LEARNERS' MOTIVATION TO CHOOSE MUSIC AS AN ELECTIVE IN HIGH SCHOOL

by

Lauren Joan Venter

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ABSTRACT

Few high school learners in South Africa choose Music as an elective. This study extends a worldwide study by McPherson and O'Neill (2010), based on Eccles' Expectancy-value theory, exploring learners' motivation to study music compared to other subjects, by focusing on three motivational constructs: Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions. The current study explores learners' motivation to study Music as a subject in high school. The three aforementioned motivational constructs were explored for a range of elective school subjects, including Music.

The main aim of the study was to determine possible factors that motivate high school learners to continue or discontinue with Music as an elective in their last three years of school. Subsidiary aims were to reveal 1) how learners' motivational beliefs differ for Music as opposed to other elective subjects; 2) the extent to which the motivational constructs influence intentions to choose Music as an elective; 3) how the motivational beliefs vary according to school, grade and gender; 4) other influences on motivation for Music as an elective subject.

The questionnaires used were modelled on those originally designed by McPherson and O'Neill, according to Eccles' Expectancy-value theory. These were distributed to four single-sex (two girls' and two boys') high schools in Gauteng. The sample comprised 180 Music learners in grades 9 and 10 (108 female and 72 male). Results were statistically analysed and showed that on average, learners who are motivated to choose Music as an elective hold higher Value Perceptions and Competence Beliefs for Music than for other elective subjects. In fact, these learners showed higher Competence Beliefs for all but one of the evaluated subjects than learners not intending to continue with Music. Furthermore, these learners reported lower Task Difficulty Perceptions in general compared to those not motivated to continue with Music. Interestingly, males reported higher Value perceptions and Competence Beliefs as well as lower Task Difficulty Perceptions than females for a range of subjects including Music.

Additionally, learners who reported positive Music continuation intentions were found to practise more often, to read books more frequently, and to be significantly more self-motivated than learners not intending to continue with Music. Parents and teachers were also shown to be a strong influence in learner motivation for Music.

Keywords

Academic motivation, Competence, Elective, Gauteng, High school learners, Music, School subject, Task Difficulty, Value

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction and background

Music as a specialised high school subject is offered at a limited number of schools in South Africa. Where Music is offered, very few learners choose to commit to it as a subject from grade 8 until Matric. Generally, in schools in Gauteng, a senior high school Music class consisting of more than 10 learners is considered a rarity and is often celebrated as a feat for that school. Some of my undergraduate peers had as few as one or two members in their senior high school Music classes. As a high school Music teacher, I have experienced similarly small FET (Further Education and Training) Music classes, with numbers often as low as three, even though there is typically an average of 70 Music learners in grade 8. Three learners of a possible 70 signifies a Music retention rate of 4%. One possible explanation is that very few learners are motivated to choose Music as an elective subject in their last three years of high school.

Various studies have been conducted exploring the motivation of young people to participate in Music. One such study is by McPherson and O'Neill (2010), who explored learners' motivation to study Music as compared with other school subjects. To my knowledge, there have been no studies of this nature conducted in South Africa. As such, McPherson and O'Neill's study provided the foundation for the current study.

Successful Music learning is time-consuming, complex and demands not only hours, but years of dedicated practising and strong commitment. Research has indicated that young people value Music education less highly than other school subjects, especially when they start high school (Ghazali & McPherson, 2009; O'Neill, 2006; Pitts, 2005). According to O'Neill (2002), some students consider Music too difficult or they struggle with sociocultural barriers in Music achievement. Ross (1995) and Mills (1997) attribute the unpopularity of Music as a subject to the traditional methods in which it is taught and its rigid evaluation criteria. As was mentioned above, the current study was inspired by an international study conducted by McPherson and O'Neill (2010) which investigated learners' motivation to study Music as compared to other school subjects. The eight countries that participated in this international study were Brazil, China, Finland, Hong Kong, Israel, Korea, Mexico and the USA. The aim of the series of studies was to discover "how and why students develop the desire to pursue Music as a school

subject, and how their beliefs and attitudes about Music may differ from other subjects" (McPherson, Osborne, Barrett, Davidson & Faulkner, 2015, p. 142). The current study is therefore based on the international study with adjustments to make it applicable to the Gauteng context and the specific aims of my research. McPherson, founder of the international study kindly granted permission for this replication.

The intrinsic benefits of arts education for the development of young people have been affirmed time and time again in research projects across the globe (Dwyer, 2011; Martin, Mansour, Anderson, Gibson, Liem & Sudmalis, 2013). According to McPherson et al. (2015), there have also been a number of more vague and sometimes misleading findings regarding the benefits of Music education in particular, and these contrasting findings have culminated in "an ongoing debate regarding the value of art and Music education both within schools and the wider community" (p. 142).

Regardless of the worth of arts education, the fact is that very few learners in Gauteng seem motivated to pursue Music as an academic subject on a high school level. This is evident in my own school as well as others. There seems to be a similar trend in terms of low Music interest in schools worldwide (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010). The aim of the current study was to explore the various factors that may influence Gauteng-based grade 9 learners' decisions to continue or to discontinue with Music study as they move into their FET learning phase. Simultaneously, it assessed the motivational beliefs of grade 10 Music learners who had already chosen Music as an FET elective subject.

1.2 South African education context

The South African education system is divided into four phases: Foundation phase comprises grades R-3; the Intermediate phase includes grades 4-7; the Senior Phase spans grades 7-9; and the FET phase comprises grades 10-12. In most South African schools, and specifically in the schools that took part in this study, high school begins in grade 8. At this stage, learners do not have many choices in terms of subjects. However, under the umbrella term, *Creative Arts*, grade 8 learners choose to take part in two of the following: Dance, Drama, Music and Visual Arts (choices are sometimes limited to availability at the respective schools). They participate in both arts subjects for two years, so that by the end of grade 9, they should have sufficient experience to decide whether or not they would like to continue with one or both of those arts subjects (DBE, 2011). From grade 10-12, the arts subjects are no longer referred to as Creative

Arts, but as their own specialised subjects (Dance, Drama, Music and Visual Arts). In grade 8 and 9, learners are exposed to a wide range of subjects, and at the end of grade 9, they choose three electives (or more if learners wish to take extra subjects) in addition to core subjects such as Mathematics (or Mathematical literacy, at the learners' choice), English, Afrikaans (or another language offered by the school) and Life Orientation.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

When making decisions about education, it stands to reason that learners are influenced by future career interests, and if this is the case, then perceived economic benefits and job opportunities may also be strong variables in subject choices. Furthermore, decisions are frequently shaped by parental expectations, self-expectations for success, subjective values of various subjects as well as different perceptions of the subjects themselves. These include perceptions of difficulty (especially for obtaining high marks), inherent merits of taking the subject, and utility value (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010, p. 102).

Possible theoretical lenses through which the data of the study will be considered are the following: Expectancy-value theory (Eccles, Adler, Flutterman, Goff, Kaczala, Meece & Midgley, 1983; Eccles, Wigfield & Schiefele, 1998); Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982); Self-regulation (Bandura, 1991; Zimmerman, 2008) and Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

According to Eccles and Wigfield (2000), *Expectancy-value theory* is based on the idea that individuals' choice, performance and persistence in an activity are determined by their beliefs regarding how well they will do in the activity and by the extent to which they value it (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000). As can be seen in Figure 1 below, achievement choices, effort, persistence and performance are all directly influenced by expectancies and values. Expectancies and values are said to be influenced by ability beliefs, perceived task difficulty, goal-orientation and affective memory, all of which are in turn influenced by previous experiences and socialisation influences (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000).
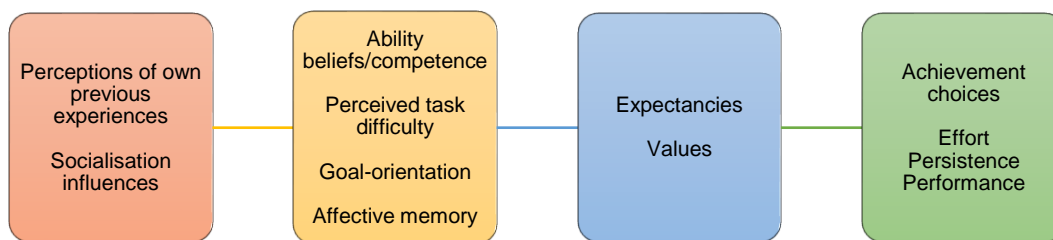
Figure 1. Eccles and Wigfield Expectancy-value Theory (adapted from Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 69)

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's beliefs regarding the capability to control the level of one's own functioning, and the events that shape one's life. In essence, the theory states that people would generally not attempt to do things that they do not believe they can do but will only choose tasks in which they believe they will be successful. A person with a high sense of self-efficacy believes that they will be successful even in challenging tasks (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1996). Bandura (1991) further outlines the impacts that efficacy beliefs have on human self-regulation: efficacy beliefs affect the choices one makes, the goals one sets, the strength of perseverance, effort applied to tasks, and anxiety levels when performing a task.

Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) define *self-regulated learning* as "the degree to which students can regulate aspects of their thinking, motivation and behaviour during learning" (p. 199). In the practice of self-regulated learning, several different learning processes are monitored and regulated, such as the process of setting learning goals, employing strategies to achieve those goals, managing various resources, and reacting to external feedback (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). According to Bandura (1991), the process of self-regulation provides the foundation for purposeful action. He goes on to say that human functioning is a result of the interplay between self-regulated and external influences. Self-regulation comprises three phases.

First is the forethought phase, which involves task analysis in the form of goal setting and strategic planning. Zimmerman (2008) states that the forethought phase also incorporates self-motivation beliefs, including self-efficacy, outcome expectations, value and interest, and goal orientation. In an earlier paper, Bandura (1991) notes that not all individuals react the same

way in terms of goal setting: certain individuals will simply not set goals as they have a limited desire to improve on their abilities; others will set goals in order to match their current level of achievement; while others will set goals to *improve* on their current performance. Factors that influence the likelihood of being moved to action in the form of goal setting include: consistency of self-observation; the extent to which feedback is informative; motivational level (low motivation corresponds with unreactive self-reaction); value of the behaviour/task; and whether an individual focuses on success or failure (Bandura, 1991).

The second phase of self-regulation is the performance phase, which involves self-monitoring and self-control (Zimmerman, 2008). Bandura (1991) highlights the fact that one's perceptions of their observed behaviours are subject to task values in that only valued tasks are attended to, while less important tasks are often ignored. Perceptions of self-behaviour are also subject to mood and self-beliefs and can be skewed positively (if self-beliefs are high) or negatively (if self-beliefs are low).

The third phase of self-regulation is the self-reflection phase, which encompasses self-judgment and self-reaction (Zimmerman, 2008). Bandura (1991) elaborates on the self-judgment function, stating that it occurs when an individual makes an evaluation of their self-observed behaviour or performance. Whether or not this evaluation is satisfactory depends on one's personal standards. These standards are often shaped by the reactions and opinions of significant others on an individual's behaviour or performance, or they are shaped directly through tuition. Another strong influence on the standards one holds is the impact of comparison, both with others and with one's own previous performance.

The judgmental sub-function is also influenced by valuation of activities (in that individuals expend less effort on evaluating their performance in devalued activities than in valued activities), as well as by perceived causal attributions for success and failure (individuals will take more pride in having accomplished a task based on their abilities and efforts rather than external determinants of behaviour, such as Task Difficulty or luck).

Self-reaction is either manifested in the form of self-satisfaction or self-dissatisfaction. Either of these outcomes will influence the forethought phase of the subsequent task or behaviour (as the cycle continues). If self-satisfaction was the result of previous self-monitoring, then future behaviour will conform to previous behaviour. On the other hand, if self-dissatisfaction was the result of previous self-monitoring, then future behaviour will be corrective and adaptive so

as to improve future results (Zimmerman, 2008). Bandura (1991) refers to the use of incentives so as to bring about an action or the motivation for an action. Self-satisfaction has been found to be a stronger incentive for task engagement than external or material incentives. In this way, individuals acquire self-satisfaction as the incentive for behaving in a way that matches their personal standards. The reward of self-satisfaction is what moves the individual to exert the effort required to achieve that which is valued. In this light it can also be seen that the self-reactive function is what determines how much pleasure a person receives from participating in a certain task.

Deci and Ryan's (2000) *self-determination theory* focuses mainly on different types of motivation, motivational factors, and how an individual and their work ethic is affected by each. There are two main contrasting types of motivation, *extrinsic* and *intrinsic*. Deci and Ryan (2000) define intrinsic motivation as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (p. 56). They define extrinsic motivation as "a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 60).

Additionally, according to self-determination theory, one's psychological health across all cultures is advantaged by the satisfaction of three basic needs: autonomy, relatedness and competence. Motivation is believed to decrease when these needs are thwarted and increase when the needs are met (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

1.4 Problem statement

In today's education system, the value of Music as an academic school subject is a topic of debate in many parts of the world. Adolescents have been shown to value music listening to a great extent – in fact, it has been shown that adolescents value listening to music over most other indoor activities. Teenagers listen to extensive amounts of music daily (see North, Hargreaves & O'Neill, 2000), and many learners show a keen interest in learning to play a musical instrument (Lamont, Hargreaves, Marshall, & Tarrant, 2003). However, it has been demonstrated that high school learners value Music less highly than their other school subjects, especially when it comes to learning about the historical facts, theory and practical components of Music in a school context (Ghazali & McPherson, 2009; Lamont et al., 2003; McPherson, 2007; Pitts, 2005).

Possibly as a result of this low Value Perception for Music (which, to my knowledge has not been demonstrated in this country), very few learners choose to continue with Music as a school subject until the end of their high school careers. McPherson and O'Neill (2010) state that over the past decade, advocacy for Music education has increased globally, with Music educators working to convince parents and policy-makers of the high value of Music education in terms of artistic expression as well as educational development. Many studies have been conducted outside of South Africa that reveal links between Music training (often specifically instrumental training) and higher academic achievement (Cabanac, Perlovsky, Bonniot-Cabanac & Cabanac, 2013; Costa-Giomi, 2012 & 2014; Gouzouasis, Guhn & Kishor, 2007). Researchers have also explored numerous predictors of Music continuation or cessation in certain countries outside of South Africa, many of which focus on school ensemble contexts (choirs, orchestras, band programs).

However, there seems to be a gap in research determining what motivates adolescents to choose Music as a subject in high school, and how learners' attitudes and beliefs about Music compare to attitudes and beliefs about other subjects, specifically in South Africa. While research exists that compares Music with subjects such as Mathematics, reading and sports, and while studies have shown that Music is not a popular school subject (Folkestad, 2005; Kushner, 1999), there seems to be no research pertaining to Music in relation to other *elective* high school subjects. Findings related to learner attitudes and beliefs about their elective subjects are valuable in understanding the reasons behind small numbers of FET Music learners in Gauteng schools that offer Music.

1.5 Research questions

Main research question:

What motivates learners to continue or discontinue with Music as an elective when they enter the FET phase of education?

Secondary research questions:

- How do learners' beliefs about Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for Music differ from their beliefs about other elective subjects?

- To what extent do Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions (for all subjects) influence learners' Music continuation intentions for grade 10?

- How do ratings of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for all elective subjects differ according to school, grade and gender?

- Apart from Value Competence and Task Difficulty perceptions, what additional factors influence learners' motivation to study Music as compared with other elective subjects in the FET phase?

1.6 Aim of the study

The aim of the study is to explore the motivational beliefs that grade 9 and 10 learners hold about Music in comparison with their beliefs regarding other elective school subjects. Three constructs of motivation will be considered: Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty. In exploring these three constructs for all elective subjects, including Music, the study seeks to evaluate possible motivational constructs behind selecting Music as an elective subject in the FET phase, and provide possible explanations for the apparent small numbers of Music learners in grades 10-12 in Gauteng.

Furthermore, the study will also focus on other factors that may influence learners' motivation for Music, including parents and teachers, involvement in other activities, practice time, self-motivation and the presence or absence of another musician in the household of the learner.

1.7 Concept clarification

The three main motivational constructs associated with motivation in the context of Expectancy-value theory and thus assessed by McPherson and O'Neill in their international study in 2010 are Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions. According to McPherson and O'Neill (2010), these motivational constructs depend on the interaction between internal factors (including interest, self-motivation, self-esteem and goal orientation) and external factors (including home environment and societal influences from the likes of parents, teachers and peers).

Value Perceptions

Eccles and Wigfield (1995) provide a broad definition of *subjective task values*, conceptualised according to four main components: importance/attainment value; interest/intrinsic value; usefulness/utility value; and cost. The amount of value learners place on a task determines how much effort they will exert on that task, as well as future performance and feelings of self-worth (Eccles et al., 1998). It stands to reason, then, that students who do not place high value on Music as a subject are less likely to persist in it.

Competence Beliefs

Competence relates to a learner's expectations for success (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). According to Covington and Dray (2002), Competence Beliefs contribute to predicting such achievement-related outcomes as grades, which also form part of attainment value considerations, and may increase the likelihood of continuing with an activity or subject. In fact, Deci and Ryan (2000) claim that competence is one of three basic psychological needs required for optimum human motivation. Feelings of incompetence can result from a lack of achievement, as measured by course grades, and this may lead to discontinuation of an activity or subject. Many factors influence competence in a Music context, including parental and teacher feedback, prior experience and length of time learning an instrument (Sichivitsa, 2003, 2004 & 2007).

Task Difficulty Perceptions

It may seem superfluous to examine perceived Task Difficulty and competence as two separate constructs. Indeed, Eccles and Wigfield (1995) claim that the two concepts can be treated as one. However, other studies have found that the two can affect motivation in different ways (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010). A student may, for example, feel that he/she is competent at Music and capable of high achievement, but that the content is difficult. Where competence is an evaluation of one's own abilities, Task Difficulty is an evaluation of the challenges involved in an inanimate activity, as well as the effort required to perform the activity well. Austin, Renwick and McPherson (2007) claim that optimum motivation occurs when skills (i.e. competence) and challenge (i.e. task difficulty) are balanced.

1.8 Research methodology

A comprehensive research methodology is included in chapter 3. Briefly, this study followed a quantitative research methodology. A survey design in the form of a questionnaire was used.

The rationale behind this decision lay in the desired sample size: a larger sample of individuals was sought than that which a qualitative approach would have allowed, so as to increase the chances of uncovering a general trend from the results. According to Creswell (2003), the purpose of a survey design is to form a generalisation from a sample to a population in order to infer certain characteristics, attitudes or behaviours of that population.

A sample of 180 grade 9 and 10 learners from four high schools in Gauteng were invited to participate in the study. A purposive sampling strategy was used to obtain a representative sample of grade 9 and 10 learners who are currently studying Music. A standardised questionnaire was used (based on the questionnaire by McPherson and O'Neill in their 2010 study), with adjustments to fit the Gauteng context in terms of elective subject choices, and the specific aims of the present study.

The majority of the questions aimed to assess the motivational constructs of *Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs* and *Task Difficulty* that are associated with engaging in various elective subjects, namely Physical Sciences, Life Sciences/Biology, Accounting/EMS[1], Music, Art, Drama, Information Technology/Computers, Consumer Studies, Business Studies, EGD[2], Geography and History. While thirteen elective subjects were included in the questionnaire, only the responses for the six subjects which contained the highest number of learners were analysed. These subjects were thus Physical Sciences, Life Sciences/Biology, Accounting/EMS, Music, Geography and History. Music is among the list of subjects in every question, allowing comparisons to be drawn between Music and the other elective subjects. Questions related to *Values* explored learners' subjective task values with regards to the perceived importance, interest and usefulness of participating in each school subject. Questions related to *Competence Beliefs* provided an indication of the degree to which learners believe in their ability to succeed or achieve in each of their school subjects. Questions regarding *Task Difficulty* assessed learners' perceived difficulty of each elective subject. Apart from rating how difficult each subject is for the individual, participants were asked to order their subjects from easiest to hardest, providing the opportunity for comparison during analysis. The next two sections of the questionnaire related to perceived parental and teacher expectations and support, as well as participants' sense of self-concept, self-organisation and weekly activities.

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[1] Economic and Management Sciences

[2] Engineering Graphics and Design

The questionnaire ended by asking grade 9 participants whether they intend to continue with Music in grade 10, and if not, to select reasons for their choice.

Before commencing with the data collection process, a pilot study was conducted to ensure that questions were comprehensible and unambiguous to high school learners, and to evaluate the viability of electronic or printed questionnaires. After necessary adjustments were made, printed questionnaires were distributed to the four schools for data collection.

The data from the questionnaires were statistically analysed, in collaboration with the Statistics services of the University of Pretoria.

1.9 Outline of chapters

Chapter 1: Introduction
This chapter provides an overview of the study, including the background and rationale behind the research topic. Research aims and questions are stated, motivational constructs explained, and the research methodology is outlined.

Chapter 2: Literature review
Chapter 2 places the current research study in context of existing literature exploring Music and academic motivation.

Chapter 3: Methodology
This chapter divulges the research methodological approaches used in this study. It explains the research process, the research instrument and data collection strategy. Relevant ethical issues are also considered.

Chapter 4: Results
Chapter 4 presents the results of the statistically analysed data. Graphs and tables are used to enhance relevant comparisons and understanding of the findings.

Chapter 5: Discussion
This chapter interprets the findings, relating them to existing literature and providing possible explanations for significant results.

Chapter 6: Conclusion
Chapter 6 provides a final overview of the entire study, answering the secondary and main research questions, and ending with a summary.

1.10   Summary

This chapter provides an introduction and background to the research study. It provides the rationale behind the research topic and discusses the theoretical framework used for the study, before presenting the problem statement and research questions. The aims of the study are stated, and the three motivational constructs are briefly contextualised. Methodological approaches are outlined including the research design, data collection strategy, selection of participants and the research instrument. The chapter ends with an overview of the chapters. The following chapter will present an overview of literature related to the research topic.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

According to McPherson and O'Neill (2010), a learner's motivation for a school subject is "dependent on the interplay between external factors such as home environment, parental influences, society and peers, and internal personal factors such as interest, self-esteem, self-determination and personal goals for achievement" (p. 103). This chapter will provide an overview of existing literature pertaining to learner's motivation to study Music as a school subject. In addition to a brief discussion of academic motivation, this chapter will focus on prior research pertaining to the motivational role of the three constructs around which McPherson and O'Neill (2010) centred their original study: Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions. Each section explores the nature of the motivational construct in adolescents, the effects of each construct on performance and persistence, factors that contribute to the development of these perceptions and beliefs, including the effects of gender, and relevant information pertaining to each construct in an academic setting. Within this overview are references to research relating to external motivational influences as well, such as factors related to self-discipline, competition with peers, practice time and the effects of prior experiences, parents and teachers on a learner's motivation for Music.

2.2 Academic motivation

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on academic motivation, and as such, the generalisability of much published research on the issue is problematic. On a broad level, Fulmer and Frijters (2009) define motivation as a self-directed, pre-decisional impulse that draws one towards a goal. The authors further claim that "motivation influences which goals receive commitment, affecting the strength and quality of that commitment" (p. 220). Snowman and McCown (2012) add that motivation is "the willingness to expend a certain amount of effort to achieve a particular goal under a particular set of circumstances" (p. 360). Meece, Anderman and Anderman (2006) state, "In education research, motivation theories are most often used to explain students' activity choice, engagement, persistence, help seeking, and performance in school" (p. 489). Over the past forty years, various motivational theories have been presented, such as behavioural theory, and various social cognitive theories including Self-regulation, Attribution theory, Achievement Goal theory, Expectancy-value

theory, theories of self-efficacy, and more recently, Self-determination theory. For a more detailed description of Expectancy-value theory, Self-efficacy theory; Self-regulation and Self-determination theory, see the theoretical framework in chapter 1.

Expectancy-value theory: McPherson and O'Neill chose to focus on Eccles' Expectancy-value theory in their international study in 2010. According to McPherson and O'Neill (2010), Expectancy-value theory "is a major framework for studying how children choose to pursue and then persist in a chosen task" (p. 103). Its focus lies on ability-related beliefs and subjective task Values, and how these factors influence and predict performance and choice.

Self-regulation: Self-regulation refers to the degree to which a learner takes personal, cognitive and behavioural responsibility for their own learning processes (Zimmerman, 2008). Self-regulation draws on outcome expectancies, ability perceptions (including self-efficacy), self-judgment, self-control, subjective Values and goals. (See Bandura, 1991).

Self-Determination Theory: Self-Determination Theory (SDT) sheds some light on academic motivation as well as performance and choice behaviours. It was proposed in the mid-1980s by Deci and Ryan, and is based on human motivation, well-being and development. The theory concerns the influence of self-regulation, psychological needs, goal orientations, vitality, and socio-environmental effects on motivation and behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The SDT also poses that the satisfaction of three basic psychological needs, namely *autonomy, relatedness* and *competence*, benefits psychological health and functioning across all cultures. Therefore, the SDT is based on the outcomes resulting from how well these needs (as aforementioned) are met or thwarted. When the three needs are satisfied, motivation is said to increase. Conversely, when these needs are thwarted, motivation decreases.

This research study rests on the assumption that learners are motivated differently for different school subjects. Bong (2004) poses a valid argument regarding the generalisation of motivational beliefs at a school level. Using a sample of 389 high school females in Korea, she explored the extent to which "popular motivational constructs" (a few of which include self-efficacy, task Value, ability and effort attributions) could be generalised across different school subject domains. She found that some motivational beliefs are more prone to generalisation than others across various school subjects. Task Value was found to be the second-least "generalisable" motivational factor (attributional beliefs being the least). This finding was more prominent among high school learners than middle school learners. The results of Bong's 2004 study echo the results of an earlier study by the same researcher (2001) that learners do

indeed value certain subjects more than others and that task Value is subject-matter specific. A learner is rarely either motivated or unmotivated for *all* school subjects in general.

2.3 School Music and attrition

Before delving into the three main motivational constructs of this study, which will contribute to a better understanding of Music motivation in comparison to other subjects, it is valuable to review some of the existing literature relating to what is colloquially referred to as "dropout" in Music. An overwhelming amount of research has been undertaken to provide possibilities as to why learners cease Music learning activities (Boyle, DeCarbo & Jordan, 1994; Corenblum & Marshall, 1998; Costa-Giomi, 2004; Cuttieta & McAllister, 1997; Evans, McPherson & Davidson, 2012; Gamin, 2005; Kinney, 2010; Lamont et al., 2003; Pitts, Davidson & McPherson, 2000; Sichivitsa, 2003 & 2004; Stewart, 2005). Some of the most commonly-mentioned reasons for attrition rates in Music courses at a school (or university) level are diminished Value Perceptions for Music, diminished or skewed ability beliefs, parental and teacher influence, the effects of prior experience as well as attributions for these successes and failures, competing interests, timetabling problems (specifically the reluctance to miss other subjects for instrumental lessons), practice habits, the time-consuming nature of Music, lesson attendance and socialisation factors. Lamont and Maton (2010) have written an article that succinctly highlights many of these common reasons for attrition, under the appropriate subheading "The 'problems' of school Music" (p. 64).

Certain researchers have attributed the unpopularity of Music as a school subject to the fact that not all Music teachers feel confident in their musical abilities or do not have the appropriate musical training to teach Music, especially at a high school level (see Lamont & Maton, 2010). Hennessy (2000) found that student teachers of the arts (in a general, unspecialised context) are less confident in Music than in other arts subjects, due largely to the practical component of Music teaching. She also points out the effects of previous experience on the teachers' confidence levels, coupled with the widely-held belief that Music expertise is vital to the successful teaching of Music. She claims that the general perspective of Music is rather negative, referring to a "teacher as performer" mentality (Hennessy, 2000, p. 191). Participants of Hennessy's study – BA Ed students – reported that of the four arts subjects, they felt least confident teaching Music, claiming that Music requires more practical skill and "pressure" than the other arts subjects (Hennessy, 2000, p. 188). Similar results were found by Lamont et al. (2003, p. 234), who also revealed that being aware of the lack of teacher confidence for Music,

certain subject heads tend to hire musicians without specific training in education to work alongside other staff, favouring the Music specialisation over education specialisation. The reason for this is reportedly that without Music specialisation training, teachers really struggled to keep up with the curriculum, especially towards the higher grades (Lamont et al., 2003). Hargreaves, Purves, Welch and Marshall (2007) also demonstrate how the qualifications held by Music teachers influence the way in which Music is taught in schools. The researchers conducted a short-term study in England, which compared the identities and attitudes towards Music in non-Music specialist BA-Ed teachers (enrolled in a Postgraduate Certificate in Education secondary Music course) with the identities and attitudes towards Music in final-year university Music students. Unsurprisingly, they found that the education students did not value specific musical skills (such as sight-reading and performance) to the same extent as did the university Music students. Instead, the focus of the education students was on personal, inter-personal and communicative skills.

Lamont et al. (2003) showed that one of the problems with Music as a school subject is that many learners are interested in music making outside of school, but less so as part of the school curriculum. The same study revealed that music-listening is a very important aspect of high school learners' lives, stating that in year 9, learners reported listening to music for an average of 13 hours per week (also see North et al., 2000). However, very few learners choose to take Music as a high school subject (Bell, 2001; Sloboda, 2001). This may be as a result of low Value Perceptions for Music in comparison to other school subjects. McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 132) found that when comparing their school subjects, learners tended to rank Music lower in terms of Value, especially as learners get older.

2.4 Motivational constructs

McPherson and O'Neill (2010) centred their original eight-country study on three components which they believe make up a learner's motivation for school subjects. These constructs are subjective task Value, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions. The following sections will review some of the existing literature on each of these motivational constructs.

2.4.1 Subjective Value Perceptions

According to Expectancy-value theory, individuals' academic choices, engagement level and achievement outcomes are all strongly influenced by a combination of domain-specific Competence Beliefs and Value Perceptions (Eccles et al., 1998). Over the past 50 years, a variety of definitions have been offered for *subjective task Value* (Atkinson, 1964; Crandall, 1969; Rotter, 1982). A large portion of achievement motivation research focuses on the definition of task Value according to the Expectancy-value model, developed by Eccles, Wigfield and their colleagues (1983). Eccles et al. (1983) defined subjective task Value by conceptualising it according to four main components: importance/attainment Value; interest/intrinsic Value; usefulness/utility Value; and cost. The first three of these components have the power to affect the positive valence of a task, whereas the fourth component, cost, is thought to only affect the negative valence of a task. McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 103) chose to focus only on the three positive components in their eight-country study. However, the component of cost has proven to be influential in the current research.

Eccles and Wigfield (2000) refer to the definition of importance/attainment Value as provided by Eccles et al. (1983). They describe it as the "importance of doing well on a given task" (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 72). In a school context, this may refer to grades, personal standards of achievement or relative achievement compared to others. It is sometimes viewed as an extrinsic motivating force, because one tends to engage in the task "not for its own sake but to reach some desired end state" (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 73). Eccles defines interest/intrinsic Value as "the enjoyment one gains from doing the task" (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 73). She goes on to say that participation in tasks that are intrinsically valued causes positive psychological consequences, and refers to Deci and Ryan's research on self-determination theory. Deci and Ryan (2000; Evans, 2015) explain intrinsic motivation as engaging in an activity or task because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable. In this way there is an evident link between interest/intrinsic Value and intrinsic motivation. Usefulness/utility Value, according to Eccles et al. (1983, as cited in Eccles & Wigfield, 2000), "refers to how a task fits into an individual's future plans, for instance, taking a math class to fulfil a requirement for a science degree" (p. 72). The researchers link this component of task Value to extrinsic motivation, which can be described as participating in a task for a reason that is unrelated to the task itself (Evans, 2015, p. 73). The fourth component of task Value as conceptualised by Eccles et al. (1983, as cited in Eccles & Wigfield, 2000) is cost. It is defined as "how the decision to engage in one activity (e.g., doing schoolwork) limits access to other

activities (e.g., socialising with friends), assessments of how much effort will be taken to accomplish the activity, and its emotional cost" (Eccles et al., 1983, as cited in Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 72).

2.4.1.1 The nature of Value Perceptions in adolescents

It has been well-documented that as learners get older, their Value Perceptions for learning, as well as their Competence Beliefs, decline. McPherson and O'Neill (2010) demonstrated this point in six school subjects, namely Music, Art, Physical Education, Mother Tongue (which varied across the eight countries involved in the study), Mathematics and Science. The study evaluated three school levels (lower, middle and upper), and found that with each school level, Value Perceptions declined for the majority of the school subjects – Music included (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010). Similar longitudinal studies were undertaken by Wigfield, Harold, Freedman-Doan, Eccles, Yoon, Arbreton and Blumenfeld (1997), by Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles and Wigfield (2002), by Watt (2004), and by McPherson et al. (2015), all of which reiterated the findings of Eccles, Wigfield, Harold and Blumenfeld (1993) that task Values decrease throughout adolescence for a wide variety of school subjects, though there are slight domain-specific differences in the extent and rate of decline. Eccles et al. (1993) conducted a study, with a sample consisting of primary school learners – specifically 865 first-second- and fourth-grade learners' perceptions of Competence and task Value for Mathematics, reading, sports and instrumental Music. They found that even between the first and fourth grade, Value Perceptions declined for all activities except sports. This is a critical finding because it shows that even before learners reach high school, their values for learning have already started to decline. Furthermore, Simpkins, Davis-Kean and Eccles (2006) conducted a longitudinal study of 5th, 6th and 10th grade learners and their Values and expectancies regarding out-of-school activities in the domains of Mathematics and Science. The results revealed that learners' involvement in Mathematics and Science activities in 5th grade predicted their Value Perceptions and ability beliefs, which subsequently predicted their high school course selections. The predictive power of 5th grade activity involvement was more salient in high school course selection than were the predictive powers of achievement grades, parental education or socio-economic status.

2.4.1.2 Subjective task Value as predictive of intentions, effort, performance and persistence

Expectancy-value theory states that one's subjective task Values predict one's performance and choice (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000). In 1982, Feather made an important link between task Value and action, in that task Value may predict the approaching or avoiding of a certain activity based on what the participation outcome may be (as cited in Eccles, O'Neill, & Wigfield, 2005). This built on Rokeach's suggestion (1980, as cited in Eccles et al., 2005, p. 238-239) that humans engage in activities that create likeable effects and avoid activities that create disagreeable effects. Roughly a decade later, in one of the studies conducted to test the validity of Expectancy-value theory at a school level (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995), the researchers found that learners' subjective task Values were the strongest predictors of intentions to continue taking Mathematics, and were also the strongest predictors of learners' actual decisions to do so (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 77). It stands to reason, then, that learners will only choose to participate and persist in an activity (such as Music) if they hold high Value Perceptions for it.

Several studies have explored the influence of task Value on achievement and future intentions in a variety of academic domains. In 1999, Bong assessed the role of self-efficacy and task Value in predicting female college students' course performance and future enrolment intentions in South Korea. Interestingly, she found that different factors of task Value predicted course performance and future enrolment intentions differently. Task Value in Bong's study comprised of utility (including importance and usefulness, which were found to load on the same factor) and intrinsic Value (including interest). It was found that utility Value was predictive of performance, while intrinsic Value was predictive of future course enrolment intentions (Bong, 1999, p. 9). It is possible that these results would differ if a sample of males *and* females was used. A few years later, Crombie, Sinclair, Silverthron, Byrne, DuBois and Trinneer (2005) conducted a gender-comparative study exploring predictors of adolescents' grades and enrolment intentions in Mathematics. Contrary to Bong's findings, intrinsic Value did not significantly predict enrolment intentions for either gender, but utility Value did, for both genders. Grades in Mathematics were predicted by Competence Beliefs.

More recently, Guo, Nagengast, Marsh, Kelava, Gaspard, Brandt, Cambria, Flunger, Dicke, Häfner, Brisson and Trautwein (2016) demonstrated the effects of task Value on achievement and behavioural engagement in Mathematics. The researchers conducted a study involving 1868 German ninth-grade learners. Interestingly, results showed that task Value was more

predictive of behavioural engagement and self-rated effort than of achievement. Achievement in Mathematics was more strongly predicted by self-concept, though it can be argued that through increased effort, achievement may also increase. A limitation of this study was that the behavioural engagement construct relied on teacher-reported data, which may not be entirely accurate. Fries, Schmid and Hofer (2007) similarly found that Value was related to achievement in Mathematics and German in 6th and 8th grade. Metallidou and Vlachou (2010) conducted an important study exploring Value Perceptions in Mathematics, and found that the reason for the apparent association between high Value Perceptions and achievement is through the mediation of metacognitive and self-regulatory learning strategies. Learners with high Value Perceptions were evaluated as displaying more metacognitive knowledge and engagement in Mathematics than those who valued Mathematics less. If learners are more engaged in their work and if they exert more effort on their tasks in a subject, they are likely to show higher performance achievement, as was demonstrated by Metallidou and Vlachou (2010).

Task Value influences action not only in terms of task participation and achievement, but also in terms of the effort that one exerts on a task, which influences performance, and subsequently one's level of persistence in that task (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 69; McPherson, 2000/2001, p. 122). Bong (2004) makes the link between task Value and mastery-achievement goals. She states, "as students recognize the usefulness of and become genuinely interested in certain academic domains, they also may become more willing to confront challenge and try harder to learn and to improve at new tasks" (Bong, 2004, p. 295). The latter part of this statement shows the effect that task Value can have on one's sense of resilience. When a learner finds a task inherently interesting and valuable, they are more focused on and affected by mastering the required skills than on any failures experienced along the way. Future performance is likely to benefit from the increased effort and focused attention, and feelings of self-worth may subsequently be boosted (Eccles et al., 1998). The inverse is also plausible, where a learner may hold low Value Perceptions for a task, exert less effort into mastering the required skills for that task, feel demotivated by failures along the way, all of which might diminish feelings of self-worth.

The results referred to in this section thus far have all been non-music related. However, it has also been well documented that even in a music context, Value is a potential predictor of achievement and persistence. In an investigation into choir students' motivation to persist in music activities, Sichivitsa (2003) found Value to be the strongest direct predictor of musical

intentions. However, in the study being referred to, "music activities" did not necessarily refer to Music as an academic subject studied at school, but to the practical context of choir participation regardless of formal or informal settings. Stewart (2005) explored factors relating to learners' decisions to continue in a band programme and found that learners only continue band if they find it interesting and valuable. Again, these results may be limited to the practical, group-setting context of Music-making and not to Music as a school subject which incorporates theoretical content as well. Similar results were found by Boyle et al. (1994), Davidson, Sloboda and Howe (1995/1996), Corenblum and Marshall (1998), McPherson (2000/2001), Costa-Giomi (2004), Sichivitsa (2004) and Gamin (2005).

2.4.1.3 Constituents of task Value Perceptions

Now that we have explored the nature of Value Perceptions in school learners, and the effect that Value Perceptions have on performance and choice, it would be beneficial to unpack some of the factors that influence the fluctuations of Value Perceptions. A wide range of factors have been shown to influence task Value Perceptions, both in a general educational context and in Music specifically; for example, task characteristics, personal needs and standards, grades, parents' and teachers' feedback and encouragement, practising habits, socio-economic status and the perceived cost of the task.

General Value constituents at school

Eccles and Wigfield (2000) found that determinants of Value Perceptions include characteristics of the task itself; an individual's needs, goals, personal values and motivational orientation; and an individual's experience with similar tasks in the past. In other words, the Value an individual places on engaging in a specific task is dependent on whether that task meets his/her needs, will facilitate in attaining his/her goals, supports his/her personal values; and evokes positive associations with past experiences.

In a recent study across two countries (Germany and the United States), Gniewosz, Eccles and Noack (2014) explored the effects of achievement-related feedback on domain-specific self-concepts and intrinsic task Values. The domains that were assessed were Mathematics and language, and the sample consisted of learners between the ages of 10 and 14. Results were fascinating, showing that intrinsic task Value is predicted by achievement grades as well as by parents' perceptions of learners' competence.

Task Value has also been shown to be influenced by one's level of Competence. In a longitudinal study by Jacobs et al. (2002), Competence Beliefs and Value Perceptions across

three school subjects were assessed using a sample of 761 children across grades 1-12. One of the many fascinating results of this study was that task Value was shown to be influenced by the learners' level of Competence for each domain. Learners were much more likely to hold high Value Perceptions for each domain when they felt competent in that domain, indicating a strong relationship between Competence and Value Perceptions (Jacobs et al., 2002, p. 520). These results echoed those of an earlier study by Wigfield et al. (1997, p. 465) which reported that learners are more likely to value tasks at which they believe they can succeed, and that this correlation between task Value and Competence increases with age. More recently, Gniewosz et al. (2014, p. 467) similarly revealed that within-domain academic self-concepts of ability predicted intrinsic task Values in Mathematics and language.

Music Value constituents

Moving towards a music context, Sichivitsa (2007, p. 63) focused on external as well as internal contributors to the formation of Value Perceptions, finding that learners seem to value Music more when they feel that their teachers are competent and skilled. In addition, learners purportedly place higher Value on Music when they have prior musical experience, parental support in Music, parental involvement in Music, or a strong self-concept of musical ability. The latter is increased by parental support for a learner's involvement in Music (McPherson, 2008; Sichivitsa, 2003, 2004, 2007). On the contrary, parental beliefs have also been shown to affect Music Value negatively, as is demonstrated in a study by McPherson in 2006 (as cited in McPherson, 2008, p. 11). Children reported that their parents do not expect them to work as hard in Music as in other school subjects and that their parents view Music as less important than other academic subjects. It stands to reason that the beliefs of these parents may have a negative impact on their children's valuing of Music. It is important to note that learners' perceptions of their parents' beliefs are not necessarily rooted in fact.

The Value that individuals place on a task or subject may also be linked to their personalities. Butkovic, Ullén and Mosing (2015) wrote a paper on personality and individual differences as predictors of Music practice, finding that common genes may influence proneness to musical interests, enjoyment and flow, as well as Music practising behaviour. Furthermore, Evans and McPherson (2014) found that regardless of practise and self-regulation, only learners who see musicianship as a part of their personal identity will be likely to persist in their musical training. In contrast, Cutietta and McAllister (1997) explored the differences in personality between instrumentalists (including vocalists) and non-instrumentalists in grades 7-12, and found only a few minor differences, claiming that both groups are "very similar" (p. 282), and that there

is no propensity for specific personality types to continue learning an instrument in high school (p. 289).

Practising habits have been shown to influence the Value placed on Music. McPherson and McCormick (1999) found a link between practising habits and intrinsic interest in learning an instrument. Their study used 190 pianists who completed self-report questionnaires immediately prior to an external Trinity Music examination. The questionnaire assessed self-regulation, motivation and "quantity and content of music practice" (McPherson & McCormick, 1999, p. 98). Results showed higher levels of intrinsic interest for learners who claimed to practise greater amounts of creative and informal activities (such as improvisation) and technical work (McPherson & McCormick, 1999, p. 100). These results are based on pianists only and may vary if applied to other instruments or other areas of Music learning. However, the finding was echoed in a later study by Schmidt (2005) in which a similar correlation was found between practice time and intrinsic motivation.

McPherson et al. (2015, p. 157-158) refer to socioeconomic status and Value placed on Music, finding that students from more affluent socioeconomic backgrounds tend to value Music less than those from middle or lower socioeconomic levels.

