

1 EVALUATION OF A MENTAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAM FOR

2 MUSICIANS

3
4
5
6 Terry Clark^{1,2} and Aaron Williamon¹

7
8 ¹ Centre for Performance Science, Royal College of Music, London, UK

9 ² Department of Dance Science, Trinity Laban Conservatoire of Music and Dance,

10 London, UK

11
12
13
14 Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Terry Clark, Centre for Performance

15 Science, Royal College of Music, Prince Consort Road, London SW7 2BS, UK. Email:

16 terry.clark@rcm.ac.uk.

17
18
19 RUNNING HEAD: MENTAL SKILLS FOR MUSICIANS

20

1 **EVALUATION OF A MENTAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAM FOR**
2 **MUSICIANS**

3

4

Abstract

5 This study explored the effects of a nine-week music-specific mental skills
6 training (MST) program delivered to students at a music conservatoire in England (n =
7 14). Pre- and post-testing involved a battery of questionnaires, public performances, and
8 participant feedback. In comparison with a control group (n = 9), the experimental group
9 demonstrated significant changes in their views toward practice activities and specific
10 practicing behaviors, a significant increase in self-efficacy for performing, and an
11 increase in imagery vividness. Comments from participants in the experimental group
12 revealed greater levels of self-awareness, confidence, facilitative views toward and
13 heightened control over anxiety, and healthier perspectives toward music making.

14

15 *Keywords:* mental skills training; imagery, music performance, performance science

16 *Running head:* MENTAL SKILLS FOR MUSICIANS

17

1 It is becoming increasingly clear that musicians require a variety of musical,
2 physical, and mental skills to prepare effectively for performances as well as to manage
3 the stressors and demands associated with performing (see Williamon & Thompson,
4 2006). Fundamentally, advanced music students can expect to receive training on the
5 technique or mechanics of playing their instruments, as well as instruction on a range of
6 practice, performing, ensemble, and professional skills. In addition, a broader range of
7 programs are being increasingly employed to equip musicians with the skills necessary to
8 prepare for performance effectively and manage their performance careers. Nevertheless,
9 some of these programs are developed and implemented with little empirical support for
10 their efficacy. From the viewpoint of researchers, performers, and those who train
11 performers, it is important that these programs be subjected to empirical testing to
12 provide an unbiased assessment of how they can be employed to enhance performance
13 (Kimmerle & Côte-Laurence, 2003; Williamon, 2004).

14 While targeted investigations have demonstrated the effects that specific mental
15 skills can have upon experiences of performance anxiety and musicians' practice
16 behaviors, broader functions for mental skills use are still largely unknown and under-
17 researched. Given this, the present study sought to investigate the effects of a multi-
18 faceted mental skills training program delivered to music students. In particular, the
19 impact of the program upon musicians' practice attitudes and behaviors, music and
20 mental skills, trait and state anxiety, self-efficacy, and performance ability was explored.
21 Additionally, methods for evaluating the validity of the program were also examined.

22

23 **Previous Employment of Mental Skills Training in Music**

1 Although mental skills training programs are commonplace within sport and some
2 other elite performance domains, they have yet to be widely applied within the
3 performing arts (Hays, 2002). Partly due to the fact that such programs are not common
4 within the performing arts, there are still a number of questions surrounding the potential
5 for their use by musicians. Such questions include the range of functions and uses for
6 which musicians may employ mental skills, as well as the possible benefits musicians
7 stand to derive from structured mental skills training. Additionally, the most effective
8 means of providing training in mental skills for musicians is not fully understood. In
9 response to such questions, Gould (2002a) called for sport psychology researchers to
10 expand their expertise and knowledge beyond sport, explaining that sport psychologists
11 have already begun “transferring what they have learned about facilitating human
12 performance in sport to other domains such as music, the arts, business, and the military”
13 (p. 137). Doing so would allow for the testing of the generalization of theories and
14 understanding related to performance excellence. In return, there is the potential for
15 research from other areas of human performance to offer new insight for sport
16 performance (Gould, 2002b).

17 Despite the above questions surrounding the use of mental skills training
18 programs within the performing arts, use of mental skills by musicians is not a new or
19 unfamiliar concept. A number of studies have employed mental skills with the aims of
20 enhancing musicians’ practice activities and performance quality, reducing the
21 occurrence of performance anxiety, and providing musicians with skills to enable them to
22 cope better with stress (for a review see Smith, Maragos, & Van Dyke, 2000).

1 An area of considerable research within music has considered the content, quality,
2 and quantity of musicians' practice. Central to the exploration of practice content and
3 quality and how they can influence the efficiency of practice is self-regulated learning.
4 McPherson and Zimmerman (2002, p. 327) defined self-regulated learning as a situation
5 "where learners acquire the tools necessary to take control of their own learning and
6 thereby learn effectively". In other words, self-regulation occurs when students become
7 "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own
8 learning process" (Zimmerman, 1989, p. 329). Highlighted as a key moderator in the
9 effectiveness of musicians' practice (Jørgensen, 2004; McPherson & Zimmerman, 2002),
10 Hallam (2001a) found that musicians with greater levels of experience employ higher
11 levels of strategy use than less experienced musicians. Hallam (2001b) noted that one-to-
12 one instrumental tuition can increase students' knowledge and use of self-regulated
13 learning strategies, but whether such training can also be provided in group classroom-
14 based contexts remains to be examined. The potential effects that might be obtained
15 through such training also require investigation.

16 Among the studies aimed at enhancing practice and performance quality have
17 been investigations into the use of imagery and mental rehearsal as a practice technique
18 (Coffman, 1990; Driskell, Copper, & Moran, 1994; Highben & Palmer, 2004; Ross,
19 1985). In their meta-analysis of the mental practice literature, Driskell *et al.* (1994)
20 concluded that mental practice is an effective means for enhancing performance. Rather
21 than being a skill in which a person is immediately proficient, Rogers, Hall, and Buckolz
22 (1991) noted that imagery ability, and subsequently imagery's effectiveness, can be
23 increased through practice. Furthermore, the potential role of imagery vividness, or

1 clarity, as a moderator of imagery's usefulness has received strong support in the fields of
2 applied psychology (e.g. Richardson 1994), sports science (e.g. Gregg & Hall 2006;
3 Gregg, Hall, & Nederhof, 2005) and in music (Gregg & Clark 2007; Highben & Palmer,
4 2004). Beyond investigating the potential benefits of imagery as a practice technique,
5 studies have yet to examine the implications inherent in providing imagery training to
6 musicians and the impact such training might have upon musicians' imagery ability.

