.³¹ Actively tending to students' sense of self-efficacy, competence, and autonomy, especially for a fine and complex skill such as singing, will increase their motivation, support optimal skill acquisition, learning and performance, and potentially lower their level of stress.³²

PERCEPTUAL TRAINING: ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE

Teachers engage in perceptual training when aiming to improve student perception of sensations related to singing.³³ There is a difference between *active* and *passive* listening and/or watching. *Actively* attending to perceptual training assists in building student autonomy and helps them develop a reference-of-correctness for what they "should" do when they repeat the task, and when they are in their own independent practice.³⁴ Delivering perceptual training *actively* may be done by: 1) asking students "what did *you* see/feel/hear/notice about what you just did?"; 2) asking students to direct attention to a sensation/perception; 3) asking students to *make their own evaluation* about a sensation/perception, particularly before telling them what *you* saw or heard; 4) defining or explaining a sensation/perception, "the tension in the throat I'm talking about is like what your throat feels like when you lift something heavy."

We may think that this is something singing teachers do often; however, recent research may suggest otherwise. If students *passively* watch/listen to the teacher demonstrating/modelling a task, without the teacher actively directing their attention, students may not

reliably generate stable changes in behavior.³⁵ Indeed, Crocco et al. found that perceptual training was one of the least used behaviors by teachers.³⁶ Considered alongside the finding that modelling was one of the *most used* behaviors, this finding suggests that teachers may have not *actively* attended to perceptual training.³⁷

MODELING: FREQUENCY AND PURPOSE

Modelling is ubiquitous in singing training, and it can be a useful teaching tool. Crocco et al. found that teachers delivered copious models/demonstrations for their students.³⁸ Modelling allows students to observe things that are not easily described and may help them establish a reference-of-correctness. However, demonstrating too frequently can encourage *imitation* rather than skill acquisition.³⁹ Motor learning research recommends that modelling should be offered sparingly, and even avoided in the early stages of learning a complex task.⁴⁰ Doing so allows students to explore a given task for themselves before the teacher models it for them or gives them more instruction, in turn fostering student autonomy.⁴¹

To determine whether or not modelling is appropriate, consider asking, "What exactly do I want to convey to the student with this model?" If this question is hard to answer, consider using another method instead of modeling. When you *do* choose to use a demonstration, be sure to tell the student the goal of the task before modeling.⁴²

INSTRUCTION: TYPE, AMOUNT, AND DELIVERY

How singing teachers deliver instruction matters. Examples of instruction may be, "Sing the last phrase on vowels only," or "Show me the melisma you've been practicing." The teacher may also use gestures to ask students to increase or decrease their loudness. Crocco et al. found that the teachers studied used *instruction* most out of all motor learning behaviors (alongside feedback), having provided instruction on all task attempts the students made.⁴³ Although this finding may suggest that instruction may be essential for a complex skill like singing, it also suggests that teachers may be overinstructing and flooding students with more information (factoids) than is beneficial.⁴⁴ When teachers overload

students with factoids, they can go into information overdrive,⁴⁵ making it difficult for them to process what you say in the lesson, and to remember and/or apply it in the practice room.⁴⁶ As a result, students may not understand how to address the technical problem, or even recognize when they have done something right or wrong. When giving instructions, teachers should aim to: 1) clarify both the task *and* the goal, taking into consideration the difficulty of the task and the skill level of the student;⁴⁷ 2) reduce potential difficulties by *clearly* and *simply* defining the task and goal;⁴⁸ and 3) help students develop a reference-of-correctness by providing *useful* information that slowly establishes the student's ability to detect their own errors.⁴⁹

Motor learning research has identified two types of instruction: goal related and movement related instruction.⁵⁰ Goal related instruction focuses on what the student is trying to achieve. Movement related instruction relates to specific body movements needed in singing. Motor learning research suggests that goal related instruction is more effective, especially when learning a complex skill, as it directs the student's focus to something external (see feedback for more information on focus of attention).⁵¹

Along with instruction, further explanation may be offered, where the teacher explains the *why* or *how* of something related to the task. For example, "We've slowed this down so that you can get the intonation more accurate," or "Your belt won't get higher until you change your jaw shape." However, like instruction, less is more, so keeping it clear and simple is paramount in order to avoid cognitive overload.⁵² Students get overloaded when we flood them with too many things to think about at once.