One of the strongest deterrents from consistent Music Value and subsequent participation seems to be its cost – not necessarily the financial cost (though this can certainly be a deterrent), but the cost of personal time, as well as emotional and psychological costs. In accordance with Eccles' (et al., 1983) conceptualisation of cost as a concept of Value, many studies have revealed that choices related to task participation are often governed by the cost, especially in a Music context. In a mixed methods study regarding the role of psychological needs (in the context of Self-Determination Theory: competence, autonomy, relatedness) in ceasing Music and Music learning activities (Evans et al., 2012), learners were asked an open-ended question about why they decided to cease Music activities. Amidst a large range of responses, learners, as cited the cost of time involved in Music participation, claiming that the copious amounts of time required by Music study detracted from personal time and from time that would otherwise be dedicated to school work and classes (Evans et al., 2012, p. 609-610). Boyle et al. (1994) conducted a quantitative survey-design study which explored middle/junior high school band directors' views regarding reasons for student dropouts in instrumental Music, and found cost to be an influential factor, particularly in the form of competing interests (mainly sports) and the requirement of "commitment to work". However, the data gathered in that study were the

views of band directors and not of students themselves and may therefore be less reliable. In a similar quantitative study ten years later, Gamin (2005) found that "unwillingness to spend time practicing" was a leading cause of instrumental attrition (p. 43). Furthermore, she found that when learners have to miss academic lessons for instrumental lessons, they are more likely to cease Music learning, than if the learners had a set lesson time such as after school (Gamin, 2005). Again, this study was based on the beliefs of Music teachers, and not on actual learners' opinions, which may reduce its reliability. Time is undeniably a great cost of Music participation (Frakes, 1984; Hurley, 1995; Hallam, 1998), specifically in terms of practice time. Bonneville-Roussy and Bouffard (2014) make the distinction between formal/deliberate practice time and informal practice time stating that deliberate practice time is in fact "not inherently enjoyable, and requires effort and concentration on the part of the musician" (p. 688). If the musician does not value Music highly, they are less likely to be willing to expend copious amounts of time on it.

2.4.1.4 Gender and Value Perceptions

Numerous researchers have explored gender differences in motivation and specifically in Value Perceptions for a variety of school-related activities. Wigfield et al. (1997) conducted a longitudinal study on the changing nature of Value Perceptions and Competence Beliefs of elementary school learners. The subjects assessed were Mathematics, reading, instrumental Music and sports. Results revealed that males rate sports as more useful, important and interesting than do females, whereas females rate reading and instrumental Music as more useful, important and interesting than do males. Reported levels of usefulness, importance and interest for the domain of Mathematics were fairly similar in males and females (Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 458-459). McPherson and O'Neill (2010) also assessed the effects of gender in their original eight-country study. They found that females hold higher Value Perceptions than males for Music, art and mother tongue. In terms of Mathematics, results showed that both males and females hold similar perceptions of Value (as was also demonstrated by Crombie et al., 2005). This contrasts with the results of Watt's (2004) study that males hold higher Value Perceptions than females for Mathematics.

Studies assessing differences in Music Value according to gender have revealed fascinating results. Lamont et al. (2003) conducted a study around grade 9 learners and their enjoyment of class Music. Males were reported to hold higher Value Perceptions than females for class Music. On the contrary, McPherson and O'Neill (2010) found that in six of the eight countries that took part in their study, females were found to hold higher Music Value Perceptions than

males. However, the differences in mean ratings were miniscule according to McPherson and O'Neill's (2010) study. Kinney (2010) conducted a study which aimed to reveal predictors of middle school band persistence. He found that females are twice as likely to enrol in a school band program as are males, accrediting this to social stereotypes and the perception of Music participation being regarded as feminine. However, Kinney's study is limited in that it focused only on two schools in the same district, it excluded string instruments, it relied on band director feedback from only one band director for both schools, and results were not generalisable to larger populations.

2.4.1.5 Music Value and general achievement

An endless debate exists in Music education research regarding the apparent association between Music participation and academic strength or achievement (Gouzouasis et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2013; McPherson & O'Neill, 2010; Miksza, 2010). Shellenberg (2006) found that training in Music is associated with higher IQ results. Similarly, Wetter, Koerner and Schwaninger (2009) conducted a fascinating retrospective study in Switzerland, using a sample of Music learners and a control group of non-Music learners. The study compared learners' achievement grades/marks for a range of subjects (German, French, Mathematics, History/Geography, Handicraft, Music and sports), and results were gathered purely from learners' school marks for each subject. Interestingly, learners involved in Music received significantly higher marks in all subjects except sports than the control group. Moreover, the group of Music learners maintained a more stable (and a higher) average of marks in all four grades, whereas the control group's average for each grade decreased slightly. This study is useful as it presents a different culture with similar findings to those in other parts of the world. It also does not depend on learner *or* teacher responses to questions and is perhaps more reliable because of this. However, the sample comprised learners between the 3rd and 6th grade, and results may change as learners move into high school. Cabanac et al. (2013) demonstrated that secondary school learners (in Canada) who chose Music courses for their final three years of school received better grades in all subjects than did learners who did not choose Music courses. However, Lindekugel (2015) attempted to prove a similar finding regarding standardised tests of Mathematics and reading, but failed to prove that Music students outperformed non-Music students. Even when Music learners exhibit stronger academic ability, it is almost impossible to prove that Music participation is the cause and not the result of this stronger academic ability.

Several researchers have found evidence to suggest that Music learners hold higher Value Perceptions for all school subjects than do non-Music learners (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010, p. 112; McPherson et al., 2015, p. 158), and that instrumentalists in particular experience increased motivation and higher expectations for success in all school subjects than do non-Music students (McPherson et al., 2015). In addition, Miksza (2010) claims that Music learners show higher Value Perceptions for extra-musical outcomes including community ethics and school commitment. In a study which aimed to predict reasons for band drop-out in middle school learners, Kinney (2010, p. 344) found that learners who excel academically (based on achievement test scores) are more likely to persist in band. He also shows that the correlation between achievement and persistence strengthens between the sixth and eighth grade, which suggests that academic achievement as a predictor of retention becomes more significant over time. Kinney accredits these findings to the possibility that learners who are academically strong are more likely to excel in Music, whereas those who struggle academically are likely to drop out of band, possibly in order to focus on their academics (Kinney, 2010). Other studies that indicate an association between instrumental Music participation and higher academic achievement in non-Music subjects include Klinedinst (1991) and Fitzpatrick (2006).

Non-academic literature has also contributed to the debate. An article by Joanne Lipman in The New York Times (2013) adds to the apparent benefit of Music participation post-school, finding that some of the world's most successful professionals have a musical history, and that almost all of these professionals made a connection between their Music training and their achievements in their professional lives. Lipman does not believe this to be a coincidence. Instead, according to her and her interviewees, Music training enhances creative thinking, confidence, a certain "drive for perfection", team work, the ability to connect disparate ideas, discipline and persistence.

There is a growing amount of research pertaining to Music and skills related to self-regulation. Music requires as much, if not more self-regulation and motivation for long-term success as any other area of learning (McPherson & McCormick, 1999, p. 98). According to McPherson and McCormick (1999, p. 98-99), when learning an instrument, the cognitive strategies used to control and monitor the learning process have been shown to increase cognitive engagement and achievement in academic subjects such as Science and Mathematics. Furthermore, Music learners have been shown to use components of self-regulatory processes such as deliberately blocking out distractions or making a conscious effort to practise their instrument (McPherson & McCormick, 1999). McPherson and Hallam (2016, p. 441) add to this, claiming that a

prerequisite to becoming a successful musician is the development of social skills, organisational skills, and time management.

Despite an overwhelming amount of research linking Music participation with academic strengths, there is no causal evidence to determine the direction of influence. Judging by the research mentioned in this section, it is not plausible to suggest that being involved in Music is the factor that determines an individual's academic abilities. Music activities may aid the development of certain characteristics such as self-discipline and time management, which may better equip learners with the skills needed to perform effectively in other domains. However, it may also be that learners who already possess qualities related to highly-effective functioning are more likely to succeed in the domain of Music learning. Indeed, Kinney (2010) found academic achievement to be a significant predictor of the decision to enrol in a school band program. He claims that this finding supports prior research "suggesting that higher achieving students may be more attracted to band programs from the start" (Kinney, 2010, p. 344).

2.4.2   Competence Beliefs

McPherson and O'Neill (2010) believe that when making decisions about Music involvement, learners are influenced not only by their valuing of, and interest in different subjects, but also by their beliefs about their abilities. The study on which my research is based defines Competence Beliefs as "the degree to which participants believed in their own ability and capacity to achieve or succeed in each school subject" (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010, p. 107). Competence-related beliefs have received much research attention over the last half-century. The term 'Competence' has been defined by numerous researchers, many of whom agree that it refers to an individual's beliefs in his/her capacity or ability to achieve success. (McPherson et al., 2015, p. 142; Sichivitsa, 2003, p. 334 & 2004, p. 31.; Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 451) Within various definitions of Competence, certain authors have conceptualised it as:

- an expectation for future performance and success (McPherson et al., 2015, p. 142 & Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 451).

- self-efficacy or as a measurement of self-efficacy (Sichivitsa, 2003, 2004 & Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 451). On the other hand, Eccles and Wigfield (2002) believe that self-efficacy differs from Competence Beliefs in the way it is measured and in its level of specificity.

- the product of other peoples' perceptions of an individual's musical ability (Sichivitsa, 2003, p. 334 & 2004, p. 31).

- a psychological need to feel effective and successful in one's efforts as well as in the acquisition of required skills (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

2.4.2.1 The nature of Competence Beliefs in adolescents and children

A vast amount of conclusive research has been conducted regarding the changing nature of academic Competence Beliefs in children and adolescents. Jacobs et al. (2002) conducted a longitudinal study exploring the self-competence and Value Perceptions of 761 American learners from grades 1 through 12 in the domains of Mathematics, language and sports. Results were conclusive in all three domains, showing a strong decline in Competence Beliefs as learners got older (Jacobs et al., 2002, p. 516). McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 115-119) found that the general trend for Competence Beliefs in all countries and all subjects examined is a decline across the three grade levels (low, middle, high). For Music specifically, three of the countries (Brazil, Mexico, USA) showed lower Competence Beliefs in younger grades, but more stable beliefs between the middle and high grade levels. This is an interesting finding, considering previous research by Wigfield et al. (1997, p. 462) which showed that the Competence Beliefs of a child become established and relatively stable during middle childhood – thus during the transition from primary to high school. The study was conducted in America, and the researchers found that, because most American children are only exposed to Music as an academic subject late in their school years, they begin to form Competence Beliefs about Music before having gained adequate experience in the subject. It is these somewhat premature Competence Beliefs that will often (though not in all cases) remain stable for the rest of that child's life, and those Competence Beliefs are sometimes very low. However, the researchers found a distinct variation in the results across domains, demonstrating the importance of evaluating the constructs of Competence at domain-specific levels (Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 464).

Other studies demonstrating the apparent decline in Competence Beliefs as learners get older include Wigfield and Eccles (1994) and Eccles and Wigfield (2000) and Watt (2004). Regarding younger learners (865 first through fourth grade learners), Eccles et al. (1993) conducted a 4-year longitudinal study exploring the development of self- and task perceptions in Mathematics, reading, sports and instrumental Music. Results confirmed earlier findings that children as young as first grade can and do experience varied levels of Competence for different

school subjects (Eccles et al., 1993, p. 838). In addition, the researchers found that Competence levels declined as the learners got older. In other words, Competence Beliefs in younger children were higher than in older children (Eccles et al., 1993, p. 840). This was true for reading, Mathematics and instrumental Music, but no significant change in Competence was found in the sport domain. A limitation of this study is that it depended on learner self-reports, and considering how young these learners were, it is possible that the questions were not thoroughly understood or that learners were less capable of making secure judgments of themselves in an academic capacity than older learners. Nonetheless, results of a later study by Wigfield et al. (1997) corroborated these findings for grades 1 through 6, and revealed that within the domains of Mathematics, reading, Music and sport, children's Competence Beliefs decreased over time, with Music showing the strongest decreases.

More recently, similar declines in Competence Beliefs over time were observed by Spinath and Steinmayr (2008) in German schools comprising a sample of 670 grade 2 learners. These learners were assessed at four different intervals over the period of a year, and Competence Beliefs were shown to decrease over time in the domains of Mathematics, German and school in general.

2.4.2.2 Competence Beliefs as predictive of performance and persistence

Numerous studies in the past thirty years have revealed the importance of Competence Beliefs to learners' performance achievement. In their paper on Expectancy-value theory, Eccles and Wigfield (2000) report their findings from three longitudinal studies conducted to explore the development of children's and adolescents' ability beliefs, success expectancies and subjective Values. In all three studies, learners were asked to complete a questionnaire regarding their ability beliefs, expectancies for success and valuing of various activities. Results of the first and third study (which used samples from 1st grade through to after high school graduation) showed that "even when previous performance is controlled, children's beliefs about their ability and expectancies for success are the strongest predictors of subsequent grades in Mathematics, predicting those outcomes more strongly than either previous grades or achievement Values" (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 77). Furthermore, it was demonstrated that Year 1 ability beliefs "directly and positively" predicted success expectations in and importance of Mathematics in Year 2 (Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 78). Subsequently, these expectancies for success predicted actual Mathematics performance to a greater extent than did Value of Mathematics. Eccles and Wigfield (2000) also refer to the results of two studies in 1997 and 1998 (by Wigfield & Wigfield and Eccles & Roeser, respectively) which show that

learners' performance grades – having been predicted by expectancies for success – successively predict their ability beliefs in the same year. This indicates a cyclic relationship between ability beliefs and performance either directly, or through the mediation of expectancies for success. It also points to a direct influence of performance on ability beliefs. Figure 2 below summarises these findings:
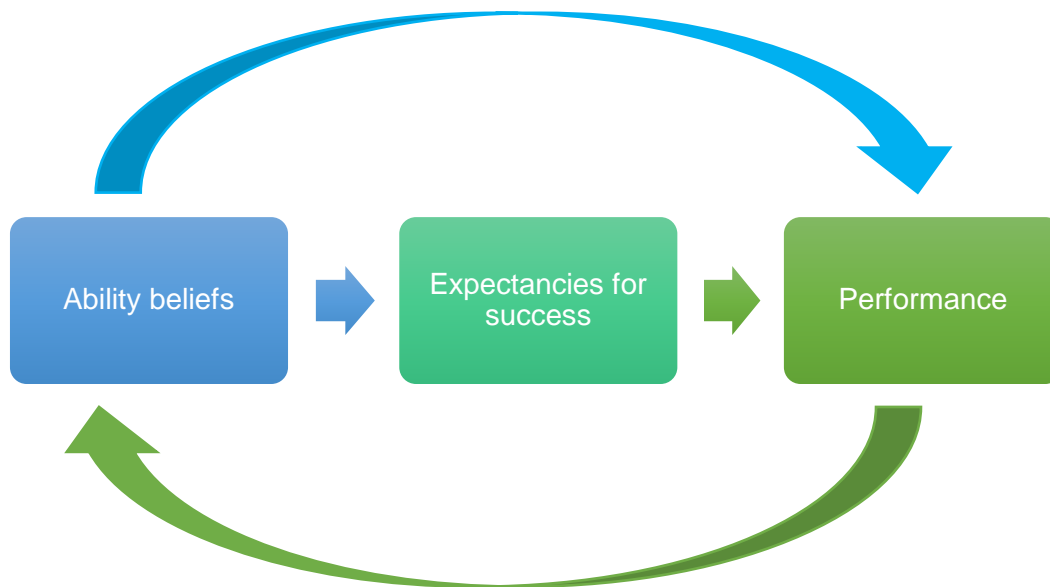
Figure 2. Cyclic relationship between ability beliefs and performance (adapted from Eccles & Wigfield, 2000)

Similar links were later found in a study by Schmidt (2005). Schmidt used a sample of 300 learners between grades 7 and 12, all of which were enrolled in school band programs in New York and Massachusetts. Learners completed surveys which assessed band commitment, self-concept in instrumental Music, and various motivation variables (Schmidt, 2005, p. 138). In addition, the teachers of the learners were asked to evaluate their students based on performance achievement and effort. Results showed that performance ratings of students by their teachers (which arguably comprise performance grades) were best predicted by student-reported self-concepts in instrumental Music (Schmidt, 2005, p. 145). This corroborates Eccles and Wigfield's (2000) proposed link between performance achievement and ability beliefs. In a more recent study exploring middle school band members' attributions for musical success and failure, Martin (2012) found musical ability beliefs to be the most common attribution.

Not only have correlations been found between ability beliefs and performance achievement, but also between ability beliefs and persistence in a given task, such as Music. Faulkner,

Davidson and McPherson (2010) conducted a longitudinal multi-method research study which investigated the process of learning a musical instrument (specifically brass or woodwind) and subsequent musical development within a school band programme. 157 Australian primary school children formed the sample, and various research instruments were used such as interviews, surveys, and video footage. One of the requirements of the participants was that they rate their own musical abilities on a scale of A-E (A being the most positive). Results showed that even within a few months of learning an instrument A-ratings strongly predict long-term musical engagement, and that the predictive power is even stronger when coupled with a high musical achievement test score (using the Watkins Farnum Performance Scale). According to the authors, almost all learners with a self-rating of A and a WFPS score of 27 or more continued to play an instrument into young adulthood, 10 years later (Faulkner et al., 2010, p. 223). In the conclusion of their article, the authors interestingly highlight the fact that learners' views of their ability at the onset of learning an instrument "may have little to do with their actual competency" (Faulkner et al., 2010, p. 225). Bandura's theory of self-efficacy is referred to at this stage, the authors claiming that it is one's perceived as opposed to actual Competence that accounts for an individual's musical development (Faulkner et al., 2010). This point has frequently been demonstrated, such as in studies by Bornholt and Goodnow (1999, p. 428) and Sichivitsa, (2004, p. 37). While the results of Faulkner, Davidson and McPherson's study are fascinating, they may vary for instruments outside the wind family, and for learning programmes outside of school band.

Using the same respondent pool as Faulkner et al.'s 2010 study (the larger project being known as "Music in our Lives"), a different study was undertaken by Evans et al. in 2012, which investigated the role of psychological needs in ceasing Music activities. Results corroborated the 2010 study, finding that learners ceased Music participation when they experienced a low sense of Competence. Many participants assigned a fixed, trait-like nature to their musical abilities, especially when comparing their own abilities to others (Evans et al., 2012, p. 9).

A much earlier study by Klinedinst (1991) explored factors that predicted performance achievement of 205 American 5th grade instrumental students in their first year of instruction, and found that self-concept (along with socio-economic status, reading achievement, scholastic ability and Mathematics achievement) was a strong predictor of musical retention (Klinedinst, 1991, p. 233). Similar results were found by Frakes (1984).

In opposition to these results, Costa-Giomi (2004) researched early predictors of piano student dropout behaviour, and found no significant difference in musical abilities (amongst other factors) between learners who dropped out of piano lessons and those who continued for three years. This study was conducted in Canada and used a smaller sample of pianists only, which may account for some of the differences in the results compared to the other studies mentioned above. Similar results were reported by Stewart (2005) who found no significant correlation between learners' self-perceptions of musical abilities and their decisions to continue or cease Music participation in a school band context (Stewart, 2005, p. 68).

Literature has already been discussed regarding the direct influence of ability beliefs on performance achievement, as well as the direct influence of ability beliefs on persistence in a task. In addition to these findings, research has also indicated a link between performance achievement and persistence, suggesting a mediatory role of performance achievement from ability beliefs to persistence (See Figure 3). This has frequently been demonstrated in a musical context. Gamin (2005) investigated instrument and band/orchestra teachers' perceptions of attrition in beginner instrumental Music students and found that one of the leading causes of attrition was poor academic performance. Likewise, Klinedinst (1991) found that within the first year of instrumental instruction, musical "performance achievement is best predicted by scholastic ability and academic achievement tests" (p. 236). Furthermore, Costa-Giomi (2004) reports that one of the leading predictors of drop-out in piano students is diminished achievement. Moreover, Kinney (2010) demonstrated that "higher academically achieving students" are more likely to persist in a school band program (p. 334). However, the results of a quantitative study by Stewart (2005, p. 68) using 114 eighth-grade learners enrolled in school band programs in the USA, showed no significant correlations between Music retention, performance and academic achievement.
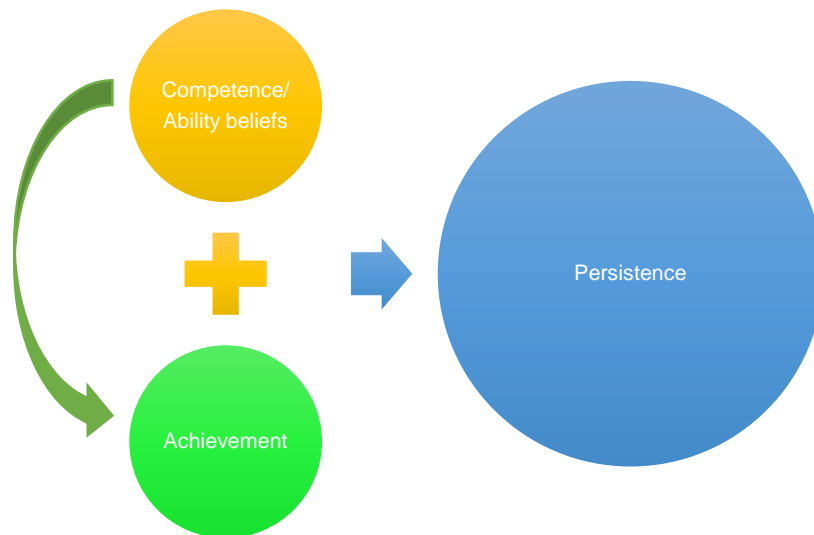
Figure 3. Relationship between Competence, achievement and persistence in a task

2.4.2.3 Constituents of Competence Beliefs

Previous studies have reported evidence of various influences on an individual's perception of Competence (eg. Allen & Howe, 1998; Costa-Giomi, 2004; Eccles & Wigfield, 2000; Ladd & Price, 1986; Martin, 2012; Meece et al., 2006; Wigfied et al., 1997). A large majority of the existing research on this matter refers to young children and adolescents, the reason being that it is during childhood that Competence Beliefs are formed and stabilised (Sichvitsa 2004, p. 36; Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 462).

   a. Performance achievement and previous experiences

Competence Beliefs and performance achievement are interrelated in that they are constantly influencing one another in a cyclic fashion. According to Eccles' (1983) Expectancy-value model (reported in Wigfield, 1994, p. 50), a young person's perception and interpretation of their previous performance influences their task-specific beliefs, including their Competence Beliefs for that task. Similarly, in his theory of Self-Efficacy, Bandura (1991) refers to various factors that contribute to an individual's sense of self-efficacy, one of which is past experiences. He claims that one's ongoing progress is constantly being compared to previous experiences, and that an individual will always strive to surpass their previous achievement (Bandura, 1991, p. 255), though this is debateable, as Martin (2012) demonstrated. He explored the musical self-efficacy beliefs of 45 school band learners, and focused specifically on Bandura's four primary sources of influence on perceived self-efficacy, one of which is mastery and failure experiences. He found that previous experiences tend to affect students

with low musical self-efficacy more than they affect students with high self-efficacy. Results of interviews with participants regarding contributors towards overall musical self-efficacy indicated that learners with low musical self-efficacy cited mastery and failure experiences 69 times, whereas learners with high musical self-efficacy cited mastery and failure experiences only 41 times. According to conclusions drawn by the author, these results show that learners with lower levels of self-efficacy tend to dwell on past experiences more than learners with high levels of self-efficacy. This is further supported by the fact that learners with low musical self-efficacy tended to describe past experiences in more detail than their high musical self-efficacy counterparts (Martin, 2012, p. 57).

When one holds positive interpretations of their previous performance, their Competence Beliefs are also likely to be positive. Conversely, negative interpretations of previous performance may result in negative Competence Beliefs. Eccles' Expectancy-value model then proposes that these high or low Competence Beliefs influence the individual's Value Perceptions of the task, which in turn influence the individual's "achievement behaviour". According to Wigfield (1994, p. 49), achievement behaviour includes persistence, choice and performance. McPherson (2000/2001, p. 122) translates these "achievement behaviours" to include effort. Citing Eccles et al. (1998), McPherson states that the more competent one feels in a task or subject, the more likely he/she is to exert more effort in that task and subsequently achieve success. In fact, Gniewosz et al. (2014, p. 468) found that adolescents (and their parents) incorporate information from their grades into their Competence Beliefs. Thus, higher grades will result in increased Competence, which will result in higher effort, creating a constant cycle, as depicted in Figure 4 below.
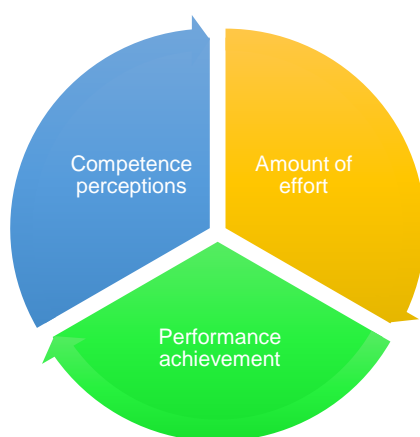
Figure 4. Cyclic relationship between Competence perceptions, amount of effort and performance achievement

As a result of experiencing success or high achievement regularly, an individual's feelings of Competence are increased. Conversely, when one's achievement is low, he/she is more likely to feel less competent and less motivated to exert effort on the task or subject. This is clearly illustrated in a study by Evans et al. (2012, p. 9) which revealed that reasons cited for the cessation of Music learning are often related to diminished feelings of Competence. Similar results were found in Costa-Giomi's (2004) study of "dropout" in 67 4th grade piano students in Canada. One of the leading causes of piano dropout was diminished achievement. Costa-Giomi (2004) mentions that learners who dropped out of piano lessons "missed more lessons, practised less, and completed less piano homework than did children who continued lessons for three years" (p. 61). He goes on to say that the piano examination scores of these learners tended to be lower than those of learners who persisted with lessons (Costa-Giomi, 2004). This clearly demonstrates the lack of effort which leads to diminished achievement. It is arguable then that learners who feel incompetent in a task or subject are less likely to exert effort in that subject, hence the lowered levels of achievement.

b. *Amount of time involved in Music*

Not only do specific outcomes of specific experiences influence Competence Beliefs, but the overall length of time that an individual is involved in Music also plays a role. Prior musical experience has been shown to influence one's sense of Competence in Music, in that learners with more musical experience generally possess higher Competence Beliefs in their musical abilities (Eccles et al., 1983; Sichivitsa, 2002, p. 8; Wigfield et al., 1997). Hallam (1998, p. 129) found that prior experience in the form of length of time spent learning an instrument is more strongly related to achievement than is the age of a learner. However, in a later study by Sichivitsa (2004, p. 36) no significance of prior experience on self-concepts of musical ability was found.

c. *Comparison*

According to Bandura (1991) there are three types of comparisons against which individuals measure their adequacy: "the attained performance level, one's personal standards, and the performance of others" (p. 254) The component of past experiences (mentioned above in connection with Bandura's self-efficacy theory) can also be viewed in the light of self-comparison. Bandura describes the phenomenon of comparison as a measurement of Competence or "self-appraisal" in the following words:

Behavior is easy to regulate when it produces independent objective indicants of adequacy. There is little ambiguity about whether one can swim, fly an aircraft, or balance a check-book. However, for most activities there are no absolute measures of adequacy. People must, therefore, evaluate their performances in relation to the attainments of others. For example, a student who receives a score of 115 points on an examination, and whose aspiration is to be in the upper 10% of a certain group, would have no basis for meaningful self-appraisal without knowing how others have performed. (Bandura, 1991, p. 254).

Bandura goes on to say that comparisons made against others can take two forms. One either compares his/her own performance to that of a representative group to establish his/her relative Competence, or one compares oneself to specific individuals in similar circumstances to oneself (Bandura, 1991). McPherson and O'Neill (2010) focused more on the former type of comparison than on the latter within their original eight-country study, asking learners to rate their own Competence (in various school subjects) in relation to that of the rest of their class. The second type of social comparison proposed by Bandura is demonstrated in a study by Evans et al. (2012). This was a longitudinal study of learners enrolled in school band programs which sought to determine the role of psychological needs in ceasing Music activities. Results showed that many learners ceased instrumental tuition when they realised that, in comparison to certain friends or family members, they were not "as musical" and they felt ashamed of their musical competencies (Evans et al., 2012, p. 608). These findings are in alignment with those of Hallam (1998, p. 129) that learners who experience relative failure compared to others tend to lose motivation and interest. Meece et al. (2006) echo these results, showing that school environments which emphasise competition (especially competition based on grades) cause many learners to lose motivation. Of course, all three of the aforementioned study results are what they are because these students see musical ability as a fixed, internal trait. Other learners in the study by Evans et al. (2012) found that their musical skills outweighed those of their fellow band members and felt unchallenged, leading to drop-out. The results of this study may be somewhat limited, because the sample consisted of school band members (mostly wind players) only.

Criss (2011, p. 64) refers to human nature in Equity theory, which "is based on the idea that people are motivated by social comparison and that they will act to eliminate any perceived unfairness". This may explain why certain learners who feel comparatively incompetent in

Music would either (depending on the learner's motivational orientation) discontinue with Music activities or strive to match the outcomes of others.

The opinion that ability is a fixed "gift" is one that is held very firmly in the context of musical ability. McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 133) state that it is a general public view that musical ability is "more innate than environmentally determined". The authors cite a study by Davis (1994) which reports that 75% of professionals in an educational context are of the opinion that "playing instruments, singing and composing were the result of a special innate gift or natural talent" (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010, p. 133). This goes hand-in-hand with the theory that many Music teachers do not feel confident teaching Music, as they feel that their expertise is lacking (see Hennessy 2000; Lamont et al., 2003; North et al., 2000). McPherson and O'Neill (2010) believe that the common belief that musicality is a fixed trait shows a strong misunderstanding of musical potential. They claim that over the past 20 years, research in Music and psychology has emphasised the role of environmental factors in the development of musical talent. A large amount of research exists that is contrary to the belief that musicality is innate (see Evans et al., 2012, p. 608; McPherson, 2008, p. 6; Pitts et al., 2000, p. 53). In an article about musical potential, McPherson and Hallam (2016) refer to an adaptation of Gagne's (2009, 2013) differentiated model of giftedness and talent. The model was adapted to a musical context so as to explore the development of musical skills. According to this model, "giftedness" is differentiated from "talent" in that the former is natural and innate, while the latter involves skills which can be cultivated through musical training. The talents which can be developed include performing, improvising, composing, arranging, analysing, appraising, conducting and (interestingly) Music teaching (McPherson & Hallam, 2016, p. 438).

While comparisons and competitive attitudes have frequently been shown to influence one's sense of Competence, fewer studies have assessed whether or not a learner's desire to pursue competition with others actually influences achievement. Schmidt (2005, p. 144) is one of the few authors who explored this area and found that together with ego and avoid-failure orientations, competition is in fact not correlated with achievement variables. However, an indirect link between the two is plausible. As was previously discussed, there is a relationship between Competence Beliefs and achievement (Costa-Giomi, 2004; Eccles, 1983; Evans et al., 2012; McPherson, 2000/2001; Wigfield, 1994), and as we can see from the research referred to in this section, competition does affect one's Competence (in either direction). Therefore it stands to reason that through the mediation of Competence Beliefs, competition indirectly affects achievement levels (see Figure 5).
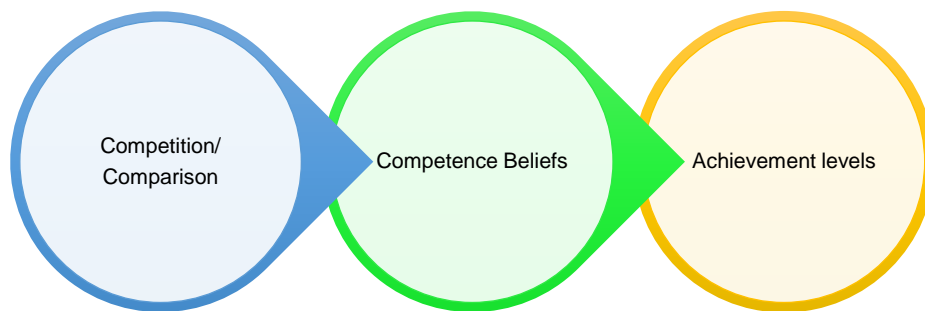
Figure 5. Influence of comparison on Competence and achievement

d. Parents and teachers

The abundance of literary evidence showing the influence of parents and teachers on learners' Competence Beliefs is astounding (Bandura et al., 1996; Davidson, Moore, Sloboda & Howe, 1998; Pitts et al., 2000; Davidson et al., 1995/1996; Ladd & Price, 1986; McPherson, 2008; Pitts, 2009; Ricard & Pelletier, 2016; Sichivitsa, 2004; Zdinski, 1996). In an early model of motivated task choice and performance, Eccles and her colleagues (1983, as cited in Wigfield et al., 1997) found that a learners' Competence Beliefs are shaped by previous performance experiences as well as by feedback from "socialisers such as parents and teachers" (p. 451). In 1986, Ladd and Price found a link between parents' ratings of Task Difficulty and their children's actual and perceived Competence. This result was more prominent in younger children (4th grade) and declined with age (Ladd & Price, 1986, p. 454). When a learner showed high levels of actual and perceived Competence, their parents tended to report lower levels of perceived difficulty when evaluating their children's activities. These results differed according to various activity domains and gender of the child.

A study by Wigfield et al. (1997) revealed a strong correlation between learners' Competence Beliefs and Competence evaluations by parents and teachers, and moreover, the researchers found that this correlation becomes stronger as the learners get older. To account for this, the authors claim that as learners get older, they begin to assimilate the performance-based feedback which they are accustomed to receiving from parents and teachers into their own thoughts and Competence evaluations.

Sichivitsa (2004, p. 36) disagrees, finding that while parental influences are still significant to the Competence Beliefs of older students, adolescents' own opinions and experiences of events become more important than parent-evaluations as they get older. In her study, Sichivitsa (2004) explored persistence in Music participation, for which she modified a choir participation survey from an earlier study to make it applicable to both choral and instrumental Music students. Results showed that when parents are involved in Music themselves (i.e. parents who play an instrument or sing in a choir) and are supportive of their child's Music studies, that child will develop a better self-concept of their musical ability and a stronger sense of self-efficacy in Music (Sichivitsa, 2004, p. 27,35).

More recently, Martin (2012, p. 56) found that when parents are supportive of Music participation, their children tend to possess higher levels of musical self-efficacy. Similarly, McPherson (2008, p. 6) found that a child's perception of Competence is foreshadowed by the attitudes of his/her mother, provided that the mother holds a fixed view of Competence. This was not found to be the case for mothers who hold malleable views of Competence.

Certain studies have found stronger influences on children's Competence Beliefs from parents than from teachers. Wigfield et al. (1997, p. 461) found that particularly in younger children, the Competence Beliefs that mothers hold about their children show a stronger correlation to their children's own Competence than do the Competence Beliefs that teachers hold about these children. Similarly, it has been shown in adolescents that parent expectations better predict adolescent's Competence Beliefs than do school grades/marks (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992, as cited in Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 466). The fact that individuals are more heavily influenced by their parents during their early childhood demonstrates an often-permanent effect on that child because it is during this time that their Competence Beliefs are becoming stabilised (Sichivitsa 2004, p. 36; Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 462).

Various studies have been conducted to explore the effect of general feedback on Competence Beliefs. In 1998, 143 hockey players participated in a study exploring player ability, coach feedback and perceptions of Competence (Allen & Howe, 1998). Results revealed a positive link between coach feedback and athlete-perceived Competence. When athletes received frequent praise and less-frequent "corrective information", they perceived themselves as more competent. The latter part of this finding is in alignment with Martin's (2012) research study, in which learners with poor musical Competence Beliefs frequently cited negative feedback – specifically "discouraging comments" – in their interviews (p. 58). This was not found to be

the case for learners with positive Competence Beliefs. Dunn (1997, as cited in Sichivitsa, 2002, p. 4) drew a comparison between a feedback group and a non-feedback group of Music learners. The feedback group possessed a better attitude towards Music and performed at a higher level at the end of the study, although the context of the study was a school band program and the results may vary when applied to Music as an academic school subject. In contrast, Duke and Henninger (1998) found no significant influence between positive and negative feedback among middle school and college students.

2.4.2.4 Gender and Competence Beliefs

Within the various studies having been conducted on academic self-competence within a school context, significant gender differences have been found. A longitudinal study conducted in 1997 by Wigfield et al. showed that males and females report different Competence Beliefs for different school subjects. Males expressed more positive Competence Beliefs for Mathematics and sports, whereas females expressed more positive Competence Beliefs for reading and instrumental Music (Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 456; Wigfield & Eccles, 1994, p. 126-128). The results of McPherson and O'Neill's (2010) study corroborate this finding, showing that females hold higher Competence Beliefs for Music than do males. Similar findings were reflected in a later longitudinal study by Jacobs et al. (2002) which explored Value and Competence perceptions in 761 learners in grades 1-12. The study showed that males and females held different Competence Beliefs for different school subjects. In grade 6, males rated their Competence higher in Mathematics and sports, whereas females rated higher Competence on language arts (Jacobs et al., 2002, p. 517). Interestingly, male Competence Beliefs declined at a faster rate than females for Mathematics, resulting in similar Competence Beliefs across gender for Mathematics by the time they reached high school. Language arts showed similar findings in terms of the rate of decline in Competence Beliefs, but females showed higher Competence Beliefs than males throughout middle- and high school (Jacobs et al., 2002, p. 518). These findings are in agreement with those reported by Meece, Glienke and Burg (2006) that males hold higher Competence Beliefs for Mathematics and Science, while females hold higher Competence Beliefs for language arts and writing (also see Watt, 2004). Costa-Giomi's study (2004) explored early predictors of dropout in piano learners who were provided with three years of free piano lessons. Although the author claims in the abstract that there were no differences in demographic factors (including sex of the learners), she states later in the article that more males dropped out of piano lessons than did females (Costa-Giomi, 2004, p. 62).

This could be explained by the fact that males do not seem to hold equal perceptions of Competence (or Value) for instrumental Music as females.

One of the few studies regarding gender Competence Beliefs in relation to intention or enrolment decisions was that of Crombie et al. (2005). Results showed a direct path from Competence to enrolment for females, and from achievement levels to enrolment for males. These results are based on grade 9 learners, but the domain is Mathematics and may differ for other school subjects.

2.4.2.5 Competence, self-concept and self-efficacy

Many researchers in academic motivation refer to academic self-concept and self-efficacy almost synonymously. Bong and Skaalvik (2003) wrote a paper on the differentiation between these two concepts. The authors propose that the development of self-concept is in fact based on self-efficacy. Within the literature being reviewed in Bong and Skaalvik's paper is the finding that perceived Competence is central to the definitions of both self-concept and self-efficacy. Some of the main differences found between the two concepts, as reported by Bong and Skaalvik (2003) are:

- Self-concept is more subject- or domain- specific, while self-efficacy is task-specific

- Self-concept is past-oriented (based on previous experiences) whereas self-efficacy is future-oriented (based on what one feels potentially capable of)

- Self-concept comprises affective as well as cognitive evaluations of oneself; self-efficacy comprises only cognitive evaluations of oneself

- Self-concept is more normative-based, with comparisons made between oneself and others. Self-efficacy is more goal-referenced and claims to make judgments based on "concrete performance standards" (p. 9)

- Self-concept is more stable, while self-efficacy is malleable depending on the task

In agreement with the authors cited above, it would appear that self-competence is acceptably inclusive of self-concept as well as self-efficacy evaluations of oneself.

2.4.2.6 Competence and school subjects

Competence Beliefs are most commonly evaluated at domain-specific levels, meaning that relevant studies generally assess these beliefs for various activities, including school subjects. In their original eight-country study, McPherson and O'Neill (2010) found that the combined country analysis revealed the highest Competence ratings for Physical Education, then Mother Tongue, Music, Mathematics and Art respectively. In his study, Wigfield et al. (1997) revealed that the strongest Competence Beliefs were held for reading and sports, followed by Mathematics and then Music, respectively (which contradicts McPherson and O'Neill's findings). Competence Beliefs for Music were consistently lower than those of the other three domains evaluated (Wigfield et al., 1997, p. 456). In addition to finding that Competence decreased over time in all subjects, Wigfield et al. also showed that the strongest decline in Competence Beliefs was for instrumental Music. Results were similar in an earlier study by Eccles et al. (1993). Interestingly, McPherson and O'Neill (2010) compared Competence Beliefs of Music learners with those of non-Music learners, and found that Music learners reported higher levels of Competence in all five school subjects assessed, compared to non-Music learners.

2.4.3 Task Difficulty Perceptions

It may seem superfluous to treat perceived Task Difficulty and Competence Beliefs as two separate constructs. However, many researchers have distinguished between the two constructs and evaluated them separately in adolescents. Eccles and Wigfield (1995) assessed the same three constructs as the present study – Value Perceptions, ability perceptions/Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions – in Mathematics. In their study, they claim that Competence Beliefs entail "ability perceptions, performance perceptions and expectations for success" whereas Task Difficulty Perceptions include "amount of effort required to do well and actual amount of effort exerted" (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995, p. 218). On the other hand, an earlier study by Eccles et al. (1993, p. 833) treated Task Difficulty as a concept within a set of beliefs defined as "Competence Beliefs", suggesting that the two constructs can be regarded as one. However, the researchers do acknowledge the broadness of the classification. McPherson et al. (2010, p. 103) point out that other researchers have found that Competence and Task Difficulty should be treated as different concepts because they can influence motivational outcomes rather differently. The example provided is that a student may feel that he/she is competent at Music and capable of high achievement, while acknowledging that the content is difficult. A plausible differentiation between Competence and Task Difficulty is perhaps the

following: Competence is an evaluation made *by* an individual *of* an individual – it can be argued to be a quality that contributes to defining an individual's character. Task Difficulty is an evaluation of an inanimate task. However, this evaluation will almost always be the result of an individual's Competence Beliefs. Thus, it can be argued that Competence influences Task Difficulty, in that one's ability beliefs shape what one perceives to be difficult.

2.4.3.1 The nature of Task Difficulty in adolescents

In a study on motivation for Music in Australian schools, McPherson et al. (2015, p. 157) found that the perceived difficulty level of all school subjects, including Music, increased as the school grades increased, though this is not surprising. Similarly, McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 114) found that in seven of the eight countries examined in their international study regarding motivation for Music, Task Difficulty increased steadily for all school subjects across the three school levels. Watt (2004) examined Values and task perceptions of 1323 Australian adolescents (grades 7-11) for English and Mathematics within a longitudinal design. She too found that difficulty perceptions for school subjects increase as learners get older.