7 Through his work with elite classical musicians, Partington (1995) noted that
8 during the last few days prior to a performance the musicians employed musical,
9 physical, and mental preparation strategies in order to perform at their best. Their
10 activities on the day of the performance were highly idiosyncratic, developed through
11 personal experience. Within this, they all employed individualized, flexible pre-
12 performance routines that incorporated physical activity, nutrition, and rest as well as
13 warming up using mental, emotional, technical, and musical strategies. Connolly and
14 Williamon (2004) also noted that pre-performance routines were rated as particularly
15 useful by music performance students. Other skills identified as particularly effective
16 were mental and physical relaxation, imagery and mental rehearsal, focus and
17 concentration, ideal performance states and simulation, and goal identification and
18 setting. Beyond the works by Partington (1995) and Connolly and Williamon (2004),
19 very few studies have actually explored pre-performance routines in any depth.

20 Although there is limited research in the music literature, pre-performance
21 routines and the effect that pre-performance routines can have on anxiety experiences
22 have been explored more thoroughly in other domains. A number of studies in sport (e.g.
23 Hanton & Connaughton, 2002; Hanton & Jones, 1999; Hanton, Mellalieu, & Hall, 2004;

1 Jones, Hanton, & Swain, 1994) and surgery (e.g. Wetzel, 2006) have found that elite
2 performers commonly employ pre-performance routines comprised of goal-setting,
3 imagery, and self-talk in order to develop and maintain facilitative interpretations of their
4 anxiety symptoms. Given such support for the use of a variety of psychological skills as
5 part of training and performance preparation found within other disciplines, further
6 research seeking to understand the use and efficacy of such skills by musicians appears
7 clearly warranted.

8 A number of studies incorporating mental skills have been directed at assisting
9 musicians to manage stress and anxiety. The mental skills employed in these studies have
10 included attention training and behavioral rehearsal (Kendrick, Craig, Lawson, &
11 Davidson, 1982), self-talk with relaxation delivered under hypnosis (Stanton, 1994),
12 visualization and guided imagery (Esplen & Hodnett, 1999; Gratto, 1998), and various
13 breathing and relaxation exercises (Gratto, 1998). Throughout these studies, beneficial
14 effects have been found for the control or alleviation of both state and trait anxiety, as
15 measured by scales such as the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorsuch, &
16 Lushene, 1970). Incidentally, studies focusing on the impact of pre-performance routines
17 on musicians' anxiety experiences are largely lacking.

18 While not a mental skill in and of itself, the role of self-efficacy in facilitating
19 musical performance quality has also been explored. Across two studies involving nearly
20 800 children completing graded music examinations, self-efficacy emerged as the most
21 reliable predictor of performance in the examinations (McCormick & McPherson, 2003;
22 McPherson & McCormick, 2006). McCormick and McPherson noted that, while the
23 influence of self-efficacy was apparent within the examination itself, self-efficacy was

1 also found to impact upon the musicians' attitudes and practice behaviors leading up to
2 the examination. Clearly, not only the types of activities musicians engage in when
3 preparing for performances but also their perceptions of themselves and the activities
4 they engage in can have a significant effect upon their performance experiences.
5 However, whether structured mental skills training can be used to enhance musicians'
6 self-efficacy beliefs remains to be investigated.

7 Although these investigations have expanded our understanding of musicians' use
8 of mental skills and the benefits such skills may hold, they have raised a number of issues
9 requiring further investigation. Many of the studies investigating the effects of mental
10 skills employed just one or two skills or strategies. Although the use of one or two skills
11 makes it easier to determine the effects of those skills, there is growing support for the
12 use of multi-faceted training programs (Weinberg & Williams, 2006), particularly given
13 that each musician may interact idiosyncratically to training of a specific skill. Many of
14 the investigations mentioned above lacked a control group, making it difficult to ascertain
15 whether changes noted in the study participants were in fact due to the skills investigated.
16 Interestingly, many of the studies also provided little time for the participants to practice
17 and become proficient at the new skills. Research has found that imagery ability, for
18 instance, increases with practice (Rogers, Hall, & Buckolz, 1991), and it would make
19 sense for other skills to respond in a similar manner. Lastly, when investigating factors
20 such as performance anxiety and performance quality, it is important that testing occur in
21 realistic performance environments to ensure that what is being tested is as representative
22 of the participants' real world experiences as possible.
23

1 **Aims and Hypotheses**

2 The objective of the present investigation was to examine the effects of a multi-
3 faceted musician-specific mental skills training program delivered to advanced music
4 students. In particular, this study sought to investigate whether mental skills training
5 would enhance musicians' use of and ability with self-regulated learning behaviors and
6 musical and mental skills, including imagery. Additionally, this study was interested in
7 the impact a multi-faceted mental skills training program would have upon musicians'
8 anxiety experiences, self-efficacy, and performance quality. Finally, the value of
9 participant feedback as a means of elucidating the effects of and evaluating the program
10 was also explored.

11 It was hypothesized that, in relation to a control group, the experimental group
12 would demonstrate significant increases in their use of and ability with self-regulated
13 learning behaviors and musical and mental skills as demonstrated by the various
14 measures employed. Additionally, it was hypothesized that participation in the training
15 program would result in the experimental group reporting decreases in their state and trait
16 anxiety, enhanced self-efficacy, and increased performance quality in relation to the
17 control group. As well, it was expected that feedback collected from the experimental
18 group participants would provide a useful means of evaluating the effects and validity of
19 the program.