Overall, remember to keep instructions simple, concise, and clear with an external *what* focus (e.g., "Modify your vowel toward a schwa") whenever possible, rather than an internal *how* focus (e.g., "Raise your soft palate," or worse yet, the infamous "Use more support"). The more complex and difficult a task, the clearer and simpler the instruction should be. That being said, withholding instruction has still shown even greater learning and performance outcomes.⁵³ This may seem counterintuitive, but withholding or reducing instruction may encourage students to focus more on feedback, and ultimately perform better.⁵⁴

FEEDBACK: PURPOSE AND APPLICATION

Type of Feedback

Our bodies naturally provide us with feedback through the sensory systems linked to the movement we are doing; this is called "task-intrinsic feedback."⁵⁵ Feedback that comes from external sources, in this case from the voice teacher, is called "augmented feedback."⁵⁶ This external feedback is considered one of the most important features of motor learning, as it helps students to understand their own task-intrinsic (internal) feedback and in turn practice autonomously and effectively.⁵⁷ Motor learning research has examined two types of augmented feedback.

Knowledge of results (KR) is feedback about how *accurately* a skill is performed.⁵⁸ After the student attempts a task, the teacher gives feedback about the student's *outcome*, in relation to the *goal* of the task.⁵⁹ For example, if the task is to sing the aria's climactic note with vibrato, the teacher tells the student if vibrato was or was not present with simple statements such as "correct/incorrect" or "yes/no." Furthermore, KR suggests positive/negative performance outcomes.

The simple information offered by KR is ideal for larger rather than smaller errors made by the student.⁶⁰ It also has both a motivational and instructional role. Offering the student this type of augmented feedback after more accurate attempts may result in better feelings of self-efficacy and competence, therefore impacting motivation, and subsequently skill acquisition, learning, and performance.⁶¹

Knowledge of performance (KP) is feedback where the teacher delivers information in a *descriptive* (i.e., what the student did), or *prescriptive* (i.e., how to fix it) manner.⁶² For example, if a student is working on obtaining a tall, narrow mouth shape on an aria's high note, the teacher could use descriptive KP and say, "Your jaw was lower than last week, and you were still spreading a bit," or prescriptive KP where the teacher tells the student how to correct the error(s): "Watch yourself in the mirror and imagine you are yawning as you sing the note."

Prescriptive KP is best used when the student is attempting a new task, or when the student doesn't have a reliable internal reference-of-correctness.⁶³ A more skilled student may be more capable of effectually utilizing either descriptive or prescriptive KP.⁶⁴ However, if

your student has a strong reference-of-correctness and a clear idea of the task goal you are working towards, the simple outcome information offered by KR may be more effective than KP.⁶⁵

Both KR and KP are useful in teaching students new motor skills. For feedback to be effective *and* efficient however, we need to know three things: 1) the *target* of our feedback, 2) the *type* of feedback that should be offered, and 3) *when* and *how* often to deliver it.⁶⁶

Target of Feedback

The target of your feedback and the amount of feedback you deliver should be restricted to what your student needs and can apply effectively to achieve the goal.⁶⁷ Theoretically, singing students can make several errors simultaneously in a lesson, which may tempt the teacher to give a great deal of feedback. Crocco et al. reported this, showing that feedback was the highest delivered teaching practice by classical singing teachers, next to instruction.⁶⁸ It is important to consider that people may retain only small amounts of information at a given time. Motor learning research encourages teachers to reduce information offered via feedback, by focusing on the most important ingredients of the task that you are working on, and offering feedback only on larger rather than smaller errors.⁶⁹ For example, when working on a particular phrase of a song with the student, consider the analogy of a recipe: every recipe has a list of ingredients, and some are more important than others. Let's say your student sings a phrase and makes several errors (the ingredients were incorrect). Instead of offering feedback on every small thing (ingredient) that was incorrect in that phrase, try to offer feedback only on the most important ingredient that the student performed incorrectly.⁷⁰ Ultimately, you are targeting augmented feedback on the error that has highest priority.⁷¹