There is much to be said about Task Difficulty in the context of attribution theory and the general attributional trends exhibited by adolescents in a school context. In a very early study, Aponik and Dembo (1983) compared the cause attributions (for success and failure) of two groups of adolescents: one group had certain learning disorders and the other group did not. Causal attributions of success and failure were explored at various Task Difficulty levels, and results showed that when adolescents (in the non-learning disorder group) fail at easy tasks, they generally attribute that failure to lack of effort; whereas when these learners fail at difficult tasks, they attribute that failure to Task Difficulty and low ability. In this way we can see that the level of Task Difficulty experienced influences attribution for success or failure.

In their book, editors Snowman and McCown (2012, p. 365, 367) compare the reported attributions of "successful students" (also referred to by the authors as learners with high self-efficacy) and "unsuccessful students" (also referred to as learners with low self-efficacy) and state that learners with low self-efficacy attribute their success to luck and low Task Difficulty, and their failure to a lack of ability. This is because Task Difficulty, luck and ability beliefs are often considered external attributions, over which an individual has little control (Snowman & McCown, 2012). On the other hand, learners with high self-efficacy accredit their success to effort and ability, and their failure to lack of effort. Ability and effort are considered internal attributions that can be regulated.

Frieze and Weiner (1971, as cited in Aponik & Dembo, 1983, p. 32) highlight a fascinating feature of attribution theory in a comparative context. They found that if a learner succeeds or fails in accordance with others (e.g. if "everyone" failed), then the learner will generally attribute the outcome to the external attribute of Task Difficulty – it was either a difficult task or an easy task. On the other hand, if the learner succeeds or fails in isolation to others (e.g. "I failed and everyone else succeeded" or vice versa), the learner is likely to take personal responsibility for the outcome, attributing ability or effort.

2.4.3.2 Task Difficulty as predictive of task participation

In a recent study, Nugteren, Jarodzka, Kester and Van Merriënboer (2018) devised a model for the process of self-regulated learning-task selection, and tested its reliability on 15 Dutch learners in secondary school (aged between 13 and 14 years). In short, the model was based on the idea that when independently selecting learning tasks, learners are influenced by content (personal interest in the task itself), difficulty of the task and support in the task. One of the most pertinent findings was that learners do not in fact consider Task Difficulty to a large extent when choosing learning tasks, but that they are mostly influenced by the task contents (personal interest and enjoyment; essentially Value Perceptions for the task). However, the learning tasks explored in the study were all tasks within the field of genetics, and results are not necessarily generalisable to a larger field of tasks including the broader concept of school subject selection. It also used a small sample in a very controlled environment which is not necessarily relatable to every-day life.

The previous sub-section showed that Task Difficulty influences attributions in adolescence (see Aponik & Dembo, 1983). If Task Difficulty influences attributions, it is important to explore what influences attributions. Asmus and Harrison (1990) researched Music students' attribution for successful and unsuccessful performances and how these attributions affect future expectancies. Results showed that positive performances were accounted for through ability and effort and led to the anticipation of continued success. Negative performances were accounted for through Task Difficulty and luck or circumstances (external, non-controllable factors), and decreased the expectation for future success. This seems to suggest that attributions have the power to predict future task participation intentions. However, in a later study by Corenblum and Marshall (1998, p. 136), it was found that these attributions are in fact not linked to one's intentions of continuation or cessation of Music activities.

There is a clear correlation between perceptions of Task Difficulty and persistence in a task. McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 103) claim that when a learner finds a particular field of study difficult, there are two possible effects that can be had on his/her choice of task participation. If the learner enjoys a sense of challenge and success over those challenges, he/she will likely continue engaging in the task and will generally achieve high levels of performance in that field of study, even though (and often as a result of the fact that) it is difficult. However, if the Task Difficulty is too high, the learner may experience lower achievement, less motivation and even abandon the field of study altogether (González-Moreno, 2010, p. 196). It stands to reason that low Task Difficulty Perceptions can also influence persistence in a task depending on the learner's motivational orientation: the learner will either enjoy the success attained from "easy" tasks and continue with that task, or will feel intellectually unstimulated by the task and decide to discontinue with it.

Atkinson's "need for achievement" theory elaborates on this. The theory was proposed in 1964 and is now thought to be an early version of Expectancy-value theory. It attempts to explain differences in learners' achievement behaviours and task participation choices in the following way: learners with a high need for achievement tend to participate in tasks that are moderately difficult. This is because their expectation for success outweighs their fear of failure, resulting in pride at having accomplished a challenging task. On the other hand, those with a low need for achievement typically choose tasks that are either very easy or very difficult. This is because they have a stronger fear of failure than expectation for success, and they attempt to avoid tasks that will cause them to fail. Easy tasks ensure a higher probability of success, and very difficult tasks ensure minimal shame in having not achieved success. (Snowman & McCown, 2012, p. 366.)

Perceptions of Competence and Task Difficulty go hand in hand. Austin et al. (2007, p. 217) claim that optimum motivation for task participation occurs when skills (i.e. Competence) and challenge (i.e. Task Difficulty) are balanced. This is because if a learner feels that the challenge of a task outweighs their skills and abilities, motivation may decrease as a consequence of anxiety. On the other hand, if skills or abilities outweigh the learner's sense of challenge, motivation may also decrease as the learner is not being intellectually stimulated, potentially leading to boredom (Austin et al., 2007). This point is further demonstrated by Evans et al. (2012, p. 608), who make reference to learners in their study who discontinued instrumental tuition because they did not feel a sense of intellectual challenge after transitioning to high school. Instead they felt bored because their abilities exceeded the difficulty level that the

course presented. An interesting study by Eisenberger and Leonard (1980) revealed that success in more challenging tasks results in higher levels of persistence than success in easier tasks. They also found (in accordance with Roth and Kubal, 1975, as cited in Eisenberger & Leonard, 1980, p. 287) that "initial failure serves to cue increased effort in new tasks and that continued failure produces decreased effort". Task Difficulty may therefore affect students' decisions to continue or discontinue Music study, whether that perceived difficulty level is too high or too low.

2.4.3.3 Constituents of Task Difficulty

A learner's Competence level is one of the strongest contributing factors to their perceptions of difficulty within a task. Competence and Task Difficulty Perceptions go together with Attribution theory, mentioned previously. Learners who cite Task Difficulty as an attribution for failure evidently subscribe to what Dweck and Master (2009) refer to as *entity theory*. The authors elaborate on the nature of Task Difficulty and one's perceptions of their abilities, claiming that according to their beliefs about cognitive ability, learners can be placed into one of three categories (also see Eccles et al., 1993, p. 833). *Entity theorists* believe that intelligence is a fixed trait that cannot be changed regardless of effort or circumstances. *Incremental theorists* believe that intelligence "can be improved gradually…as they refine their thinking skills and acquire new ones". *Mixed theorists* believe that intelligence is incremental for certain subjects, but is a fixed entity for other subjects (Snowman & McCown, 2012, p. 368-369). Bearing in mind these three types of ability beliefs, it is clear that Task Difficulty Perceptions may hold more motivational weight for some learners than for others. For example, if a learner who subscribes to the entity theory believes that Mathematics is a difficult subject, he/she may not believe that they have any control over their grades in Mathematics, because regardless of how much effort is exerted, they believe that they simply do not possess the ability to succeed. Thus, Task Difficulty becomes one of the sole deterrents from academic achievement for this learner. Another learner may also believe that Mathematics is difficult, but this student subscribes to the incremental theory of ability. As such, he/she will exert more effort believing that it can result in eventual success. For this learner, Task Difficulty is not as important to academic success as is Competence Beliefs.

Considering the fact that Competence Beliefs play such a pivotal role in the constitution of Task Difficulty Perceptions, it can be argued that Task Difficulty Perceptions are (indirectly) influenced by the same factors that influence Competence Beliefs, as was discussed previously in this chapter. These factors include performance achievement and previous experiences,

amount of time involved in Music, comparisons and the influence of parents and teachers. The importance of the latter is stressed by Nugteren et al. (2018, p. 360) who claim that social support mediates one's perception of Task Difficulty. According to Wigfield (1994), expectancies for success also influence Task Difficulty in that the higher one's expectancies for success, the lower are their Task Difficulty Perceptions. Conversely, the lower one's expectancies for success, the higher are their Task Difficulty Perceptions. However, Aponik & Dembo (1983) as well as Asmus and Harrison (1990) believe the flow of influence to be the other way around in that Task Difficulty influences expectancies (as was previously mentioned). Both arguments are valid and may point to a reciprocal relationship.

2.4.3.4 Gender and Task Difficulty

Watt (2004) studied self- and task-perceptions of adolescents (grades 7-11) in Australian schools. In addition to finding that for both males and females, Task Difficulty ratings generally increase as learners get older, she also found that females' Task Difficulty ratings increase more steeply between grades 7 and 11 than do males' difficulty ratings. However, a limitation of Watt's study is that it uses a fairly homogenous sample and as such, results may differ according to ethnicity and socio-economic status.

Considering the amount of research having been conducted into gender differences in Value and Competence Beliefs, there have been comparatively few regarding Task Difficulty. In their original study, McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 132) found that in all countries except Brazil, females rated Music as easier than did males. Furthermore, on average in all countries, females reported lower Task Difficulty Perceptions than males for Art and Mother Tongue, while males reported lower Task Difficulty Perceptions than females for Physical Education and Mathematics (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010, p. 113).

2.4.3.5 Task Difficulty and Music

McPherson and O'Neill (2010) found that over time, there was a significant increase in Task Difficulty for Music in five of the eight countries (also see McPherson et al., 2015). In a subject-comparative context, the same study (2010, p. 132) revealed that the general trend across all eight countries was that Mathematics, Science and Mother Tongue were rated as more difficult than Music and that Music was a relatively easy subject compared to others. However, this was not found in the Mexican context.

These results are surprising, given the literature that exists as to why Music is a challenging field of study. Of course, subject difficulty ratings almost always depend on the curriculum and level of expertise. There are many reasons why students may rate Music as a difficult subject. McPherson and McCormick (2006, p. 332) discuss the general challenges of Music participation, specifically in instrumental tuition. They claim that it is usually the learner's own decision when and how they will practise their instrument, which means learners need a certain level of self-discipline and self-regulation. In support of this finding, Kemp (1996) showed that successfully established classical musicians are often strongly self-motivated to the extent of obsession. Furthermore, according to McPherson and McCormick (2006, p. 335), Music training requires high levels of resilience and persistence – qualities that very few young people seem to possess. Music participation is taxing physically, mentally and emotionally.

The results of McPherson and O'Neill's original study in the Mexican context specifically (González-Moreno, 2010), revealed that Task Difficulty ratings for Music were negatively related to Competence ratings for Music (in other words, expectancy for success in Music is very low – particularly in high school – and the Task Difficulty is very high). In Mexico, Music was found to be one of the most difficult subjects, and it is believed that this, together with the low Competence ratings, may have a negative impact on learners' decisions to continue with Music study (González-Moreno, 2010, p. 196).

2.5 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the existing literature pertaining to Music and motivation in an educational context. It started with a brief exploration of various perspectives from which academic motivation has been considered over the last few decades. Following this, a range of literature pertaining to Music and Music attrition in school-going learners was presented. The rest of the chapter focused on unpacking some of the findings of previous research associated with the three motivational constructs assessed in the current study, namely Value Perceptions,

Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions. Not only Music-related studies were explored, but also studies related to general academic motivation in a variety of subject and task contexts. Within these parameters, external influences were also considered, including the motivational impact of parents, teachers and peers. The purpose of this chapter was to contextualise the current study and provide valid grounding in which to root its findings. It acknowledged various inconsistencies in previous findings and identified literary gaps in terms of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty in Music as a school subject. The following chapter will discuss the methodological considerations involved in the execution of the current study.

CHAPTER 3
Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The following chapter will discuss the research methodology employed in this study. It will elaborate on the research design as well as the sampling and participant recruitment strategies. An in-depth description of the research instrument will be provided together with an explanation of the pilot study. After a reflection of the data collection and analysis process, the chapter will conclude with ethical considerations and a summary.

3.2 Research design

The research approach chosen for this study is quantitative, in a post-positivist paradigm. The rationale behind this research approach lies in the sample size, which includes a larger number of individuals than a qualitative approach will allow. Creswell (2012) assigns the following characteristic to quantitative research: "Describing a research problem through a description of trends or a need for an explanation of the relationship among variables" (p. 13). This research is carried out by "collecting numeric data from a large number of people using instruments with pre-set questions and responses" (Creswell, 2012, p. 13).

Having considered the various research designs for quantitative research, a survey design was deemed most suitable for my study. A survey design is advantageous as its purpose is to "generalize from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about some characteristic, attitude or behavior of this population" (Creswell, 2013, p. 157). A survey design enables the researcher to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short amount of time. Mertens (2014, p. 182) points out a flaw of using research design, stating that because surveys "rely on individual's self-reports of their knowledge, attitudes or behaviours", the validity of the data is subject to the honesty of each participant. Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer and Tourangeau (2011, p. 40) refer to "errors" that may occur in the survey statistics if:

1) Answers provided by participants do not accurately describe the characteristics of the participants; or if
2) Characteristics of participants are not similar to those of a larger population.

Groves et al. (2011, p. 183) also refer to the possibility of nonresponse in a survey design. When participants leave out an item in the survey, it is referred to as "item nonresponse". Such

occurrences "can affect the quality of survey estimates" (Groves et al., 2011, p. 183). These limitations were taken into consideration when dealing with the results of the study. When learners left questions out, those responses were excluded when calculating means and standard deviations.

The study makes use of a cross-sectional survey design. Mertens (2014, p. 185) defines this approach as "examining the characteristics of several groups at one point in time". Given that the data were collected from two different grades at four different schools at one time, the cross-sectional approach was fitting. On cross-sectional survey designs, Creswell (2013, p. 377) states the following: "This design has the advantage of measuring current attitudes or practices. It also provides information in a short amount of time, such as the time required for administering the survey and collecting the information". Mertens (2014, p. 186) agrees with these advantages but highlights the possibility that different sample groups may perceive differently that which is assumed (by the researcher) to be similar experiences.

3.3 Sampling

3.3.1   Participant selection

Purposive sampling was the non-probability sampling strategy employed for this study. Participants were drawn from a target population of grade 9 and 10 Music learners from various high schools in Gauteng, South Africa. This is in accordance with Wilson and MacLean's (2011) definition of purposive sampling, which is when "individuals are selected due to them belonging to a pre-defined group" (p. 165). The sample comprised learners from four government-funded high schools in Gauteng. Two of these schools are all-female schools, and the other two are all-male schools. The selection criteria included the size of the respective schools' Music departments, the general reputation of each Music department, as well as gender and socio-economic status. After receiving written approval from the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) to conduct research in schools (see Appendix E), five government-funded schools and two private schools were initially invited to take part, however, only four schools agreed – all government-funded schools.

3.3.2   Sampling procedure

E-mails were sent to school principals as well as to Music heads of departments (HODs), explaining the aims and nature of the study, and requesting permission to conduct research at these schools. The e-mails included proof of ethical clearance received from the University of Pretoria (see Appendix B) as well as the approval letter from the GDE (see Appendix E). After

obtaining permission from the schools, it was decided that in order to accommodate the busy schedules of the Music teachers and the learners involved, research instruments would be mailed to the schools and the questionnaires would be administered by the Music staff at a time convenient for them.

HODs were requested to inform me of how many grade 9 and 10 learners were in their departments, so as to ensure a sufficient number of questionnaires. Once the questionnaires had been completed by the learners, they were collected from the schools.

Because the sample consisted of school learners, it was essential for them to take home letters of informed consent for their parents to sign (see Appendix C). Considering the general difficulty associated with sending letters home to parents and receiving them back again, the attrition rate was reasonable. The following table illustrates the sample size, including the number of learners that met the sample requirements in each school (this was the number of questionnaires delivered, estimated by each school's Head of Department) together with the actual number of completed questionnaires returned by each school.

Table 1: Sample size and response rates according to school

School	Learners who met sample requirements	Completed questionnaires	Percentage of respondents
1. Pretoria Boys High School	57	42	73.6%
2. Afrikaanse Hoër Meisieskool	150	47	31.3%
3. Jeppe High School for Girls	70	61	87.1%
4. Afrikaanse Hoër Seunskool	70	30	42.8%
TOTAL:	**347**	**180**	**51.9%**

3.4 Research instruments

The questionnaire used in this study was based on the questionnaire used in McPherson and O'Neill's study (2010). McPherson granted written permission for this study to be conducted in South Africa.

3.4.1 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted at an all-female school in Johannesburg, using a sample of grade 9 and grade 10 Music learners (30 in total). Half of the pilot sample was asked to complete the questionnaire online, to test the possibility of online data collection, and the other half was asked to complete a printed questionnaire. In addition, each learner was provided with a page on which to indicate whether clarification was needed on any items within the questionnaire.

The main modifications to the questionnaire based on feedback from the pilot study included:

- modifications to the printed layout of the questionnaire, as some learners reported that it was too small, resulting in possible inaccuracies when answering the questions.
- the addition of a page of clear guidelines to the front of the final questionnaire, and regular reminders of these specifications before each new set of questions. This was decided on after noting that many learners did not complete the pilot questionnaire correctly (especially in terms of *only* answering for the subjects for which they are enrolled).
- modifications to certain questions, and the complete removal of others, to reduce repetition of questions and to better suit this specific study and the South African education context.

Appendix F compares the pilot questionnaire with the final draft of the questionnaire. Modifications from the pilot to the final questionnaire are marked in bold.

In addition to the aforementioned changes, the school subjects being examined were altered from McPherson and O'Neill's questionnaire, because the focus of this study was not on compulsory subjects, but on elective subjects – those that learners have either already chosen (grade 10s) or that learners will have the option to either continue or to cease at the end of their grade 9 year. As such, learners were constantly reminded throughout the questionnaire to *only* answer for the school subjects for which they are currently enrolled. An additional option stating "I do not take this subject" was included in each Likert scale in the questionnaire.

3.4.2   Final research instrument

The final questionnaire included 33 items based on the Expectancy-value model (see Eccles & Wigfield, 2000, p. 70). It started with a page of clear instructions for completing the questionnaire, followed by a letter of informed assent, which learners were required to read and sign before starting the questionnaire (see Appendix D). The questionnaire consisted of 10 sections which included Likert scales, rating scales, tick boxes, and items requiring short written answers. The questionnaire is presented in Appendix A. As was mentioned in chapter 1, thirteen subjects were included in the questionnaire, but because not all schools offered all thirteen subjects, only the six most common subjects to the sample were considered for analysis.

Section 1 consisted of questions related to demographic information, and current school subject enrolment choices. Hereafter were nine headings which introduce each subsequent set of questions. Examples of these headings include "What you enjoy learning" and "What your parents/guardians think". Certain headings were accompanied by short descriptive paragraphs, taken directly from McPherson and O'Neill's original questionnaire.

Many of the questions related to attitudes and feelings towards various elective school subjects, specifically in terms of Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs, and Task Difficulty Perceptions. Learners were asked to compare their subjects against each other in regard to these three variables. In addition, learners were asked whether or not other family members/household occupants play musical instruments, what instruments the participants are learning, weekly involvement in activities outside of school including leisurely activities and practising of Music instruments, parental and teacher involvement in learners' school lives, as well as feelings relating to the learners' sense of self (See Appendix A).

Motivation measures:

Competence Beliefs included three items, measured using 5-point Likert scales. An example of a competence belief item is "Of the subjects you take, how good do you think you are at: [subject] (1 – very bad; 5 – very good)".

Values were measured in terms of perceptions of enjoyment, interest, importance and usefulness associated with each school subject. Values included six items each measured using a 5-point Likert scale. An example of an item measuring value is "Of the subjects you take, how useful do you think learning these subjects will be for when you leave school and get a job? (1 – not useful' 5 – very useful)".

Perceptions of *Task Difficulty* were measured by two items, both using a 5-point Likert scale. An example is "Of the subjects you take, how difficult is each subject for you? (1 – very easy; 5 – very difficult)".

3.5 Data collection

Data were collected using printed questionnaires. Despite the many options available, considering the technological age in which we live (online data collection, telephonic questionnaires, mobile phone questionnaires, social media etc.), printed questionnaires were chosen. The main reason behind this choice was a socio-economic one. In many of the schools in South Africa, internet and even computer access is limited. Furthermore, not all learners possess cell-phones and/or data to connect to the internet.

Once approval was obtained from the GDE, from participating schools and from the ethics committee of the University of Pretoria, the data collection process could commence. The aim was to make the research process as hassle-free as possible for the HODs and for the relevant schools. The HOD of the first school that I approached requested that I deliver the questionnaires and consent forms to the school. From there, the HOD collected the documents and administered the consent forms and questionnaires at a time that was convenient for both staff and learners. Subsequent schools chose the same method.

Creswell (2012, p. 406) mentions the advantages and disadvantages of using mailed questionnaires. Advantages include geographical convenience as well as the benefit of quick data collection and minimal costs. The main disadvantage that Creswell mentions is associated with the fact that the researcher is not present at the time of data collection. Participants may misunderstand items on the survey, as the researcher is not present to explain questions, and without personal investment in the study, participants may choose not to return the instrument. In order to reduce the effects of the aforementioned disadvantages, the questionnaires were e-mailed to the HODs in advance. At this time, the HODs were advised to read through the questionnaire with the hope that any uncertainties regarding the questions might be brought to my attention before distributing the questionnaires to learners. A box containing the questionnaires, consent forms, letter of information, detailed instructions, and my contact details, was distributed to all the schools.

3.6 Data analysis

The data were analysed using the IBM Statistical Product and Service Solutions package (SPSS), conducted by the statistical services at the University of Pretoria.

SPSS was used to determine Cronbach Alpha scores for the three main sections of the questionnaire (the sections evaluating Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions). These scores are presented in chapter 4.

The study relied mostly on descriptive statistics. According to Creswell (2012, p. 183), descriptive statistics help to summarise the general tendencies of the sample and determine how varied the scores are. While descriptive statistics typically make use of means, modes, standard deviations, range, minimum and maximum scores as well as z-scores, the current study focused mainly on means, standard deviations and ranking orders of results. The mean is calculated by adding all the responses in a sample for a question and dividing the answer by the number of respondents (Creswell, 2012, p. 184). The means and standard deviations were calculated according to overall responses, school, grade, gender and grade 9 Music continuation intentions. Mean calculations did not take missing values into account.

Inferential statistics were used to further analyse the data. Creswell (2012, p. 187) claims that inferential statistics are used when comparing sample groups or variables. The principle aim of this style of analysis is to use the responses from a sample in order to form predictions about a wider population. Furthermore, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to calculate the correlations between the variables, followed by a linear regression analysis in order to explore possible predictions of variables (such as school, grade or gender) on the motivational constructs (Value, Competence, Task Difficulty).

3.7 Ethical considerations

The study was conducted according to ethical parameters set by the University of Pretoria. Parents of learners were asked to sign a letter of informed consent (Appendix C), and learners were asked to sign a letter of assent (Appendix D) before participating. Both letters included a basic summary of what the research entailed and assured participants that the data gathered during the course of the research study would be used for academic purposes only in order to fulfil the requirements of the degree. No remuneration was granted for participation, and all parties involved were assured that participation was voluntary and confidential, and that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time. Permission from the GDE was obtained in

writing before commencement of the study (Appendix E). In addition, the study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Pretoria before commencement of data collection (Appendix B). Precautions were taken to protect the rights of everyone concerned – participants, the University of Pretoria, the Faculty of Humanities, Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities and all outside parties with whom I came into contact.

3.8 Summary

This chapter provided an in-depth description of the research methodology used for the study. It explained the research design and sampling strategy before providing an overview of the research instrument as well as how the pilot study contributed to the development of the final instrument. The data collection and analysis strategies were then explicated, and finally, factors pertaining to ethicality were considered. The next chapter will present a detailed description of the results of this study.

CHAPTER 4

Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the analysis. After the sample description, the research instrument is discussed, and Cronbach alphas are presented. The results of the study are then presented, having been statistically analysed. Means and standard deviations are presented for each of the three motivational constructs (Value, Competence and Task Difficulty), according to school subjects, school, grade, gender, and Music continuation intentions. After exploring relevant associations and presenting the results of the MANOVA, the chapter ends with a summary.

4.2 Sample description

The sample for this study comprised 180 Music learners from four Gauteng high schools: Afrikaanse Hoër Meisieskool, Pretoria; Afrikaanse Hoër Seunskool; Jeppe High School for Girls; and Pretoria Boys High School. Only grade 9 and grade 10 Music learners were invited to take part. The following tables and figures indicate the distribution of the sample into school, grade and gender respectively.

Figure 6 presents the distribution of the sample amongst the four Gauteng high schools.
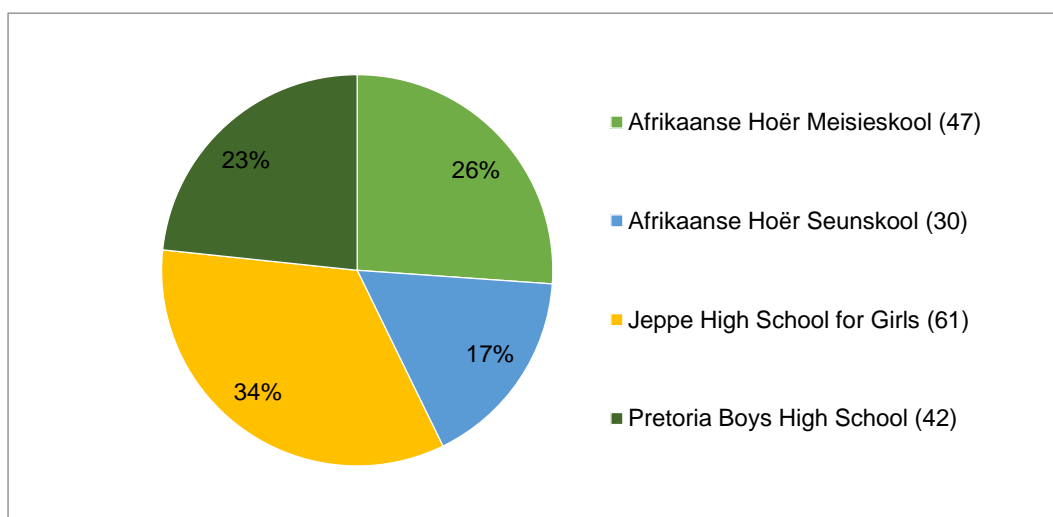
Figure 6. Sample distribution according to school

Figure 7 illustrates the distribution of the sample into grades 9 or 10. The sample was not equally distributed amongst grade. Of the 180 Music learners, 42 were in grade 10 and 138 were in grade 9.
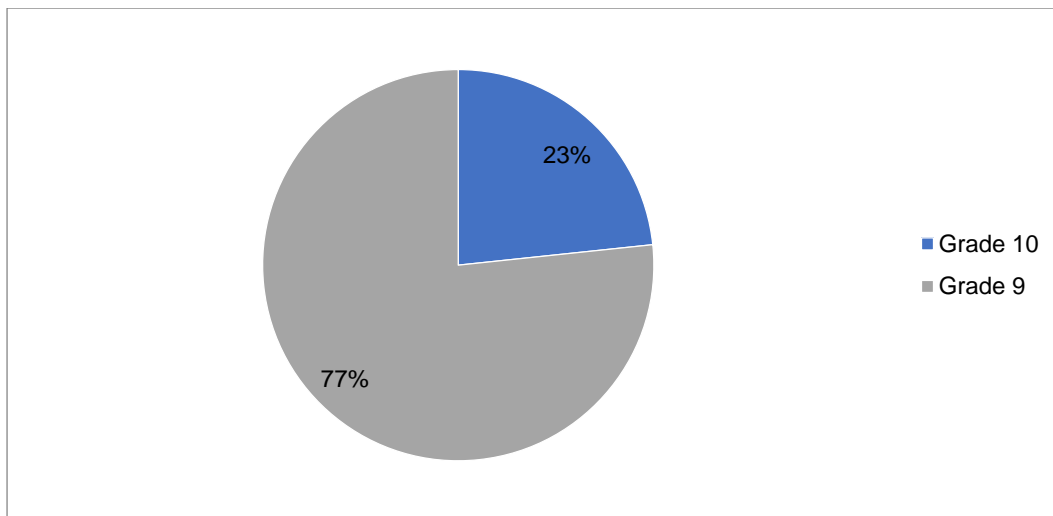
Figure 7. Sample distribution according to grade

Figure 8 presents the gender distribution of the sample. The distribution is unequal, with 108 females and 72 males.
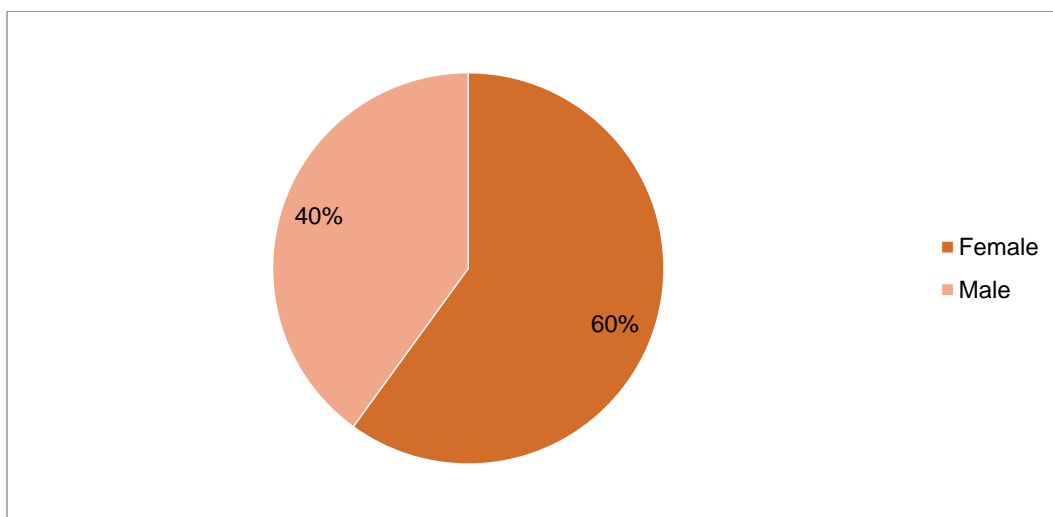
Figure 8. Sample distribution according to gender

Lastly, Figure 9 below sums up the sample description, with a graph collectively showing sample distribution according to school, grade and gender. Gender is indicated by the fact that two of the four schools are all-male schools and the other two are all-female schools.
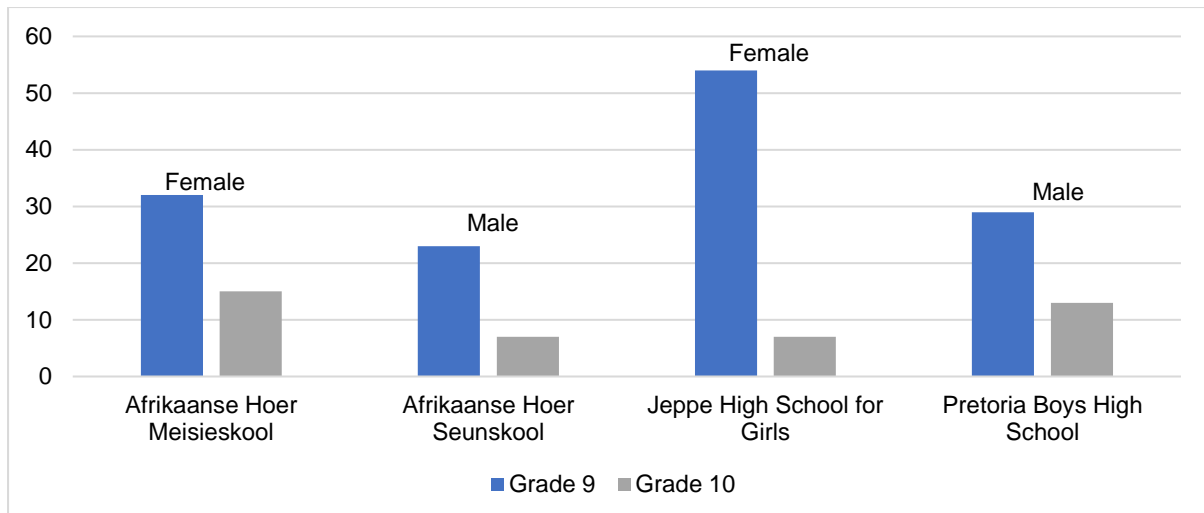
Figure 9. Sample distribution according to school, grade and gender

4.3 Research instrument description and Cronbach alpha coefficients

The research instrument was based on the questionnaire used by McPherson and O'Neill (2010) in their original eight-country study exploring motivation to study Music compared to other school subjects. The main motivational constructs assessed by the questionnaire include a) Value Perceptions, b) Competence Beliefs and c) Task Difficulty Perceptions. Each construct is measured by more than one question. Value Perceptions are measured by six questions, Competence Beliefs by three questions and Task Difficulty by two questions. The questionnaire also includes items pertaining to demographical information. Furthermore, perceptions of the effects of parents, teachers, friends and the self on motivation are assessed towards the end of the questionnaire, and ultimately, grade 9 learners are asked about their Music continuation intentions. Chapter 3 provides more information regarding the research instrument.

Internal consistency for each main motivational construct of the questionnaire was robust, confirmed by the Cronbach alphas. The coefficients were as follows: Value Perceptions = 0.927, Competence Beliefs = 0.904, Task Difficulty = 0.823.

4.4 Overall means and standard deviations: Value, Competence, Task Difficulty

The overall means and standard deviations were calculated for the three constructs, Value, Competence and Task Difficulty according to school subjects, school, grade, gender and Music continuation intentions.

4.4.1 Value Perceptions

Value was assessed in terms of enjoyment, interest, importance (to learn the contents as well as to do well in the subject) and usefulness (to learners' everyday life as well as to their long-term futures) for each elective subject. Value Perceptions varied according to school, gender, grade and Music continuation intentions, and the three-way interaction effects of school x gender x grade accounted for a further 4% of the variance for Value in Music, $F = 2.324$ (df = 3), $p = 0.077$ ($\eta_p^2 = 0.039$).

Value - School subjects

The school subject that was rated most valuable in terms of enjoyment, importance and usefulness was Physical Sciences ($M = 4.05$; $SD = 1.143$), with Life Sciences/Biology rated as second-most valuable ($M = 4.04$; $SD = 1.149$). Music was rated third-highest in terms of Value ($M = 3.6$; $SD = 1.223$. See Table 2). The subject rated least valuable was Accounting/EMS ($M = 2.95$; $SD = 1.365$), although answers varied significantly across grade level. The table below shows the means, standard deviations and ranking order for value according to school subjects.

Table 2: Value overall means, standard deviations and ranking order according to school subjects

School subjects	N	M	SD	Ranking order
Physical Sciences	151	4.05	1.143	1
Life Sciences/Biology	153	4.04	1.149	2
Music	179	3.66	1.223	3
History	143	3.57	1.255	4
Geography	142	3.13	1.159	5
Accounting/EMS	131	2.95	1.365	6

Value - School

For Music, main effect sizes (η_p^2) revealed that 6% of variance in Value, Competence and Task Difficulty responses was explained by the school being attended, $F = 3.589$ (df = 6), p = 0.002 ($\eta_p^2 = 0.060$). However, specific effect sizes for Value Perceptions for Music were very small, $F = 0.806$ (df = 2), p = 0.448 ($\eta_p^2 = 0.009$). As can be seen in Table 3 below, the two boys'

schools provided the highest Value ratings for Music, and Afrikaanse Hoër Meisieskool (AHMP) learners reported the lowest Value ratings for Music. On the other hand, AHMP learners reported the highest Value ratings for History out of all four schools. Regardless of school, all learners reported high Value Perceptions for Life Sciences/Biology and Physical Sciences, with means ranging between 3.907 (AHMP for Physical Sciences; SD = 0.166) and 4.392 (JHSG for Life Sciences/Biology; SD = 0.213). Afrikaanse Hoër Seunskool (AHS) reported the highest Value ratings for Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS, and the lowest ratings for Geography compared to the other schools. In fact, three of the four schools rated Geography as the least-valuable elective subject. Jeppe High School for Girls (JHSG) learners reported the highest Value ratings for Life Sciences/Biology and Pretoria Boys High School (PBHS) reported the lowest Value ratings for History compared to the other schools. Below is a table showing the means, standard deviations and within-school ranking order for value according to school.

Table 3: Value means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to school[3]

School subjects		AHMP	AHS	JHSG	PBHS
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	34	25	59	35
	M (SD)	4.193 (0.276)	4.042 (0.337)	4.392 (0.213)	3.92 (0.205)
	Rank	1	2	1	3
Physical Sciences	N	40	27	47	37
	M (SD)	3.907 (0.166)	4.287 (0.224)	4.215 (0.198)	4.209 (0.159)
	Rank	3	1	2	1
Accounting/ EMS	N	26	23	53	29
	M (SD)	3.443 (0.329)	4.027 (0.397)	3.594 (0.541)	2.511 (0.199)
	Rank	5	4	5	6
Music	N	46	30	61	42
	M (SD)	3.466 (0.147)	4.019 (0.202)	3.766 (0.188)	4.067 (0.156)
	Rank	4	3	4	2
Geography	N	34	23	54	31
	M (SD)	3.213 (0.259)	2.819 (0.179)	3.444 (0.117)	3.521 (0.313)
	Rank	6	6	6	4
History	N	35	24	54	30
	M (SD)	4.136 (0.261)	3.717 (0.502)	3.971 (0.354)	3.379 (0.5)
	Rank	2	5	3	5

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[3] Subjects that received the highest Value ratings in each school are shaded in blue; subjects that received the lowest Value ratings are shaded in yellow.

Figure 10 depicts a graphical representation of the means in the table above, so as to compare the subject value responses from each school more easily. Notice the Value consistency amongst the four schools for Life Sciences/Biology and Physical Sciences, compared to the more inconsistent Value ratings of the other subjects.
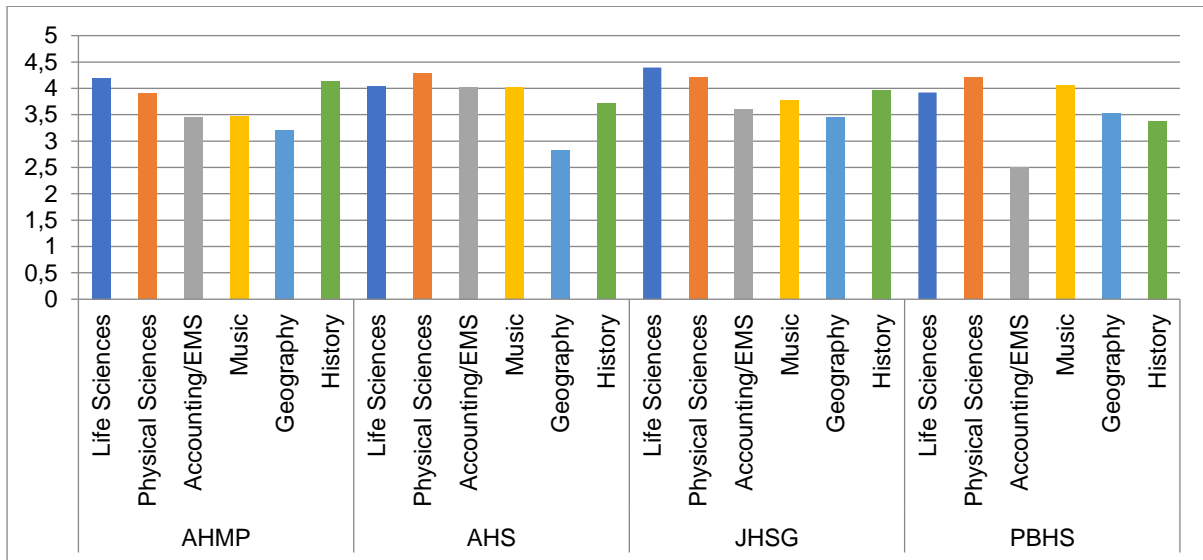
Figure 10. Mean value ratings according to subject and school

Figure 11 below shows the overall mean Value Perceptions, calculated across all subjects according to school. Take note that JHSG has the highest Value Perceptions when all subject means are combined, and that PBHS has the lowest subject Value Perceptions.
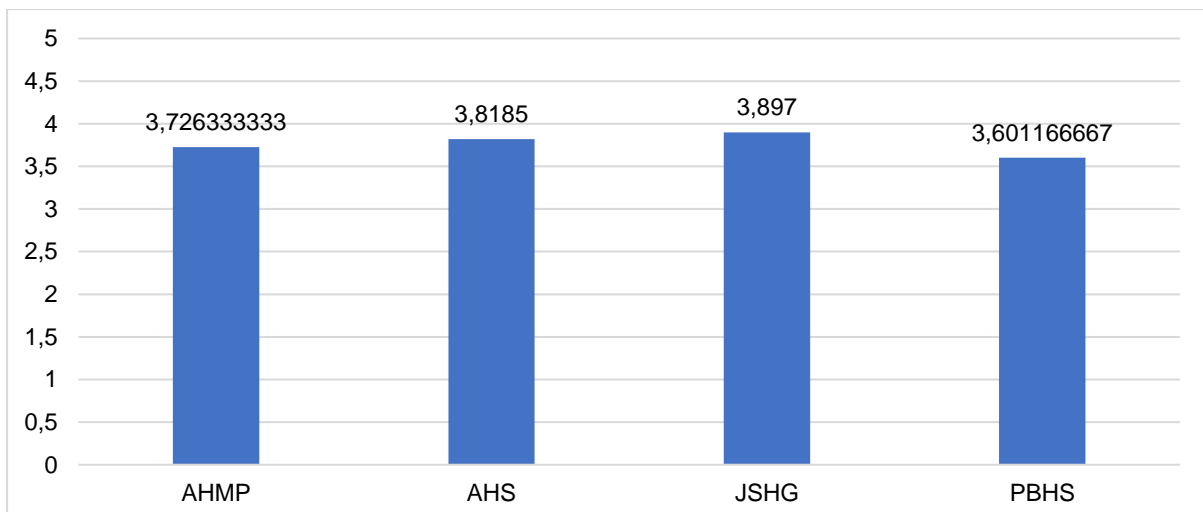
Figure 11. Combined subject Value ratings for all subjects according to school

Value - Grade

Main effect sizes ($\eta_p{}^2$) indicated that 9% of variance for Value Perceptions in Music could be accounted for by grade, $F = 16.792$ (df = 1), $p = 0.000$ ($\eta_p{}^2 = 0.089$). All school subjects were rated as significantly more valuable by grade 10 learners than by grade 9 learners, as can be seen in Table 3 and Figure 6 below. Music was no exception to this (Grade 9: $M = 3.47$; $SD = 1.250$; Grade 10: $M = 4.19$; $SD = 0.940$), showing a mean difference of 0.72 between the two grades. The most valuable subjects, as rated by both grades were Life Sciences/Biology and Physical Sciences. Notice that the mean ratings of Value for all subjects are high, regardless of the subject ranking order. Accounting/EMS showed the most significant results in terms of grade: while the grade 9s rated it as the least valuable subject of all ($M = 2.931$; $SD = 1.352$), the grade 10s rated it as the second-most valuable subject of all ($M = 4.306$; $SD = 0.856$). Geography received low value ratings, with the grade 10s rating it as the least valuable subject ($M = 3.778$; $SD = 0.825$) and the grade 9s rating it second-least valuable ($M = 3.044$; $SD = 1.163$), above Accounting/EMS. In a subject-comparative context in both grades, Music was not highly rated in terms of Value. The grade 9s rated it as third-most valuable, while the grade 10s rated it as fourth-most valuable (Grade 9: $M = 3.472$; $SD = 1.250$; Grade 10: $M = 4.187$; $SD = 0.940$), though the actual values are relatively high. The degree of variance for Music according to grade was far greater for Value Perceptions than for Competence or Task difficulty. Table 4 below exhibits the mean Value ratings, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to grade.