20

21

Method

22 **Participants**

1 For this study, twenty-seven undergraduate and postgraduate music performance
2 majors were recruited from a music conservatoire in England. The researcher had had
3 little to no experience with all of the participants prior to their participation in the study.
4 Of the original 27, only 23 participants provided sufficient data through two rounds of
5 data collection to be included in analyses. They were composed of 9 men and 14 women,
6 ranging in age from 20 to 51 years ($M = 23.59$, $SD = 5.93$). Grouped by year of study,
7 four were Year 1 undergraduates, six were Year 2, three were Year 3, four were Year 4,
8 and six were postgraduates. Grouped by instrument, six were pianists, five were singers,
9 seven were string players, and five were woodwind or brass players. Of these
10 participants, 14 formed the experimental group and 9 the control group. The two groups
11 were comparable in terms of age (experimental group: $M = 24.13$, $SD = 7.47$; control
12 group: $M = 22.82$, $SD = 2.56$), year of study, and instrument distribution.

13 It should be noted that the participants who formed the experimental group were
14 not randomly assigned, but rather volunteered for the study specifically to receive the
15 mental skills training. This design was chosen because involvement in the experimental
16 group required a substantial commitment of time and effort on the participants' part, both
17 within the training and testing sessions and outside, necessitating significant intrinsic
18 motivation. Additionally, it could be argued that musicians who self-select into such a
19 program would be most similar to the kind of musician that would choose to undertake
20 mental skills training from a practitioner. As such,, the experimental group of the present
21 investigation would be likely to produce results indicative of typical applied settings.

22

23 **Materials**

1 **Self-regulated learning.**

2 The participants' understanding and use of self-regulated learning behaviors
3 within their practicing were assessed using a newly developed questionnaire adapted
4 from the Self-regulated Learning Interview Schedule (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons,
5 1988). This 10-item measure asks the participants to rate how important they feel it is for
6 musicians to employ various strategies as part of their regular practice activities on a
7 scale from 1 to 7, with 7 representing "extremely important". The kinds of strategies
8 assessed include setting goals for and evaluating practice and performances, manipulating
9 practice procedures and environments, and seeking assistance and information from peers
10 and auditory and written materials. For example, one of the items asks: "When practicing
11 or learning music, how important is it for a musician to evaluate the quality or progress of
12 learning?" The 10 scores from each of the items are summed and one overall score is
13 produced, ranging from 10 to 70, with a higher score indicating a greater belief in the
14 importance of employing self-regulated learning behaviors. Cronbach's alpha coefficient
15 from the current sample for this measure was .65. Factor analysis to establish the validity
16 of this measure is currently ongoing.

17

18 **Musical and mental skills.**

19 Perception of Musical Skills. The Musical Skills Survey was employed to assess
20 the participants' self-perceptions concerning their skill acquisition and technique as well
21 as attributes that relate to the processes of musical learning and performing (such as
22 effectiveness of practice, stamina, management of everyday stress; Ritchie & Williamon,
23 in press). Comprised of 22 items, participants rate their own perceived proficiency,

1 compared with others in their specialism of similar experience, on a scale from 1 to 7,
2 with 7 representing “excellent ability”. Each of the items is treated individually, rather
3 than producing one summed score, resulting in each participant having 22 scores from
4 this measure which can then be used in further analyses.

5 Mental Imagery. Imagery ability was assessed using the randomized short version
6 of Betts’ Questionnaire upon Mental Imagery (Betts QMI; Sheehan, 1967). The Betts
7 QMI is a 35-item self-report questionnaire in which respondents are asked to rate on a
8 seven-point scale the strength or vividness of various suggested sensory experiences, with
9 1 representing “Perfectly clear and as vivid as the actual experience”. This questionnaire
10 addresses seven different senses through five items apiece: sight, sound, taste, smell,
11 movement, and interoceptive and exteroceptive sensations. Interoceptive sensations refers
12 to things like hunger, a sore throat, and fatigue while exteroceptive sensations refers to
13 things like feeling sand, the prick of a pin, and the warmth of a tepid bath. This produces
14 eight scores for each participant: one total score (ranging from 35 to 245) and seven sub-
15 scale scores for each of the senses addressed (ranging from 5 to 35). Lower scores
16 indicate greater imagery vividness. Participants are instructed to conjure up or imagine a
17 particular sensory experience and then rate the vividness of the image that they create. A
18 lower score indicates a greater level of imagery vividness. Factor analysis during
19 development confirmed the validity of the seven subcomponents within this
20 questionnaire, producing eigenvvalues ranging from 1.35 to 19.4 (Sheehan, 1967).
21 Cronbach’s alpha coefficients from the current sample for each of the sub-scales were:
22 Sight = .84; Sound = .75; Taste = .75; Smell = .80; Movement = .63; Interoceptive
23 sensations = .80; Exteroceptive sensations = .67.

1

2 Anxiety, self-confidence, and self-efficacy.

3 Trait Anxiety. Trait anxiety was assessed using the 20-item trait anxiety index
4 from the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (TAI; Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970).
5 Employing a four-point scale (one = Almost Never, four = Almost Always), the scores
6 from the 20 items are summed, producing one overall score per participant that can range
7 from 20 to 80. Higher scores indicate higher levels of trait anxiety. Sample items include:
8 “I feel nervous and restless” and “I make decisions easily”. A number of studies have
9 confirmed the validity of this measure (e.g. Kabacoff, Segal, Hersen, & Van Hasselt,
10 1997; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Luschene, *et al.*, 1983; Vigneau & Cormier, 2008).
11 Cronbach’s alpha coefficient from the current sample for this measure was .88.

12 State Anxiety and Self-confidence. The Revised Competitive State Anxiety
13 Inventory-2 (CSAI-2R; Cox, Martens, & Russell, 2003) was used to assess the musicians’
14 state anxiety prior to giving a live musical performance. In addition to assessing levels of
15 cognitive (5-items) and somatic state anxiety (7-items), the CSAI-2R also assesses self-
16 confidence (5-items). Using a scale from one (Not at all) to four (Very much so), an
17 overall summed score can be calculated per participant, as well as extracted summed
18 scores for the three subcomponents. The score range for the subcomponents of cognitive
19 anxiety and self-confidence is 5 to 20 and the range for the somatic anxiety
20 subcomponent is 7 to 28. Higher scores represent higher levels of each state anxiety
21 component and of self-confidence. Items on this questionnaire include: “I feel jittery”, “I
22 am concerned that I may not do as well in this performance as I could”, and “I’m
23 confident of coming through under pressure”. Confirmatory factor analysis has

1 established the factorial validity of the CSAI-2R (CFI = .95, NNFI = .94, RMSEA = .05;
2 Cox *et al.*, 2003). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each of the sub-components of this
3 measure from the current sample were: cognitive anxiety = .74; somatic anxiety = .84;
4 self-confidence = .94.