Frequency of Feedback

Motor learning research suggests that reduced frequency of feedback, rather than frequent feedback following each student attempt, may lead to more optimal learning outcomes.⁷² Rather, Crocco et al. demonstrated that voice teachers offered feedback on every attempt the student made.⁷³ Frequent feedback may produce less accurate and less stable performance.⁷⁴ For example,

frequent KR may result in students becoming dependent on feedback rather than their own intrinsic feedback, while less frequent KR or reducing KR over time has shown to enhance student retention of a skill.⁷⁵

Be mindful of the difficulty of the task you are working on with the student, and the student's skill level. With simple tasks, reduced feedback may be more effective, but more complex tasks may require more frequent feedback as the student develops a reference-of-correctness.⁷⁶ For example, if the student is a beginner and what you are teaching is complex relative to his/her ability, feedback that is easy to understand and offered *frequently* may be more effective.⁷⁷ For a simpler task, students of all levels may benefit from *less frequent* feedback.⁷⁸

Focus of Attention

Augmented feedback may direct student attention internally (e.g., attention to body movement) and/or externally (e.g., attention to effect of movement). When offering augmented feedback, directing the student's attention externally rather than internally, even if feedback is delivered frequently, may be more beneficial to learning.⁷⁹ The learning advantages of an external focus of attention when delivering feedback have consistently been found for a variety of skills, age groups, and skill levels.⁸⁰

Internal Reference-of-Correctness

Giving feedback that is clear, related to a specific target/goal, and withdrawn over time, is essential. It helps students build an internal reference-of-correctness that allows them to independently and autonomously perceive errors during the lesson, and errors during their own independent practice where augmented feedback is unavailable.⁸¹ High frequency feedback is effective only when *students* determine their own correct/incorrect performance.⁸²

CONCLUSION

In summary, voice teachers can incorporate motor learning principles by considering the following:

- Think about at what stage of learning the student is.
- Ask students to evaluate themselves. Developing student autonomy and a reference-of-correctness is key.
- Ask students what they hear and feel after they sing.

- Just because students are taking lessons doesn't mean they're motivated. Student motivation matters and is influenced by what teachers do.
- Model sparingly. What exactly do you need to demonstrate? Be sure to state the goal first.
- When you ask your student to do something, be able to articulate why.
- Keep instructions simple, concise, and clear with an external focus. Less is more.
- Focus feedback on the most important "ingredients" of what you're working on.
- Offer feedback on larger rather than smaller errors.
- Keep feedback clear and simple.
- Pay attention to how much you are speaking in the lesson. Again, less is more.

The benefits of incorporating motor learning principles in the training of singers have been discussed for over a decade. Teachers such as Christine Bergan, Lynn Holding, Wendy Le Borgne, and Katherine Abbot Verdolini have spearheaded efforts to bring this science to the singing voice community.⁸³ Emerging studies by Lynn Maxfield, and Laura Crocco have provided evidence for how motor learning may directly improve teaching.⁸⁴ This evidence has been slow to emerge, in part because systematic observation of one to one lessons is difficult.⁸⁵ But now, with the help of neighboring fields that have faced similar difficulties, emerging preliminary evidence offers singing teachers objective research on how they are teaching, and suggests evidence-based methods of improvement.⁸⁶

The world of singing is forever changing. This has never been as demonstrably true as today: Covid-19 has transformed the performing arts, and many of these changes will persist following the pandemic. Those who teach preprofessional singers are preparing them for careers that teachers cannot fully imagine. Students are beginning a lifetime of specialized work requiring multiple advanced skill sets in which they will continually learn and relearn skills for performance in roles that may not have been invented yet.⁸⁷ If the singing voice community fails to grow beyond a top down, didactic manner of instruction, we may not adequately prepare students for the future.⁸⁸