Table 4: Value means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to grade

School Subjects		Grade 9	Grade 10
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	137	15
	M (SD)	3.916 (1.178)	4.358 (0.806)
	Rank	2	1
Physical Sciences	N	119	32
	M (SD)	4.021 (1.189)	4.288 (0.860)
	Rank	1	3
Accounting/ EMS	N	123	6
	M (SD)	2.931 (1.352)	4.306 (0.856)
	Rank	5	2
Music	N	136	41
	M (SD)	3.472 (1.250)	4.187 (0.940)
	Rank	3	4
Geography	N	138	5
	M (SD)	3.044 (1.163)	3.778 (0.825)
	Rank	4	6
History	N	136	8
	M (SD)	3.466 (1.262)	4.135 (0.826)
	Rank	3	5
AVERAGE VALUE		**3.475**	**4.175**

Figure 12 compares the grade 9 and 10 mean ratings of Value for each school subject. As can be seen, grade 10 learners reported higher Value Perceptions for all subjects than did grade 9 learners.
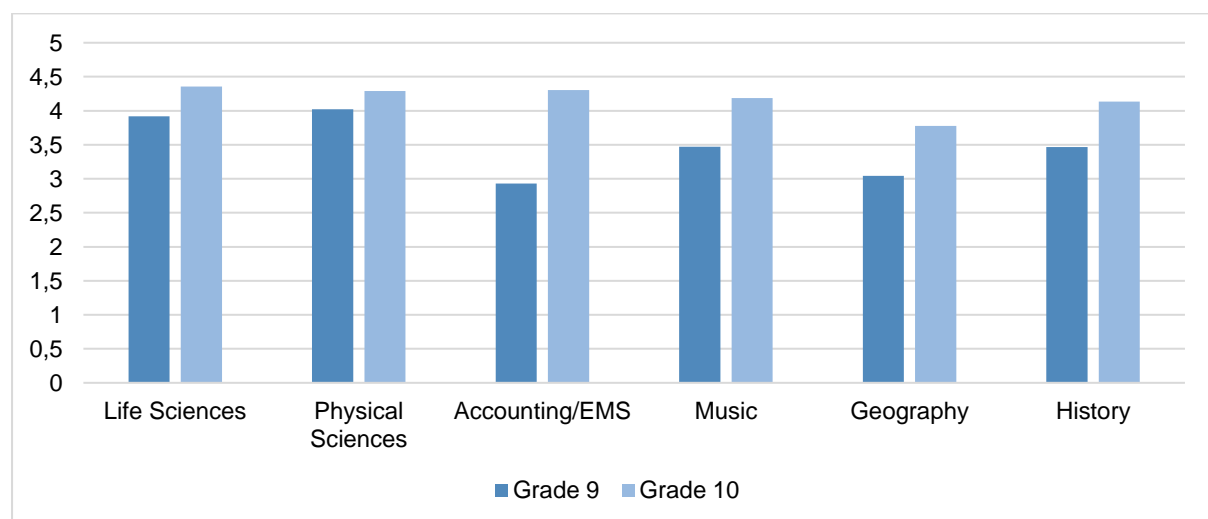
Figure 12. Mean ratings of Value for school subjects according to grade

Value - Gender

Regarding gender, interestingly males rated Music, Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS as more valuable than did females (see Table 5 and Figure 13 below) whereas females rated Life Sciences/Biology, Geography and History as more valuable than did males. Both males and females reported the lowest ratings for Geography. When comparing the overall mean Value Perceptions for all subjects combined, females interestingly reported a higher overall Value perception than did males. In terms of Music, males perceived it to be much more valuable than did females, with males ranking it as the second-most valuable subject, and females ranking it fourth-most valuable. Table 5 presents the value means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to gender.

Table 5: Value means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to gender

School Subjects		Female	Male
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	93	60
	M (SD)	4.293 (0.174)	3.981 (0.197)
	Rank	1	3
Physical Sciences	N	86	65
	M (SD)	4.061 (0.129)	4.248 (0.137)
	Rank	2	1
Accounting/ EMS	N	79	52
	M (SD)	3.519 (0.317)	3.522 (0.273)
	Rank	5	5
Music	N	107	72
	M (SD)	3.616 (0.119)	4.043 (0.128)
	Rank	4	2
Geography	N	88	54
	M (SD)	3.290 (0.177)	3.287 (0.217)
	Rank	6	6
History	N	89	54
	M (SD)	4.053 (0.220)	3.548 (0.355)
	Rank	3	4
AVERAGE VALUE		**3.81**	**3.77**

Figure 13 shows these results in a graph, comparing Value Perceptions for each school subject according to gender. Notice the large mean variances between genders for Life Sciences/Biology, Music and History.
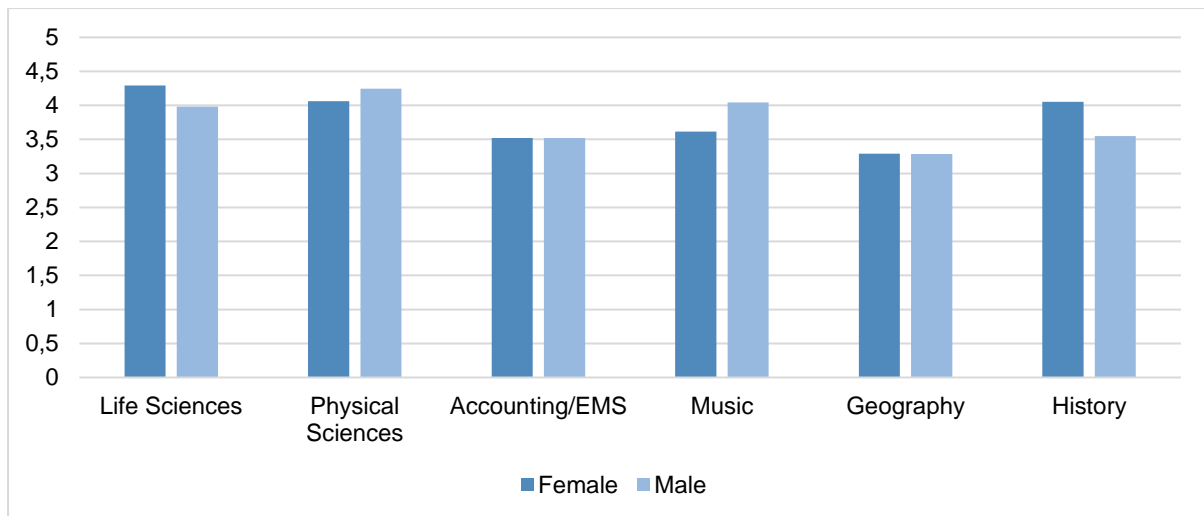
Figure 13. Mean ratings of Value for school subjects according to gender

Value – Music continuation intentions

This section deals only with grade 9 responses. Data have been organised according to grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10, and those who do not. According to the mean Value ratings for all school subjects, learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10 reported higher value ratings for Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS and Music than did learners who wish to cease Music (see Table 6 and Figure 14 below). The most significant of these differences was for Music. Learners who do not intend to continue with Music in grade 10 reported higher Value ratings for Life Sciences/Biology, Geography and History. The most significant of these differences was for History. In terms of ranking order, learners intending to continue with Music indicated that of all their subjects, they value Music most highly (followed by Physical Sciences). Learners intending to discontinue Music indicated the highest ratings for Life Sciences/Biology, also followed by Physical Sciences. Accounting/EMS received the lowest Value ratings by both groups. Table 6 provides an overview of the data, with means, standard deviations and ranking order according to means.

Table 6: Overall Value means, standard deviations and ranking order according to grade 9 Music continuation decisions

School Subjects		Grade 9s continuing with Music	Grade 9s discontinuing Music
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	61	73
	M (SD)	3.857 (1.043)	4.102 (0.945)
	Rank	3	1
Physical Sciences	N	56	61
	M (SD)	4.126 (0.872)	3.832 (1.091)
	Rank	2	2
Accounting/ EMS	N	60	66
	M (SD)	2.902 (1.197)	2.767 (1.076)
	Rank	6	6
Music	N	61	72
	M (SD)	4.230 (0.670)	2.771 (0.872)
	Rank	1	5
Geography	N	61	73
	M (SD)	3.109 (0.891)	3.148 (0.929)
	Rank	5	4
History	N	60	73
	M (SD)	3.340 (1.103)	3.707 (0.987)
	Rank	4	3
AVERAGE VALUE		**3.59**	**3.39**

The graph in Figure 14 below illustrates the mean Value ratings for each elective subject, as provided by grade 9 learners who wish to continue with Music, and those who do not. As can be seen, Value ratings for each subject differ quite substantially between the two groups, with the most significant contrasts being for Music – not surprisingly.
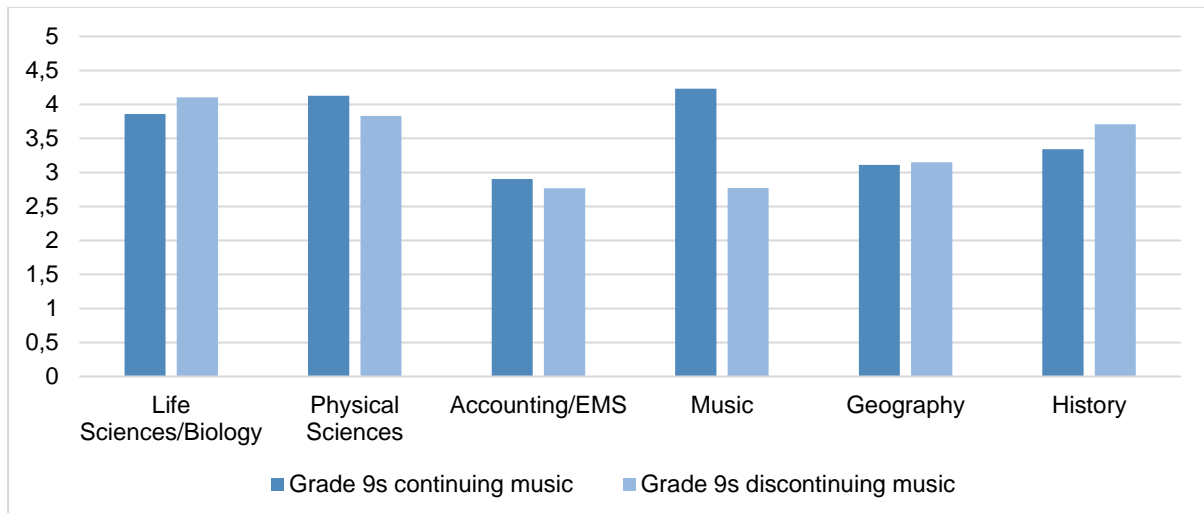
Figure 14. Overall mean Value ratings according to grade 9 intentions to continue or discontinue Music

4.4.2 Competence Beliefs

Competence Beliefs were assessed in terms of current ability perceptions for each subject, future expectations for achievement in each subject, and Competence Beliefs in relation to classmates. As with Value Perceptions, Competence means and standard deviations are discussed in the following order: school subjects, school, grade, gender and Music continuation intentions. The interaction effects of school x gender x grade were not significant, Accounting for less than 1% of the variance in Competence Beliefs for Music, $F = 0.197$ (df = 3), $p = 0.898$ ($\eta_p^2 = 0.003$).

Competence Beliefs – School subjects

The highest overall Competence Beliefs were found for Life Sciences/Biology and History. Music was rated second-highest in terms of Competence ($M = 3.77$; $SD = 1.037$). The lowest Competence Beliefs were for Accounting/EMS ($M = 3.21$; $SD = 1.33$), the mean rating of which is only 0.56 lower than the highest rating. Thus, it is clear that participants held generally high Competence Beliefs for all six subjects. Table 7 shows the means, standard deviations and the ranking order for Competence according to school subjects.

Table 7: Competence means, standard deviations and ranking order according to school subjects

School subjects	N	M	SD	Ranking order
Life Sciences/Biology	153	3.78	0.912	1
History	143	3.78	1.035	1
Music	179	3.77	1.037	2
Physical Sciences	151	3.66	1.011	3
Geography	142	3.58	0.935	4
Accounting/EMS	131	3.21	1.33	5

Competence Beliefs – School

Main effect sizes (η_p^2) indicated that less than 1% of the variance within Competence Beliefs for Music are explained by school, $F = 0.668$ (df = 2), $p = 0.514$ ($\eta_p^2 = 0.008$). AHS learners reported the highest Competence Beliefs for Music, whereas JHSG learners reported the lowest Competence Beliefs for Music (see Table 8). In all four schools, Music was ranked one of the top three subjects in terms of Competence Beliefs. The highest Competence Beliefs for Physical Sciences were reported by PBHS learners and AHS learners. Interestingly, while AHMP and JHSG learners reported the lowest Competence Beliefs for Physical Sciences, PBHS learners indicated that they felt more competent in Physical Sciences than in any other subject. Another significant variance in the data was found for Accounting/EMS, where AHS learners reported significantly higher Competence Beliefs than the other learners. Life Sciences/Biology was generally low on the ranking order, except for JHSG where it was rated first in the ranking order.

Table 8: Competence means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to school

School Subjects		AHMP	AHS	JHSG	PBHS
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	34	25	59	35
	M (SD)	3.506 (0.243)	3.649 (0.297)	3.922 (0.188)	3.812 (0.18)
	Rank	5	5	1	4
Physical Sciences	N	40	27	47	37
	M (SD)	3.378 (0.165)	3.923 (0.223)	3.362 (0.198)	3.978 (0.158)
	Rank	6	4	6	1
Accounting/ EMS	N	26	23	53	29
	M (SD)	3.575 (0.382)	4.29 (0.46)	3.415 (0.628)	3.31 (0.231)
	Rank	4	1	5	6
Music	N	46	30	61	42
	M (SD)	3.844 (0.152)	4.114 (0.209)	3.649 (0.194)	3.891 (0.161)
	Rank	1	2	3	2
Geography	N	34	23	54	31
	M (SD)	3.624 (0.248)	3.486 (0.171)	3.642 (0.112)	3.609 (0.3)
	Rank	3	6	4	5
History	N	35	24	54	30
	M (SD)	3.84 (0.255)	4.007 (0.49)	3.894 (0.345)	3.828 (0.488)
	Rank	2	3	2	3

Figure 15 presents the mean Competence Beliefs for each subject according to school. Each subject is presented in a different colour, for ease of comparison. Notice the high Competence Beliefs across all four schools for Music and History.
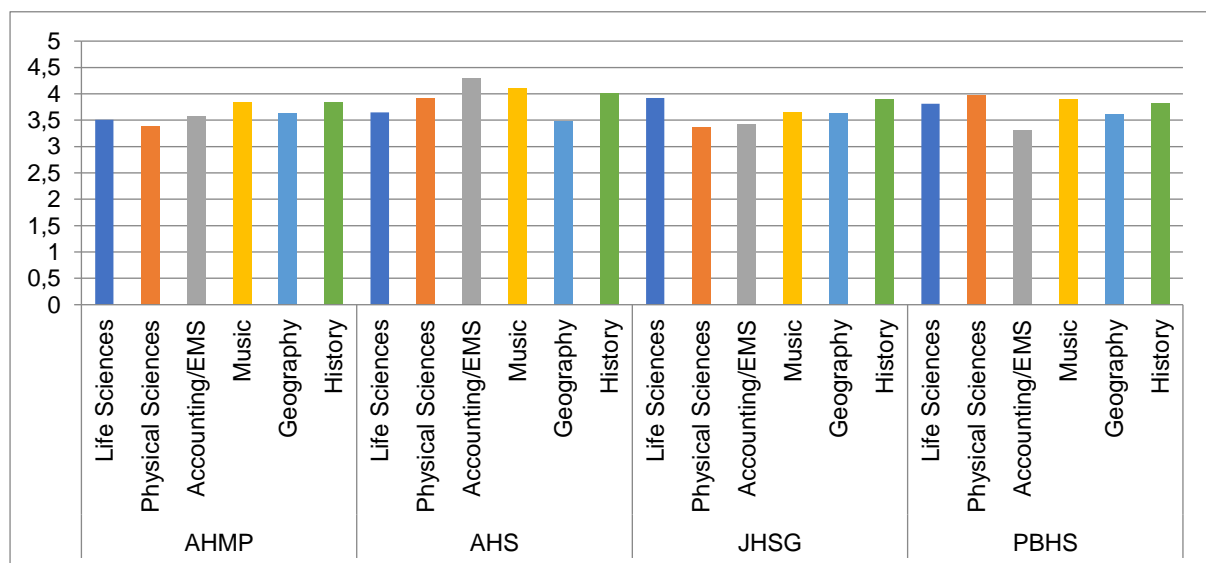
Figure 15. Competence means according to school

Figure 16 below shows the combined Competence means for all elective subjects according to school. Notice that the learners of the two boys' schools hold much higher Competence Beliefs for all subjects than do the learners of the two girls' schools. AHS learners show significantly stronger Competence Beliefs than the other three schools.
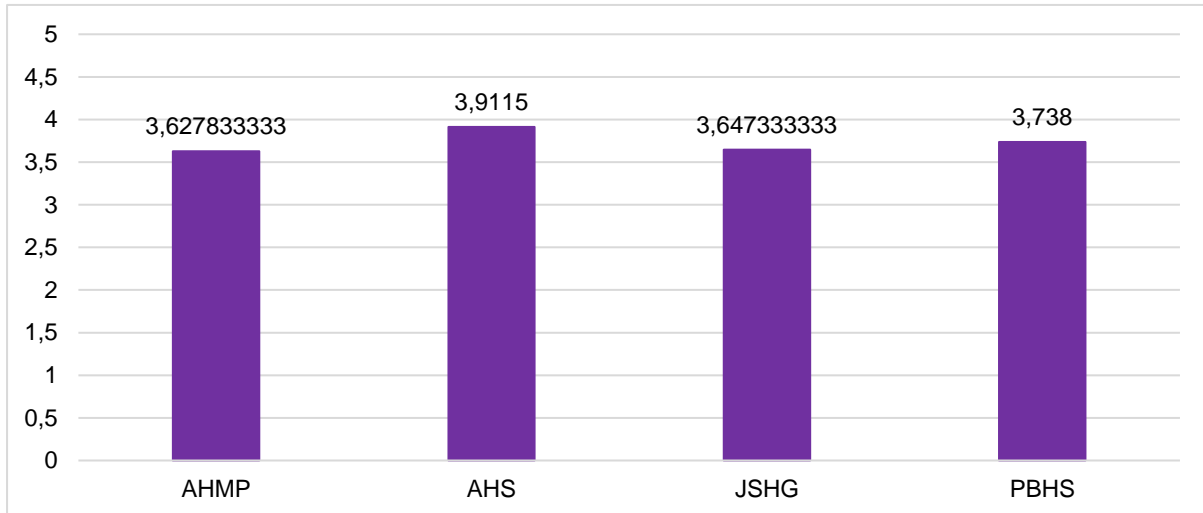
Figure 16. Combined Competence Beliefs for all subjects according to school

Competence Beliefs – Grade

Table 9 and Figure 17 below, clearly indicate that grade 10 learners experience higher Competence Beliefs than grade 9s for all subjects except Physical Sciences. As with Value Perceptions, the most pronounced of these differences was found in Accounting/EMS where grade 10s reported a mean Competence rating of 4.296 (SD = 0.795) and grade 9s reported a mean Competence rating of 3.245 (SD = 1.336). The least pronounced differences in Competence Beliefs between grades 9 and 10 were for Life Sciences/Biology and Physical Sciences. Competence Beliefs for Music and History were among the highest in both grades (see Table 8 below), and cumulatively, learners rated the lowest Competence Beliefs for Geography. Main effect sizes (η_p^2) revealed that only about 1% of the variance in Competence Beliefs for Music is explained by grade, $F = 1.529$ (df = 1), p = 0.218 ($\eta_p^2 = 0.009$). Table 9 includes the Competence means, standard deviations and subject ranking order for the grade 9s and 10s.

Table 9: Competence means, standard deviations and ranking order according to grade

School Subjects		Grade 9	Grade 10
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	137	15
	M (SD)	3.717 (0.924)	3.728 (0.814)
	Rank	2	4
Physical Sciences	N	119	32
	M (SD)	3.687 (1.024)	3.633 (0.969)
	Rank	3	6
Accounting/ EMS	N	123	6
	M (SD)	3.245 (1.336)	4.296 (0.795)
	Rank	5	1
Music	N	136	41
	M (SD)	3.763 (1.093)	3.986 (0.794)
	Rank	1	3
Geography	N	138	5
	M (SD)	3.565 (0.944)	3.667 (0.577)
	Rank	4	5
History	N	136	8
	M (SD)	3.764 (1.055)	4.021 (0.605)
	Rank	1	2
AVERAGE COMPETENCE		**3.624**	**3.889**

Figure 17 illustrates the mean Competence Beliefs according to subject. It is clear from the graph that grade 10 learners hold higher Competence Beliefs than grade 9 learners in all subjects except Physical Sciences.
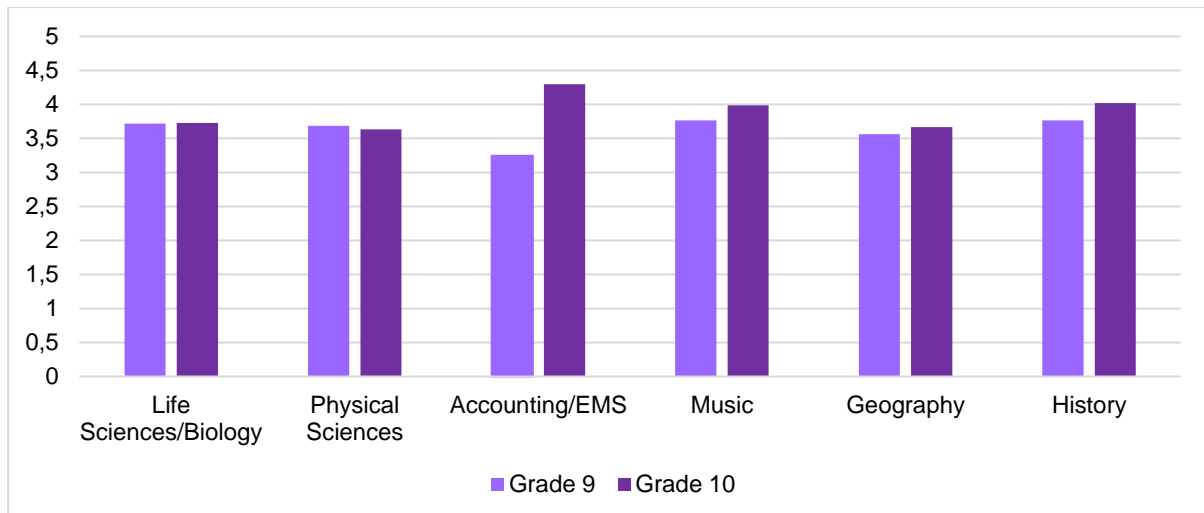
Figure 17. Competence means according to grade

Competence Beliefs – Gender

Males reported significantly higher Competence Beliefs than did females for Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS and Music (Males: $M = 4$; $SD = 0.951$; Females: $M = 3.75$; $SD = 1.080$) (Figure 13). For Life Sciences/Biology, means only differed by 0.02 (Males: $M = 3.73$; $SD = 0.952$; Females: $M = 3.71$; $SD = 0.886$) and similarly for History, means differed by 0.05 (Males: $M = 3.92$; $SD = 1.045$; Females: $M = 3.87$; $SD = 1.030$). The only subject for which females showed higher Competence Beliefs than did males was Geography. In terms of ranking order, males rated Music as the subject in which they are most competent, whereas for females, History received the highest Competence ratings. Physical Sciences showed fascinating results, in that while it was ranked 6th (lowest Competence) by females, it was ranked 3rd by males. Music was ranked highly in terms of Competence, ranking 1st for males and 2nd for females. Cumulatively, History and Music received the highest Competence ratings, while Geography and Physical Sciences received the lowest competence ratings. Table 10 presents the means, standard deviations and subject ranking order for Competence Beliefs according to gender.

Table 10: Competence means, standard deviations and ranking order according to gender

School Subjects		Female	Male
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	93	60
	M (SD)	3.714 (0.886)	3.73 (0.952)
	Rank	3	5
Physical Sciences	N	86	65
	M (SD)	3.37 (1.006)	3.95 (0.982)
	Rank	6	3
Accounting/ EMS	N	79	52
	M (SD)	3.495 (1.324)	3.963 (1.312)
	Rank	5	2
Music	N	107	72
	M (SD)	3.747 (1.080)	4.003 (0.951)
	Rank	2	1
Geography	N	88	54
	M (SD)	3.63 (0.975)	3.568 (0.863)
	Rank	4	6
History	N	89	54
	M (SD)	3.867 (1.030)	3.917 (1.045)
	Rank	1	4
AVERAGE COMPETENCE		**3.637**	**3.855**

It is clear that females generally feel less competent than males in all school subjects except Geography, though mean ratings were very similar for Life Sciences/Biology and History. Figure 18 shows the mean Competence ratings for each school subject according to gender.
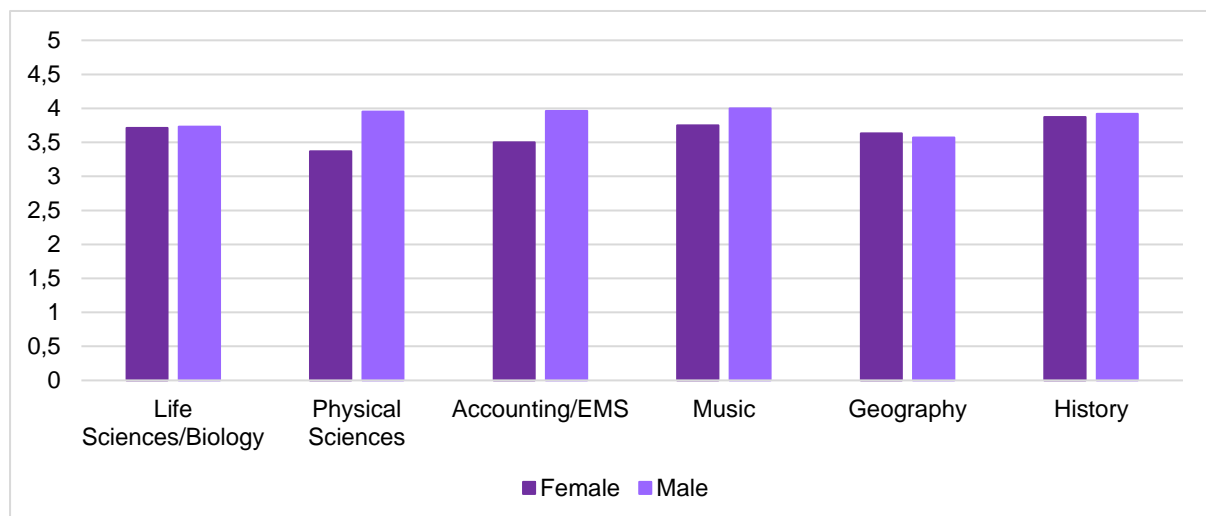
Figure 18. Competence means according to gender

Competence Beliefs – Music continuation intentions

According to mean ratings of Competence Beliefs for grade 9 learners, those who intend to continue with Music reported higher Competence Beliefs in all school subjects except History (see table 10). The most significant of these mean differences was for Music (Continuing: $M = 4.29$; $SD = 0.714$; Discontinuing: $M = 3.187$; $SD = 0.980$) and the least significant of these mean differences was for Life Sciences (Table 11). In terms of ranking order, learners intending to continue with Music in grade 10 indicated the highest competence ratings for Music, followed by Physical Sciences. Learners not intending to continue with Music reported the highest Competence ratings for History, followed by Life Sciences. As with Value Perceptions, both groups provided the lowest Competence ratings for Accounting/EMS. The table below presents these findings.

Table 11: Competence means, standard deviations and ranking order according to grade 9 Music continuation decisions

School Subjects		Grade 9s continuing Music	Grade 9s discontinuing Music
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	61	73
	M (SD)	3.79 (0.863)	3.769 (0.819)
	Rank	3	2
Physical Sciences	N	56	61
	M (SD)	3.867 (0.822)	3.43 (1.051)
	Rank	2	4
Accounting/ EMS	N	56	66
	M (SD)	3.414 (1.272)	2.922 (1.232)
	Rank	5	6
Music	N	61	73
	M (SD)	4.29 (0.714)	3.187 (0.980)
	Rank	1	5
Geography	N	61	73
	M (SD)	3.68 (0.752)	3.525 (0.903)
	Rank	4	3
History	N	60	73
	M (SD)	3.684 (1.075)	3.856 (0.867)
	Rank	4	1
AVERAGE COMPETENCE		**3.79**	**3.45**

The following graph displays the mean Competence Beliefs for each subject as rated by grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music and by those who do not. Attention should be paid to the fact that learners continuing with Music hold stronger Competence Beliefs than those who intend to cease Music for all school subjects except History. Also notice the large difference in mean Competence ratings for Music.
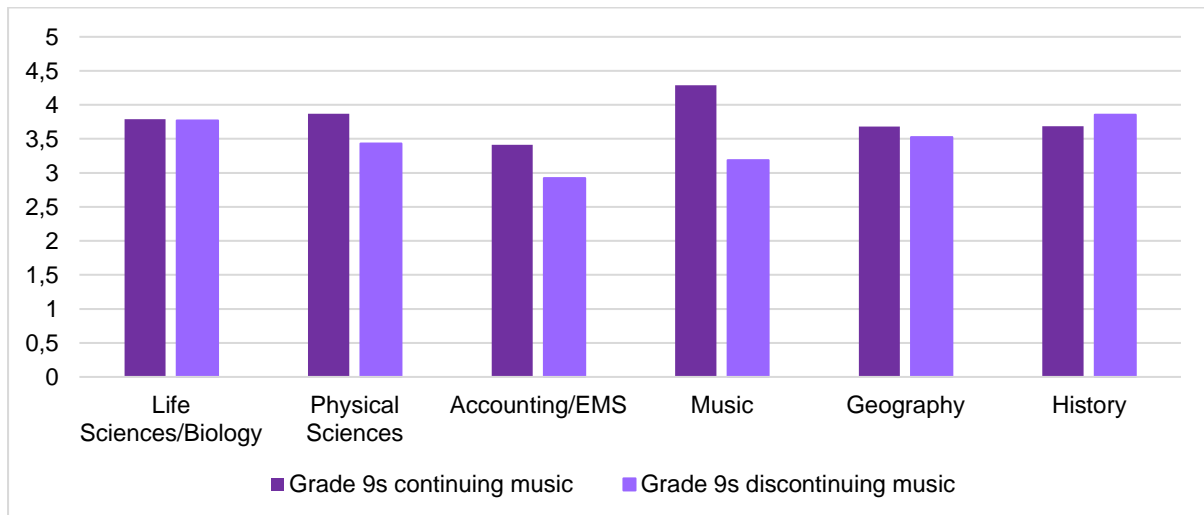
Figure 19. Mean Competence Beliefs according to grade 9 Music continuation intentions

4.4.3 Task Difficulty Perceptions

Task Difficulty for each elective subject was assessed by asking learners to rate how difficult they find each subject in itself, as well as in comparison to their other school subjects. Variance in Task Difficulty Perceptions for Music was strongly accounted for by the school being attended. The interaction of school x gender x grade accounted for a further 2% of the variance for Task Difficulty in Music, $F = 1.488$ (df = 3), p = 0.220 ($\eta_p^2 = 0.025$).

Task Difficulty Perceptions – School subjects

In general, difficulty ratings were low for most of the six school subjects assessed. Physical Sciences was rated the overall most difficult subject, followed by Accounting/EMS, and History was rated the overall least difficult subject (Table 12). Music was rated among the least difficult school subjects, together with Geography (Music: $M = 2.49$; $SD = 1.214$; Geography: $M = 2.41$; $SD = 0.996$). Table 11 shows the means, standard deviations and ranking order according to school subjects.

Table 12: Task Difficulty means, standard deviations and ranking order according to school subjects

School subjects	N	M	SD	Ranking order
Physical Sciences	151	3.26	1.132	1
Accounting/EMS	131	3.23	1.42	2
Life Sciences/Biology	153	2.75	1.048	3
Music	179	2.49	1.214	4
Geography	142	2.41	0.996	5
History	143	2.39	1.124	6

Task Difficulty Perceptions – School

Main effect sizes (η_p^2) indicated that 9% of the variance for Task Difficulty in Music is explained by school, $F = 8.410$ (df = 2), p = 0.000 ($\eta_p^2 = 0.090$). The most difficult subject, as rated by three of the four schools was Physical Sciences (See Table 13). Music was rated as relatively easy by AHMP ($M = 2.255$; $SD = 0.618$) and AHS ($M = 1.978$; $SD = 0.231$) learners, and was rated 3rd most difficult by JHSG learners ($M = 2.784$; $SD = 0.215$). It is surprising, given these results, that PBHS rated Music as their 2nd most difficult subject ($M = 3.033$; $SD = 0.179$). Accounting/EMS also received significantly different Task Difficulty ratings amongst each school. In a school-comparative context, AHS reported generally lower Task Difficulty ratings for all subjects than did the other schools, with an average rating of 2.29 across all subjects. Average difficulty ratings for the other schools are 2.8 (AHMP), 2.87 (JHSG) and 2.76 (PBHS). It is interesting to notice that on a broad scale, Task Difficulty beliefs are much lower than Value or Competence Beliefs for all subjects.

Table 13: Task Difficulty means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to school

School Subjects		AHMP	AHS	JHSG	PBHS
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	34	25	59	35
	M (SD)	3.108 (0.290)	2.25 (0.354)	2.91 (0.224)	2.897 (0.215)
	Rank	3	4	2	4
Physical Sciences	N	40	27	47	37
	M (SD)	3.617 (0.173)	2.824 (0.234)	3.921 (0.208)	2.983 (0.167)
	Rank	1	1	1	3
Accounting/ EMS	N	26	23	53	29
	M (SD)	3.587 (0.395)	1.899 (0.476)	2.606 (0.65)	3.086 (0.239)
	Rank	2	6	4	1
Music	N	46	30	61	42
	M (SD)	2.255 (0.168)	1.978 (0.231)	2.784 (0.215)	3.033 (0.179)
	Rank	5	5	3	2
Geography	N	34	23	54	31
	M (SD)	2.38 (0.264)	2.522 (0.182)	2.361 (0.119)	2.332 (0.319)
	Rank	4	2	6	5
History	N	35	24	54	30
	M (SD)	2.25 (0.282)	2.293 (0.542)	2.663 (0.383)	2.241 (0.54)
	Rank	6	3	5	6

The following graph illustrates the strong effect that school has on Difficulty ratings for each school subject. It is problematic to generalise the difficulty level of any specific subject, though Physical Sciences is relatively high across all four schools.
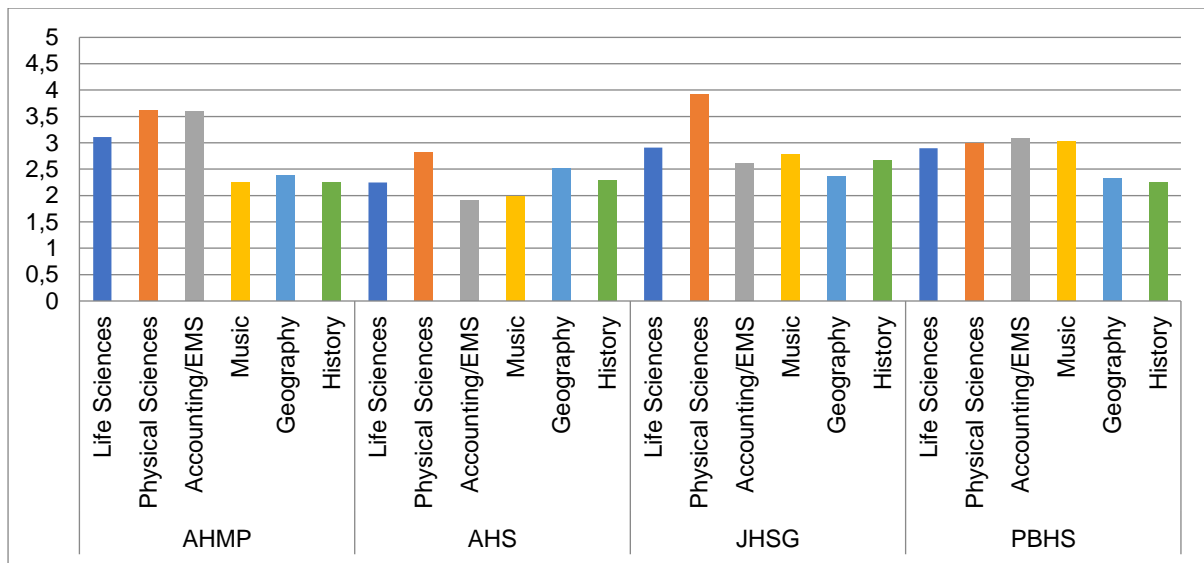
Figure 20. Task Difficulty means according to school

Below is a graph showing the combined Task Difficulty ratings for all school subjects according to school. Notice that the two boys' schools hold lower Task Difficulty ratings in general than do the two girls' schools, but that the combined means for each school are a lot more similar to one another than they were for Value Perceptions or Competence Beliefs.
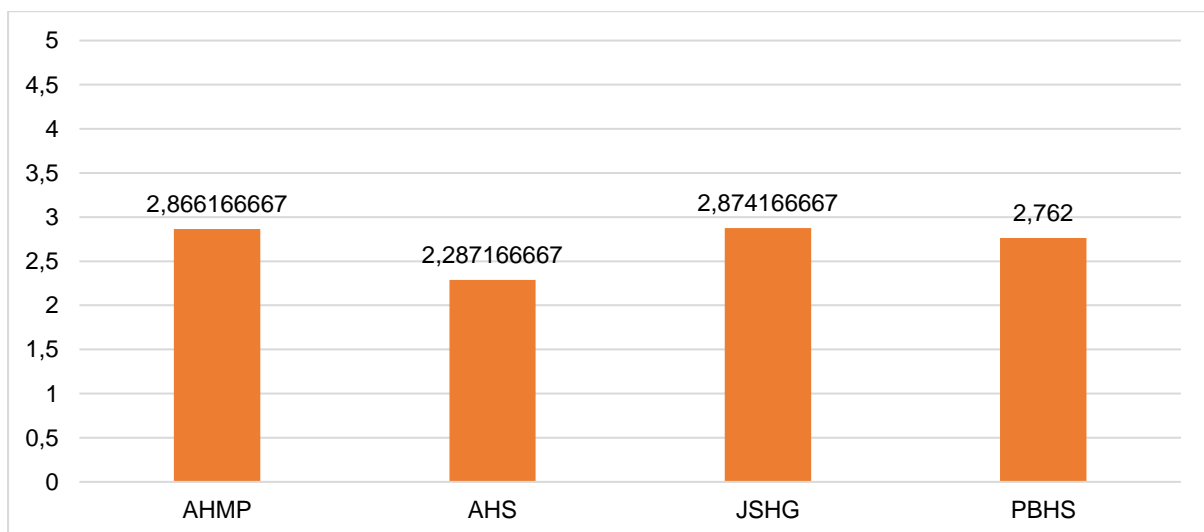
Figure 21. Combined Task Difficulty ratings for all subjects according to school

Task Difficulty Perceptions – Grade

Grade 10s reported higher Task Difficulty ratings than did grade 9s for Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences and Music. Grade 9s indicated higher difficulty levels than grade tens for Accounting/EMS, Geography and History, though the most significant of these results was for Accounting/EMS (see Table 14). Both grades reported that the most difficult subject was Physical Sciences. The grade 9 learners' mean Task Difficulty ratings were the same for Physical Sciences and for Accounting/EMS. While Music was rated as the easiest subject by grade 9 learners (M = 2.46; SD = 1.203), it was rated third-most difficult by the grade 10 learners (M = 2.57; SD = 1.260). The easiest subject according to the grade 10s was History. Cumulatively, Physical Sciences was ranked as the most difficult subject, Music was ranked 4th most difficult, and History was ranked as the easiest elective subject.

Table 14: Task Difficulty means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to grade

School Subjects		Grade 9	Grade 10
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	137	15
	M (SD)	2.74 (1.039)	2.842 (1.128)
	Rank	2	2
Physical Sciences	N	119	32
	M (SD)	3.127 (1.113)	3.546 (1.140)
	Rank	1	1
Accounting/ EMS	N	123	6
	M (SD)	3.13 (1.413)	2.25 (1.676)
	Rank	1	5
Music	N	136	41
	M (SD)	2.455 (1.203)	2.571 (1.260)
	Rank	5	3
Geography	N	138	5
	M (SD)	2.429 (1.000)	2.292 (0.924)
	Rank	4	4
History	N	136	8
	M (SD)	2.41 (1.137)	2.313 (0.902)
	Rank	3	6
AVERAGE DIFFICULTY		**2.715**	**2.636**

Figure 22 presents the mean Task Difficulty ratings for each school subject according to grade. Take note that grade 10 learners hold higher Task Difficulty Perceptions than grade 9 learners for Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences and Music. Also of interest is the vast difference in Task Difficulty ratings for Accounting/EMS between grade 9 and 10.
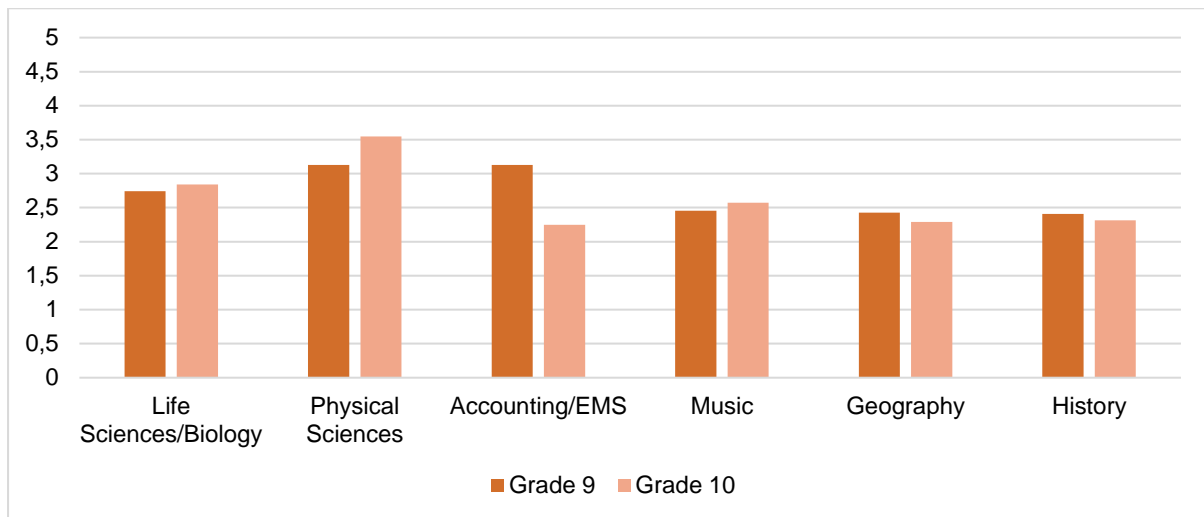
Figure 22. Mean Task Difficulty ratings according to grade

Task Difficulty Perceptions – Gender

According to mean ratings, females reported significantly higher perceptions of Task Difficulty than did males for Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS. Numerically, females also reported higher difficulty ratings than males for Music, but the mean difference was miniscule (Males: $M = 2.506$; $SD = 1.378$; Females: $M = 2.52$; $SD = 1.080$). The only subject for which females did not indicate a higher Task Difficulty level than did males was Geography. In terms of ranking order, females rated the difficulty of their subjects as follows (from most difficult to least difficult): Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS, Life Sciences/Biology, Music, History and Geography. On the other hand, the male ranking order of difficulty was: Physical Sciences, Life Sciences/Biology, Music, Geography, Accounting/EMS and History. Table 15 presents these findings.