5 Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was assessed using the Self-efficacy for Musical
6 Performing questionnaire (Ritchie & Williamon, in press). This 8-item questionnaire was
7 developed to assess musicians' self-beliefs prior to and in correspondence to a specific
8 task. In this respect, it differs from assessments of more global self-confidence. To
9 achieve this, the questionnaire is oriented toward a particular event through the use of an
10 introductory instruction that asks participants to recall a recent performance in which they
11 held a prominent role (such as a soloist), to imagine that they will be taking part in a
12 similar performance in the coming weeks, and then respond to the questions with this
13 performance in mind. The questionnaire provides participants with eight performance-
14 related statements to which they indicated their agreement or disagreement on a seven-
15 point scale (one = Disagree, seven = Agree). The potential range for this questionnaire is
16 8 to 56 and a higher score indicates a higher level of self-efficacy for performing. Sample
17 items on this questionnaire include: "I am confident that I can give a successful
18 performance" and "If something unexpected happens during the performance, I will
19 handle it well". Exploratory factor analysis during development confirmed a single
20 underlying factor for this questionnaire, producing an eigenvalue of 3.52 (Ritchie &
21 Williamon, in press). Cronbach's alpha coefficient from the present sample for this
22 measure was .84.

23

1 Performance quality.

2 To assess performance quality, the participants performed live in front of an
3 audience of their peers and staff from the conservatoire at which they studied. The size of
4 the audience for each of the performances was typically around 15 people. The
5 participants were requested to perform two contrasting pieces of their choice, totaling 15
6 minutes in length. All performances were video recorded. To assess the performances,
7 two professional musicians with internationally recognized performing careers were
8 recruited. In addition to their performing careers, each had more than 10 years experience
9 of professional assessment and adjudication. The assessors were external and had no
10 previous association with the participants. The recordings of the performances from the
11 two rounds of testing were randomized to mask whether they were from the first or
12 second round, as well as to mask the participants' group allocation. The performances
13 were given a mark from 1 (poor) to 7 (excellent) for eight different components: overall
14 quality, technical proficiency, musical understanding, communicative ability, level of
15 preparedness, self-assuredness, interpretative imagination and originality, and ability to
16 cope with the stress of the performance situation. This resulted in each participant
17 receiving two sets of eight scores for each round of testing (one from each of the two
18 assessors). For each participant, a mean was created of the two assessors' marks for each
19 of the eight components, producing eight averaged scores for each participant for the first
20 round of testing and eight for the second round. Correlations between the two assessors
21 for the eight performance quality ratings ranged from $r = 0.212$ ($p > 0.05$) to $r = 0.462$ (p
22 < 0.001). Such low correlations threw into question the validity of the performance
23 quality ratings and, as a result, prevented their inclusion in subsequent analyses.

1

2 Participant feedback.

3 Written feedback was collected from the experimental group during and following
4 the training program using open-response evaluation forms. On the evaluation forms, the
5 experimental group was requested to comment on each of the nine topics covered and
6 provided with the instructions: “Please comment on the extent to which you found this
7 topic relevant and useful in your everyday engagement as a musician. If possible, please
8 discuss what you liked and did not like about the topic, how it was delivered, and any
9 other relevant topics you wished had been included.” Eight months after the completion
10 of the training and final testing phase, members of the experimental group took part in a
11 focus group conducted by the first author. A semi-structured topic guide was created for
12 the focus group, with questions addressing the participants’ backgrounds and reasons for
13 taking part in the project, perceived general effects of the program, issues in relation to
14 particular topics and exercises, and suggestions for how to improve the program, both in
15 terms of content and delivery. The focus group was recorded digitally and transcribed
16 verbatim.

17

18 Procedure

19 Ethical clearance for this study was obtained from the relevant review board.
20 Following recruitment, each participant was issued an information letter and signed an
21 informed consent form before any further aspect of the study commenced. Prior to the
22 delivery of the mental skills training, a group session was set up in a classroom at the
23 conservatoire at which the participants studied, during which all participants completed

1 all but one of the above questionnaires. This session lasted approximately one hour.
2 Following the questionnaire session, participants from both groups signed up to give their
3 live performances at a specified time in one of the conservatoire's recital halls.
4 Immediately prior to performing, the participants completed the CSAI-2R to assess their
5 state anxiety and self-confidence.

6 Following the completion of the first round of testing, the experimental group
7 took part in the 9-week mental skills training program discussed below. Throughout this,
8 written feedback was collected from the experimental group on their thoughts regarding
9 the program, as detailed above. During this time, the control group received no training
10 beyond what they received otherwise as part of their studies.

11 Within the two weeks following the conclusion of the training program, a second
12 round of testing, the procedure of which was identical to that of the first round, was
13 conducted. Again, the participants completed all of the questionnaires, except the
14 demographic questionnaire, in an hour-long session in one of the conservatoire's
15 classrooms. As with the first round of testing, participants from both the experimental and
16 control groups next gave their live performances in one of the conservatoire's recital
17 halls.

18 Eight months following the second round of testing, members of the experimental
19 group were asked to take part in a focus group. Given that the focus group occurred in the
20 academic year following the delivery of the training program, some members of the
21 experimental group were no longer studying at the conservatoire at which this research
22 was conducted. Between some members having left and other members of the

1 experimental group who were still at the conservatoire being unable to attend the focus
2 group, 8 of the 14 who completed the full training program took part.