As Tosi wrote in 1743, "From the first Lesson to the last, let the Master remember, that he is answerable for

any Omission in his Instructions, and for the Errors he did not correct."⁸⁹

NOTES

1. Richard A. Schmidt, Timothy D. Lee, Carolee Winstein, Gabriele Wulf, and Howard N. Zelaznik, *Motor Control and Learning: A Behavioral Emphasis* (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2018).
2. Ibid; Eva Au Zveglic, "Speech and Singing," in Leon Chaitow, Dinah Bradley, and Christopher Gilbert, eds., *Recognizing and Treating Breathing Disorders*, 2nd ed. (Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone, 2014), 203–214; <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-7020-4980-4.00019-8>.
3. Laura Crocco, "A Systematic Approach to One-to-One Classical Singing Training in Higher Education" (MAS thesis, University of Sydney, 2018); <http://hdl.handle.net/2123/18340>; Lynn Holding, "How Learning Works," in *The Musician's Mind: Teaching, Learning, and Performance in the Age of Brain Science* (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, 2020).
4. David Meyer and Lynn Holding, "Practical Science in the Studio: "No-Tech" Strategies," *Journal of Singing* 77, no. 3 (January/February 2021): 357.
5. Polifonia, Working Group for Instrumental and Vocal Music Teacher Training, *Instrumental and Vocal Teacher Education: European Perspectives: ACE Publications 2010: Handbook* (Association Européenne des Conservatoires, 2010); "National Association of Teachers of Singing: Code of Ethics," last modified June, 2018; <https://www.nats.org/code-of-ethics.html/>.
6. Lynn Maxfield, "Improve Your Students' Learning by Improving Your Feedback," *Journal of singing* 69, no. 4 (March/April 2013): 471–478; Laura Crocco, Patricia McCabe, and Catherine Madill, "Principles of Motor Learning in Classical Singing Teaching," *Journal of Voice* 34, no. 4 (July 2020): 567–581; doi: 10.1016/j.jvoice.2018.12.019.
7. Helena Gaunt, "One-to-One Tuition in a Conservatoire: The Perceptions of Instrumental and Vocal Teachers," *Psychology of Music* 36, no. 2 (April 2008): 215–245; doi:10.1177/0305735607080827; Harald Jørgensen, "Student Learning in Higher Instrumental Education: Who is Responsible?," *British Journal of Music Education* 17, no. 1 (March 2000): 67–77; doi:10.1017/S0265051700000164; Gemma Carey, Catherine Grant, Erica McWilliam, and Peter Taylor, "One-to-One Pedagogy: Developing a Protocol for Illuminating the Nature of Teaching in the Conservatoire," *International Journal of Music Education* 31, no. 2 (May 2013): 148–159; Gaunt, 178; Scott Harrison and Catherine Grant, "Exploring of New Models of Research Pedagogy: Time to