Table 15: Task Difficulty means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to gender

School Subjects		Female	Male
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	93	60
	M (SD)	3.009 (1.077)	2.573 (1.000)
	Rank	3	2
Physical Sciences	N	86	65
	M (SD)	3.769 (1.036)	2.904 (1.123)
	Rank	1	1
Accounting/ EMS	N	79	52
	M (SD)	3.096 (1.200)	2.295 (1.490)
	Rank	2	5
Music	N	107	72
	M (SD)	2.52 (1.080)	2.506 (1.378)
	Rank	4	3
Geography	N	88	54
	M (SD)	2.371 (0.984)	2.395 (0.987)
	Rank	6	4
History	N	89	54
	M (SD)	2.455 (1.121)	2.267 (1.124)
	Rank	5	6
AVERAGE DIFFICULTY		**2.870**	**2.490**

The graph in Figure 23 compares the mean Task Difficulty ratings according to gender. As can be seen, the most significant gender differences were for Physical Sciences and Accounting, with females reporting much higher Task Difficulty ratings than males.
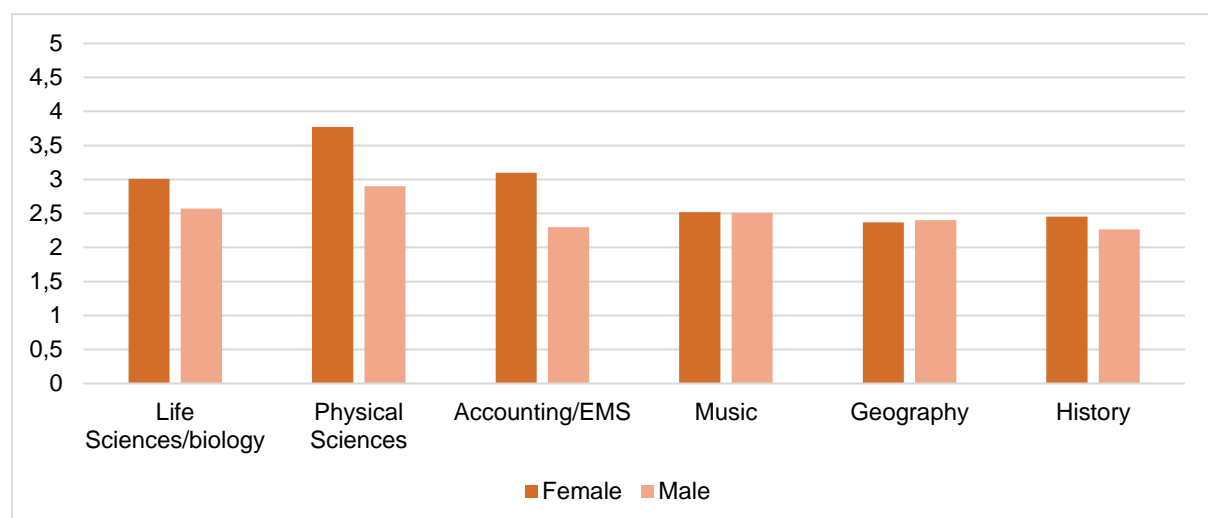
Figure 23. Mean Task Difficulty ratings according to gender

Task Difficulty Perceptions – Music continuation intentions

According to mean ratings of Task difficulty, grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10 reported lower Task Difficulty ratings for all school subjects except History (see Table 16). The largest of these mean differences was for Accounting/EMS. The mean difference between the two groups for Music was not as large as it was for Value or Competence (Continuing: $M = 2.393$; $SD = 1.218$; Discontinuing: $M = 2.527$; $SD = 1.047$). In fact, according to the ranking order of means, Music was ranked as 5th most difficult by both groups. Accounting/EMS was ranked as the most difficult subject by both groups, though learners intending to continue with Music rated it as significantly less difficult than did learners who are not intending to continue with Music. The same was found for Physical Sciences. These results are presented in the table below.

Table 16: Task Difficulty means, standard deviations and subject ranking order according to grade 9 Music continuation intentions

School Subjects		Grade 9s continuing Music	Grade 9s discontinuing Music
Life Sciences/ Biology	N	61	73
	M (SD)	2,68 (1,084)	2,76 (0,850)
	Rank	3	3
Physical Sciences	N	56	61
	M (SD)	2,926 (1,007)	3,418 (0,984)
	Rank	2	2
Accounting/ EMS	N	60	66
	M (SD)	2,964 (1,430)	3,485 (1,246)
	Rank	1	1
Music	N	61	73
	M (SD)	2,393 (1,218)	2,527 (1,047)
	Rank	5	5
Geography	N	61	73
	M (SD)	2,221 (0,929)	2,582 (0,917)
	Rank	6	4
History	N	60	73
	M (SD)	2,559 (1,156)	2,247 (0,993)
	Rank	4	6
AVERAGE DIFFICULTY		**2.624**	**2.837**

It is evident from Figure 24 that in all subjects except History, learners who intend to continue with Music possess lower Task Difficulty ratings than learners who intend to cease Music. Also notice that all Task Difficulty ratings are relatively low compared to Value and Competence ratings. Ratings for Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS are more clearly differentiated between the two groups of learners than is the case for the other subjects.
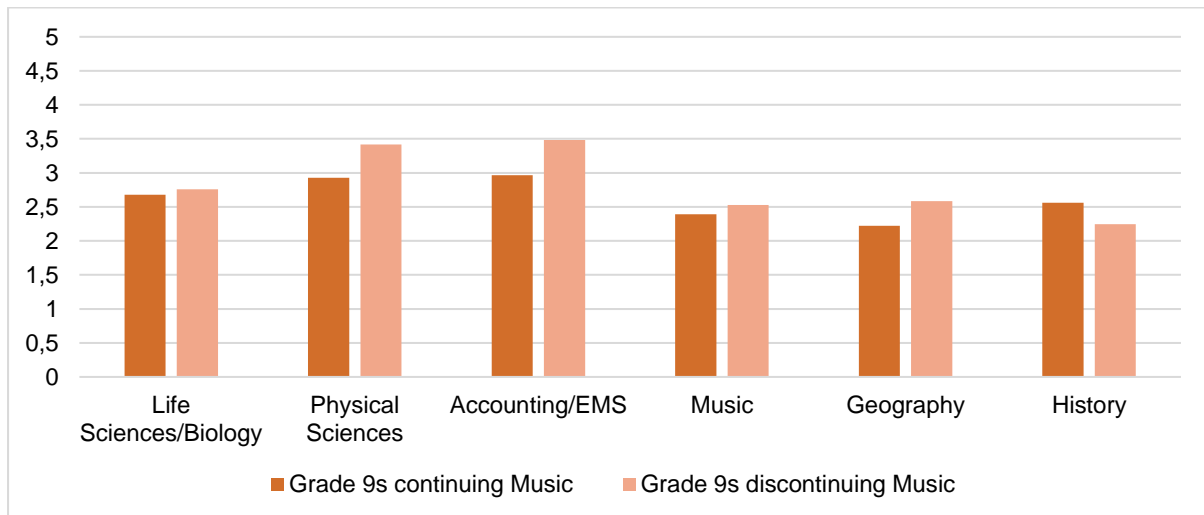
Figure 24. Task Difficulty means according to grade 9 Music continuation intentions

For a comprehensive overview of the sample sizes, means and standard deviations for all three constructs (Value, Competence, Task Difficulty) in all six subjects, according to gender and grade, refer to Table 17 below.

Table 17: Means and standard deviations according to overall, gender and grade (sample percentages are calculated from the total study sample where n=180)

Subject	Motivational construct	All			Gender						Grade					
					Male			Female			Grade 9			Grade 10		
		n (%)	M	SD	n (%)	M	SD	n (%)	M	SD	n (%)	M	SD	n (%)	M	SD
Life Sciences	Value	153 (85%)	4.04	1.149	60 (33.3%)	3.981	1.139	93 (51.6%)	4.293	1.143	137 (76.1%)	3.916	1.178	16 (8.8%)	4.358	0.806
	Competence		3.78	0.912		3.73	0.952		3.714	0.886		3.717	0.924		3.728	0.814
	Task difficulty		2.75	1.048		2.573	1.000		3.009	1.077		2.74	1.039		2.842	1.128
Physical Sciences	Value	151 (83.8%)	4.05	1.143	65 (36.1%)	4.248	1.023	86 (47.7%)	4.061	1.206	118 (65.5%)	4.021	1.189	33 (18.3%)	4.288	0.860
	Competence		3.66	1.011		3.95	0.982		3.37	1.006		3.687	1.024		3.633	0.969
	Task difficulty		3.26	1.132		2.904	1.123		3.769	1.036		3.127	1.113		3.546	1.140
Accounting/EMS	Value	131 (72.7%)	2.95	1.365	52 (28.8%)	3.522	1.430	79 (43.8%)	3.519	1.322	125 (69.4.3%)	2.931	1.352	6 (3.3%)	4.306	0.856
	Competence		3.21	1.33		3.963	1.312		3.495	1.324		3.245	1.336		4.296	0.795
	Task difficulty		3.23	1.42		2.295	1.490		3.096	1.200		3.13	1.413		2.25	1.676
Music	Value	179 (99.4%)	3.6	1.223	72 (40%)	4.043	1.090	107 (59.4%)	3.616	1.260	137 (76.1%)	3.472	1.250	42 (23.3%)	4.187	0.940
	Competence		3.77	1.037		4.003	0.951		3.747	1.080		3.763	1.093		3.986	0.794
	Task difficulty		2.49	1.214		2.506	1.378		2.52	1.080		2.455	1.203		2.571	1.260
Geography	Value	142 (78.8%)	3.13	1.159	54 (30%)	3.287	1.109	88 (48.8%)	3.29	1.190	137 (76.1%)	3.044	1.163	5 (2.7%)	3.778	0.825
	Competence		3.58	0.935		3.568	0.863		3.63	0.975		3.565	0.944		3.667	0.577
	Task difficulty		2.41	0.996		2.395	0.987		2.371	0.984		2.429	1.000		2.292	0.924
History	Value	143 (79.4%)	3.57	1.255	54 (30%)	3.548	1.259	89 (49.4%)	4.053	1.190	135 (75%)	3.466	1.262	8 (4.4%)	4.135	0.826
	Competence		3.78	1.035		3.917	1.045		3.867	1.030		3.764	1.055		4.021	0.605
	Task difficulty		2.39	1.124		2.267	1.124		2.455	1.121		2.41	1.137		2.313	0.902

Similarly, Table 18 presents a comprehensive layout of the data for each school subject according to school. Sample sizes, means and standard deviations are presented for each construct, Value, Competence and Task Difficulty. The column on the far right presents the results of the Tukey tests according to school, run for post hoc comparisons.

Table 18: Means, standard deviations and post hoc Tukey tests according to school (sample percentages are calculated from the total study sample, where n=180)

Subject	Motivational construct	School AHMP n (%)	AHMP M	AHMP SD	AHS n (%)	AHS M	AHS SD	JHSG n (%)	JHSG M	JHSG SD	PBHS n (%)	PBHS M	PBHS SD	Tukey B
Life Sciences	Value	34 (18.8%)	4.193	0.276	25 (13.8%)	4.042	0.337	59 (32.7%)	4.392	0.213	35 (19.4%)	3.92	0.205	AHMP<PBHS<AHS<JHSG
	Competence		3.506	0.243		3.649	0.297		3.922	0.188		3.812	0.18	AHMP<AHS<PBHS<JHSG
	Task difficulty		3.108	0.290		2.25	0.354		2.91	0.224		2.897	0.215	AHS<JHSG<PBHS<AHMP
Physical Sciences	Value	40 (22.2%)	3.907	0.166	28 (15.5%)	4.287	0.224	46 (25.5%)	4.215	0.198	37 (20.5%)	4.209	0.159	AHMP<JHSG<AHS<PBHS
	Competence		3.378	0.165		3.923	0.223		3.362	0.198		3.978	0.158	AHMP<JHSG<AHS<PBHS
	Task difficulty		3.617	0.173		2.824	0.234		3.921	0.208		2.983	0.167	AHS<PBHS<AHMP<JHSG
Accounting/ EMS	Value	26 (14.4%)	3.443	0.329	23 (12.7%)	4.027	0.397	53 (29.4%)	3.594	0.541	29 (16.1%)	2.511	0.199	PBHS<JHSG<AHMP<AHS
	Competence		3.575	0.382		4.29	0.46		3.415	0.628		3.31	0.231	JHSG<PBHS<AHMP<AHS
	Task difficulty		3.587	0.395		1.899	0.476		2.606	0.65		3.086	0.239	AHS<PBHS<AHMP<JHSG
Music	Value	46 (25.5%)	3.466	0.147	30 (16.6%)	4.019	0.202	61 (33.8%)	3.766	0.188	42 (23.3%)	4.067	0.156	AHMP<JHSG<AHS<PBHS
	Competence		3.844	0.152		4.114	0.209		3.649	0.194		3.891	0.161	JHSG<AHMP<PBHS<AHS
	Task difficulty		2.255	0.168		1.978	0.231		2.784	0.215		3.033	0.179	AHS<AHMP<JHSG<PBHS
Geography	Value	34 (18.8%)	3.213	0.259	23 (12.7%)	2.819	0.179	54 (30%)	3.444	0.117	31 (17.2%)	3.521	0.313	AHMP<AHS<PBHS<JHSG
	Competence		3.624	0.248		3.486	0.171		3.642	0.112		3.609	0.3	AHMP<AHS<JHSG<PBHS
	Task difficulty		2.38	0.264		2.522	0.182		2.361	0.119		2.332	0.319	PBHS<JHSG<AHS<AHMP
History	Value	35 (19.4%)	4.136	0.261	24 (13.3%)	3.717	0.502	54 (30%)	3.971	0.354	30 (16.6%)	3.379	0.5	AHS<PBHS<AHMP<JHSG
	Competence		3.84	0.255		4.007	0.49		3.894	0.345		3.828	0.488	PBHS<AHS<JHSG<AHMP
	Task difficulty		2.25	0.282		2.293	0.542		2.663	0.383		2.241	0.54	AHMP<JHSG<PBHS<AHS

Lastly, a table of the sample sizes, means and standard deviations for all subjects according to grade 9 Music continuation intentions is presented. This table shows the mean ratings for all constructs, Value, Competence and Task Difficulty. Notice that there are more grade 9 learners who wish to discontinue Music than there are learners who wish to continue with it in the FET phase.

Table 19: Means and standard deviations according to grade 9 Music continuation intentions (sample percentages are calculated according to the total number of learners per subject)

Subject	Motivational construct	Total grade 9 learners per subject[4]	Grade 9 Music continuation intentions					
			Continuing Music			Discontinuing Music		
			n (%)	*M*	*SD*	*n* (%)	*M*	*SD*
Life Sciences	Value	134	61 (45.5%)	3.857	1.043	73 (54.5%)	4.102	0.945
	Competence			3.79	0.863		3.769	0.819
	Task Difficulty			2.68	1.084		2.76	0.850
Physical Sciences	Value	117	56 (47.8%)	4.126	0.872	61 (52.1%)	3.832	1.091
	Competence			3.867	0.822		3.43	1.051
	Task Difficulty			2.926	1.007		3.418	0.984
Accounting /EMS	Value	122	56 (45.9%)	2.902	1.209	66 (54.09%)	2.767	1.076
	Competence			3.414	1.272		2.922	1.232
	Task Difficulty			2.964	1.430		3.485	1.246
Music	Value	134	61 (45.5%)	4.230	0.670	73 (54.4%)	2.771	0.872
	Competence			4.29	0.714		3.187	0.980
	Task Difficulty			2.393	1.218		2.527	1.047
Geography	Value	134	61 (45.5%)	3.109	0.891	73 (54.4%)	3.148	0.929
	Competence			3.68	0.752		3.525	0.903
	Task Difficulty			2.221	0.929		2.582	0.917
History	Value	133	60 (45.1%)	3.340	1.103	73 (54.8%)	3.707	0.987
	Competence			3.684	1.075		3.856	0.867
	Task Difficulty			2.559	1.156		2.247	0.993

[4] Totals exclude incomplete questionnaires

4.5 Associations

In order to explore associations between the three motivational constructs (Value, Competence and Task difficulty) and each variable (school, grade and gender), a MANOVA was performed. The original MANOVA revealed significant findings (according to Wilks' Lambda) for all three variables in Music. Follow-up multivariate tests confirmed the association between the three motivational constructs (for Music) and *school*, with univariate tests showing the strongest associations between school and Task Difficulty for Music, followed by school and Value for Music. Similarly, multivariate and subsequent univariate tests supported the initial association between Music motivation and grade, showing a very strong correlation specifically between grade and Value for Music. Lastly, while multivariate tests did not show a significant association between gender and motivation for Music, univariate tests did find a significant link between gender and Value for Music.

Table 20 shows the associations for Value, Competence and Task difficutly according to school, grade and gender. Only the associations for Music are reported, according to the univariate tests for each variable which were based on pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Table 20: Associations for Music

	School			*Grade*			*Gender*		
	F	*P*	**Partial Eta Squared**	*F*	*P*	**Partial Eta Squared**	*F*	*P*	**Partial Eta Squared**
Value	3.100	0.028*	0.052	16.792	0.000**	0.089	5.986	0.015*	0.034
Competence	0.900	0.442	0.016	1.529	0.218	0.009	2.008	0.158	0.012
Task Difficulty	5.901	0.001**	0.094	0.339	0.561	0.002	0.005	0.944	0.000

(*p<0.05; **p<0.005)

The results reveal highly significant correlations between Value and grade ($F = 16.792$; $p = 0.000$), as well as between Task Difficulty and school ($F = 5.901$; $p = 0.001$). Moderately strong correlations were found between Value and school ($F = 3.100$; $p = 0.028$), as well as between Value and gender ($F = 5.986$; $p = 0.015$). There were no significant associations for Competence Beliefs with regard to school, grade or gender.

The table below shows the *p*-values of the pairwise comparisons of each school. Figures are based on estimated marginal means.

Table 21: Pairwise comparisons of each school for Music

		AHMP			AHS			JHSG		
		p-value (Mean difference)								
		V	C	TD	V	C	TD	V	C	TD
AHMP	V				0.028* (0.553)			0.211 (0.300)		
AHMP	C					0.297 (0.270)			0.431 (-0.195)	
AHMP	TD						0.333 (-0.277)			0.054* (0.529)
AHS	V	0.028* (0.553)						0.359 (-0.254)		
AHS	C		0.297 (0.270)						0.105 (-0.464)	
AHS	TD			0.333 (-0.277)						0.011* (0.806)
JHSG	V	0.211 (0.300)			0.359 (-0.254)					
JHSG	C		0.431 (-0.195)			0.105 (-0.464)				
JHSG	TD			0.054* (0.529)			0.011* (0.806)			
PBHS	V	0.006** (0.601)			0.852 (0.048)			0.219 (0.301)		
PBHS	C		0.832 (0.047)			0.4 (-0.223)			0.339 (0.242)	
PBHS	TD			0.002** (0.778)			0.000** (1.055)			0.374 (0.249)

(*p<0.05; **p<0.005)

In terms of Value for Music, there is a strong association between AHMP and PBHS ($p = 0.006$). The relatively large mean difference (0.601) tells us that PBHS rated Music as significantly more valuable than did AHMP. Strong associations were also found in terms of Music Task Difficulty between the aforementioned two schools ($p = 0.002$), suggesting significantly contrasting Task Difficulty Perceptions for Music between the two schools. Similarly, a very strong correlation was found between AHS and PBHS ($p = 0.000$) for Task difficulty, indicating very strongly contrasted Task Difficulty Perceptions for Music. The mean difference between Task Difficulty ratings for PBHS and AHS is larger than any of the other mean differences (1.055) with PBHS learners rating Music as much more difficult than AHS learners. Moderate Value associations were found between AHMP and AHS ($p = 0.028$), again showing contrasting responses for Value for Music, based on school. Furthermore, moderate Task Difficulty associations were found between AHMP and JHSG ($p = 0.054$), as well as between AHS and JHSG ($p = 0.011$), suggesting that learners from JHSG reported higher Task Difficulty Perceptions than the other two schools.

4.6 Regression Analysis

A linear regression model was used to predict the influence of school, grade and gender on perceptions of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for each elective subject.

School

Multivariate tests revealed that school is a strong predictor of motivation for Music as a school subject ($F = 3.446$; $p = 0.000$ according to Wilks' Lambda). More specifically, univariate F tests explored the effect of school on each motivational construct for all six subjects (Table 22), and revealed that the school attended affects both Value and Task Difficulty Perceptions for Music, but does not affect Competence Beliefs. Univariate tests also revealed that school affects Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions in Physical Sciences, Value and Task Difficulty Perceptions in Accounting/EMS, as well as Value Perceptions in Geography.

Table 22: Univariate effects for schools

School subjects	N	Motivational constructs	*F*	*P*	Partial Eta Squared
Life Sciences	153	Value	0.888	0.449	0.018
		Competence	0.683	0.564	0.014
		Difficulty	1.262	0.290	0.025
Physical Sciences	151	Value	0.915	0.436	0.019
		Competence	3.543	0.016*	0.069
		Difficulty	6.603	0.000**	0.122
Accounting/EMS	131	Value	5.245	0.002**	0.113
		Competence	1.224	0.304	0.029
		Difficulty	2.679	0.050*	0.061
Music	179	Value	3.100	0.028*	0.052
		Competence	0.900	0.442	0.016
		Difficulty	5.901	0.001**	0.094
Geography	142	Value	3.094	0.029*	0.064
		Competence	0.199	0.897	0.004
		Difficulty	0.202	0.895	0.004
History	143	Value	0.674	0.569	0.015
		Competence	0.035	0.991	0.001
		Difficulty	0.285	0.836	0.006

(*p<0.05; **p<0.005)

Grade

Multivariate tests showed that perceptions of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty in Music are affected by grade ($F = 6.562$; $p = 0.000$ according to Wilks' Lambda), though not to the same extent as they are affected by school. Of all six school subjects, these findings were most significant for Music. Grade also influences these perceptions for Physical Sciences ($F = 2.953$; $p = 0.035$) and Accounting/EMS ($F = 2.563$; $p = 0.058$). Univariate tests specified that grade affects Value Perceptions for Music ($F = 16.792$; $p = 0.000$) much more than it affects Competence Beliefs or Task Difficulty Perceptions (see Table 23). Grade also affects Task Difficulty Perceptions in Physical Sciences, and Value Perceptions in Accounting/EMS. The table below presentes the results of the univariate tests for grade. Again, this test was based on the pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Table 23: Univariate effects for grade

School subjects	N	Motivational constructs	F	P	Partial Eta Squared
Life Sciences	153	Value	2.830	0.095	0.019
		Competence	0.002	0.961	0.000
		Difficulty	0.134	0.715	0.001
Physical Sciences	151	Value	1.992	0.160	0.014
		Competence	0.082	0.776	0.001
		Difficulty	4.516	0.035*	0.031
Accounting/EMS	131	Value	7.728	0.006**	0.059
		Competence	3.360	0.069	0.026
		Difficulty	2.194	0.141	0.017
Music	179	Value	16.792	0.000**	0.089
		Competence	1.529	0.218	0.009
		Difficulty	0.339	0.561	0.002
Geography	142	Value	3.390	0.068	0.024
		Competence	0.071	0.790	0.001
		Difficulty	0.114	0.736	0.001
History	143	Value	2.571	0.111	0.019
		Competence	0.400	0.528	0.003
		Difficulty	0.047	0.830	0.000

(*$p<0.05$; **$p<0.005$)

Gender

Unlike school and grade, gender was not shown to be a strong predictor of any of the motivational constructs (Value, Competence or Task difficulty) for Music according to multivariate tests ($F = 2.017$; $p = 0.114$). The only subject for which gender is a strong predictor of the three constructs is Physical Sciences ($F = 7.570$; $p = 0.000$). However, subsequent univariate tests revealed that of the three variables, gender most strongly affects Value Perceptions for Music ($F = 5.986$; $p = 0.015$). The only other significant findings were for Physical Sciences, with univariate tests revealing that both Competence and Task Difficulty are predicted by gender (Competence: $F = 9.573$; $p = 0,002$. Task difficulty: $F = 19.224$; $p = 0.000$). The finding of gender being so influential on Task Difficulty ratings for Physical Sciences is of particular interest. The table below provides the univariate results according to gender.

Table 24: Univariate effects for gender

School subjects	N	Motivational constructs	F	P	Partial Eta Squared
Life Sciences	153	Value	1.400	0.239	0.010
		Competence	0.005	0.943	0.000
		Difficulty	2.484	0.117	0.017
Physical Sciences	151	Value	0.984	0.323	0.007
		Competence	9.573	0.002**	0.063
		Difficulty	19.224	0.000**	0.119
Accounting/EMS	131	Value	0.000	0.994	0.000
		Competence	0.934	0.336	0.007
		Difficulty	2.552	0.113	0.020
Music	179	Value	5.986	0.015*	0.034
		Competence	2.008	0.158	0.012
		Difficulty	0.005	0.944	0.000
Geography	142	Value	0.000	0.990	0.000
		Competence	0.053	0.818	0.000
		Difficulty	0.007	0.933	0.000
History	143	Value	1.464	0.228	0.011
		Competence	0.015	0.902	0.000
		Difficulty	0.173	0.678	0.001

(**p<0.05; **p<0.005*)

4.7 Significant influences on Music motivation

After evaluating the Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions for all school subjects across grade 9 and grade 10 Music learners, it became apparent that a closer assessment of the grade 9 responses should be undertaken so as to better understand learners' motivation to continue or cease Music in grade 10. The influences that emerged as significant included gender; parent, teacher and social influences; self-motivation; learners' household musicianship as well as practising habits. The following section deals predominantly with grade 9 responses, specifically focusing on how the responses differed based on the learners' intentions to continue with Music in grade 10.

4.7.1 Gender

Grade 9 responses in the current study showed that far more male learners have the intention to continue with Music in grade 10 than do female learners (Figure 25). In fact, the percentage of male learners who intend to continue with Music is quite similar to the percentage of female learners who intend to discontinue Music.
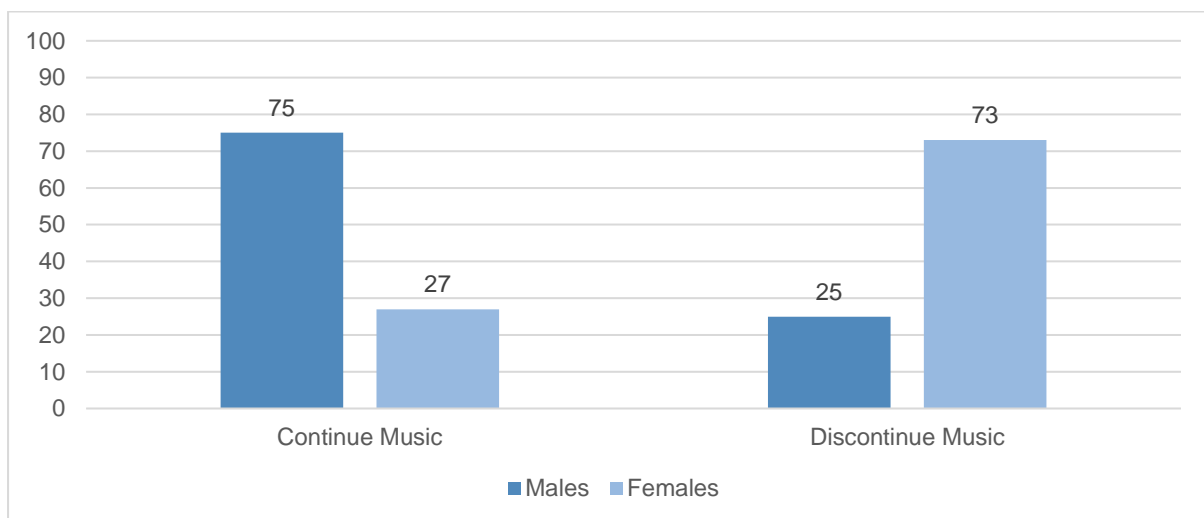
Figure 25. Grade 9 intentions to continue or discontinue Music, according to gender

4.7.2 Parental influence

A vast amount of prior research has demonstrated the salient influence that parents have on the Values, Competencies, Task Difficulty Perceptions and overall motivational orientations of their children. The current study explored learners' perceptions of their parents' opinions,

expectations and encouragement levels for each elective subject, including Music. This section presents the results pertaining to parental influences on learners' motivation.

Parental influence on all elective subjects

The questionnaire included five items pertaining to parental influence on learners' motivation (For the questionnaire, refer to Appendix A). Regarding the first item, learners were asked to rate (on a 5-point Likert scale) how hard their parents expect them to work in all their subjects. The response level 1 was "Not hard" and level 5 was "Very hard". Table 25 shows the means, standard deviations and ranking order (according to mean) of perceived parental expectations for each school subject.

Table 25: Means, standard deviations and ranking order of perceived parental expectations for each school subject

School subjects	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking order
Physical Sciences	149	4.38	0.919	1
Life Sciences/Biology	146	4.16	1.100	2
Accounting/EMS	130	3.88	1.134	3
History	140	3.84	1.189	4
Music	179	3.79	1.323	5
Geography	140	3.68	1.146	6

From the table above, it can be seen that in a subject-comparative context, learners do not perceive very high expectations from their parents when it comes to effort for Music. According to the learners in this sample, Physical Sciences is deemed most important to parents, follwed by Life Sciences/Biology, Accounting/EMS, History, Music and then Geography. The ranking order of learners' own Value Perceptions of their subjects is also headed by Physical Sciences followed by Life Sciences/Biology, perhaps partially as a result of perceived parental beliefs. Another interesting result is that learners highly value their parents' support and encouragement to do well at school. Item 17 of the questionnaire asked learners to rate the level of importance of their parents'/guardians' support and encouragement to do well at school. Level 1 was "Not important" and level 5 was "Very important". The overall mean rating for this question was 4.11.

Parental influence on Music

A closer examination was undertaken regarding the responses for how hard learners believe their parents expect them to work in Music *specifically* (this refers to item 15 of the questionnaire). Grade 10 responses showed that 74% of learners feel that their parents expect them to work hard in Music (ratings of 4 or 5). Figure 26 below illustrates the grade 10 results for parental expectations in Music.
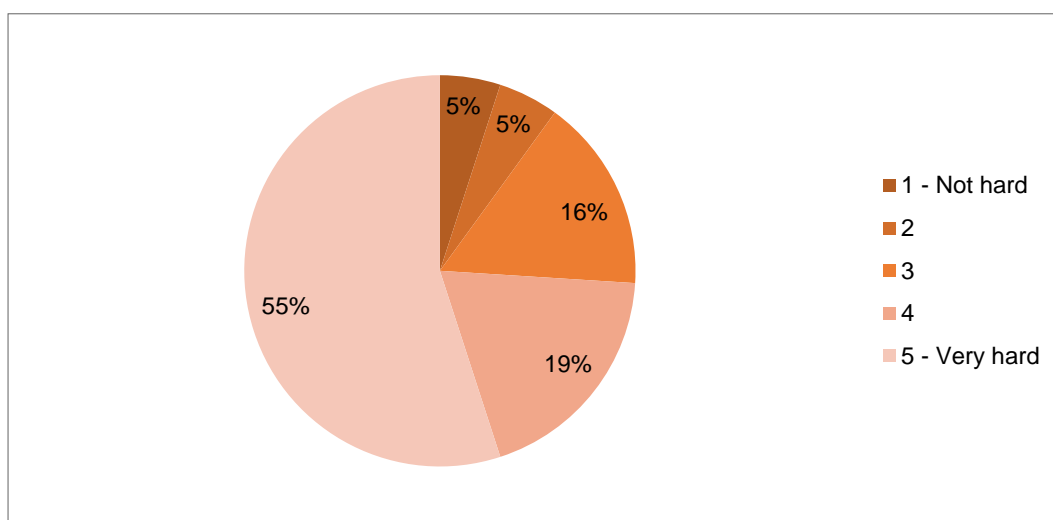
Figure 26. Grade 10 learners' ratings of parental expectations for Music

In order to determine the influence of parents on motivation for Music, the grade 9 responses were considered in isolation to the grade 10 responses. For these purposes, the ratings were split into two groups: group 1 consisted of ratings of 4 or 5, and represented high perceptions of parental expectations for Music; group 2 consisted of ratings of 3 or less, and represented lower perceptions of parental expectations for Music. 82 learners reported ratings of 4 or 5. Of this number, 40 learners (49%) indicated that they would like to continue with Music in grade 10. The remaining 42 learners (51%) reported wanting to discontinue Music. This shows a relatively insignificant influence of *high* parental expectations on Music continuation. However, 51 learners reported low expectations from their parents for Music (ratings of 3 or lower), and of this number, only 21 learners (41%) want to continue with Music in grade 10, while 30 learners (59%) want to discontinue Music (see Figure 27).
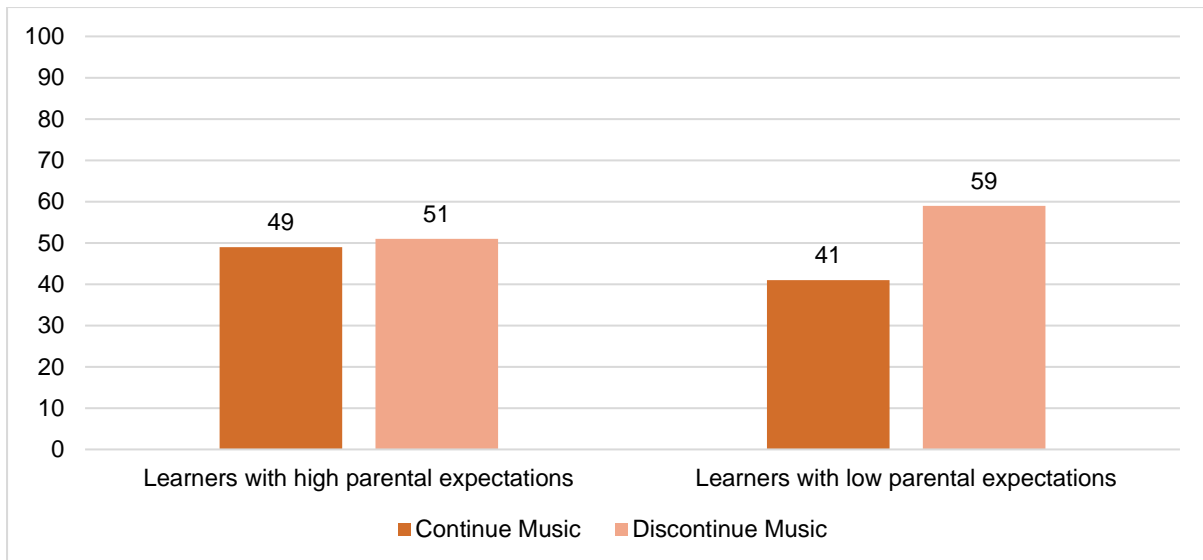
Figure 27. Music continuation decisions of grade 9 learners according to varying levels of perceived parental expectations

From the figure above, we can see that when learners perceive low expectations from their parents for hard work in Music, they are 8% less likely to choose Music as an elective subject in grade 10. It is also interesting to notice that grade 9 learners' perceptions of parental expectations are not as high as the grade 10 learners' perceptions. The figure below presents the grade 9 learners' ratings of perceived parental expectations for Music compared to the grade 10 ratings. The vertical axis represents percentage of learners in each grade.
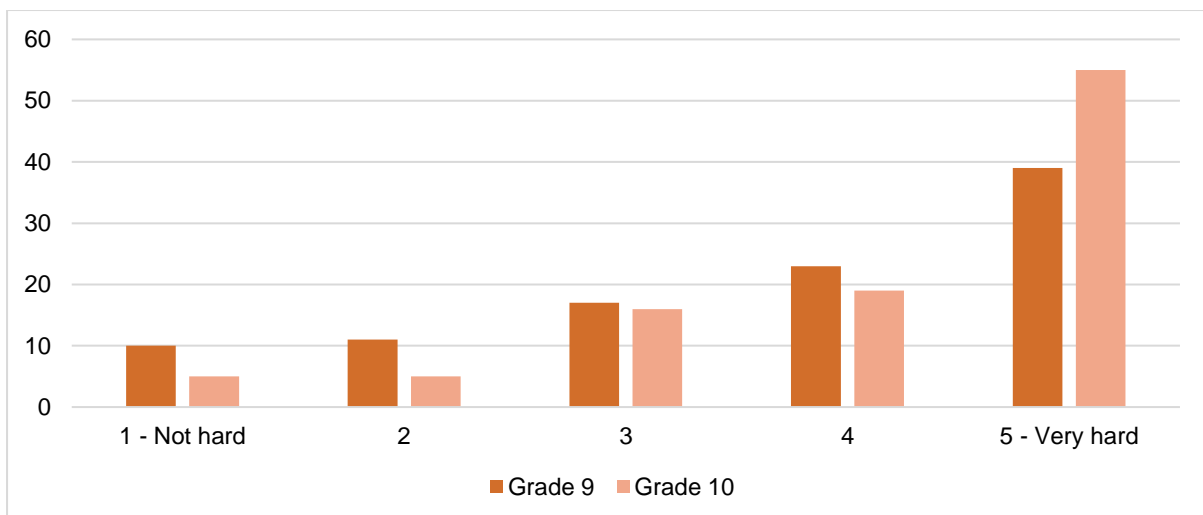
Figure 28. Perceived parental expectation ratings for Music according to grade

Question 21 asks learners to rate the level to which they are *encouraged* to do well in Music by their parents/guardians. Grade 9 responses were fascinating, especially when analysed according to Music continuation decisions. 89 learners reported ratings of 4 or 5. Of this number, 53 learners (60%) wish to continue with Music, and 36 (40%) do not. On the other hand, 45 learners indicated ratings of 3 or lower for parental encouragement in Music, of which only 8 (18%) want to continue with Music in grade 10 (See Figure 29).

Figure 29. Music continuation decisions of grade 9 learners according to varying levels of perceived parental encouragement to do well in Music

These results show that if learners feel that their parents do not encourage them to do well in Music, they are 42% more likely to discontinue with Music in grade 10.

4.7.3 Teacher influence

Results of this study (as well as existing research) showed that learners' perceptions of their teachers' expectations and support influence motivation for general academic subjects. It was fascinating to compare results for Music with the other school subjects. Interesting results were also found for perceived teacher influences on Music intentions specifically.

Teacher influence on all elective subjects

Teacher influence was assessed using three items (questions 18, 20 and 21). Question 18 asked learners to rate (on a 5-point Likert scale) how hard they believe their teachers expect them to work in each school subject. The following table provides the descriptive statistics for this question, as well as the ranking order according to mean. These means and standard deviations represent the entire sample of grade 9 and 10 learners.