3

4 **Mental Skills Training Program**

5 The mental skills training program for the experimental group consisted of one
6 60-minute group session and one 30-minute individual session per week for 9 weeks.
7 Drawing from relevant material within the music, education, and sport psychology
8 literature, a musician-specific 9-week mental skills training program was developed. The
9 objectives of the program were to facilitate increased refinement and understanding in the
10 participants of their own practice behaviors and performance preparation activities, how
11 they respond to various performance-related situations, and how such behaviors and
12 responses could influence their abilities to learn and perform. To achieve this, systematic
13 training was provided in a number of key mental skills that have particular relevance for
14 performance preparation, such as goal setting, relaxation strategies, and imagery and
15 mental rehearsal. Specifically, the topics covered fell into three main categories: (a)
16 motivation and effective practice, comprising goal setting, peak performance awareness,
17 and effective practice and time management; (b) relaxation and arousal control,
18 comprising relaxation strategies, arousal control through cognitive restructuring, and self-
19 talk; and (c) performance preparation and enhancement, comprising mental rehearsal and
20 imagery, focus and concentration, and performance preparation and analysis. Each of the
21 three categories of topics included three individual and three group sessions spread over 3
22 weeks.

1 The group sessions included a mix of the theoretical and empirical background
2 information on the various topics, as well as group and individual exercises designed to
3 assist the participants to integrate the skills into their daily musical activities. The
4 individual sessions were an opportunity for the participants to discuss their personal
5 experiences (previous and current) with the topics and exercises and provided an
6 opportunity for the program to be tailored more specifically to their wants and needs.

7 Prior to delivery, a number of processes were undertaken to ensure that the
8 program was valid and appropriate. To begin, three certified and practicing sport
9 psychology consultants were asked for their feedback on the proposed program. Aspects
10 including specific topic inclusion, the division of theoretical and applied content,
11 appropriate exercises, and overall structure of the program and how it would be delivered
12 were discussed. Fundamentally, the sport psychology consultants offered
13 recommendations concerning the overall structure and progression of the different topics
14 covered, stressed the over-arching importance of the goal-setting process for facilitating
15 the learning and integration of the other topics into the musicians' practice behaviors,
16 highlighted the usefulness of the one-to-one sessions, and advised on specific exercises
17 that could be employed. Following this consultation, parts of the program were delivered
18 to two undergraduate psychology of music classes at the conservatoire, using the same
19 mixture of group and individual sessions as would be used in the full program. This
20 piloting allowed for an assessment of the structure of delivery and reception of the topics.
21 The students provided informal feedback on the content, exercises, and delivery,
22 following which modifications and adjustments were made as necessary. As well, the two

1 classes completed some of the assessment measures that were to be employed to develop
2 and refine further the testing procedure.

3 All group and individual training sessions were delivered by the first author. In
4 addition to having training and experience in providing mental skills training, this person
5 was also an experienced classical music performer. Having experience in both allowed
6 this person to present non-music-specific concepts in a contextually-relevant manner to
7 the participants, helping facilitate appropriate application.

8

9 **Data Treatment and Analysis**

10 Although every effort was made to ensure that a full data set from all of the
11 participants was collected, one of the participants did not complete the Musical Skills
12 Survey, hence the n for this survey is one less than the other measures. All quantitative
13 data were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and tested
14 for normal distribution using the One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Results of the
15 test indicated that the scores for all of the measures employed demonstrated a normal
16 distribution ($p > 0.05$).

17 Descriptive statistics for each of the assessment measures were first calculated.
18 Initial analyses demonstrated that there were no significant differences between the
19 experimental and control groups on any of the measures ($p > 0.05$). A one-way analysis
20 of variance (ANOVA) with the difference scores between the two testing periods for each
21 measure as the within-subjects variables and group membership as the between subjects
22 factor was run to assess the extent of change between the two testing periods.

1 The objective of collecting feedback from the participants was to establish a
 2 contextualized perspective of the participants’ subjective experiences as a result of having
 3 participated in the mental skills training program. To this end, content analysis of the
 4 written feedback and the transcript from the focus group was performed using
 5 Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). According to Smith and Osborn (2003, p.
 6 51), IPA “attempts to explore personal experiences and is concerned with an individual’s
 7 personal perception or account of an object or event, as opposed to an attempt to produce
 8 an objective statement of the object or event itself.” Specifically, the procedure developed
 9 for this study involved the following steps:

10

- 11 • Individual points of interest were identified within the written feedback and
 12 the transcript from the focus group
- 13 • Points of interest were labeled and grouped into categories with other similar
 14 points of interest
- 15 • Categories were then grouped together into general themes

16

17 Pertinent quotes from the qualitative feedback have been included to help shed
 18 further light upon the quantitative findings. For the purposes of citing individuals’
 19 comments, the experimental group participants were numbered alphabetically (for
 20 example EG1, EG7, etc.).

21

22

Results

23

Effects of the Program

1 The following section presents the results of the quantitative and qualitative
 2 measures pertaining to the effects that the experimental group participants derived from
 3 taking part in the training program. All results from the questionnaires, including mean
 4 scores from the two rounds of testing for the experimental and control groups and the
 5 results from the one-way ANOVA, are presented in Table 1. The benefits that the
 6 participants felt they gained as a result of taking part in the training, as collected via the
 7 participant feedback, grouped into four themes: (a) increased self-awareness of effective
 8 performance preparation; (b) improved practice efficiency; (c) a shift in views toward
 9 anxiety; and (d) positive impact on attitudes toward music making.

10

11

Insert Table 1 about here

12

13

14

15 When comparing the scores achieved by the experimental and control groups on
 16 the two testing phases, a significant effect for the Musical Self-regulated Learning
 17 questionnaire emerged ($F_{(1,21)} = 16.22, p = .001, \eta^2 = .44$). The first theme of comments,
 18 as determined by the analysis of the qualitative data, expanded upon this significant
 19 effect. As a result of having taken part in the program, experimental group participants
 20 reported possessing greater levels of self-awareness in relation to their practice styles and
 21 factors affecting their abilities to perform. They also reported that this increased self-
 22 awareness facilitated heightened feelings of self-confidence when performing. These are
 23 highlighted by the following quotes: “Thinking about performances that I enjoyed and
 24 ones I didn’t helped to point out factors which I could have overlooked, such as patterns

1 in preparing myself” (EG7); “The exercises helped me to work out why certain factors
2 could stop a performance from being a success” (EG8); “I have a more organized and
3 clearer idea of what produces a better performance. This self-awareness helps improve
4 my mindset towards public performances” (EG11).