- Let Go of Master-Apprentice Style Supervision?," *Teaching in Higher Education* 20, no. 5 (July 2015): 556–566.
8. Crocco et al. (2020); Adele Nisbet, "Singing Teachers Talk Too Much" (paper delivered at conference, Reimagining Practice: Researching Change. Griffith University, Queensland, Australia, 2003); <http://hdl.handle.net/10072/1858>.
 9. Crocco et al. (2020).
 10. Katie Zhukov, "Teaching Styles and Student Behaviour in Instrumental Music Lessons in Australian Conservatoriums" (PhD dissertation, University of New South Wales, 2004).
 11. Ibid.; Gaunt.
 12. Ruth Bridgstock, "Not a Dirty Word: Arts Entrepreneurship and Higher Education," *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education* 12, no. 2–3 (April 2013): 122–137.
 13. Catherine Madill, Anna McIlwaine, Rosanne Russell, Nicola J. Hodges, and Patricia McCabe, "Classifying and Identifying Motor Learning Behaviors in Voice-Therapy Clinician-Client Interactions: A Proposed Motor Learning Classification Framework," *Journal of Voice* 34, no. 5 (September 2020): 806–e19.
 14. Edwin Maas, Donald A. Robin, Shannon N. Austermann Hula, Skott E. Freedman, Gabriele Wulf, Kirrie J. Ballard, and Richard A. Schmidt, "Principles of Motor Learning in Treatment of Motor Speech Disorders," *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology* 17 (August 2008): 277–298, PMID: 18663111; Schmidt et al.
 15. Richard A. Schmidt, *Motor Learning & Performance: From Principles to Practice* (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 1991).
 16. Schmidt et al. (2018).
 17. Richard A. Schmidt and Robert A. Bjork, "New Conceptualizations of Practice: Common Principles in Three Paradigms Suggest New Concepts for Training," *Psychological Science* 3, no. 4 (July 1992): 207–218.
 18. Schmidt (1991).
 19. Maas et al.
 20. Ibid.
 21. Ibid.
 22. Mark A. Guadagnoli and Robert M. Kohl, "Knowledge of Results for Motor Learning: Relationship Between Error Estimation and Knowledge of Results Frequency," *Journal of Motor Behavior* 33, no. 2 (June 2001): 217–224; doi:10.1080/00222890109603152.
 23. Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, "Self-determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-being," *American Psychologist* 55, no. 1 (January 2000): 68–78; <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68>; Schmidt et al. (2018).
 24. Schmidt et al. (2018); Gabriele Wulf and Rebecca Lewthwaite, "Optimizing Performance Through Intrinsic Motivation and Attention for Learning: The OPTIMAL Theory of Motor Learning," *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review* 23, no. 5 (October 2016): 1382–1414; doi:10.3758/s13423-015-0999-9.
 25. Maas et al.; Malcolm R. McNeil, *Clinical Management of Sensorimotor Speech Disorders* (New York: Thieme, 2009).
 26. Rokhsareh Badami, Mohammad Vaez Mousavi, Gabriele Wulf, and Mahdi Namazizadeh, "Feedback After Good Versus Poor Trials Affects Intrinsic Motivation," *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 82, no. 2 (June 2011): 360–364; <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.2011.10599765>; Esmaeel Saemi, Jared M. Porter, Ahmad Ghotbi-Varzaneh, Mehdi Zarghami, and Farzad Maleki, "Knowledge of Results After Relatively Good Trials Enhances Self-efficacy and Motor Learning," *Psychology of Sport and Exercise* 13, no. 4 (July 2012): 378–382; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2011.12.008>.
 27. Suzete Chiviawosky and Gabriele Wulf, "Feedback After Good Trials Enhances Learning," *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 78, no. 2 (March 2007): 40–47; doi:10.1080/02701367.2007.10599402.
 28. Maas et al.
 29. Schmidt et al. (2018).
 30. Jo Clemens, "Rapport and Motivation in the Applied Studio," *Journal of Singing* 63, no. 2 (November/December 2006): 206; Sophia Jowett, "Validating Coach-Athlete Relationship Measures with the Nomological Network," *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science* 13, no. 1 (January 2009): 34–51; doi:10.1080/10913670802609136; Alkisti Olympiou, Sophia Jowett, and Joan L. Duda, "The Sports," *The Sport Psychologist* 22, no. 4 (December 2008): 423–438; doi:10.1123/tsp.22.4.423.
 31. Wulf and Tewthwaite.
 32. Ibid.
 33. Jean Mary Zarate, "The Neural Control of Singing," *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 7 (June 2013): 237; <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2013.00237>.
 34. Claude Alain, Joel S. Snyder, Yu He, and Karen S. Reinke, "Changes in Auditory Cortex Parallel Rapid Perceptual Learning," *Cerebral Cortex* 17, no. 5 (May 2007): 1074–1084; <https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhl018>; Jens Haueisen and Thomas R. Knösche, "Involuntary Motor Activity in Pianists Evoked by Music Perception," *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* 13 (August 2001): 786–792; <https://doi.org/10.1162/08989290152541449>; Schmidt et al. (2018).