Table 26: Overall means, standard deviations and ranking order of perceived teacher expectation ratings for each subject

School subjects	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking order
Physical Sciences	151	4.60	0.713	1
Life Sciences/Biology	149	4.55	0.739	2
Music	178	4.43	0.932	3
Accounting/EMS	128	4.26	0.941	4
History	140	4.26	0.932	4
Geography	140	4.20	0.923	5

It can be seen from the data in the table that learners perceive higher expectations from their Physical Sciences and Life Sciences/Biology teachers than from their other teachers. Interestingly, Music-teacher expectations were ranked third highest. Accounting/EMS and History received the same mean rating, while Geography received the lowest ratings. However, as can be seen in the table, all ratings are high, falling between 4.2 and 4.6. More interesting still is the fact that these results are consistently higher than parental expectation perceptions for each subject (see Figure 30).
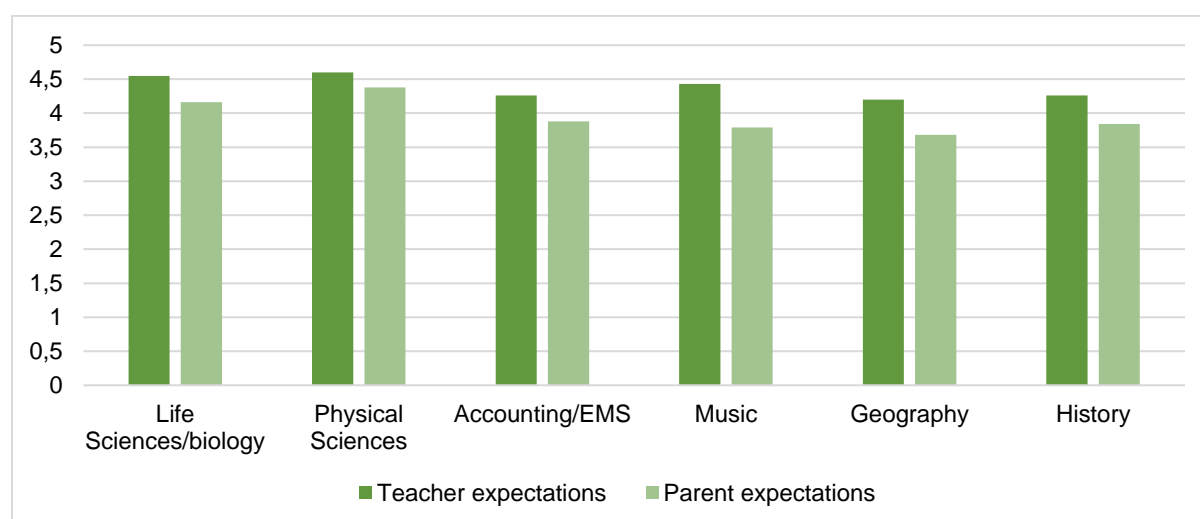
Figure 30. Comparison of overall mean ratings of perceived parent- and teacher- expectations for all school subjects

Teacher influence on Music

The following results focus on the responses to question 18 (how hard do your teachers expect you to work in each subject), but specifically for Music. Looking at grade 10 results first, it was found that 86% of learners feel that their Music teachers hold high expectations of them (ratings of 4 or 5) in terms of how hard they should work in Music. Figure 31 presents these results. Notice that the cumulative percentage of learners who rated 4 and 5 is higher for teacher expectations than for parent expectations for Music.
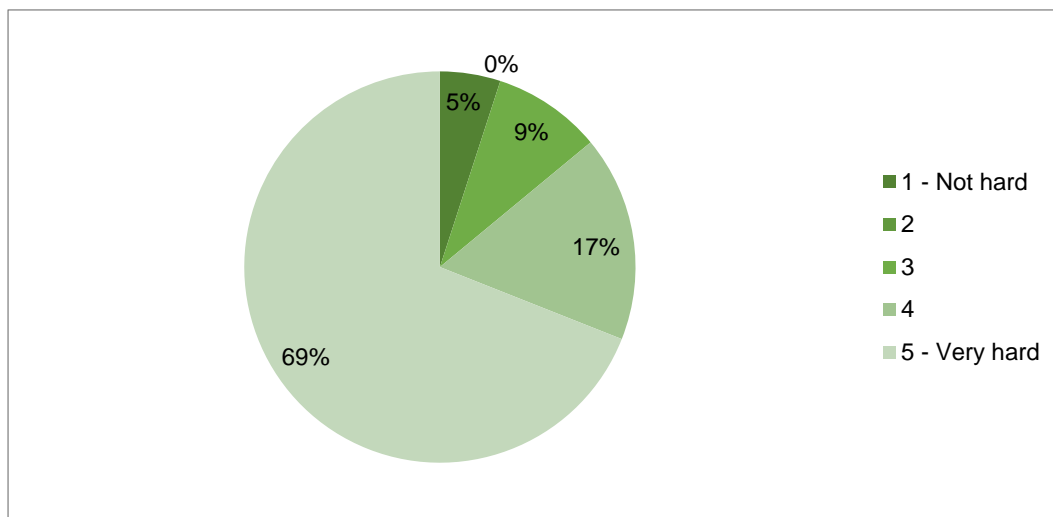
Figure 31. Grade 10 learners' ratings of perceived teacher expectations for Music

In order to evaluate the influence of Music teacher expectations on Music intention decisions, the grade 9 responses were analysed. Results showed that of the learners who feel that their teachers expect them to work hard in Music (110 learners), 48% want to continue with Music in grade 10, while 51% want to discontinue Music in grade 10. These results indicate that regardless of high expectations from Music teachers, there is still a 50% chance that learners will not continue with Music when given the choice. However, when teachers are perceived to hold lower expecations of learners (ratings of 3 or lower), it is 12 % less likely that learners will continue with Music when given the option to discontinue (See Figure 32).
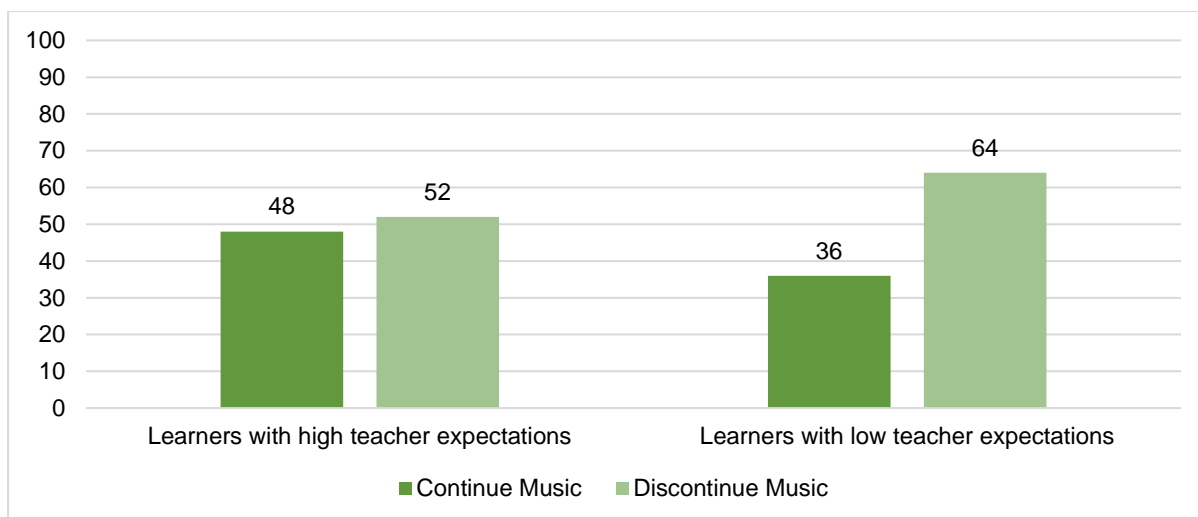
Figure 32. Music continuation decisions of grade 9 learners according to varying levels of teacher expectations for Music

Learners were asked to rate the level to which they are *encouraged* to do well in Music by their school teachers. The grade 9 mean rating for this question was 4.19. In terms of grade 9 learners' decisions to continue Music according to this question, results were very similar to those for question 18 above, regarding teacher *expectations* in Music. The following figure shows the Music continuation intentions of grade 9 learners with high (ratings of 4 and 5) and low (ratings of 3 and lower) perceptions of encouragement from their teachers to do well in Music. Evidently, when grade 9 learners perceive weak levels of encouragement from their teachers for Music (ratings of 3 or lower), they are 17% less likely to continue with Music in grade 10.
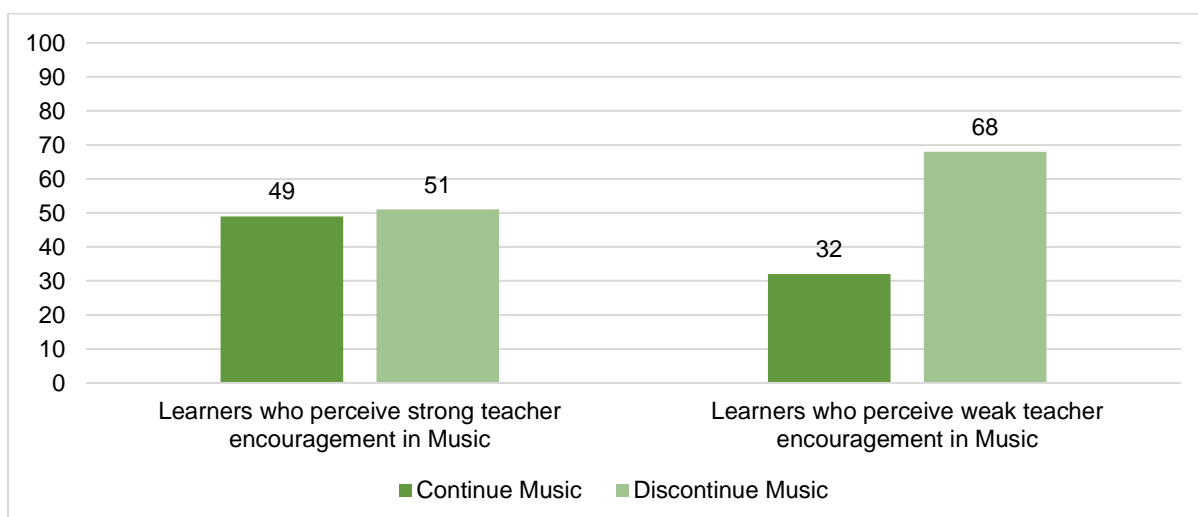
Figure 33. Music continuation decisions of grade 9 learners according to varying levels of perceived teacher encouragement in Music

4.7.4 Self motivation

The influence of oneself as a motivating force for Music proved to be an important finding of this study. Within question 21, learners were asked to rate the level to which they are encouraged to do well in Music by themselves. Grade 10 results revealed that 95% of learners are strongly self-motivated for Music (ratings of 4 and 5). Only 2 learners reported ratings of less than 3 (see Figure 29).
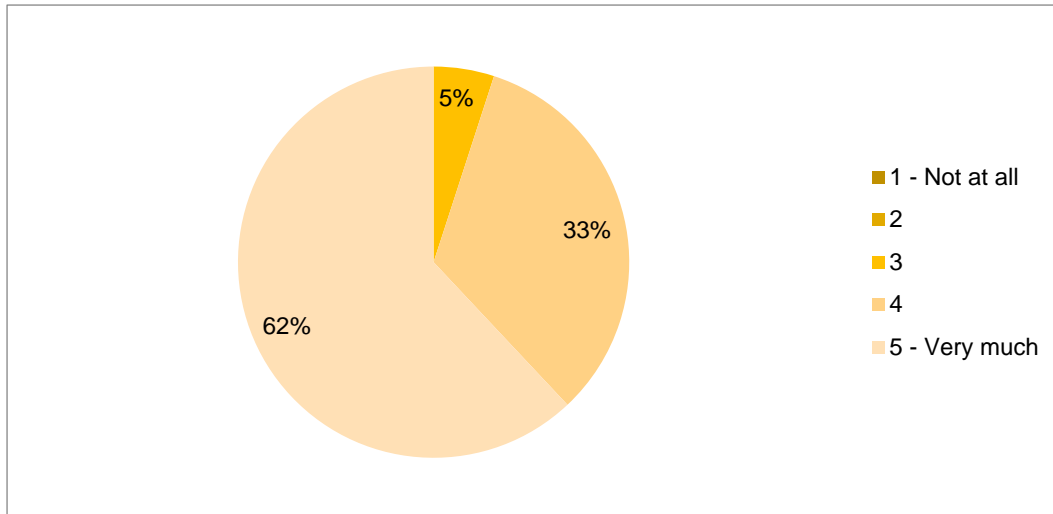
Figure 34. Grade 10 ratings of the level to which they are self-motivated to do well in Music

In order to evaluate the effect of self-motivation on decisions to continue or discontinue Music, the grade 9 responses were analysed. Results showed that learners are more likely to choose Music in grade 10 if they experience high levels of self-motivation for Music. In other words, grade 9 learners who want to choose Music as a subject in grade 10 are more self-motivated than are learners who do not want to choose Music in grade 10 (See Figure 35).
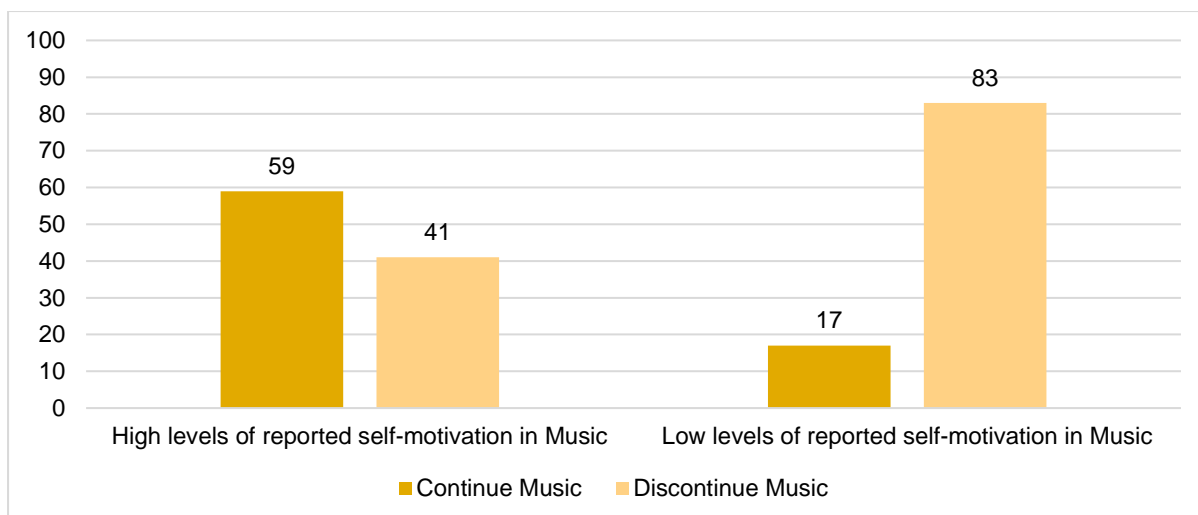
Figure 35. Music continuation decisions of grade 9 learners according to Music self-motivation ratings

Responses to item 19 in the questionnaire shed some light onto learners' beliefs of who pushes them to achieve at school on a more general level. 64% of grade 10 learners indicated that they are pushed most by themselves. When observing the grade 9 responses and relating them to Music continuation decisions, it was found that learners who intend to continue with Music indicated being more self-motivated for general school achievement than did learners who do not intend to continue with Music. Learners continuing with Music also reported a stronger motivating influence from friends and school teachers, and a weaker motivating influence from parents/guardians than did learners who intend to discontinue Music. Figure 36 presents these comparisons. The vertical axis represents percentage of grade 9 learners.
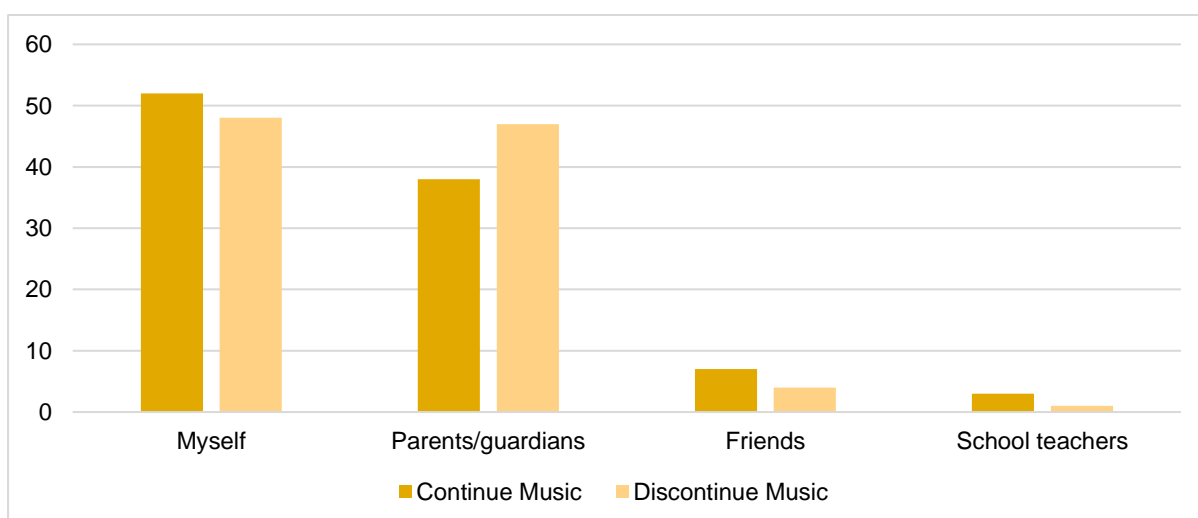
Figure 36. Motivating forces for general school achievement according to grade 9 Music continuation decisions

4.7.5 Social influence

Item 21 of the questionnaire asked learners to rate the level to which they are encouraged to do well in Music by their friends. Grade 10 learners reported low ratings for social motivation in Music: the mean rating was 2.97. Figure 37 presents the grade 10 ratings.
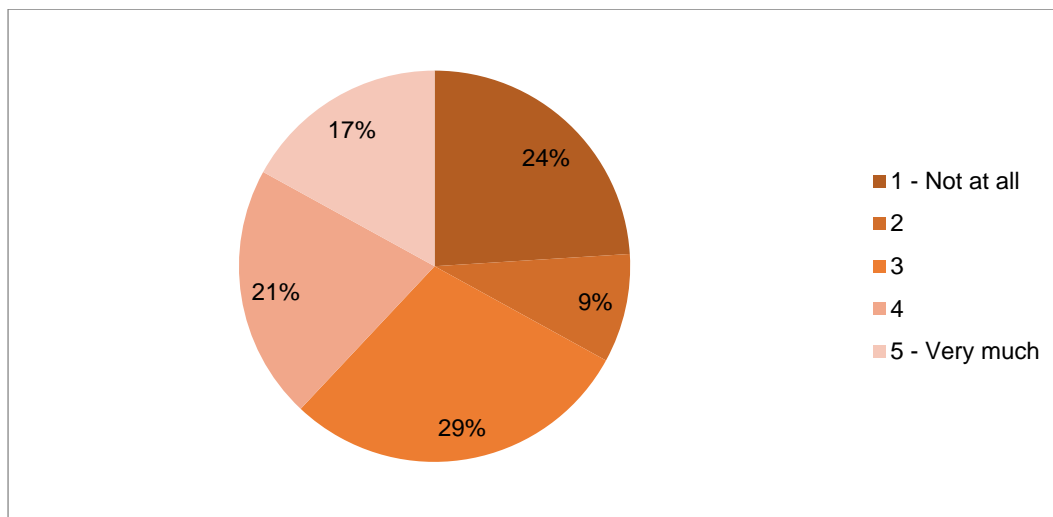
Figure 37. Grade 10 ratings of encouragement to do well in Music by friends

Grade 9 responses were compared between learners who want to continue with Music in grade 10, and those who do not. As can be seen in the figure below, the effect of encouragement from friends is weak in terms of Music continuation intentions. Ratings were generally low across grade 9 and 10 learners, and Music continuation intentions were fairly well-balanced regardless of high or low ratings. We can determine, however, that grade 9 learners who want to choose Music in grade 10 reported slightly higher levels of Music encouragement from friends than did learners who do not want to choose Music in grade 10 (see Figure 38).

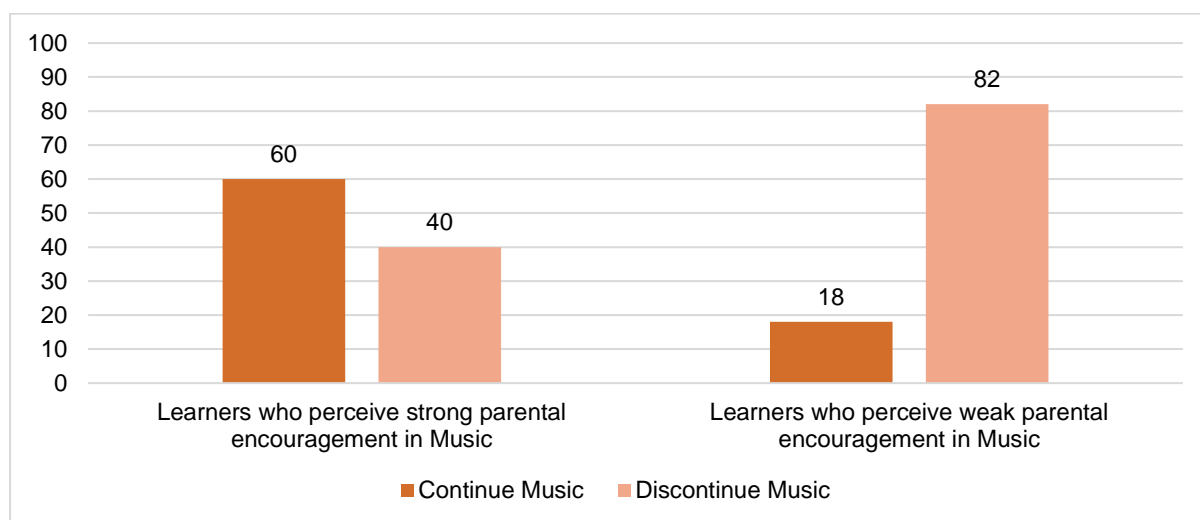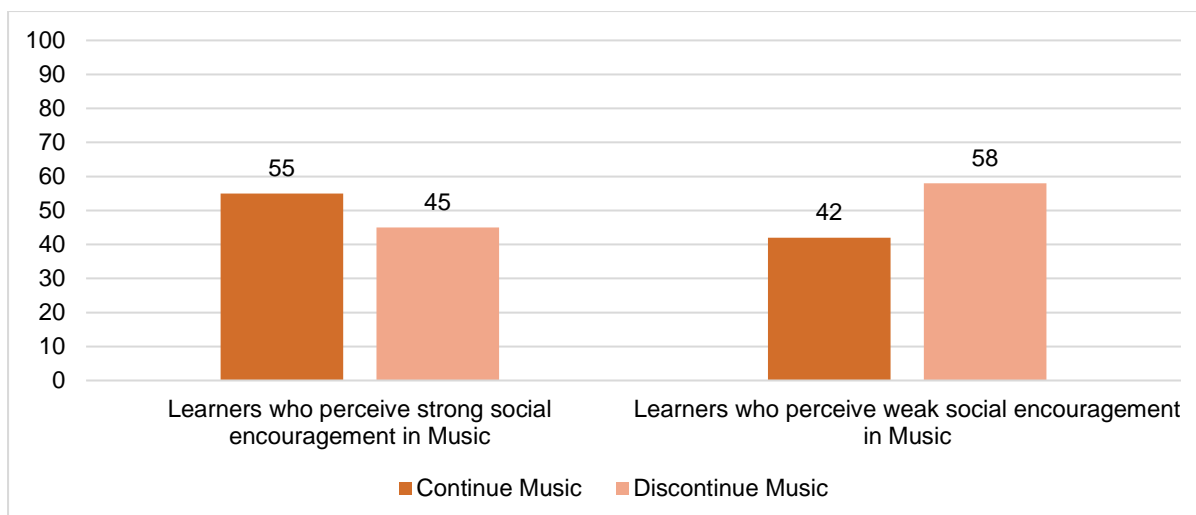*Figure 38*. Music continuation decisions of grade 9 learners according to varying levels of perceived social encouragement in Music

4.7.6 Household musicianship

Question 2 of the questionnaire asked learners whether or not there is anybody in their household (apart from themselves) who plays a musical instrument. Results were descriptively analysed. The influence of household musicianship on learners' decisions to continue or discontinue Music was found to be significant.

The first important finding was that 73.8% of the grade 10 Music learners (31 of the 42 learners) reported having somebody in their household who plays an instrument. In order to compare whether or not household musicianship does in fact influence the intention to continue or discontinue Music, grade 9 responses were further analysed.

The grade 9 responses revealed that 66 of the grade 9 learners reported having somebody in their family/household who plays an instrument. Of this number, 37 learners (56%) reported that they plan to continue with Music in their grade 10 year.

On the other hand, 70 grade 9 learners reported not having anybody in their houshold who plays an instrument. Of this number, 24 learners (34%) reported that they would like to continue with Music in grade 10, while 46 learners (66%) claimed to want to cease Music. From these results, it can be seen that according to this sample, grade 9 learners are 22% more likely to feel motivated to continue with Music in grade 10 if they have musicians in their families/households (See Figure 39).
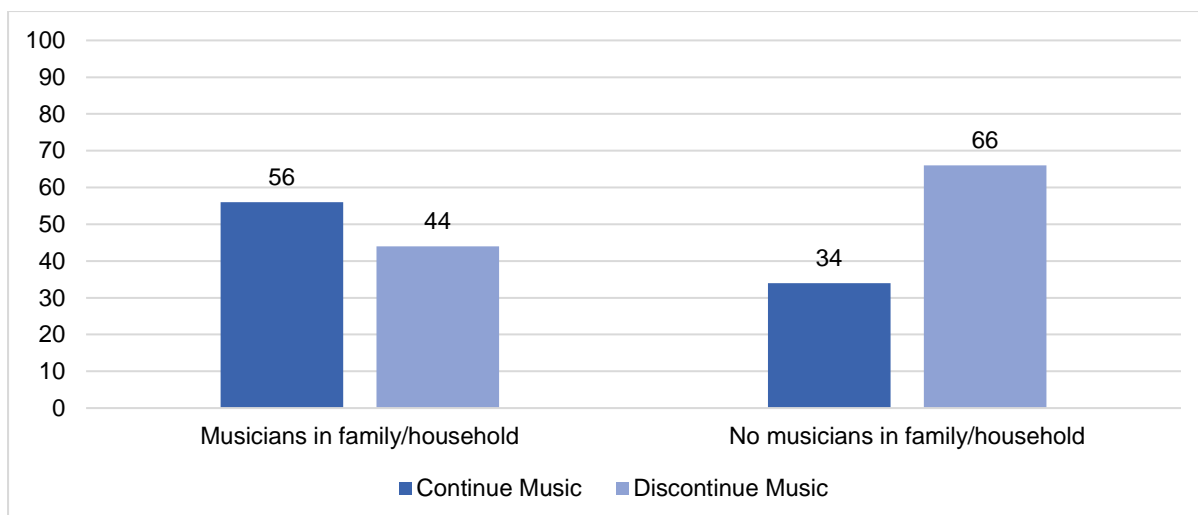
Figure 39. Family/household musicianship and Grade 9 learner intention to continue Music

4.7.7 Practising habits and other outside-school activities

Item 26 of the questionnaire asked learners to rate how many times each week they take part in a variety of activities, such as practicing a musical instrument, listening to music, reading books, playing sports or outdoor games and using social media. Fascinating results were found in terms of practising habits as well as reading habits. Grade 10 learners (who have all chosen Music as an elective subject) reported practising an average of 4.88 times per week. Grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10 reported practising an average of 4.67 times a week, while grade 9 learners who do not intend to continue with Music in grade 10 only reported an average practice time of 2.15 times per week. The following graph presents these results.
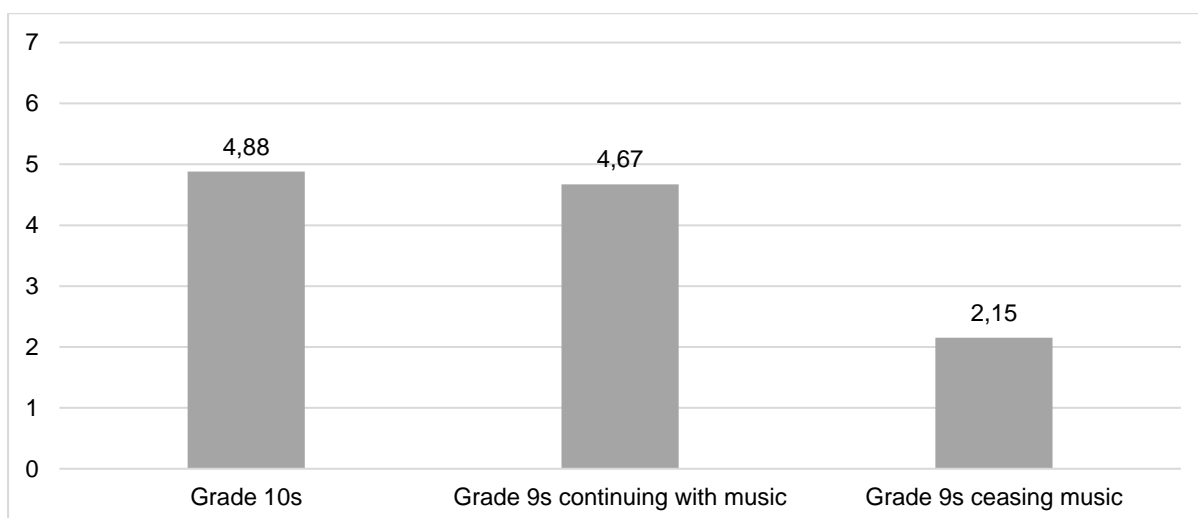
Figure 40. Self-reported instrumental practice time per week

Learners were also asked to rate how often each week they read a book. Fascinatingly, results revealed that grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music report reading books more frequently than learners who do not want to continue with Music in grade 10.

Other interesting findings in terms of learners' activities include the fact that the activity in which learners reported the most frequent weekly participation was listening to music (see Table 27). Practising an instrument was ranked 4th out of 10 in terms of the regularity of performing each activity. Reading books was ranked 7th out of 10 by the entire sample as a whole.

Table 27: Means of weekly activity participation for all learners in sample (the scale was 0-7)

Activity	Mean responses of how often activity is performed per week	Ranking order
Listen to music	6.011	1
Do your homework	5.364	2
Play sports or outdoor games	3.761	3
Practise a musical instrument	3.695	4
Hang out with friends	3.625	5
Use social media like Facebook and Twitter	3.591	6
Read books	2.931	7
Watch TV/DVDs	2.783	8
Attend practical music lessons	1.741	9
Play computer/TV games like Xbox	0.989	10

To better understand Music continuation intentions, the grade 9 responses were isolated and organised according to whether or not they intend to continue with Music. The graph below shows the results of learners' self-reported weekly activities according to grade 10s, grade 9s continuing Music and grade 9s discontinuing Music. Notice that grade 9 learners who do not intend to continue with Music report listening to music more frequently than the other learners; they also report much less weekly practice time; they socialise with friends more; read less; watch more TV/DVDs and attend fewer practical lessons than do learners who have either already chosen Music or intend to do so.
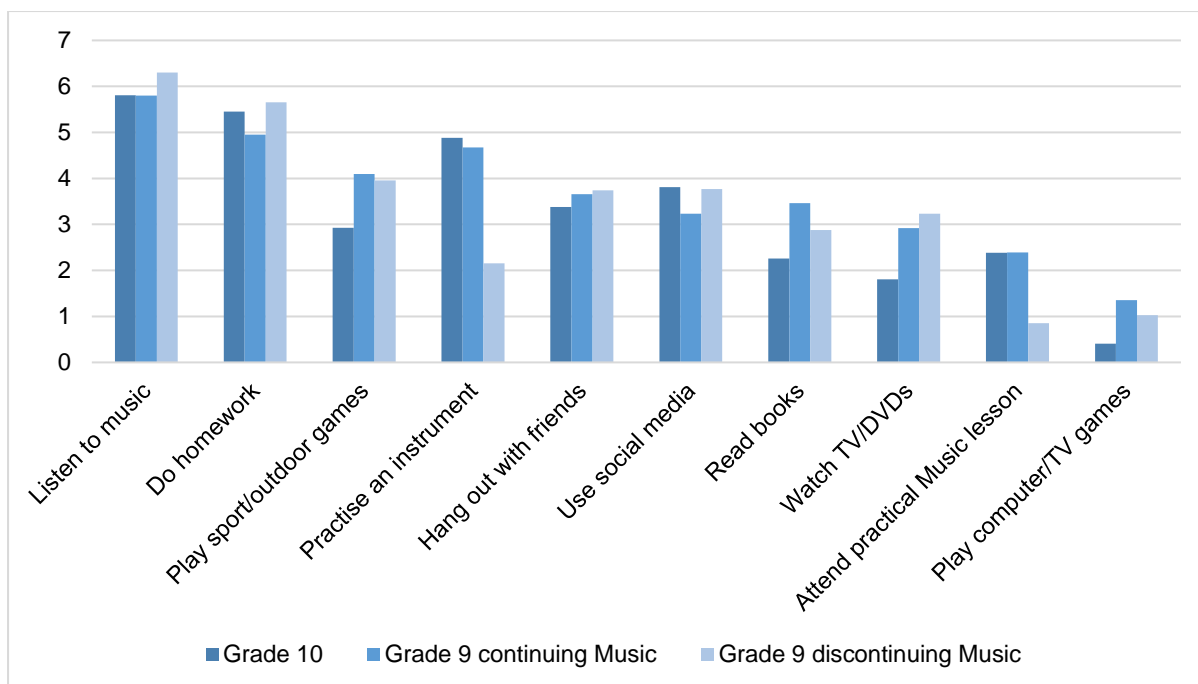
Figure 41. Self-reported weekly participation in various activities, according to grade and Music continuation intentions

4.8 Reasons cited for not choosing Music

The last item of the questionnaire asked those grade 9 learners who do not want to continue with Music to select reasons for their decision from a list of possibilities. The results further solidify our understanding of learners' perceptions of Music as a school subject. The following table shows the list of reasons for not wanting to choose Music, as well as how many learners cited each reason (learners were allowed to tick more than one option in this item). The column on the right indicates the percentage of responses according to the total number of learners not intending to continue with Music in grade 10[5]. The reasons are presented in order of most-commonly cited to least-commonly cited.

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[5] While 73 learners indicated negative Music continuation intentions, the percentages presented in this table are calculated according to a total of 72 learners, owing to the fact that one learner did not complete this question.

Table 28: Grade 9 learners' reasons for negative Music continuation intentions

	Reasons for not choosing Music	Number of citings	Percentage
1	Music is not relevant to my future	43	59.7%
2	I just want to learn Music for fun; not for marks	41	56.9%
3	I do not have time to practise my instrument	32	44.4%
4	I am bad at Music	16	22.2%
5	Music takes too much of my time	16	22.2%
6	Music is not interesting to me	15	20.8%
7	Music is too difficult	13	18%
8	My parents do not want me to choose Music	12	16.6%
9	My Music marks are too low	11	15.3%
10	I do not enjoy Music	8	11.1%
11	Music is too easy and I get bored	4	5.5%
12	I do not like my Music teacher/the people I am learnning with	3	4.2%
13	I do not like the image associated with those who take Music	0	0%

In the table above, we can see that the first reason, *Music is not relevant to my future* was the most common reason for why grade 9 learners want to cease Music. In fact, 59.7% of learners who intend to discontinue Music selected this as a reason for their decision. This clearly points to a lack of perceived value in the form of usefulness. The second reason listed above, *I just want to learn Music for fun, not for marks* might be argued to show that learners do not value Music as an important or useful school subject. The third reason listed, *I do not have time to practise my instrument* is one of the only examples in the current study of cost as a concept of value. Learners do not want to choose Music as a school subject because of the time costs involved. Reason 5 (*Music takes too much of my time*) supports this statement. Other reasons connected to value are seen in numbers 6 and 10. Competence and Task difficuty considerations are also evident in the table above (see reason numbers 4, 7, 9 and 11). There are more learners who seem to hold low Competence Beliefs for Music and find it difficult than there are learners who find it easy. Reasons numbers 8 and 12 refer to external factors that influence the intention to discontinue Music.

4.9 Reasons cited for choosing Music

Item 29 asked learners who intend to continue with Music to select reasons for their intention. The question was not only asked of grade 9 learners; grade 10 learners were also asked to select reasons for choosing Music as one of their FET subjects. The table below presents the list of reasons for wanting to choose Music, along with how many learners cited each reason (learners were allowed to select more than one option in this item as well). Results are presented in order of popularity, from most commonly cited to least commonly cited, and the column on the right shows the percentage of responses according to the total number of learners who intend to continue with or who have already chosen to continue with Music. The first 7 responses are the exact options given to the learners in the questionnaire, whereas the last 4 responses are based on answers received under the option "other".

Table 29: Grade 9 and 10 learners' reasons for positive Music continuation intentions

	Reasons for choosing Music	Number of citings	Percentage
1	Music is something I am interested in and I want to learn more about it	88	87.1%
2	I am good at Music	72	71.3%
3	I like my teacher/the people I am learning with	50	49.5%
4	Music is important to my future	39	38.6%
5	My parents want me to learn Music until matric	27	26.7%
6	I want to study Music after school	22	21.8%
7	Music is easy	21	20.8%
8	Reasons pertaining to enjoyment/"love" of Music	11	10.9%
9	Reasons pertaining to the intellectual and behavioural benefits of Music	4	4%
10	Reasons pertaining to learning an instrument	4	4%
11	Reasons pertaining to fun	2	2%

As can be seen above, the reason that was most commonly selected for positive Music continuation intentions was *Music is something I am interested in and I want to learn more about it.* This suggests a high Value for Music, specifically of an intrinsic nature. 88 learners (87.1%) selected this response. The second-most commonly cited reason for Music

continuation related to a strong sense of Musical Competence (*I am good at Music*) and was selected by 71.3% of learners. All other responses comprised less than 50% of the learners who answered this question. Reasons number 3 and 5 relate to the extrinsic Value of Music, which were cited a combined number of 77 times. Reasons 4 and 6 are associated with the future utility Value of Music, either in that learners wish to study Music, or that they see some other benefit of Music to their futures. Reason 7 refers to Task Difficulty and 21 learners reported choosing Music because it is easy. The reasons that learners wrote under the option "other" were of particular interest. Firstly, 11 learners specifically referred to their "enjoyment", "love" or "passion" of/for Music. Fascinatingly, there are certain learners who recognise the non-Musical advantages of learning Music. The specific responses (that were written by the learners) included "It shows you discipline", "It makes you smarter", "There are many skills I can learn from Music that I won't learn anywhere else" and interestingly, "I am thinking about studying Music or something medical which requires a Musical background". Four learners specifically mentioned their enjoyment of playing an instrument, and lastly, two learners included the reason of Music being "fun" into their responses.

4.10 Country comparisons

This study extends a global study by McPherson and O'Neill (2010) examining students' motivation to study Music in comparison with other school subjects. The results from this study in South Africa are compared with results from Brazil, China, Finland, Hong Kong, Israel, Korea, Mexico and USA (Figure 37). Regarding Competence Beliefs, South Africa is ranked the 2nd highest for Music, with Brazil ranking highest. Similarly, of all nine countries, learners in South Africa reported the 2nd highest Value Perceptions for Music. Again, Brazil reported the highest Value Perceptions for Music. In terms of Task difficulty, learners from South Africa reported the 4th highest difficulty ratings for Music. Hong Kong, Korea and Israel specified higher difficulty ratings than South Africa, while Mexico, China, Finland, USA and Brazil indicated lower Music difficulty ratings than South Africa. It must be stated that a much smaller representative sample was taken from South Africa than from the other eight countries.

Figure 42 presents the mean Value, Competence and Task Difficulty ratings for Music across nine countries. Because the current study used a high school sample only while the other eight countries examined three different grade levels (upper, middle and lower[6]), only the means for the *upper grade levels* in the other eight countries are presented in the graph.

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[6] The specific grades included in each grade level varied according to country. See McPherson & O'Neill (2010, p. 106) for a full description.

Figure 42. Mean ratings for Music Value, Competence and Task Difficulty across 9 countries

For ease of comparison between the constructs and each country, Figure 43 includes mean ratings for Music Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for all 9 countries. Notice that Task Difficulty ratings are consistently lower than Value and Competence ratings in all countries, and that in all countries except China, Competence Beliefs are higher than Value ratings.
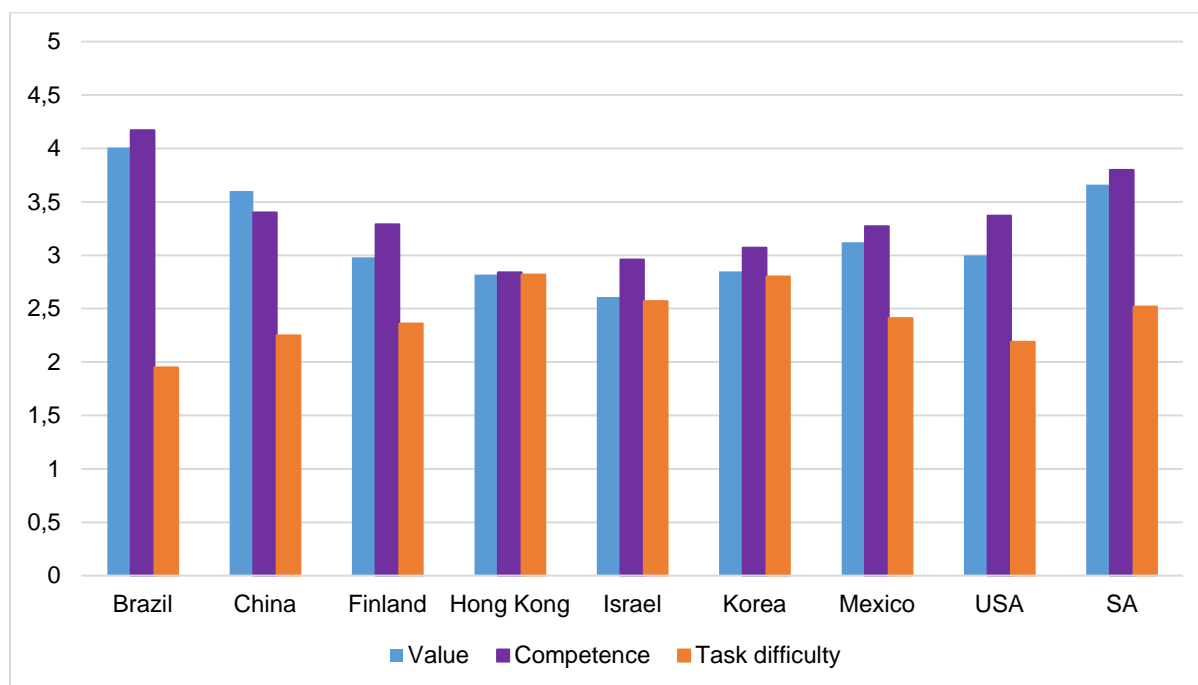
Figure 43. Mean ratings of Music Value, Competence and Task Difficulty across 9 countries

Gender comparisons were also made across all nine countries (See Figure 44). However, as aforementioned, the values for all countries except SA are means according to three different grade levels, whereas the values for SA are means according to high school learners only (unfortunately the data according to gender *and* each separate grade level for the other eight countries were not available). Nonetheless, a comparison is worthwhile, and interesting results were found. Firstly, in all countries except SA, male learners reported lower Competence Beliefs for Music than did female learners. In SA, males reported higher Competence Beliefs for Music than did females, and the mean difference between male and female ratings was quite significant. Secondly, in seven of the eight countries excluding SA, males reported lower value ratings for Music than did females (Brazil was the only country where means were fairly similar for males and females). Contrary to these findings, males from SA indicated significantly higher value ratings for Music than did females. Lastly, Task Difficulty ratings for Music in SA were also found to vary from the results of the other eight countries. While in all other countries, males reported higher Task Difficulty ratings for Music than did females, males from SA reported lower Task Difficulty ratings than did females.
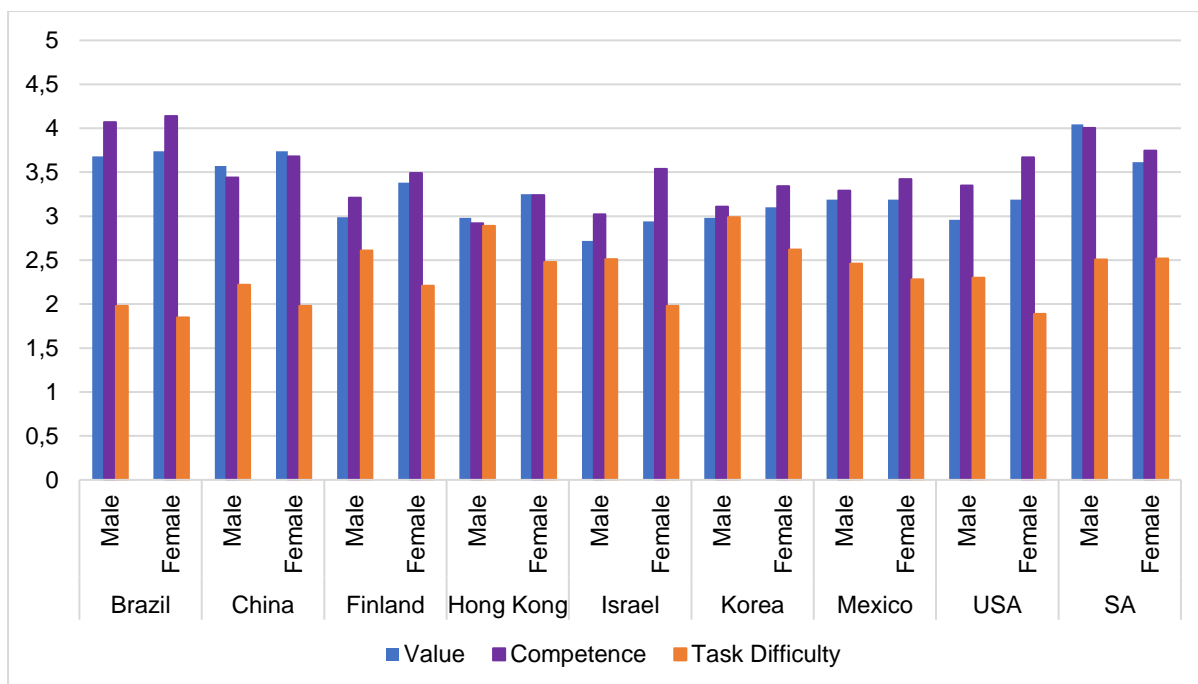
Figure 44. Gender means for Value, Competence and Task Difficulty ratings for Music across 9 countries

4.11 Summary

Chapter 4 presented the results of the study. Starting with the sample description, the chapter included a description of the research instrument and presented the Cronbach alpha coefficients. Following this, overall means and standard deviations were presented according to the three motivational constructs, Value, Competence and Task difficulty. These results were analysed according to school subjects, school, grade, gender and Music continuation decisions, respectively. Results regarding possible associations between the three motivational constructs were subsequently presented according to school, grade and gender. Thereafter, results of a regression analysis were disclosed, so as to assess the predictive influence of school, grade and gender on perceptions of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for each subject. A large portion of this chapter was devoted to presenting the data that showed various significant influences on learners' motivation to study Music. These influences were found independently of perceptions of Value, Competence or Task difficulty, and include the influence of gender, parents, teachers, the self, friends, household musicianship and practice habits. After presenting reasons for Music cessation and continuation as provided by grade 9 learners in this study, the chapter concluded with a comparison of the current Music motivation results found in Gauteng, South Africa, with those results found in eight other countries. The following chapter will discuss these results in the context of existing literature.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

5.1 Introduction

A learner's motivation to choose Music as a school subject involves convoluted interactions between internal factors (such as perceptions and self-beliefs) and external factors (such as environments and social systems). The present study explored high school learners' beliefs and perceptions about Music in comparison to other elective school subjects, to uncover possible reasons for the small numbers of learners in a typical FET Music class, and to investigate aspects that might contribute to the intention to continue or discontinue Music participation when given the option. Another aim of the study was merely to observe to what extent beliefs vary for Music as compared to other subjects, some of which are regarded as more "academic" than others.