5 Further to the above changes in attitudes toward and understanding of practice
6 behaviors, significant differences were found for two of the 22 items on the Musical
7 Skills Survey. The experimental group participants reported a significant increase beyond
8 the control group for the Musical Skills items “Quantity of Practice” ($F_{(1,20)} = 5.59, p =$
9 $.039, \eta^2 = .22$) and “Technical Proficiency” ($F_{(1,20)} = 4.90, p = .028, \eta^2 = .20$).

10 Similar to the observed change in “Quantity of Practice”, the experimental group
11 participants commented that their involvement in the program helped improve their
12 practice efficiency; this comprised the second theme of comments. In particular, they felt
13 that they were better able to organize their practice time: “Helped increase my practice
14 efficiency” (EG1); “Prompted me to organize my practice time better” (EG7).

15 The participants also spoke of how the program helped them to identify clearer
16 practice objectives together with strategies and methods for working toward them:
17 “Helped me develop a clear idea of what I want to achieve in a practice session” (EG8);
18 “Sped up my learning of new music when there was a lot of pressure and deadlines”
19 (EG9).

20 As well, following the training the participants reported that they felt more
21 confident employing a broader range of practice strategies, such as goal setting and
22 mental rehearsal in particular: “I began to set achievable goals and found I was able to
23 achieve them which prompted me to set goals that I wasn’t sure were possible. I feel

1 more positive about setting goals to achieve my dream” (EG9); “I now engage in more
2 mental practice” (EG2).

3 This latter quote was mirrored by the quantitative findings in which significant
4 changes also emerged in relation to imagery ability. A significant change was found
5 when comparing the experimental and control groups’ total score from the Betts QMI
6 ($F_{(1,21)} = 9.23, p = .006, \eta^2 = .31$), along with the subcomponents “Interoceptive
7 sensations” and “Exteroceptive sensations” ($F_{(1,21)} = 5.66, p = .027, \eta^2 = .21; F_{(1,21)} =$
8 $6.75, p = .017, \eta^2 = .24$ respectively).

9 In addition to changes in practice and performance preparation behaviors and
10 imagery ability, the experimental group participants reported experiencing a shift in their
11 self-efficacy for performing and their views surrounding anxiety and anxiety symptoms,
12 as well as perceptions concerning their control over anxiety symptoms. The experimental
13 group demonstrated a significant increase over the control group between the testing
14 periods on the Self-efficacy for Musical Performing questionnaire ($F_{(1,21)} = 6.88, p =$
15 $.016, \eta^2 = .25$). No other significant changes emerged between the experimental and
16 control groups.

17 Comments comprising the third theme derived from the qualitative measures
18 expand upon these findings. The above mentioned shifts in views surrounding anxiety
19 appeared to have been achieved particularly through the use of self- talk and pre-
20 performance routines, as evidenced by the following quotes: “I’ve started rationalizing
21 anxiety symptoms as normal and facilitative” (EG2); “I find that focusing on my mental
22 as opposed to physical state prior to a performance produces a more facilitative focus”
23 (EG9:).

1 Comprising the final theme of comments, the participants spoke of changes to
2 their attitudes toward music making: “The program helped me develop a healthier
3 perspective towards music making, in particular through distinguishing myself from my
4 music, so one doesn’t affect the other” (EG9).

5 While also tested, no other variables listed in Table 1 achieved a significant effect
6 when comparing the scores from the two testing periods controlling for group
7 membership via the one-way ANOVA.

8

9 **Participant Feedback on Improving the Program**

10 Suggestions for how the experimental group participants would modify or improve the
11 program were also collected. The participants were largely not interested in typical
12 research findings. Instead, they preferred examples of student and professional musicians,
13 as noted by this participant: “I would have preferred more case studies from students and
14 professionals so we may understand and benefit in a more direct way, rather than through
15 research reports” (EG12).

16 Similar to the applicability of case studies, the participants requested a greater
17 amount of practical, precise application of the skills presented, as opposed to discussion
18 surrounding the theoretical underpinnings of mental skills: “Make the sessions even more
19 practical” (EG2); “I would have liked more practical elements within the sessions” (EG8)

20 All of the group sessions involved various types of group activities exercises. The
21 participants responded to these activities particularly well and, in fact, would have liked
22 to have more as part of the program: “Make greater use of class interaction, discussion,
23 and activities to facilitate learning from one another” (EG3).

1 The participants requested that there be more linking of the mental skills with
2 performance and audition situations, with greater opportunities for debriefing: “In
3 addition to the performances, I would have liked a series of mock auditions” (EG2); “I
4 feel there could have been better integration of the skills into performance situations”
5 (EG8); “I liked the lead-up to the last performance, but wished there were more
6 opportunities to debrief performances and auditions that happened during the program”
7 (EG10).

8 Finally, how the program fit in with the overall timetable of their studies was also
9 commented on by the participants: “The program could run in conjunction with existing
10 college exams and performances” (EG5).

11

12

Discussion

13 The aim of the current study was to examine the impact of a multi-faceted mental
14 skills training program delivered to musicians. This was done through analysis of
15 quantitative measures, substantiated by qualitative feedback and comments collected
16 from the experimental group.

17

Effects of the Program

19 A number of significant differences emerged in the experimental group’s
20 understanding of and behaviors surrounding practice and performance preparation. The
21 experimental group reported a change in their views toward practice behaviors, as
22 demonstrated by the significant increase in their scores on the Musical Learning and Self-
23 regulation questionnaire when compared with the control group. This linked with one of

1 the themes of feedback provided by the participants: increased self-awareness of effective
2 performance preparation. Changes in the experimental group's practice behaviors,
3 meanwhile, were noted within two items of the Musical Skills Survey. When compared
4 with the control group, the experimental group reported a significant increase in the
5 amount of practice they undertook following the training phase, as evidenced on the
6 Musical Skills item "Quantity of Practice". It is possible that the participants' increased
7 sense of importance for, and understanding of, effective practice and performance
8 preparation contributed to the significant effect found for the Musical Skills item
9 "Technical Proficiency". This significant effect might also be explained by the
10 participants' self-reported increase in quantity of practice and practice efficiency, the
11 second theme of qualitative feedback provided by the participants.