35. Alain et al.; Haueisen and Knösche.
36. Crocco et al. (2020).
37. Ibid.
38. Ibid.
39. Susan Higgins, "Motor Skill Acquisition," *Physical Therapy* 71, no. 2 (February 1991): 123–139; <https://doi.org/10.1093/ptj/71.2.123>; Timothy D. Lee, Stephan P. Swinnen, and Deborah J. Serrien, "Cognitive Effort and Motor Learning," *Quest* 46, no. 3 (August 1994): 328–344.
40. Nicola J. Hodges and Ian M. Franks, "Modelling Coaching Practice: The Role of Instruction and Demonstration," *Journal of Sports Sciences* 20, no. 10 (January 2002): 793–811.
41. Ibid.
42. Ibid.
43. Crocco et al. (2020).
44. Ibid.
45. Lisa M. Muratori, Eric M. Lamberg, Lori Quinn, and Susan V. Duff, "Applying Principles of Motor Learning and Control to Upper Extremity Rehabilitation," *Journal of Hand Therapy* 26, no. 2 (April 2013): 94–103; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jht.2012.12.007>.
46. Nicola J. Hodges and Ian M. Franks, "Learning a Coordination Skill: Interactive Effects of Instruction and Feedback," *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 72, no. 2 (June 2001): 132–142; <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.2001.10608943>; Gabriele Wulf and Cornelia Weigelt, "Instructions About Physical Principles in Learning a Complex Motor Skill: To Tell or Not to Tell . . ." *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 68, no. 4 (December 1997): 362–367; <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.1997.10608018>.
47. Maas et al.; Schmidt et al. (2018).
48. Ann M. Gentile, "Movement Science: Implicit and Explicit Processes During Acquisition of Functional Skills," *Scandinavian Journal of Occupational Therapy* 5, no. 1 (January 1998): 7–16; <https://doi.org/10.3109/11038129809035723>; Gabriele Wulf and Charles H. Shea, "Principles Derived from the Study of Simple Skills Do Not Generalize to Complex Skill Learning," *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review* 9, no. 2 (June 2002): 185–211; <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03196276>.
49. Maas et al.
50. Hodges and Franks; Karl M. Newell, M. J. Carlton, and Anthony Antoniou, "The Interaction of Criterion and Feedback Information in Learning a Drawing Task," *Journal of Motor Behavior* 22, no. 4 (December 1990): 536–552; doi: 10.1080/00222895.1990.10735527.
51. Wulf and Weigelt; Thomas D. Green, and John H. Flowers, "Implicit Versus Explicit Learning Processes in a Probabilistic, Continuous Fine-Motor Catching Task," *Journal of Motor Behavior* 23, no. 4 (December 1991): 293–300.
52. Hodges and Franks; Schmidt et al. (2018).
53. Hodges and Franks; Nicola J. Hodges and Timothy D. Lee, "The Role of Augmented Information Prior to Learning a Bimanual Visual-Motor Coordination Task: Do Instructions of the Movement Pattern Facilitate Learning Relative to Discovery Learning?," *British Journal of Psychology* 90, no. 3 (August 1999): 389–403.
54. Hodges and Franks; Hodges and Lee.
55. David I. Anderson, Richard A. Magill, Anthony M. Mayo, and Kylie A. Steel, "Enhancing Motor Skill Acquisition with Augmented Feedback," *Skill Acquisition in Sport: Research, Theory and Practice* (November 2019): 3–19.
56. Ibid.
57. Guadagnoli and Kohl; Schmidt et al. (2018).
58. Anderson et al.; Schmidt et al. (2018).
59. Anderson et al.; Schmidt et al. (2018).
60. Chiviawsky and Wulf; Suzete Chiviawsky and Gabriele Wulf, "Self-Controlled Feedback is Effective if it is Based on the Learner's Performance," *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 76, no. 1 (March 2005): 42–48; doi:10.1080/02701367.2005.10599260.
61. Badami et al.; Rokhsareh Badami, Mohammad Vaez Mousavi, Gabriele Wulf, and Mahdi Namazizadeh, "Feedback About More Accurate Versus Less Accurate Trials: Differential Effects on Self-confidence and Activation," *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 83, no. 2 (June 2012): 196–203; doi:10.1080/02701367.2012.10599850.
62. Anderson et al.; Schmidt et al. (2018).
63. Newell et al.
64. Anderson et al.
65. Hodges and Franks; Stephan P. Swinnen, Charles B. Walter, Timothy D. Lee, and Deborah J. Serrien, "Acquiring Bimanual Skills: Contrasting Forms of Information Feedback for Interlimb Decoupling," *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition* 19, no. 6 (November 1993): 1328–1344; <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.2001.10608943>.
66. Anderson et al.
67. Ann M. Gentile, "Skill Acquisition: Action, Movement, and Neuromotor Processes," in J. H. Carr and R. B. Shepherd, eds., *Movement Science: Foundations for Physical Therapy* (Rockville, MD: Aspen, 2000), 111–187; Gabriele Wulf and Charles H. Shea, "Understanding the Role of Augmented Feedback: The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly," *Skill Acquisition in Sport: Research, Theory and Practice* 121 (February 2004): 144.