Expectancy-value theory is based on the idea that an individual's choice, performance and persistence in an activity depend on the Value that he/she places on the activity as well as the perceived likelihood of achieving success in that activity (Eccles et al., 2000, p. 68). According to the theory, previous experiences and social influences are instrumental in shaping one's ability beliefs, perceptions of difficulty and goal orientation. These factors subsequently shape an individual's expectancies for success as well as their Values, which ultimately determine the participation choices that are made, the performance quality achieved in the chosen activities and the extent of persistence exercised (Eccles et al., 2000, p. 69).

When choosing school subjects, learners may be influenced by a wide range of factors, including academic standards (wanting to receive high marks or relative success according to personal standards or standards set by others), Difficulty beliefs (which might affect academic achievement), enjoyment and interest considerations, ability perceptions or utility Value (in the context of career aspirations). Learners are also heavily influenced by the beliefs and aspirations (or perceived beliefs and aspirations) of their parents and teachers regarding different subjects. All of this operates within a delicate sense of self, including self-esteem, self-regulation, and self-efficacy. (McPherson & O'Neill, 2010, p. 131.)

The present study used a sample of Music learners from grades 9 and 10. At the time of data collection, the grade 9 learners were all faced with the decision to continue or discontinue Music in their grade 10 year. The grade 10 learners had obviously already chosen Music as one

of their elective school subjects. In the case of the grade 9 participants, each learner's intention to continue or discontinue Music was stated at the end of their questionnaire. Responses received from both grades were analysed according to three motivational constructs: 1) Value Perceptions 2) Competence Beliefs and 3) Perceptions of Task Difficulty. The study also explored the extent to which beliefs and perceptions might differ according to school, grade, gender and Music continuation intentions. Results according to Music continuation intentions are applicable only to the grade 9 learners. Apart from the interesting findings regarding Value, Competence and Task Difficulty Perceptions for all elective subjects, the study also revealed that Music intentions are strongly influenced by self-motivation, practising habits, cost of Music participation and input from parents and teachers. This chapter will discuss the results presented in chapter 4, in relation to existing literature, and will conclude with a summary.

5.2 Overall perceptions of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty

Bong (2004) proved that Value Perceptions are subject-matter specific and are not generalisable across different school subjects. Results of the present study support this claim. In the context of the six most-populated elective school subjects across four Gauteng high schools, the subjects that received the highest ratings in terms of Value Perceptions were Physical Sciences and Life Sciences/Biology, respectively. McPherson and O'Neill (2010) similarly found that Science and Mathematics received high Value ratings by upper school level learners. This is not particularly surprising, considering the age in which we live and the emphasis (and often the pressure) placed on careers within the scientific or medical contexts. In the present study, Accounting/EMS received the cumulative lowest Value ratings.

In terms of Music, results of previous studies revealed that learners generally report very low Value Perceptions at school (see Ghazali & McPherson, 2009; Lamont & Maton, 2010; McPherson, 2007; McPherson & O'Neill, 2010; O'Neill, 2006; Pitts, 2005). McPherson and O'Neill's (2010) initial study found that Music was valued less than all other subjects assessed in their study, except for Art. However, it is difficult to compare these results with the results of the current study, because different subjects were assessed. Many of the subjects in McPherson and O'Neill's study were compulsory subjects (such as Mother Tongue and Mathematics), whereas all of the subjects in the present study are elective subjects. Only Music and Science were common to both studies, and both found Science to be of greater perceived Value to learners than Music. McPherson (2000/2001) found that learners do not see long-term value in Music as a school subject, and Evans et al. (2012) found that learners do not feel that

Music is relevant to their lives. Results of the current study corroborate these findings, in that the most commonly cited reason for Music attrition in grade 9 learners was *Music is not relevant to my future*. Considering this result, it was somewhat surprising that the present study revealed a relatively high mean Value rating for Music, and that cumulatively, it was ranked third-most valuable in comparison to the other electives. One would be quick to argue that this is a logical finding, because these results are based on a sample of grade 9 *and* 10 learners – the latter being learners who have already chosen Music as one of their three elective subjects. It would be relatively safe to assume that these learners value Music more than grade 9 learners, and if this were the case, the results would be skewed by the (presumably) high Value Perceptions reported by grade 10 learners. However, the subject-comparative Value ranking orders for each grade were surprising: although the grade 10 learners *did* indeed report significantly higher Value Perceptions than did the grade 9 learners for all subjects, including Music, the grade 9 learners actually ranked Music higher in a subject-comparative context than did the grade 10 learners. Grade 9s ranked Music as third-most valuable, while grade 10s ranked it fourth.

Lamont et al. (2003) found that learners are interested in music outside of school, but not as part of the school curriculum. North et al. (2000) also refer to the vast amount of time that learners spend listening to music on a daily basis. The results of the present study echo previous findings in two ways: firstly, learners in this study report that *Listening to music* is the activity in which they participate most frequently in a typical week; secondly, the second-most popular reason cited for not choosing Music in grade 10 was *I just want to learn music for fun; not for marks*.

A typical government-funded school has between 20 and 30 learners per class, and usually between 4 and 6 classes per grade. The very fact that the entire grade 10 sample (of Music learners) from four different high schools comprised 42 learners corroborates earlier findings that very few learners choose to continue with Music at school when given the option to discontinue (Bell, 2001; Sloboda, 2001). This point is further demonstrated by the fact that of 138 grade 9 learners who took part in this study, only 61 provided definitive responses that they intend to continue with Music in grade 10.

Competence Beliefs for Music are higher than Value Perceptions in the current study, suggesting that although some learners see little Value in Music at school, they feel Competent in it. In comparison to the other five subjects, Music was ranked second in terms of Competence

Beliefs. This result matches that of McPherson and O'Neill's (2010) study which found that in the combined eight-country analysis, Competence Beliefs for Music were higher than Value Perceptions for Music. In terms of ranking order, McPherson and O'Neill reported that Music was ranked third of six subjects in terms of Competence. Again, the subjects evaluated in the current study differ from those in McPherson and O'Neill's study. Contrary to these results are those of Wigfield et al. (1997) who found that Competence Beliefs for Music were consistently lower than for other subjects, though the subjects assessed in that study were Mathematics, Reading, Music and Sport. Eccles et al. (1993) also found Competence Beliefs for Music to be lower than other subjects. In the current study, the subjects that were ranked higher than Music in terms of Competence were Life Sciences/Biology and History, which both received the same mean ratings when analysing the overall data. The subject that learners reported feeling least competent in was Accounting/EMS.

Possible explanations regarding the high level of Music Competence according to the current study could be attributed to either the Music syllabus or with strong teacher competencies. The syllabus will be discussed under the next subheading, as I believe it is more pertinent to rating discrepancies between grades. It is highly plausible that teacher competencies may be a great contributor to the generally high Competence Beliefs for Music reported in this study. Many of the Music teachers employed by the four schools that took part in the current study are highly experienced Music specialists, with qualifications ranging from a minimum of a Bachelor of Music degree to Doctorate degrees. Lamont & Maton (2010) and Hennessy (2000) have both written about low teacher Competence when it comes to teaching Music, especially if the teachers are not Music specialists.

In terms of Task Difficulty ratings of each school subject in the current study, Music was ranked fourth-most difficult (or third-most easy). Learners rated their subjects in the following Difficulty order (from most difficult to least difficult): Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS, Life Sciences/Biology, Music, Geography and History. These results are in agreement with those of McPherson and O'Neill's (2010) original study, which indicated that in seven of the eight countries, Music was generally among the easiest subjects. González-Moreno (2010) conducted McPherson and O'Neill's study in the Mexican context and found that Music was amongst the most difficult subjects compared to the other subjects evaluated. González-Moreno's study also revealed that Difficulty ratings were negatively related to Competence Beliefs in that Music received low Competence ratings and high Difficulty ratings. The current study also indicated that Task Difficulty was negatively related to Competence Beliefs, but in

the sense that Music received *high* Competence ratings and *low* Task Difficulty ratings. However, when asked to cite reasons for discontinuing Music, many grade 9 learners in the current study selected *Music is too difficult*, showing that Music cannot be generalised as an easy subject.

5.3 Perceptions of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty according to grade

As mentioned in the literature review, many researchers have found that Value Perceptions for school subjects decrease as the learners get older (Eccles et al., 1993; McPherson & O'Neill, 2010; Wigfield et al., 1997). Contrary to this, the current study found that grade 10 learners reported higher Value Perceptions for all subjects than did grade 9 learners. The strong correlation found between Value and grade suggests that Value is highly influenced by the grade level of the learners. However, this is to be expected, especially considering that the subjects in question are electives that the grade 10 learners have already chosen for themselves, unlike the grade 9 learners who have not yet been given the choice to specialise in certain subjects. One would expect grade 10 learners to have chosen subjects that they value most, as they have had time and experience to decide on what interests them and in which career direction they would like to progress. These findings support the results of a study by Sichivitsa (2002) which found that as learners rearrange their priorities, their Values change accordingly. Another explanation for the contrasting results is the fact that the studies which found a decline in Value as learners get older usually refer to a sample with a wider age range (such as grade 1 through to 12 in Jacobs et al., 2002), and the studies are typically longitudinal, whereas the current study observed learners who are only one year apart in age, and the data were collected cross-sectionally instead of longitudinally.

As with Value Perceptions, previous research has demonstrated that Competence Beliefs for various school subjects decline as learners get older (Eccles et al., 1993; Jacobs et al., 2002; McPherson & O'Neill, 2010; Spinath & Steinmayr, 2008; Wigfield & Eccles, 1994; Wigfield et al., 1997). In fact, Wigfield et al. (1997) found that the largest decline in Competence Beliefs across age levels was for Music. Contrary to this, the current study revealed that grade 10 learners hold higher Competence Beliefs than do grade 9 learners for all subjects, except Physical Sciences. Explanations for this discrepancy are similar to those stated above for Value Perceptions. High Competence Beliefs are likely to have influenced the grade 10 learners' initial decision to continue with Music at the end of grade 9; in other words, the fact that grade 10 Competence Beliefs are higher than grade 9 beliefs is not necessarily because Competence

Beliefs for Music increased over time, but because it was predominantly learners with high Competence Beliefs in grade 9 that chose to continue with Music in grade 10. Indeed, Faulkner et al. (2010) proved that strong Competence Beliefs predict long-term persistence in Music. However, because the current study is not a longitudinal study, these surmises cannot be substantiated. Another possible explanation for the inconsistency in Competence Beliefs between grades 9 and 10 is that previous research has mostly focused on Music only in the form of instrumental participation (such as in Eccles et al., 1993), and not necessarily on all components of Music as a school subject. It stands to reason that playing an instrument becomes progressively more difficult, and it is thus not altogether surprising that learners in previous studies feel less competent in their playing abilities as they progress.

Task Difficulty ratings according to grade revealed that grade 10 learners hold higher Task Difficulty Perceptions than do grade 9 learners for Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences and Music. Results for these three subjects are thus in alignment with results of McPherson and O'Neill's study (2010) which showed that Difficulty ratings increased as learners got older. A later study by McPherson et al. (2015) supports these findings. However, in the current study, Task Difficulty ratings decreased between grades 9 and 10 for Accounting/EMS, Geography and History. These results may be insignificant, because as was previously stated, the current study is not longitudinal, and one would expect that grade 10 learners would have selected elective subjects partly based on how difficult those subjects are for them. However, it is interesting that Music is grouped with the Sciences in terms of grade 10 Task Difficulty Perceptions. According to results of the current study, the Sciences are rated amongst the most difficult subjects by both grades and are valued higher than other school subjects. According to Atkinson's "need for achievement" theory (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953), learners with a high need for achievement tend to participate in activities that are difficult so as to enhance the feeling of pride at having accomplished these activities. It seems that learners who choose to engage in these three subjects (Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences and Music) – despite the fact that they are rated by grade 10 learners as the three most difficult elective subjects – have a high need for achievement. It is no coincidence that 35% of grade 10 Music learners chose this exact subject combination. Furthermore, 78.5% of grade 10 Music learners chose the combination of Physical Sciences, Music and one other subject. It does not seem incomprehensible, based on this study, to claim that FET Music learners generally have a high need for achievement and a high sense of self-efficacy. This claim is supported by Bandura et al. (1996), who states that learners with a high sense of self-efficacy believe that

they can succeed even in challenging tasks. Bandura (1991) also mentions the effects of self-efficacy on self-regulation, claiming that it affects one's choices, goals, perseverance and effort in the tasks they pursue. Furthermore, high need for achievement has been linked with perfectionism (such as in Neumeister, 2004), and Stoeber and Eismann (2007) are of the opinion that young musicians strive for perfection in their academic endeavours.

The discrepancy between Task Difficulty ratings by grade 9 and 10 learners for Music may be partially accounted for by the syllabus used in the participating schools. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy document (CAPS policy) of South Africa (DBE, 2011a, 2011b) was used as a guide to the syllabus which is being taught in each of the four schools. On assessment of the two CAPS policies (for grades 7-9 and grades 10-12), it is clear that the content that grade 9 learners are expected to cover is on a much lower standard and consists of many fewer topics/concepts than is required of grade 10-12 learners, though this is obvious. Not only is the grade 9 content minimal (as stipulated in DBE, 2011a), but it is rarely sufficiently covered from grade 7. As a result of this, many learners only begin the Senior Phase CAPS (DBE, 2011b) content by grade 8. Subsequently, by the time learners are in grade 12, they are expected to be on a grade 5 level[7] (equivalent to the standards of external examining bodies such as ABRSM[8], Trinity or UNISA[9]).

CAPS states that learners should begin with basic Music concepts in grade 7 (DBE, 2011a). However, having taught grade 8s for a number of years now, it is clear to me that not all primary schools adhere to this component of CAPS. In fact, most learners that I have taught only begin Music for the *first time* when they enter grade 8. CAPS specifically states that learners who were not exposed to Music in grade 7 should not be excluded from Music participation in grade 8 (DBE, 2011b, p. 10).

Furthermore, CAPS allows for 2 hours of "Creative Arts" per week, and this time is to be divided between two different art forms (learners have a choice between Music, Drama, Art and Dance; subject to school and staffing availability). This means that in one hour per week, learners are expected to reach a grade 2 level of theory and instrumental Music (see footnote 7 below) by the end of their grade 9 school year. This rarely happens. The grade 9 syllabus according to CAPS does not sufficiently prepare learners for Music in the FET phase, resulting

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[7] External Music boards offer instrumental/vocal as well as Music theoretical examinations for eight grades of Music competency. These are not to be confused with school grades
[8] The Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music
[9] University of South Africa

in a much heavier work-load from grade 10-12. This means that grade 9 learners feel that Music is quite easy (when the syllabus is fairly slow-paced), but by grade 10 both the difficulty and the pace increase immensely.

The discrepancy in Task Difficulty ratings of grade 9 and 10 learners is evidenced in the results of the current study. The syllabus could also partially explain the high Competence ratings reported by grade 9 learners for Music. As was mentioned, the grade 9 Music syllabus is slow-paced, due to the fact that "Creative Arts" covers Drama, Art and Dance as well as Music.

5.4 Perceptions of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty according to gender

Results of this study revealed that gender has moderate predictive power over learners' Value Perceptions for Music. A large body of previous research found that females value Music more than males. In a longitudinal study by Wigfield et al. (1997), females found Music more useful, important and interesting than did males. This was specifically for "instrumental music" and did not necessarily include the theoretical side of class Music as a subject. Similarly, McPherson and O'Neill (2010, p. 128) found that females reported higher Values for Music than did males in six of the eight countries in which the study was undertaken (though the mean difference was small). Other studies that revealed similar results include Boyle et al. (1994); Corenblum et al. (1998); Costa-Giomi (2004); Davidson et al. (1995/1996); Gamin (2005); Kinney (2010); McPherson (2000); and Sichivitsa (2004). However, a surprising finding in the current study was that males hold significantly higher Values for Music than those held by females. This finding agrees with that of Lamont et al. (2003, p. 235), who showed that in terms of grade 9 class Music, males hold higher Value Perceptions than do females.

A possible explanation for gender differences in these results may lie in the choice of schools for the current study (although, correlations between Value and school were weak). The two male schools that took part both have tremendously strong Music departments. However, this is only according to popular belief, and might be proved or disproved only through further research.

Apart from Music-specific results, females reported higher Value Perceptions than did males for History and Life Sciences/Biology, while males reported higher values than did females for Physical Sciences. Accounting/EMS as well as Geography received similar Value ratings by both males and females (means only varied at the second decimal place).

The current study revealed, in accordance with Wigfield et al. (1997), that males and females hold different Competence Beliefs for different school subjects. However, contrary to prior research (Wigfield et al., 1997; McPherson & O'Neill, 2010), the current study revealed that males hold higher Competence Beliefs than females for all subjects (including Music) except Geography. In fact, males reported feeling more competent in Music than in any other subject. The ranking order of subjects for males was: Music, Accounting/EMS, Physical Sciences, History, Life Sciences/Biology and Geography, respectively. Females ranked their subjects in the following order of competence (from highest to lowest): History, Music, Life Sciences/Biology, Geography, Accounting/EMS and Physical Sciences. The discrepancy between male and female reports of Competence in the current study corroborates the results of a study by Jacobs et al. (2002) which showed that males and females showed different Competence Beliefs for different school subjects.

Considering the fact that males reported higher Competence Beliefs than did females for Music, together with the fact that competence has the potential to predict persistence in Music (Faulkner et al., 2010), it seems apparent that according to this study, males are more likely to persist in Music than are females. This contradicts results found in a study by Costa-Giomi (2004) where more females continued with Music than did males. However, Costa-Giomi's study referred to piano lessons only and not to Music as a school subject. Possible explanations for the discrepancy between the results of the current study compared with prior studies could be the fact that the male schools that took part in this study have particularly strong Music departments with very high standards, which might not be generalisable to all male schools in South Africa.

Another possible explanation for males holding significantly higher Competence Beliefs than females for Music is that females in the current study generally held lower self-confidence levels than did males (based on questions 22-23 of the questionnaire), which might account for lower Competence perceptions in all subjects, regardless of actual competencies. In support of this finding are those of Wilgenbusch and Merrell (1999) and Eccles and Wigfield (1994). Wilgenbusch and Merrell (1999) explored a range of existing studies regarding gender and self-concept in various domains and found that between grades 7 and 12, males report stronger self-confidence levels for Music than do females. Eccles and Wigfield (1994) showed that in junior high, males report higher self-concepts than females in four school domains: English, Mathematics, Sports and Social. A more recent study by Hendricks (2014) also corroborates the current findings of low female Competence Beliefs. It showed that in an orchestral setting

of adolescents, self-beliefs of females were more heavily affected by competitive environments than the self-beliefs of males. This suggests another reason for low female Competence Beliefs in the current study.

Interestingly, gender is the one variable in the current study that varies most from previous research. While McPherson and O'Neill (2010) found that females rated Music as easier than did males, the current study revealed that males and females report very similar ratings of Music Difficulty (the mean difference is 0.01 lower for males than females). In fact, males reported lower Task Difficulty ratings for all subjects than did females, except Geography. This finding may be explained by the aforementioned self-confidence reports (based on questions 22-23 of the questionnaire) for which females hold lower perceptions than males. Furthermore, Watt (2004) proved that between grades 7 and 11, the Task Difficulty Perceptions held by females increase more steeply than do the perceptions held by males. However, if we disregard the actual numeric ratings of the current study and focus only on a subject-comparative ranking order, males rank Music as the third-most difficult subject, while females rank it as fourth-most difficult. This does not mean that males find Music more difficult than do females, but that males believe there are fewer subjects that are more difficult than Music. Females ranked Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS and Life Sciences/Biology as more difficult than Music, while males only ranked Physical Sciences and Life Sciences/Biology as more difficult than Music. Accounting/EMS was the subject that showed most gender-based variation in that males ranked it fifth-most difficult whereas females ranked it second-most difficult.

5.5 Perceptions of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty according to Music intentions

Grade 9 learners' Value Perceptions for each subject were analysed according to musical intentions. Consistent with prior research (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Sichivitsa, 2003; Simpkins et al., 2006; Stewart, 2005), and with Expectancy-value theory (Eccles et al., 1998), Value for Music seems to be a strong predictor of musical intention. According to the current study, grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music reported significantly higher Value Perceptions for Music than the other grade 9 learners. In fact, learners who want to continue with Music reported higher Value Perceptions (according to mean ratings) for Music than for *any other* subject, whereas learners who do not want to continue with Music ranked it second-least valuable. Furthermore, learners who intend to continue with Music rated higher Value Perceptions for Physical Sciences, Music and Accounting/EMS than those who do not intend to continue. McPherson and O'Neill (2010) and McPherson et al. (2015) found similar results

that Music learners (specifically instrumentalists) hold higher Value Perceptions for all subjects than do non-Music learners. The current study did not find that grade 9 learners intending to continue with Music hold higher Value Perceptions for *all* subjects, but it is important to remember that the group of learners who are not continuing with Music are not "non-Music learners" but have had at least 2 years of musical training. It would be fascinating to explore the results between Music and non-Music learners. In the current study, when asked to choose possible reasons for not wanting to continue with Music in grade 10, the most common responses from grade 9s were related to a lack of value for Music as an academic subject. *Music is not relevant to my future* and *I just want to learn music for fun; not for marks* were the two most commonly-selected responses. On the other hand, learners who intend to continue were also asked to select reasons for their choice, and the most commonly-selected reason pertained to intrinsic Value for Music.

As is to be expected, grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music held significantly higher Competence Beliefs for Music than did learners who do not intend to continue. In fact, as with Value Perceptions, prospective grade 10 Music leaners reported feeling more competent in Music than in *any* other subject. On the contrary, learners who intend to discontinue with Music showed the second-lowest Competence Beliefs for Music than for other subjects. This finding is in alignment with Expectancy-value theory (Eccles et al., 1998), in that Competence Beliefs often predict persistence in a valued activity.

The results of a study by Evans et al. (2012) showed that learners ceased Music participation when they experienced low Competence Beliefs for it. These findings support the results of the current study, in that certain learners cited *I am bad at music* as a reason for discontinuing it. Moreover, a high percentage of learners intending to continue with Music cited *I am good at music* as one of their reasons for their choice. Furthermore, the current study revealed that learners who intend to continue with Music showed higher Competence Beliefs in five of the six subjects than did learners who wish to cease Music. Similar findings were reported by McPherson and O'Neill (2010) in terms of instrumentalists versus non-instrumentalists (also see McPherson et al., 2015). Wetter et al. (2009) reported comparable findings, providing strong evidence that learners involved in Music receive higher grades in all their subjects than do learners not involved in Music, though this deals more with actual as opposed to perceived Competence.

High Competence Beliefs for Music may be a strong predictor of musical intention, as was the case in a study by Faulkner et al. (2010). However, there is still the question of causality: whether high Competence Beliefs for all school subjects predict musical intention, or whether musical intention predicts high Competence in all school subjects. To my knowledge, this matter has not yet been solved by any research to date. Nonetheless, according to this study as well as others, there is a definite link between musical intention and high Competence in school subjects. Jacobs et al. (2002) indicated a link between Competence and Value in that Competence Beliefs have been shown to influence Value Perceptions. Considering the high Music Value Perceptions held by prospective grade 10 Music learners, it is understandable that these same learners showed significantly high Value and Competence Beliefs for Music (also see Faulkner et al., 2010). It is also plausible that high Competence Beliefs influence high Value Perceptions, depending on the learner's motivational orientation.

In their original study, McPherson and O'Neill (2010) found that learners who play an instrument hold lower Task Difficulty Perceptions for all school subjects than do learners who do not play an instrument. Similarly, the current study revealed that grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music hold lower Task Difficulty Perceptions for five of the six subjects (all except History) than do learners who intend to discontinue Music (although learners discontinuing Music are also instrumentalists). This finding is corroborated by many previous studies which indicate a definite connection between Music participation and academic achievement, intellectual benefits and development, or high IQ test scores (Costa-Giomi, 2012, 2014; Kinney, 2010; Martin et al., 2013; Miksza, 2010; Schellenberg, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2011; Wetter et al., 2009).

In the questionnaire, grade 9 learners were asked to select reasons for discontinuing Music. 18% reported that Music is too difficult, while 5% reported that it is too easy and they get bored. This suggests that when Task Difficulty affects learners' motivation for Music discontinuation, it is more likely as a result of Music being too difficult than too easy. Task Difficulty ratings by learners who intend to continue with Music are also a lot more stable across subjects than for those learners who do not intend to continue. The subjects which showed the most significant Task Difficulty rating differences between those continuing and those not are Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS. While learners in both groups rated these as comparatively difficult subjects, learners who want to discontinue Music seem to struggle more with these two subjects than do learners who want to continue with Music. McPherson and McCormick (1999, p. 98-99) conducted a study which showed that when learning a

musical instrument, the cognitive skills employed increase cognitive engagement as well as achievement in so-called "academic subjects" such as Science and Mathematics. This corroborates the current findings in terms of the apparent link between Music continuation and lower Task Difficulty Perceptions in Physical Sciences. Considering the fact that Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS were ranked as the overall most difficult subjects by the participants in this study, it seems more than coincidence that learners who intend to continue with Music hold lower Task Difficulty Perceptions for these two subjects than do learners who do not intend to continue with Music.

According to this study, the motivational variable which seems to be the strongest indicator of musical intention is Value Perceptions. This means that the clearest reason why learners choose or do not choose Music as a subject in grade 10 is related to Value for Music. Competence is also a clear indicator of musical intention according to the current study. These results certainly reflect the fundamental principles of Expectancy-value theory. Results are further corroborated by a study by Eccles and Wigfield (1995) which concluded in the context of Mathematics as a school subject, that Value was the strongest predictor of mathematical intention and persistence.

5.6 Self-motivation

It would be an exaggeration to claim that the current study included an in-depths analysis of self-regulation and self-efficacy. However, interesting findings emerged given that learners were asked to rate firstly, who pushes them the most to achieve at school in general, and secondly, who pushes them the most to achieve in Music specifically.

Results were fascinating, showing that grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10 reported being more self-motivated not only for Music, but for school in general than learners who do not intend to continue with Music. These learners also reported higher motivation from friends and school teachers, and lower motivation from parents/guardians than learners who do not intend to continue with Music. The majority of grade 10 learners (all of whom have chosen Music for their FET phase of high school) reported being mainly self-motivated for general school achievement, though this may be accounted for by the fact that these learners are older and perhaps more independent than the grade 9 learners.

As was previously mentioned, grade 9 learners intending to continue with Music in grade 10 value it more than those intending to discontinue Music, and Bandura (1991) highlights the fact that according to the theory of self-regulation, only valued activities are regulated (see

chapter 1). This would explain why learners not intending to continue with Music (learners who do not value Music highly) do not show strong patterns of self-motivation for Music. It also explains why learners who value Music highly are also reportedly self-motivated for it.

More interesting still is the finding that of the learners who hold high ratings of self-motivation for Music (ratings of 4 or 5 on a 5-point Likert scale), more than half intend to continue with Music in grade 10. On the other hand, of the grade 9 learners who reported lower levels of self-motivation for Music, only about a fifth intend to continue with the subject. These findings can also be explained through the link between self-efficacy and self-regulation (Bandura, 1991). As has already been established, Music learners in this study appear to have a high sense of self-efficacy, which according to Bandura (1991) may enhance their self-regulatory processes.

The results in this section are supported by McPherson and McCormick (2006) who claim that one of the challenges of Music participation is the fact that it requires a large amount of self-discipline and self-regulation, mostly in terms of practising behaviour (practising behaviour will be discussed in the following section). Thus, learners are less likely to continue with Music if they are not self-motivated for it.

5.7 External factors

In addition to exploring Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty Perceptions, the current study revealed interesting results regarding external factors and the intention to continue with Music in the FET phase of high school. Amongst many fascinating external motivators for Music, three main factors stood out: practising habits together with other weekly activities; the cost of time involved in Music participation; and the influence of parents and teachers.

The current study revealed that learners who have chosen Music as an elective subject or learners that intend to do so in grade 10 report practising their instrument more times per week than do learners who do not intend to continue with Music. These results are corroborated by those of Costa-Giomi (2004) who found that learners who persisted in piano lessons for three years tend to practise more than those who dropped out of lessons. Regarding the current study, it is to be expected that grade 10 Music learners practise regularly, as Music is one of their chosen fields of high school study. Regarding grade 9 results, the discrepancy between practice habits of those who intend to continue with Music and those who do not might be explained in that learners who do not practise regularly do not experience the same level of motivation for Music than do learners who do practise regularly. McPherson and McCormick (1999) as well

as Schmidt (2005) showed that greater amounts of practising are linked to higher levels of intrinsic motivation. However, in McPherson and McCormick's (1999) study, Schmidt's (2005) study as well as the current study, a causal link cannot be determined. It is just as plausible that a high level of intrinsic motivation is what causes the regular practising habits. Another explanation for the current results may be that learners who do not intend to continue Music in grade 10 do not see the point in spending time practising for a component of a subject that they will soon be discontinuing.

Music as a school subject requires copious amounts of time, mostly for instrumental practise. According to Expectancy-value theory, the decision to participate in a task is often governed by the cost of that task, especially in a Music context (Eccles et al., 1983). Considering that practising takes up so much time and that it is not always inherently enjoyable but is often emotionally, intellectually and physically draining (Bonneville-Roussy & Bouffard, 2014), it is not surprising that Evans et al. (2012), Boyle et al. (1994) and Gamin (2005) have all found that learners are often driven away from Music participation or continuation by the prospect of its cost. The results of the current study support previous research regarding Music and cost. When asked to select reasons for not choosing to continue with Music, the responses that were most commonly selected were *I do not have time to practise my instrument*, and *Music takes too much of my time*. Individuals may have selected both of these responses, as learners were not limited to one response for this item. However, these results definitely prove that Music is a highly demanding subject in terms of time, and requires strict time management, self-discipline and self-regulation.

The current study revealed some fascinating information regarding comparisons of weekly activities of grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music and those who do not. The most significant findings were that learners intending to continue with Music in grade 10 claimed to read books more frequently than learners not intending to continue with Music. Reading is one of many cognitive abilities that prior research has linked to musical training. Multiple researchers have found associations between musical training and increased cognitive abilities. These include: the processes involved in learning languages (Bidelman, Hutka & Moreno, 2013; Schön, Magne & Besson, 2004), verbal comprehension, perceptual organisation, freedom from distractibility, processing speed (Schellenberg, 2004, 2005), verbal ability and non-verbal reasoning (Forgeard, Winner, Norton & Schlaug, 2008), preliteracy skills (Moreno, Friesen & Bialystok, 2011), engagement and achievement in academic subjects

such as Mathematics and Science (McPherson & McCormick, 1999) and organisational skills including time management (McPherson & Hallam, 2016).

As was previously mentioned, learners in the current study intending to continue with Music report more frequent practice time than those not intending to continue with Music, which is corroborated by a large amount of research including Costa-Giomi (2004), Marin and Bhattacharya (2013), McPherson and McCormick (1999) and Schmidt (2005). Surprisingly, learners not intending to continue with Music reported listening to music more frequently in a week than learners intending to continue with Music. Perhaps this relates to the amount of free time for each group of learners, considering the different practice habits that were found. This surmise would be supported by the finding that learners intending to continue with Music also report spending less time on social media as well as less time watching TV than those discontinuing with Music. Little research exists to substantiate this finding, but certain authors have explored the effects of social media on academic development. Fox, Rosen and Crawford (2009) found that Instant Messaging (used while studying/performing school tasks) associated with social media has a negative effect on reading comprehension ability as well as task efficiency, which may also explain the current finding that learners not intending to continue with Music read less than those intending to continue with Music. Similarly, Kirschner and Karpinski (2010) showed that Facebook users have lower General Point Averages and spend less time studying than non-Facebook users, though this was specifically in college students. Malhi, Bharti and Sidhu (2016) report a negative relationship between time spent watching television and academic achievement in adolescents.

Zimmerman (2002, p. 66) points out that in a discipline such as Music – especially when learners are only starting out – social encouragement and guidance is often needed to maintain a learner's interest. The current study briefly looked at the influence of parents and teachers on learners' Music continuation decisions. McPherson (2006, as cited in McPherson, 2008), showed that parents do not expect their children to work as hard in Music as in their other school subjects. Those results corroborate the current findings – at least according to learner perceptions of parental expectations. The learners in the current study indicated that their parents hold higher expectations of them for Physical Sciences, Life Sciences/Biology, Accounting/EMS and History, respectively, than for Music (Music was ranked fifth in terms of parental expectations to work hard in each subject). This suggests that Music is not a valued school subject by parents. While these results only reflect learners' *perceptions* of their parents' expectations, perceptions are often more powerful than actuality (Bornholt & Goodnow, 1999;

Sichivitsa, 2004), especially considering that most of these learners will never come to know their parents' *actual* expectations of them for their school subjects.

The current study also revealed that learners highly value their parents' support and encouragement for school, so if their parents are selective in the areas in which they believe their children should strive to succeed, the learners themselves are likely to exert more effort in those selective areas. It does not seem like an exaggeration to say that the low Value learners hold for Music as a school subject may be strongly shaped by their parents' opinions or by their *perceptions* of their parents' opinions. In fact, Sichivitsa (2007) demonstrated that learners value Music more when they perceive high parental support in it. Conversely, if parents are not supportive in Music, their children may come to value it less. In the current study, parental expectations may change for Music if their child decides to continue with it in the FET phase of high school, but very few learners do. One wonders whether more learners might choose Music if their parents' expectations were higher from the start.

Parental expectations have also been shown to influence learners' Competence Beliefs. Jacobs & Eccles (1992, as cited in Wigfield et al., 1997) claim that learners' Competence Beliefs are more strongly predicted by their parents' expectations of them than by their actual school grades/marks. If parents do not expect their children to do well in or to work hard in Music, learners' Competence Beliefs for Music – whether high or low – are of little consequence to them and may not influence their continuation decisions at all.

Results of the current study showed astounding results in terms of parental encouragement for Music and Music continuation intentions. Of the grade 9 learners who perceive low levels of parental encouragement for Music, 86% intend to discontinue with Music. A causal link cannot be determined between low parental encouragement for Music and Music discontinuation (in other words, a lack of parental encouragement does not necessarily *cause* learners to discontinue Music), but these results signify that there is at least a small chance that learners will continue with Music if their parents are not supportive of their musical participation. Furthermore, 16% of learners who are not continuing with Music reported that one of their reasons for this decision is because their parents do not want them to. This shows the influence that parents can have on learners' decisions to continue or discontinue with Music. Very little research exists to support these results, but Sichivitsa (2004) did find that children of parents who are supportive of Music hold higher Competence Beliefs and musical self-efficacy than children of parents who are unsupportive of Music. Martin (2012) found similar results. Higher

competence and musical self-efficacy can certainly enhance the chances that a learner will choose Music as an academic subject in the senior phase of high school. As was already stated, the current study showed that learners who intend to continue with Music hold higher musical Competence Beliefs than learners who intend to cease Music.

Results of teacher expectations and encouragement were also fascinating. Firstly, from the data gathered in the current study, learners believe that teachers expect them to work harder in all their school subjects than their parents do. Secondly, in a subject-comparative context, learners indicated that apart from the sciences, Music teachers hold the highest expectations of learners in terms of how hard they should work. In terms of grade 9 Music continuation intentions, *low* Music teacher expectations and encouragement levels affected persistence much more strongly than did *high* Music teacher expectations and encouragement. When learners perceive that their teachers do not expect them to work very hard in Music or that teacher encouragement is low, they are 12% less likely to continue with Music in grade 10. This might be explained by the findings of Eccles et al. (1983) that feedback from teachers (and parents) contributes to the shaping of a learner's Competence Beliefs. If these Competence Beliefs are low, overall motivation (including self-efficacy and even self-regulation) is likely to also be low. This is in alignment with Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (2000). The current findings are not in complete agreement with those of Sichivitsa (2004) which are that adolescents' own opinions and beliefs are more important than those of their parents and teachers when it comes to motivation for Music.

Lastly, results showed that learners intending to continue with Music in grade 10 are more likely to have someone in their households who play an instrument. It was also found that about three quarters of the grade 10 learners (who have already chosen Music as a subject) reported having a family member who plays an instrument. This suggests that having a relative or close family figure who is involved in music contributes to a learner's motivation to persist in Music learning. Results of a study by Sichivitsa (2007) support these findings. She found that learners hold a higher Value perception for Music when their parents are involved in Music themselves, though the specifications of this involvement are unclear.

5.8 Summary

This chapter discussed the results of the current study in context of existing literature related to the topic. Many findings in the current study were corroborated by earlier studies, though others seem to provide new information. Regarding Value Perceptions, learners who are

motivated to continue with Music as a subject in the FET phase possess very high Value Perceptions for Music – perceptions that are often higher than all of their other elective subjects. Males reported higher Value Perceptions than did females for Music, which has not commonly been found in similar studies. Regarding Competence Beliefs, learners who are motivated to continue with Music feel more competent in five of the six elective subjects than those who are not motivated to continue with Music. As with Value, these learners often feel more competent in Music than in any of their other subjects. Again, males report higher Competence Beliefs for Music and other subjects than do females. Regarding Task Difficulty Perceptions, learners who are motivated to continue with Music in grade 10 report lower Task Difficulty Perceptions for most subjects than learners who are not motivated to continue with Music. However, of the three constructs, Value and Competence Perceptions are more predictive of motivation for Music than is Task Difficulty. Self-motivation and high levels of self-regulation also seem to be significant predictors of motivation for Music continuation, as prospective and current grade 10 Music learners are reportedly more self-motivated. After discussing results related to Value, Competence and Task Difficulty, the chapter also discussed results pertaining to external motivational factors. In summary, learners who are motivated to continue with Music practise their instruments more frequently; they are more willing to spend copious amounts of time on Music activities; they spend more of their time reading books and less of their time watching TV or browsing social media; they perceive higher expectations in Music from their parents and teachers, and also perceive more encouragement from them; and finally, they often have a family member who also plays a musical instrument. As previous research has demonstrated, motivation for Music is dependent on a delicate balance between internal and external factors. The following chapter will provide a summary of the research findings, by answering the main research questions. It will also include possible contributions and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 6

Summary and Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

The main aim of this study was to explore learners' motivation to study Music as an academic subject in high school, specifically in comparison to other elective subjects. An overview of relevant existing literature was presented so as to place the current study in context of what has already been researched worldwide. Thereafter, the methodological approaches chosen for this study were considered. Results were statistically analysed, presented and subsequently discussed in relation to existing literature.

This chapter includes a summary of the results and conclusions. The secondary research questions will be answered first, followed by the main research question. Thereafter, the limitations of the study and possible contributions of the study are discussed followed by recommendations for future research.

6.2 Secondary research questions

How do learners' beliefs about Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for Music differ from their beliefs about other elective subjects?

Learners in grade 9 and 10 overall report lower Value Perceptions for Music as a school subject than for Physical Sciences and Life Sciences/Biology, but rate Music higher in Value than History, Geography and Accounting/EMS (the latter three subjects are stated in descending order of Value).

Overall Competence Beliefs for Music were high in comparison to other elective subjects. The data revealed that the only subjects which received higher ratings of Competence than Music were Life Sciences/Biology and History, both of which received the same overall mean ratings. Learners thus feel more competent in Music than in Physical Sciences, Geography and Accounting/EMS.

Ratings of Task Difficulty were low for Music in comparison to other elective subjects. Overall, learners ranked Music as more difficult than Geography and History, but easier than Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS and Life Sciences/Biology (in descending order).

To what extent do Value Perceptions, Competence Beliefs and Task Difficulty ratings (for all subjects) influence learners' Music continuation intentions for grade 10?

Grade 9 learners who reported positive Music continuation intentions rated Music as their most valuable subject in a subject-comparative context, whereas those who reported negative continuation intentions rated Music as the second-least valuable elective subject. The fact that the Value ratings are so vastly different between these two groups of learners suggests that Value for Music is a highly significant predictor of Music intention. Furthermore, learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10 revealed higher Value Perceptions for Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS than did learners who intend to discontinue Music. Grade 10 learners (all of whom have already chosen Music as an elective subject until grade 12) also showed a propensity for high Value Perceptions of Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS. It would appear that those who are interested in pursuing Music are also more interested in Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS than are learners who intend to discontinue Music.