12 In addition to these changes, significant changes were noted for imagery ability
13 when comparing the experimental and control groups. A significant change emerged for
14 the total score of the Betts QMI as well as the subcomponents of "Interoceptive
15 sensations" and "Exteroceptive sensations". At first, an enhanced ability for the
16 experimental group to imagine internal sensations and what it feels like to touch objects
17 may appear odd for musicians. Considering the content of the training program, however,
18 a number of the imagery exercises urged the participants to incorporate a broad range of
19 elements associated with musical performance into their imagery. These elements
20 included the emotions typically felt prior to and when performing, as well as the tactile
21 sensations experienced when playing their instruments. Given the content and focus of
22 the imagery exercises employed within the training program, the emergence of significant
23 changes in the experimental group's ability to imagine these types of sensations is

1 promising and indicates that the imagery exercises employed did generate effects in terms
2 of increasing imagery vividness for a diverse range of sensory experiences.

3 It is acknowledged that the significant effects found for the Betts QMI resulted, in
4 part, from the control group reporting lower levels of imagery vividness on the post-test
5 than the pre-test. Why the control group's self-reported imagery ability would have
6 dropped between the two testing periods is unclear. Musicians have been found to engage
7 in considerable amounts of imagery when learning new repertoire, through score study,
8 memorization, and mental rehearsal of musical phrases during and in between practice
9 sessions (e.g., Bailes, 2006; Holmes, 2005; Lehmann, 1997). Although musicians can
10 certainly employ imagery as part of performance preparation (e.g. Connolly &
11 Williamon, 2004), this function has received little attention and the extent to which
12 musicians use imagery for this function is unknown. The second round of testing took
13 place just prior to the participants' end of year performance assessments, and it is
14 possible that the participants were engaging in different types of practice behaviors, and
15 potentially less or different kinds of imagery, during the time of the second round of
16 testing compared with the first round of testing. It is possible that potential changes in
17 practice behaviors and activities might have contributed to the control groups' decrease in
18 imagery vividness. Such a situation may also have contributed to the control group's
19 considerably lower score on the Self-regulated Learning questionnaire. Due to the
20 exercises employed within the training program, meanwhile, members of the
21 experimental group were able to increase their imagery vividness despite changes in
22 practice behavior. Involvement in the training program may also have facilitated the
23 experimental group with employing greater levels of self-regulated learning behaviors

1 while, potentially due to pressures resulting from approaching end of year exams and
2 performances, the control group's use of self-regulated learning behaviors decreased. It
3 would be of benefit for future studies to investigate the influence that different musical
4 behaviors and pressures has on musicians' imagery abilities, particularly for the
5 development of mental skills training programs.

6 Lastly, a significant increase in self-efficacy emerged for the experimental group
7 when compared with the control group. Self-efficacy has been found to be a strong
8 predictor of performance quality (see McPherson & McCormick, 2006; Ritchie &
9 Williamon, in press), so to have had an effect upon self-efficacy is a point of note. It is
10 possible that this change in self-efficacy is linked to, and potentially resultant from,
11 feeling more in control of debilitating aspects of performance anxiety, the third theme of
12 comments. Indeed, having healthy perspectives toward music making, the fourth theme
13 of comments, would likely influence musicians' perceptions of their abilities to perform.
14 Additionally, comments from the experimental group participants indicated that they
15 engaged in greater amounts of practice following the program. This could have also
16 influenced self-efficacy levels.

17

18 **Non-findings of Note**

19 Despite anxiety and arousal control being addressed specifically within the
20 training program, it was interesting to note that no significant differences or changes in
21 trait or state anxiety, nor any of the latter's subscales, were found between groups. That
22 said, the experimental group's self-efficacy scores did increase significantly.

23 Additionally, members of the experimental group commented that, following the training

1 program, they now felt that they had greater control over, and more facilitative views
2 toward, performance anxiety and anxiety symptoms.

3 As mentioned above, research suggests that anxiety should be viewed as a multi-
4 dimensional construct, comprised of intensity and direction components (Jones & Swain,
5 1992; Miller & Chesky, 2004; Roland, 1994). The anxiety questionnaires employed in the
6 present investigation only measured the perceived *intensity* of anxiety symptoms, not the
7 perceived *direction* of those symptoms. Comments provided by the experimental group
8 indicated changes in their perceptions surrounding the direction and control of their
9 anxiety symptoms. These comments would suggest that rather than alleviating the
10 symptoms of anxiety, the present training program was able to influence the participants'
11 views and perceptions surrounding their anxiety responses and help them develop skills
12 to manage their anxiety symptoms. Jones, Hanton, and Swain (1994) suggested that how
13 athletes perceive their anxiety symptoms (as either facilitative or debilitating to
14 performance) can have a greater impact upon performance quality than the intensity of
15 anxiety symptoms.

16 Of great concern to many musicians is whether or not an activity to which they
17 devote time and effort will have an influence on their performance quality. Due to this
18 preoccupation with performance quality, it was important to assess it when measuring the
19 effects of this program. Unfortunately, the low inter-evaluator correlations in the present
20 investigation prevented the performance data from being used in any of the subsequent
21 analyses., Research would suggest that using performance quality as a research measure
22 can be problematic. Thompson and Williamon (2003) found inter-evaluator correlations
23 of performance quality ratings to be only moderate and biases related to instrumental

1 experience appeared to emerge. To deal with these issues, Thompson and Williamon
2 (2003) provided recommendations for the development of more reliable assessment
3 scales. These recommendations were taken into consideration when developing the scales
4 for the present study, yet it is clear that challenges still emerged.. Consequently, further
5 work is needed to develop more reliable means of measuring performance enhancement,
6 together with ensuring that evaluators taking part in such assessments are sufficiently
7 briefed concerning the assessment criteria employed for consistency (further discussion
8 on the challenges inherent in musical performance assessment can be found in
9 McPherson & Schubert, 2004).