68. Crocco et al. (2020).
69. Anderson et al.
70. Douglas L. Weeks and Raymond N. Kordus, "Relative Frequency of Knowledge of Performance and Motor Skill Learning," *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 69, no. 3 (September 1998): 224–230; Gabriele Wulf, Suzete Chiviacowsky, Eduardo Schiller, and Luciana Toaldo Gentilini Ávila, "Frequent External Focus Feedback Enhances Motor Learning," *Frontiers in Psychology* 1 (November 2010): 190.
71. Weeks et al.; Wulf et al.
72. Diane E. Nicholson and Richard A. Schmidt, "Scheduling Information Feedback to Enhance Training Effectiveness," in *Proceedings of the Human Factors Society Annual Meeting* 35, no. 19 (Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, 1991), 1400–1404.
73. Crocco et al. (2020).
74. Richard A. Schmidt, "Frequent Augmented Feedback Can Degrade Learning: Evidence and Interpretations," in *Tutorials in Motor Neuroscience* (Dordrecht: Springer, 1991), 59–75.
75. Kimberly Steinhauer and Judith Preston Grayhack, "The Role of Knowledge of Results in Performance and Learning of a Voice Motor Task," *Journal of Voice* 14, no. 2 (June 2000): 137–145; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0892-1997\(00\)80020-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0892-1997(00)80020-X).
76. Gabriele Wulf, Charles H. Shea, and Sabine Matschiner, "Frequent Feedback Enhances Complex Motor Skill Learning," *Journal of Motor Behavior* 30, no. 2 (June 1998): 180–192.
77. Robert A. Bjork and Marcia C. Linn, "The Science of Learning and the Learning of Science," *Aps Observer* 19, no. 3 (March 2006; retrieved from www.psychologicalscience.org/observer/the-science-of-learning-and-the-learning-of-science); Mark A. Guadagnoli and Timothy D. Lee, "Challenge Point: A Framework for Conceptualizing the Effects of Various Practice Conditions in Motor Learning," *Journal of Motor Behavior* 36, no. 2 (July 2004): 212–224; doi:10.3200/JMBR.36.2.212-224.
78. Bjork and Linn; Guadagnoli and Lee.
79. Gabriele Wulf, Nathan McConnel, Matthias Gärtner, and Andreas Schwarz, "Enhancing the Learning of Sport Skills Through External-Focus Feedback," *Journal of Motor Behavior* 34, no. 2 (June 2002): 171–182; doi:10.1080/00222890209601939; Wulf et al., 2010.
80. Gabriele Wulf, "Attentional Focus and Motor Learning: a Review of 15 Years," *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology* 6, no. 1 (September 2013): 77–104; <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750984X.2012.723728>.
81. Stephan P. Swinnen, Richard A. Schmidt, Diane E. Nicholson, and Diane C. Shapiro, "Information Feedback for Skill Acquisition: Instantaneous Knowledge of Results Degrades Learning," *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition* 16, no. 4 (July 1990): 706–716; <https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.16.4.706>.
82. Guadagnoli and Kohl.
83. Christine Celeste Carroll Bergan, "Application of Perceptual and Motor Learning Principles to Auditory Training and Perception of Vocal Qualities" (PhD dissertation, University of Iowa, 2007); Lynn Holding, *The Musician's Mind: Teaching, Learning, and Performance in the Age of Brain Science* (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishing, 2020), 97–155; Lynn Holding, "Voice Science and Vocal Art, Part Two: Motor Learning Theory," *Journal of Singing* 64, no. 4 (March/April 2008): 417–428; Wendy D. LeBorgne and Marci Daniels Rosenberg, *The Vocal Athlete* (San Diego: Plural Publishing, 2019); Katherine Verdolini, "Principles of Skill Acquisition Applied to Voice Training," in *The Vocal Vision: Views on Voice* (New York: Applause, 1997): 65–80; Ingo R. Titze and Katherine Verdolini Abbott, *Vocology: The Science and Practice of Voice Habilitation* (Salt Lake City: National Center for Voice and Speech, 2012), 217–238.
84. Lynn Milo Maxfield, "Application of principles from motor-learning theory to the studio voice lesson: effects of feedback frequency on retention of classical singing technique" (PhD dissertation, University of Iowa, 2011); Laura Crocco, Catherine J. Madill, and Patricia McCabe, "Evidence-based Frameworks for Teaching and Learning in Classical Singing Training: A Systematic Review," *Journal of Voice* 31, no. 1 (January 2017): 130–e7; doi:10.1016/j.jvoice.2015.12.001; Crocco et al. (2020).
85. Gemma Marian Carey, Ruth Bridgstock, Peter Taylor, Erica McWilliam, and Catherine Grant, "Characterising One-to-One Conservatoire Teaching: Some Implications of a Quantitative Analysis," *Music Education Research* 15, no. 3 (August 2013): 357–368; doi:10.1080/14613808.2013.824954.
86. Crocco et al. (2020).
87. Ruth Bridgstock and Greg Hearn, "A Conceptual Model of Capability Learning for the Twenty-First-Century Knowledge Economy," *Handbook on the Knowledge Economy* (May 2012): 105–122.
88. Carey et al.
89. Pier Francesco Tosi, *Observations on the Florid Song*, trans. Galliard (London: Wilcox, 1743), 16.