The current study revealed important findings in terms of Competence Beliefs and Music continuation intentions. Grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10 reported higher Competence Beliefs for Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences, Accounting, Music and Geography – all subjects except History – than did learners not intending to continue with Music. Again, the Competence ratings between the two groups of learners (continuing and discontinuing) were more contrasting for Music than for any other subject, showing that Competence Beliefs are a strong predictor of Music intention. Findings were also noticeably contrasting for Accounting/EMS and Physical Sciences. Similarly, grade 10 learners (all of whom have chosen Music) reported feeling most competent in Accounting/EMS than in any other subject. As was found for Value Perceptions, grade 9 learners who wish to continue with Music reported that they feel more competent in Music than in any other subject, while Music was among the two subjects that received the lowest Competence Beliefs ratings by grade 9 learners who do not wish to continue with Music in the FET phase. An interesting relationship was found between Music and History. Competence ratings for History were lower for learners who wish to continue with Music than for those who do not. As was previously mentioned, learners who wish to continue with Music also reported lower Value Perceptions for History. Fascinatingly, for those who intend to discontinue Music after grade 9, History was ranked highest in terms of Competence.

Findings related to Task Difficulty were equally fascinating. Learners who wish to continue with Music reported lower Task Difficulty ratings for all subjects except History (once again). Interestingly, the largest differences in Task Difficulty ratings between the two groups of learners were found for Accounting/EMS and Physical Sciences, even though both groups ranked these subjects as their most difficult subjects. The Task Difficulty ratings for Music were not as contrasting as for Value or Competence, suggesting that Task Difficulty is less predictive of Music continuation intentions than are the other two constructs.

How do ratings of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for all elective subjects differ according to school, grade and gender?

Value, Competence, Task Difficulty – School:

The regression analysis revealed that the school being attended is predictive of Value Perceptions for Music, Accounting/EMS and Geography. Intriguingly, the two boys' schools (PBHS and AHS, respectively) provided the highest Value ratings for Music. Also of interest is the fact that these two boys' schools ranked Physical Sciences as the most valuable school subject, and the two girls' schools ranked Life Sciences/Biology as the most valuable school subject. Three of the four schools (AHMP, AHS, JHSG) ranked Geography as the least valuable elective while PBHS ranked Accounting/EMS as the least valuable elective. When evaluating the overall mean Value ratings for all electives combined, JHSG reported the highest combined values, followed by AHS, AHMP and PBHS.

Insignificant correlations were found between Competence Beliefs and each variable (school, grade and gender) for Music. In fact, it was found that school is predictive of Competence Perceptions in Physical Sciences only, and that in terms of Music, school only accounts for 1% of the variance in Competence ratings. The strongest Music Competence Beliefs were reported by learners attending AHS, followed by PBHS, AHMP and JHSG, in descending order. In all four schools, Music was ranked as one of the top three electives in terms of Competence Beliefs. AHMP ranked Music as the subject in which they feel most competent. For AHS the most highly ranked subject was Accounting/EMS. JHSG learners ranked Life Sciences/Biology most highly, and PBHS ranked Physical Sciences most highly. Both girls' schools claimed to feel least competent in Physical Sciences. AHS learners felt least competent in Geography, while PBHS learners exhibited least Competence in Accounting/EMS. Nonetheless, all schools rated fairly high Competence Beliefs for all elective subjects. When

calculating the overall mean Competence Beliefs for all subjects combined, AHS possessed the highest Competence Beliefs, followed by PBHS, JHSG and AHMP.

Highly significant correlations were found between school and Task Difficulty for Music. It was also found that school is predictive of Task Difficulty ratings for Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS. Interestingly, Task Difficulty Perceptions were much lower across all schools than were Value or Competence Beliefs. Three of the four schools (AHMP, AHS and JHSG) ranked Physical Sciences as the most difficult elective subject, while PBHS ranked Accounting/EMS as the most difficult subject. One of the most fascinating results of the current study is that PBHS ranked Music as their second-most difficult subject, despite the fact that they felt highly competent in Music and that they value it second only to Physical Sciences. AHMP and PBHS ranked Geography as the least difficult subject. The easiest subjects according to AHS and JHSG learners were Accounting/EMS and Geography, respectively. In general, Task Difficulty Perceptions were widely spread across the four schools. The combined Task Difficulty mean ratings showed that JHSG possess the highest Task Difficulty beliefs for all subjects combined, followed by AHMP, PBHS and AHS.

Value, Competence, Task Difficulty – Grade:

A highly significant correlation was found between grade and Value for Music. Furthermore, univariate tests revealed that grade has stronger predictive power over Value Perceptions for Music than over Competence or Task Difficulty Perceptions for Music. Grade also influences Value Perceptions for Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS. Grade 10 learners hold higher Value Perceptions for all subjects than do grade 9 learners. The subject which showed the most significant difference in terms of Value ratings according to grade was Accounting/EMS, and the subject with the least significant difference in Value ratings according to grade was Physical Sciences. While grade 10s reported the highest Value ratings for Life Sciences/Biology and the lowest ratings for Geography, grade 9s reported the highest Value ratings for Physical Sciences and the lowest ratings for Accounting/EMS.

Insignificant correlations were found between grade and Competence Beliefs for Music. This is supported by the fact that the difference in Competence ratings between grade 9 and 10 learners was small. Grade 10 learners reported higher Competence Beliefs than grade 9 learners in all elective subjects, except Physical Sciences. The most significant of these was for Accounting/EMS. Grade 9s reported feeling the most competent in Music and History, and the

least competent in Accounting/EMS, while grade 10s reported feeling the most competent in Accounting/EMS, and the least competent in Physical Sciences.

Correlations were also insignificant for grade and Task Difficulty Perceptions for Music. Grade 10 learners reported higher Task Difficulty Perceptions than did grade 9 learners for Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences and Music. Both grades reported the highest Task Difficulty Perceptions for Physical Sciences, though the grade 9s ranked Accounting/EMS on the same difficulty level as Physical Sciences. Music was ranked as the easiest elective subject by the grade 9s, but as the third-most difficult subject by the grade 10s, who ranked History as the easiest elective subject.

Value, Competence, Task Difficulty - Gender:

A moderate correlation was found between gender and Value for Music. Overall, the predictive power of gender over all three motivational constructs (Value, Competence, Task Difficulty) was weak. However, univariate tests revealed that of the three constructs, Value for Music is the construct which is most strongly predicted by gender. Relatively significant findings were also found for gender and Value for Physical Sciences. Findings show that males rated Music as significantly more valuable than did females. Males also reported higher Value Perceptions than did females for Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS. Females purportedly see more Value in Life Sciences/Biology, and the Social Sciences (Geography and History) than do males. In terms of subject-comparative ranking order, both genders reported the lowest Value ratings for Geography. The most contrasting findings according to gender were for History.

A weak correlation was found between gender and Competence Beliefs for Music. The only subject for which gender was predictive of Competence Beliefs was Physical Sciences. Males reported higher Competence Beliefs than females for Life Sciences/Biology, Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS, Music and History. This means that the only subject in which females reported feeling more competent than males was Geography. Males ranked Music as the subject in which they felt most competent, followed by Accounting/EMS and Physical Sciences. Interestingly, the latter two subjects were ranked lowest by females in terms of Competence Beliefs. Music was highly ranked by both genders.

As with grade, correlations between gender and Task Difficulty for Music were insignificant. The only subject for which gender was shown to be predictive of Task Difficulty ratings was Physical Sciences. Results of the current study revealed that males hold lower Task Difficulty Perceptions than do females for all elective subjects except Geography. Ratings for Music and

for Geography were very similar for males and females. The most contrasting Task Difficulty ratings were found for Physical Sciences and Accounting/EMS. In terms of subject-comparative ranking orders, both males and females reported the highest Task Difficulty Perceptions for Physical Sciences. Music was ranked higher on the difficulty scale by males than by females, even though numerically, males rated Music as an easier subject than did females. The Social Sciences were ranked as the easiest subjects, with females rating Geography as the easiest subject, and males rating History as the easiest subject.

Apart from Value Competence and Task Difficulty perceptions, what additional factors influence learners' motivation to study Music as compared with other elective subjects in the FET phase?

Apart from learners' perceptions of the three motivational constructs of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty, several other fascinating factors emerged as important influences on Music continuation intentions in high school learners.

Firstly, the mean responses of all Music learners in grades 9 and 10 revealed that learners generally do not feel that their parents expect them to work hard in Music as a school subject, specifically when compared to other school subjects (note that whether or not these perceptions are in alignment with reality is irrelevant to the study's results). The study also revealed that these low perceived parental expectations for Music have a negative effect on Music continuation intentions of grade 9 learners. Grade 10 learners (who have already chosen Music in the FET phase) reported higher perceptions of parental expectations for Music. It cannot be proved whether these high expectations were the cause of the learners' intentions to continue with Music, or if the perceptions of parental expectations were raised after the learners made the decision to continue with Music as one of their FET electives. Parental encouragement to do well in Music was also shown to be a salient influence on Music continuation intentions, in that learners who perceived low parental encouragement for Music were far less likely to continue with the subject.

Secondly, perceptions of teacher expectations for Music were higher than perceived parental expectations for Music (this was found for all subjects). As with parental expectations, the study revealed that learners who perceive low levels of teacher expectations for Music are far less likely to continue with Music than if the expectations were perceived to be high. In support of this, results showed that the grade 10 learners (who have already chosen Music) generally reported very high perceived Music teacher expectations. Again, we cannot prove whether

these expectations contributed to the continuation decision. Similar results were found for perceptions of encouragement from Music teachers: learners who perceived weak levels of teacher encouragement in Music were far less likely to continue with Music in the FET phase.

One of the most prominent findings of this study was the effect of self-motivation on learners' Music continuation intentions. Not only was it found that grade 10 Music learners are strongly self-motivated for Music (according to self-reports), but it was also found that grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music are significantly more self-motivated for Music than are the learners who wish to discontinue Music. Furthermore, grade 9 learners with positive Music continuation intentions reported that for general school achievement, they are more self-motivated than learners who wish to cease Music.

The influence of peers on Music motivation was a much less significant finding than other influences, as regardless of high or low perceptions of social encouragement in Music, Music continuation intentions were fairly well-balanced. The data revealed that learners wishing to continue with Music reported only a slightly higher rating of social encouragement in Music than did those who wish to discontinue Music.

Additionally, the study revealed that learners who have another musician in their immediate family/household are more likely to continue with Music in the FET phase. In terms of grade 10 results, the majority of these Music learners reported having somebody in their immediate family or household that plays an instrument. In terms of the grade 9 learners, this finding was more potent if learners reported *not* having any other musicians in their families/households apart from themselves. In other words, leaners with no family/household musicianship are more likely to cease Music at the end of grade 9, while learners who do report family/household musicianship reveal a more balanced ratio of those continuing and those discontinuing. Nonetheless, of the learners who reported family/household musicianship, more learners chose to continue with Music than to discontinue Music.

Lastly, grade 9 learners who intend to continue with Music in grade 10 reported significantly stronger practising habits than those who do not intend to continue with Music. Learners with positive continuation intentions reported practising more than double as much (per week) as learners who do not intend to continue with Music. This may simply be explained by the fact that if grade 9 learners do not intend to continue with Music in grade 10, they are not likely to spend time nurturing their musical abilities. Grade 10 Music learners reported practising more than any of the grade 9 learners, which is to be expected.

6.3 Answering the main research question

What motivates learners to continue or discontinue with Music as an elective when they enter the FET phase of education?

The data collected in this study brought to light some possible explanations for what motivates learners to choose Music as an FET elective. It also contributes to a better understanding of why there are small numbers of Music learners in a typical FET class in Gauteng, especially when compared to FET classes for other subjects such as Physical Sciences. On a general level, learners in this sample hold relatively high Value Perceptions of Music, they feel sufficiently competent in it, and they do not rate it as a very difficult subject. It seems odd, then, that more learners do not continue with Music in grade 10. This leads to a certain curiosity about the factors that influence motivation to continue or discontinue with Music in grade 10.

On observation of the data, specifically when organised according to grade 9 Music continuation intentions, it emerged that on average, learners who are interested in pursuing Music until Matric value Music more than all their other elective subjects. This suggests that it is not only an acknowledged Value for Music that contributes to learners' motivation for Music, but that it is a specific partiality towards Music over other subjects that makes learners wish to continue with it in the FET phase. They also feel more competent in Music than in any of their other subjects. Few learners show this type of favour towards Music, which would account for small numbers of FET Music learners.

Learners intending to discontinue Music in grade 10 reported significantly lower Value Perceptions and Competence Beliefs for Music than those continuing with it, which further suggests that these two motivational constructs hold substantial weight in learners' motivation to choose Music as an elective. In contrast to this, the current study showed that Task Difficulty does not have a strong effect on motivation to choose Music, as learners continuing as well as learners discontinuing Music reported more similar ratings of Music Task Difficulty than for the other two constructs.

To further demonstrate the strength of the influence of Value and Competence in Music continuation intentions, results showed that the top two reasons selected for discontinuing Music pertained to a low Value perception for the subject. More than half of the learners intending to discontinue Music reported that it is irrelevant to their futures and/or that they do not see Value in it as a school subject, but only want to participate in Music "for fun". Another

common reason selected for Music cessation was *I am bad at Music* (relating to low Competence Beliefs), which was selected by just more than a fifth of the learners wishing to discontinue Music. Although Task Difficulty did not emerge as a strong motivating influence for Music participation (especially compared to the influence of Value and Competence), the reason *Music is too difficult* was selected by just less than a fifth of the learners discontinuing Music. On the other hand, the reason that was most commonly selected for the intention to continue Music related to high intrinsic Value. This response was close to unanimous by learners intending to continue with Music. The second-most common reason cited was related to high Competence beliefs, and reasons related to Task Difficulty were least-common.

These results thus agree with Eccles' Expectancy-value theory in that if learners do not value a subject, if they feel inadequate in the contents of the subject, or if they think it is too difficult, they will not feel motivated to continue with it. Learners are much more likely to be motivated to participate in an activity they value and in which they feel competent.

In terms of subject-comparative motivation, results showed that Music is not valued as highly as Life Sciences/Biology or Physical Sciences. However, it was valued more highly than History, Geography and Accounting/EMS. Learners felt more competent in Life Sciences/Biology and History than in Music, and less competent in Physical Sciences, Geography and Accounting/EMS. Furthermore, Music was ranked as one of the three easiest school subjects on average. However, as was previously mentioned, overall motivation to continue with Music in the FET phase seems more salient (according to this study) if learners value Music *above all* their subjects, and/or if they feel *more* competent in Music than in their other subjects.

Learners intending to continue with Music interestingly reported higher Value Perceptions for Physical Sciences, Accounting/EMS and Music than learners wishing to cease Music participation. Similarly, prospective FET Music learners also reported higher Competence Beliefs and lower Task Difficulty Perceptions in all subjects except History than learners not intending to continue with Music. This is further illustrated in the subject enrolments of the grade 10 learners of this study (all of whom are Music learners): the majority of these learners had chosen Physical Sciences as one of their three elective subjects for the FET phase, and fewer of them had chosen Geography or History. Further research will be required to interpret these results accurately and fairly, but at the very least, they indicate a difference in cognitive orientations between the two groups of learners. Considering that Physical Sciences was ranked

as the most difficult subject by all learners on average, the fact that nearly 80% of grade 10 Music learners have chosen it as an elective despite its difficult nature may suggest a high need for achievement and a strong sense of self-efficacy. These qualities may contribute to motivation for Music.

Regarding factors unrelated to Value, Competence or Task Difficulty, the results of this study showed that learners who intend to discontinue Music felt that their parents hold low expectations of them for Music and express less encouragement for Music than do learners who intend to continue. Results revealed that very few learners perceive high parental expectations for Music. In fact, on average, learners perceived much lower parental expectations for Music (and Geography) than any other subject. Perceptions of low parental expectations for Music reflect a low perceived parental Value for the subject, which as previous research has shown, can influence learners' own beliefs about the subject as well. This point is well demonstrated in the current study in that when asked to select reasons for Music discontinuation, one sixth of the learners who intend to discontinue Music selected *My parents do not want me to choose Music* as one of their reasons. Low perceived parental support, encouragement and (by implication) Value for Music certainly contributes to Music discontinuation in high school. However, positive perceptions of parental expectations and encouragement were found to be weaker influences in the decision to continue with Music.

The level of self-motivation and self-regulated learning required to be a successful musician is high and is not often found in school-aged learners. This study showed that learners who intend to continue with Music proved to be highly self-motivated, not only for Music but for general school achievement as well. Learners who intend to discontinue Music reported significantly lower levels of self-motivation for Music and general school achievement. Not only are prospective FET Music learners more self-motivated than others, but it was also found that they are slightly less dependent on their parents for general school motivation than are learners who wish to discontinue Music.

Another interesting finding was the effects of other musicians in the families or households of the learners. As was previously mentioned, those who claimed to have someone in their household who plays an instrument (other than themselves) were more likely to hold positive Music continuation intentions than those who do not have musicians in their households.

Lastly, successful musicianship requires a substantial amount of self-motivation and self-regulation in terms of practising an instrument, specifically. Practising is a heavily time-

consuming habit for which few learners feel they can (or are willing to) spare the time. As previously stated, learners who intend to continue with Music reported much more regular practising habits than those who intend to discontinue Music, though this is most likely a *result* of the Music continuation intention rather than a *cause* for it. Nonetheless, when grade 9 learners were asked to select reasons for discontinuing Music, the cost of practice time (a reason selected by 44% of learners discontinuing Music) and the copious amounts of time required for Music in general (selected by 22% of learners) were mentioned third-most and fifth-most frequently, respectively.

In sum, learners are motivated to continue with Music if they feel a superior sense of Value and Competence for Music over other subjects. Task Difficulty Perceptions for Music do not seem to be a motivating force. Results further suggest that learners may be motivated to choose Music by a high need for achievement. Low parental expectations for- and encouragement in Music serves as a reason for Music discontinuation, while high parental expectations for- and encouragement in Music does not appear to strengthen Music motivation to a large extent. Self-regulation, self-motivation and willingness to sacrifice copious amounts of time on Music were also shown to play an important role in Music continuation intentions for the FET phase.

6.4 Limitations of the study

As the research process unfolded, certain limitations of the study emerged. These included factors pertaining to the sample, the questionnaire, the methodological approach and possible data collection administration limitations.

Firstly, the sample was limited to Music learners from four schools within Gauteng only. Furthermore, although the original aim of the study was only to include grade 9 and 10 Music learners, upon analysing the results, the benefit of a wider age/grade group came to light. Responses were so different between the two grades that one cannot help but wonder what the differences would be if the sample spanned the entire 5 years of high school. A longitudinal approach would also have been more informative, to see exactly how the motivational constructs of Value, Competence and Task Difficulty for all subjects change over the 5 years of high school. Another limitation in terms of the sample was the challenge of not having a control group for the grade 9 and 10 learners. While grade 9 Music continuation intentions allowed for some sample comparisons to be drawn, it would have been more informative to have a group of learners who had never participated in Music at all with which to compare the results of Music leaners. This might have contributed more to a discussion of the effects of

subject Music participation on academic motivation. Furthermore, a group of grade 10 learners who decided to discontinue Music after grade 9 would also have benefited the study. This was the original intention, but because of practical and administrative challenges of locating and gathering together each grade 10 learner who was *previously* involved in Music but is no longer, it was decided against.

Regarding the questionnaire, there was one unforeseen limitation in the layout of the questions on one of the pages which led learners to accidentally leave out question 16 (see questionnaire in Appendix A). So many learners omitted this question, that it had to be disregarded when analysing the data. Additionally, towards the end of the questionnaire, it would have been helpful to have included a question which asked grade 9 learners to disclose their grade 10 subject choices (or at least their then-current subject intentions) and possibly provide reasons for each choice. This would have contributed to our understanding of why certain subjects are chosen over others.

Lastly, because this study made use of questionnaires that relied on self-reports and perceptions, responses were subject to bias, as perceptions are not always in alignment with reality. This was not a problem in terms of the motivational constructs (Value, Competence, Task Difficulty) because the study rests on the premise of perceptions over reality. However, for factors such as parental and teacher expectations and encouragement as well as ratings of self-motivation and weekly activity participation, results may not be entirely accurate due to subjective bias.

6.5 Recommendations for future research

The research conducted in this study used samples from single-sex schools only. It would be fascinating to conduct the research at a co-ed school as well, to see if motivation for various subjects are different if girls and boys are learning together in the same environment. The current research also only used government-funded schools. Conducting the research at private schools (which possibly represent a different socio-economic community of learners) would be another possible research path. These schools may have more financial and educational resources than government-funded schools, and these resources may influence motivation differently. The effects of language and culture on educational motivation would also be an exciting stream of research, considering the many different languages and cultures that are represented in South African schools.

One idea that I would recommend for future research would be assessing educational motivation in learners of a more diverse age group. Many factors can be explored if a more age-diverse sample was used, including the effects of learning Music earlier or later in a learner's school career, whether or not the type of instrument being learned has an effect on Music motivation, the motivational trend for Music when comparing multiple grade levels, the effects of Classical training versus Jazz or Popular Music training – to name a few. What would be even more informative would be a longitudinal study across the entire five-year span of high school, or better still, across the 12-year educational career of learners. In this type of study, it would be best to have a control group who does not participate in Music activities at all. Motivational beliefs for different school subjects could then be compared according to whether or not the learners take Music as a school subject.

Furthermore, it seems that we need to place more emphasis on the solution to the problems that face Music participation in high schools in this country. This study may inspire research exploring how to increase motivation for Music as a school subject. We have determined that Value and Competence Beliefs have a larger impact on Music continuation intentions than does Task Difficulty. It has also shown the importance of parents and teachers to learners' motivation. As such, we can (for example) work towards finding ways of increasing the relevance of Music and the value of skills required to succeed in Music. We can also investigate who is teaching Music in this country and the way in which this important task is being undertaken. Moreover, this study has revealed that males generally seem more interested in Music as a specialised subject at school. This can inspire many research topics regarding gender and motivation.

In addition to a quantitative methodological approach, it would be interesting to conduct semi-structured interviews with grade 9 learners who are continuing with Music as well as grade 9 learners who are not continuing with Music.

Lastly, judging by how much the responses varied between grade 9 and 10 learners, it would be interesting to assess the differences in responses between grade 10 Music learners (who are newly entering the FET phase) and grade 12 Music learners (who are nearing the end of their school careers) regarding Music Value, Competence and Task difficulty. In this context, the effects of gender should also be explored.

6.6 Possible contributions of the study

This study is the first of its kind to be undertaken in South Africa. It undoubtedly contributes to the ongoing debate of the importance of the arts in an educational context. While the absence of a completely non-musical control group was somewhat limiting, the results of the study strongly suggest that learners who intend to specialise in Music at a high school level experience higher Competence Beliefs, lower Task Difficulty Perceptions and stronger self-motivation for most of their school subjects than do those who are uninterested in Music specialisation. As the study did not aim to prove causality, it was not definitive whether or not Music involvement is the reason for these findings or if these findings are the reason for Music participation, but the association is undeniable. Furthermore, learners interested in pursuing Music until Matric showed a stronger motivational affinity for Physical Sciences in terms of all three constructs. Considering the reputation of Physical Sciences as one of the most important and challenging academic subjects of today's education system, the link between Music and Physical Sciences might shed some light on the ever-present debate of Music and intelligence. This is further supported by the fact that in this study, the most common grade 10 subject combination[10] included Music and Physical Sciences.

This study additionally highlights the influence of parents on learners' motivational beliefs regarding their school subjects, in that if learners perceive negative beliefs about Music from their parents, they are less likely to continue with it in the FET phase. Because of this, parents need to be made aware of the many benefits of Music participation at a school level, only some of which are demonstrated by this study, but many more of which have been explored in previous research. This study helps to solidify the link between Music participation and a strong sense of self-motivation and self-regulation.

The results of this study contribute to our understanding of Music motivation at a school level, and specifically places South Africa on the "map", so to speak, in terms of inter-country comparisons. This study shows that our learners (at least in Gauteng) hold stronger Value and Competence Beliefs about Music than in many other countries. This is inspiring especially considering the ever-growing concern that Music (and the arts on a more general level) is being overridden by more "academic" subjects in South Africa today. Furthermore, we are the only country (of those explored by McPherson and O'Neill's 2010 study) in which males report

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[10]Learners choose three elective subjects in grade 10, and obviously in this sample, all grade 10 learners have chosen Music as one of their three electives.

more positive motivational beliefs for Music than do females. Males also show lower Task Difficulty beliefs than do females in South Africa, which is not the case in other countries.

Overall, the results of this study contribute to a better understanding of small numbers of learners in a typical FET Music class in Gauteng, and possibly how to combat this problem. It highlights one of the biggest problems with Music as an academic subject, being that learners do not see Music as relevant to their lives or are reluctant to invest in the copious amounts of time that Music requires. This means that Music educationalists need to strive to make Music more relevant to learners' lives today. As the study shows, learners listen to music more than they take part in any other activity in a typical week, meaning that it is in fact one of the most valuable pastimes for learners. If we as Music teachers and researchers can incorporate Music theory and practical into this evident love of music listening, we can increase numbers of Music learners at a school level.

6.7 Conclusion

Although many studies have explored academic motivation as well as motivation for Music in many parts of the world, this study is the first of its kind to have contextualised motivation for Music at a high school level in Gauteng, South Africa. The novel contribution of the study has revealed some interesting findings regarding motivation to study Music at school, but more importantly, it has opened the door to further discussion and research regarding the way in which Music as a subject, is viewed in a high school educational context today, not only by learners, but by parents as well.

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LEARNER QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for taking part in this study. The main focus of the research is to explore learners' motivation to choose various elective subjects in high school. This is an extension of an international study and we would like to explore the South African context. Please answer these questions as honestly as possible. Your participation is much appreciated.

Instructions

This questionnaire contains different types of questions.

○ A circular bullet means that you may choose ONLY ONE answer. For these questions, please <u>COLOUR IN</u> the circular bullet for the answer of your choice.

☐ A square bullet means that you may choose MULTIPLE answers. For these questions, please <u>PLACE AN X</u> in the square bullet for the answer(s) of your choice.

Some questions require a short answer in words.

A large portion of this questionnaire uses a 5-point rating scale. This is self-explanatory, where you are to rate each of your subjects according to the question. Please note that there will be many subjects listed that you do NOT study at school. When you come across a subject that you do not take, simply tick the column that says "I do not take this subject".

NB: This questionnaire consists of several sections. Please READ the instructions for every section carefully, as you might not have to answer all of them.

Before you begin the questionnaire, please read and sign the letter of informed assent on the next double page.

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[11] This questionnaire was printed as an A5 booklet

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Music

LETTER OF INFORMED ASSENT

Dear learner

I, Lauren Venter, would like you to take part in a research study for my Master's degree in Musicology at the University of Pretoria. The study is entitled *Learners' motivation to choose music as an elective in high school.*

Procedures: The study requires you to complete a questionnaire about your motivational beliefs for various school subjects. The questions are related to enjoyment, value and competence for each subject. It should not take more than 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire, and no personal information will be required.

Participant's rights: Your participation in this study is voluntary, and you are allowed to withdraw at any time. No names will be written on the questionnaires, so all answers will be anonymous and confidential. Data collected in this study will be stored at the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years for archival purposes, and may be used for future research.

Your participation will be greatly appreciated and will contribute to a deeper understanding of learners' motivation to study music. Should you agree to take part in the study, please complete the informed assent form attached.

Many thanks,

Miss L J Venter

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Music

INFORMED ASSENT

I hereby voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. I understand my rights as participant, and acknowledge that all data collected from this study will be stored at the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years for archival purposes. Data may also be used for potential future research.

_____   _____

Participant's Signature   Date

1. Please fill in the following information about yourself

• Name of school:
• Grade:
• Age:
• Gender:
• Race:
• Number of brothers/sisters:

2. Does anybody in your immediate family (somebody other than yourself, who lives IN YOUR HOUSE) play a musical instrument?

   ○ Yes

   ○ No

3. Which of these subjects are you currently taking at school? Please place an X in the appropriate boxes.

   ☐ Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)

   ☐ Physical Sciences

   ☐ Accounting/EMS

   ☐ Music

   ☐ Art

   ☐ Drama

   ☐ Geography

   ☐ History

   ☐ Information Technology/Computers

   ☐ Consumer Studies

   ☐ Business Studies

   ☐ EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)

   ☐ Tourism

   ☐ Other (please specify): _____

The following questions are about the subjects that you are currently learning at school. You must ONLY answer for the subjects for which you are enrolled. Make sure that these subjects are the same subjects that you have specified in the previous question. When you come across a subject that you do not take, please select column 1, labelled "I do not take this subject". COLOUR IN the appropriate circle for each subject.

What you enjoy learning

Read the questions carefully, and rate each subject accordingly. Please ONLY answer for the subjects that you are currently enrolled for. Also ensure that you read each subject name clearly, as different schools do not necessarily use the same subject names.

4. At school, how much do you enjoy learning the following subjects?

	I don't take this subject	1 (I don't enjoy it)	2	3	4	5 (I enjoy it a lot)
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

5. At school, how interesting do you find the following subjects?

	I don't take this subject	1 (Not interesting)	2	3	4	5 (Very interesting)
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

What you find important

You might think that some subjects are more important than others, because they fit with what you believe is important to learn at school. For example, you might think that history is more important than art. Please answer the following questions about how important these subjects are for you. You must ONLY answer for the subjects that you take.

6. For you, how important is it to learn the following subjects?

	I do not take this subject	1 (Not important)	2	3	4	5 (Very important)
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

7. Of the subjects you take, how important is it for you to do well in:

	I do not take this subject	1 (Not important)	2	3	4	5 (Very important)
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

What you find useful

Some things that you learn in school help you to do things better outside of class, that is, they are useful. For example, learning about plants might help you to grow a garden. Answer the following questions about how useful you think your school subjects are. ONLY answer for the subjects that you take.

8. Of the subjects you take, how useful is the content of each to your daily life?

	I do not take this subject	1 (Not useful)	2	3	4	5 (Very useful)
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

9. Of the subjects you take, how useful do you think learning these subjects will be for when you leave school and get a job?

	I do not take this subject	1 (Not useful)	2	3	4	5 (Very useful)
Drama	O	O	O	O	O	O
Geography	O	O	O	O	O	O
History	O	O	O	O	O	O
Information Technology/Computers	O	O	O	O	O	O
Consumer Studies	O	O	O	O	O	O
Business Studies	O	O	O	O	O	O
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	O	O	O	O	O	O
Tourism	O	O	O	O	O	O
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	O	O	O	O	O	O
Physical Sciences	O	O	O	O	O	O
Accounting/EMS	O	O	O	O	O	O
Music	O	O	O	O	O	O
Art	O	O	O	O	O	O
Other (please specify): _____	O	O	O	O	O	O

What are you good at?

10. Of the subjects you take, how good do you think you are at:

	I do not take this subject	1 (Very bad)	2	3	4	5 (Very good)
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

11. How well do you think you will do this year in:

	I do not take this subject	1 (Very poorly)	2	3	4	5 (Very well)
History	O	O	O	O	O	O
Information Technology/Computers	O	O	O	O	O	O
Consumer Studies	O	O	O	O	O	O
Business Studies	O	O	O	O	O	O
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	O	O	O	O	O	O
Tourism	O	O	O	O	O	O
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	O	O	O	O	O	O
Physical Sciences	O	O	O	O	O	O
Accounting/EMS	O	O	O	O	O	O
Music	O	O	O	O	O	O
Art	O	O	O	O	O	O
Drama	O	O	O	O	O	O
Geography	O	O	O	O	O	O
Other (please specify): _____	O	O	O	O	O	O

What you feel confident about

12. If you were to order all the students in your class from best to worst, where would you place yourself in relation to them for:

	I do not take this subject	1 (The worst)	2	3	4	5 (The best)
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

What you find difficult

13. Of the subjects you take, how difficult is each subject for you?

	I do not take this subject	1 (Very easy)	2	3	4	5 (Very difficult)
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

14. Compared to your other school subjects, how difficult is:

	I do not take this subject	1 (Easiest subject)	2	3	4	5 (Most difficult subject)
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

What your parents/guardians think

You are reminded to ONLY answer for the subjects that you take.

15. How hard do your parents/guardians expect you to work in the subjects you take?

	I do not take this subject	1 (Not hard)	2	3	4	5 (Very hard)
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

16. How often do your parents/guardians talk to you about what you are learning in your school subjects?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Never	○	○	○	○	○	Constantly

17. For you, how important is your parents'/guardians' support and encouragement to do well at school?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not important	○	○	○	○	○	Very important

What your teachers think

You are reminded to ONLY answer for the subjects that you take.

18. How hard do your teachers expect you to work in:

	I do not take this subject	1 (Not hard)	2	3	4	5 (Very hard)
Tourism	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life Sciences/Biology (This includes Natural Science)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Sciences	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accounting/EMS	○	○	○	○	○	○
Music	○	○	○	○	○	○
Art	○	○	○	○	○	○
Drama	○	○	○	○	○	○
Geography	○	○	○	○	○	○
History	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information Technology/Computers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consumer Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Business Studies	○	○	○	○	○	○
EGD (Engineering Graphics & Design)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Other (please specify): _____	○	○	○	○	○	○

19. Who pushes you the most to achieve at school? Select only ONE option
   ○ Myself
   ○ Friends
   ○ Parents/Guardians
   ○ School teachers

20. Rate the level to which you are encouraged to do well at school by:

	1 (Not at all)	2	3	4	5 (Very much)
Myself	○	○	○	○	○
Parents/Guardians	○	○	○	○	○
School teachers	○	○	○	○	○
Friends	○	○	○	○	○

21. Rate the level to which you are encouraged to do well in music by:

	1 (Not at all)	2	3	4	5 (Very much)
Myself	○	○	○	○	○
Parents/Guardians	○	○	○	○	○
School teachers	○	○	○	○	○
Friends	○	○	○	○	○

A bit about you

How much do you agree or disagree with these statements?

22. Most of the time I like myself

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly Agree

23. In general, I have a lot to be proud of

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly Agree

24. I plan my school work

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly Agree

25. I plan my social activities

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly Agree

26. Rate how often each week you do the following activities outside school in your own time

	0 (Never)	1-2 times	3-4 times	5-6 times	Every day
Do your homework	○	○	○	○	○
Listen to music	○	○	○	○	○
Watch TV/DVDs	○	○	○	○	○
Use social media like Facebook and Twitter	○	○	○	○	○
Practise a musical instrument	○	○	○	○	○
Attend practical music lessons	○	○	○	○	○
Play computer/TV games like Xbox	○	○	○	○	○
Hang out with friends	○	○	○	○	○
Play sports or outdoor games	○	○	○	○	○
Read books	○	○	○	○	○

ONLY answer question 27 if you are in GRADE 9 (FORM 2)

27. As a grade 9 learner, do you think that you will choose music as a school subject next year (in grade 10)?
   ○ Yes
   ○ No

ONLY answer question 28 if you are in GRADE 10 (FORM 3)

28. As a grade 10 learner, did you choose music as a school subject this year?
   ○ Yes
   ○ No

ONLY answer the next FOUR questions (questions 29-32) if you answered "YES" to question 27 or 28.

29. What are the main reasons you have chosen/want to choose music as a subject? You may choose more than one answer

   ☐ Music is something I am interested in and I want to learn more about it
   ☐ I like my teacher/the people I am learning with
   ☐ I am good at music
   ☐ I want to study music after school
   ☐ Music is important to my future
   ☐ Music is easy
   ☐ My parents want me to learn music until matric
   ☐ Other (please specify):
   _____

30. Are you currently learning to play an instrument/voice?
   ○ Yes
   ○ No

31. Which instrument are you learning?

_____

32. For how long have you been learning your instrument/voice?
   ○ 0-1 years
   ○ 2 years
   ○ 3 years
   ○ 4 years
   ○ 5 years
   ○ 6 or more years

ONLY answer the next question if you are in GRADE 9 (FORM 2) and you will <u>NOT</u> be taking music as a school subject next year

33. What are your main reasons for not wanting to choose music as a school subject next year? You may choose more than one answer

   ☐ Music is too difficult
   ☐ Music is too easy and I get bored
   ☐ Music is not interesting to me
   ☐ Music is not relevant to my future
   ☐ My parents do not want me to choose music
   ☐ I am bad at music
   ☐ My music marks are too low
   ☐ I do not like my music teacher/the people I am learning with
   ☐ I do not have time to practise my instrument
   ☐ Music takes too much of my time
   ☐ I do not enjoy music
   ☐ I just want to learn music for fun; not for marks
   ☐ I do not like the image associated with those who take music
   ☐ Other (please specify):
      _____

End of survey. Thank you for your time!

APPENDIX B

Ethical clearance from the University of Pretoria

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Research Ethics Committee

25 July 2017

Dear Ms Venter

Project:	**High school learners' motivation to choose music as an elective in the FET Phase**
Researcher:	**LJ Venter**
Supervisor:	**Dr C Panebianco**
Department:	**Music**
Reference number:	**12061884 (GW20170106HS)**

Thank you for your response to the Committee's letter of 30 January 2017.

I am pleased to inform you that the above application was **approved** by the Research Ethics Committee at an ad hoc meeting held on 25 July 2017. Data collection may therefore commence.

Please note that this approval is based on the assumption that the research will be carried out along the lines laid out in the proposal. Should your actual research depart significantly from the proposed research, it will be necessary to apply for a new research approval and ethical clearance.

The Committee requests you to convey this approval to the researcher.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

Prof Maxi Schoeman
Deputy Dean: Postgraduate and Research Ethics
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: tracey.andrew@up.ac.za

cc: Dr C Panebianco (Supervisor)
Prof A Johnson (HoD)

Research Ethics Committee Members: Prof MME Schoeman (Deputy Dean); Prof KL Harris; Dr L Blokland; Ms A dos Santos; Dr R Fasselt; Ms KT Govinder; Dr E Johnson; Dr C Panebianco; Dr C Puttergill; Dr D Reyburn; Dr M Taub; Prof GM Spies; Prof E Taljard; Ms B Tsebe; Dr E van der Klashorst; Dr G Wolmarans; Ms D Mokalapa

APPENDIX C

Letter of informed consent

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Music

LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT

Dear parent/guardian

I, Lauren Venter, would like your child to take part in a research project for a Master's degree in Musicology at the University of Pretoria. The study is entitled *Learners' motivation to choose music as an elective in high school*. My study is based on an existing international study which explored students' motivation to study music in eight countries. I would very much like to explore this matter within the Gauteng context.

Procedures: The study requires your child to complete a questionnaire regarding motivational beliefs for various school subjects. These beliefs include aspects pertaining to enjoyment, value and competence for each subject. The questionnaire should not take more than 30 minutes to complete and will be done at school.

Participant's rights: Your child's participation in this study is voluntary, and he/she is free to withdraw at any stage without any negative consequences. Anonymity and confidentiality is ensured for all participants, as no personal information from participating learners will be required for the study.

Participation will be greatly appreciated and will contribute to a deeper understanding of learners' motivation to study music in Gauteng schools. Should you agree to allow your child to take part in the study, please complete the informed consent form attached.

Many thanks,

Lauren J Venter

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby voluntarily grant consent for my child's participation in this study. I understand my child's rights as participant, and acknowledge that all data collected from this study will be stored at the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years for archival purposes. Data may also be used for potential future research.

_____

  _____

Parent/Guardian's Signature   Date

APPENDIX D

Letter of informed assent

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Music

LETTER OF INFORMED ASSENT

Dear learner

I, Lauren Venter, would like you to take part in a research study for my Master's degree in Musicology at the University of Pretoria. The study is entitled *Learners' motivation to choose music as an elective in high school*.

Procedures: The study requires you to complete a questionnaire about your motivational beliefs for various school subjects. The questions are related to enjoyment, value and competence for each subject. It should not take more than 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire, and no personal information will be required.

Participant's rights: Your participation in this study is voluntary, and you are allowed to withdraw at any time. No names will be written on the questionnaires, so all answers will be anonymous and confidential. Data collected in this study will be stored at the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years for archival purposes, and may be used for future research.

Your participation will be greatly appreciated and will contribute to a deeper understanding of learners' motivation to study music. Should you agree to take part in the study, please complete the informed assent form attached.

Many thanks,

Miss L J Venter

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Music

INFORMED ASSENT

I hereby voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. I understand my rights as participant, and acknowledge that all data collected from this study will be stored at the University of Pretoria for a period of 15 years for archival purposes. Data may also be used for potential future research.

_____   _____

Participant's Signature   Date

APPENDIX E

GDE letter of approval

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

	8/4/4/1/2

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	06 June 2017
Validity of Research Approval:	06 February 2017 – 29 September 2017 2017/131
Name of Researcher:	Venter L.T
Address of Researcher:	Unit 91, La Monmart
	3 Sugar Bush Road, Morninghill
	Johannesburg, 2007
Telephone Number:	083 650 7102
Email address:	ljventer20@gmail.com
Research Topic:	High School learners' motivation to choose music as an elective in comparison to choosing other electives in the FET phase
Number and type of schools:	Six Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Johannesburg East and Tshwane South

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

06/06/2017

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted: 1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management
7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001
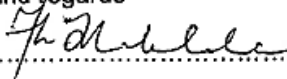Tel: (011) 355 0488
Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

1. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
2. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
4. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year. If Incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher/s must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

Ms Faith Tshabalala
CES: Education Research and Knowledge Management
DATE: 06/06/2017

APPENDIX F

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

The Department of .....Music..
places great emphasis upon integrity and ethical conduct in the preparation of all written work submitted for academic evaluation.

While academic staff teach you about referencing techniques and how to avoid plagiarism, you too have a responsibility in this regard. If you are at any stage uncertain as to what is required, you should speak to your lecturer before any written work is submitted.

You are guilty of plagiarism if you copy something from another author's work (eg a book, an article or a website) without acknowledging the source and pass it off as your own. In effect you are stealing something that belongs to someone else. This is not only the case when you copy work word-for-word (verbatim), but also when you submit someone else's work in a slightly altered form (paraphrase) or use a line of argument without acknowledging it. You are not allowed to use work previously produced by another student. You are also not allowed to let anybody copy your work with the intention of passing if off as his/her work.

Students who commit plagiarism will not be given any credit for plagiarised work. The matter may also be referred to the Disciplinary Committee (Students) for a ruling. Plagiarism is regarded as a serious contravention of the University's rules and can lead to expulsion from the University.

The declaration which follows must accompany all written work submitted while you are a student of the Department of ..Music.. No written work will be accepted unless the declaration has been completed and attached.

Full names of student: Lauren Joan Venter ....

Student number: 12061884 ....

Topic of work: Learners' motivation to choose Music as an elective in High School ....

Declaration

1.   I understand what plagiarism is and am aware of the University's policy in this regard.

2.   I declare that this ....Dissertation............. (eg essay, report, project, assignment, dissertation, thesis, etc) is my own original work. Where other people's work has been used (either from a printed source, Internet or any other source), this has been properly acknowledged and referenced in accordance with departmental requirements.

3.   I have not used work previously produced by another student or any other person to hand in as my own.

4.   I have not allowed, and will not allow, anyone to copy my work with the intention of passing it off as his or her own work.

SIGNATURE   ....