Laura Crocco is an Australian researcher in singing voice training and human movement science. She is currently a PhD student in the Faculty of Medicine and Health and The University of Sydney, and previously graduated with a Bachelor of Music (Voice Performance) and a Master of Applied Science (Health Science) from The University of Sydney. The

demanding nature of elite music training that she encountered during her undergraduate studies prompted her research interest in how the science of motor learning may improve the way we train musicians, particularly singers. Laura aims to provide evidence-based professional development for teachers in higher music education so as to encourage student autonomy, improve performance, and nurture the wellbeing of our future musicians. She is passionate about encouraging teachers and students to recognize the current issues in one to one training, and showing them through her published works, presentations, and master classes how more systematic and objective research may serve as an ally to the field.

A leading scholar and researcher of the singing voice, baritone **David Meyer** is an active performer, teacher, clinician, and voice scientist. He serves as associate professor of voice and voice pedagogy at Shenandoah Conservatory, and is Director of the Janette Ogg Voice Research Center. He is also a member of the Scientific Advisory Board of the Voice Foundation and is the Chairman of the Voice Science Advisory Committee of the National Association of Teachers of Singing. In 2010 he received the Van L. Lawrence Fellowship, a prestigious national award in recognition of his contributions to the field of teaching singing and the use of voice science. Dr. Meyer's students have won numerous awards and have sung in major venues worldwide.

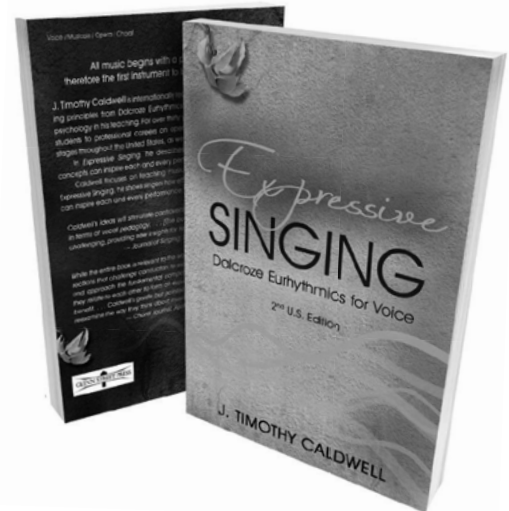
Rediscover a classic, updated for today's music world.

Expressive Singing: Dalcroze Eurhythmics for Voice, 2nd U.S. Edition

...provocative and challenging,
providing new insights for
teaching and performing. . .

— *NATS Journal of Singing*, Nov./Dec. 1995

One of the most enjoyable aspects of the book is Caldwell's gentle but pointed wit, which he uses to prod musicians to re-examine the way they think about music, from the first examination of a piece through its rehearsal and performance." — *Choral Journal*, April 1996



Available on Amazon.