10

11 **Conclusions and Directions for Future Research**

12 The present investigation demonstrated a number of beneficial effects resulting
13 from participation in a musician-specific mental skills training program. In addition, the
14 inclusion of quantitative and qualitative methods within the evaluation protocol provided
15 a wealth of insight into the effects of the program, rich in both breadth and depth. The
16 implementation of multifaceted mental skills training programs for musicians is a practice
17 not yet widely researched or understood. Although this study contributed to the
18 understanding of the effects and efficacy of such programs, it also brought to light aspects
19 that would be worth addressing in subsequent studies.

20 In the present study, the control group received no form of training beyond what
21 would typically be received as part of studying at a music conservatoire. Training at a
22 music conservatoire is, by nature, multifaceted and diverse. A musician's training
23 typically involves elements such as individual and group instruction on instrument-

1 specific mechanical and performance issues, large and small ensemble coaching,
2 individual and group training on somatic practices such as Alexander Technique, and
3 academic lectures and seminars of varying group sizes. Given the extent of individual and
4 small group training already provided to the control group, they were, in effect, a
5 comparison group.

6 There is also the issue that recruiting sufficient numbers of students to participate
7 in a study as lengthy and time consuming as that reported here is particularly challenging,
8 let alone recruiting enough participants for multiple programs. Many music students are
9 reluctant to commit to activities that encroach on the time they have available for
10 practicing, even if the objective of the activity is to enhance the effectiveness of their
11 musical activities. There are two ways the issue of participant recruitment could be
12 addressed. Firstly, the programs offered to music students could be reduced down as
13 much as possible so as to require minimal time commitment. Secondly, the usefulness of
14 such activities for the enhancement of musical performance could be stressed to potential
15 participants even more so in the hope that they come to view such activities as a
16 worthwhile use of their time. Needless to say, the latter option would by no means be
17 quick and easy, but it is ultimately the approach necessary if diverse programs, such as
18 mental skills training, are ever to become a regular part of musicians' training.

19 Finally, a range of feedback was collected from the experimental group
20 participants, during and following the training phase. Previous studies have also sought
21 feedback from the teachers or coaches of those involved in training programs (cf. Curry
22 & Maniar, 2003, 2004). As well as providing another dimension by which to evaluate the

1 changes and effects of training programs, such feedback could also be used as a form of
 2 triangulation to validate results collected from the participants.

3 A substantial amount of content was covered within the present program and
 4 although considerable information, both quantitative and qualitative, was collected from
 5 the participants on the perceived effects of each of the individual skills, drawing specific
 6 cause and effect conclusions is not possible statistically. In addition to the further
 7 research objectives discussed above, more targeted investigations exploring the effects of
 8 individual skills would further the understanding of the influence of those skills
 9 tremendously. The findings of such research stand to have significant bearing upon
 10 musicians' experiences and for those in charge of musicians' training, further
 11 contributing to the growing body of evidence-based research supporting new initiatives
 12 aimed at enhancing musical performance.

13

References

- 1
- 2 Bailes, F. (2006). The use of experience-sampling methods to monitor musical imagery
3 in everyday life. *Musicae Scientiae, 10*, 173-187.
- 4 Coffman, D. (1990). Effects of mental practice, physical practice, and knowledge of
5 results on piano performance. *Journal of Research in Music Education, 38*, 187-
6 196.
- 7 Connolly, C. & Williamon, A. (2004). Mental skills training. In A. Williamon (Ed.),
8 *Musical excellence: Strategies and techniques to enhance performance* (pp. 221-
9 245). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 10 Cox, R., Martens, M., and Russell, W. (2003). Measuring anxiety in athletics: The
11 Revised Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2. *Journal of Sport and Exercise*
12 *Psychology, 25*, 519-533.
- 13 Curry, L. & Maniar, S. (2003). Academic course combining psychological skills training
14 and life skills education for university students and student-athletes. *Journal of*
15 *Applied Sport Psychology, 15*, 27-277.
- 16 Curry, L. & Maniar, S. (2004). Academic course for enhancing student-athlete
17 performance in sport. *The Sport Psychologist, 18*, 297-316.
- 18 Driskell, J.E., Copper, C., and Moran, A. (1994). Does mental practice enhance music
19 performance? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*, 481-492.
- 20 Esplen, M.J. & Hodnett, E. (1999). A pilot study investigating student musicians'
21 experiences of guided imagery as a technique to manage performance anxiety.
22 *Medical Problems of Performing Artists, 14*, 127-132.

- 1 Gould, D. (2002a). Sport psychology in the new millennium: The psychology of athletic
 2 excellence and beyond. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 14, 137-39.
- 3 Gould, D. (2002b). Moving beyond the psychology of athletic excellence. *Journal of*
 4 *Applied Sport Psychology*, 14, 247-48.
- 5 Gratto, S. (1998). The effectiveness of an audition anxiety workshop in reducing stress.
 6 *Medical Problems of Performing Artists*, 13(1), 29-34.
- 7 Hallam, S. (2001a). The development of metacognition in musicians: Implications for
 8 education. *British Journal of Music Education*, 18(1), 27-39.
- 9 Hallam, S. (2001b). The development of expertise in young musicians: Strategy use,
 10 knowledge acquisition, and individual diversity. *Music Education Research*, 3(1),
 11 7-23.
- 12 Hanton, S., & Connaughton, D. (2002). Perceived control of anxiety and its relationship
 13 to self-confidence and performance. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*,
 14 73(1), 87-97.
- 15 Hanton, S. & Jones, G. (1999). The acquisition and development of cognitive skills and
 16 strategies: I. Making the butterflies fly in formation. *The Sport Psychologist*, 13, 1-
 17 21.
- 18 Hanton, S., Mellalieu, S., & Hall, R. (2004). Self-confidence and anxiety interpretation:
 19 A qualitative investigation. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 5, 477-495.
- 20 Hays, K. (2002). The enhancement of performance excellence among performing artists.
 21 *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 14(4), 299-312.
- 22 Highben, Z. & Palmer, C. (2004). Effects of auditory and motor mental practice in
 23 memorized piano performance. *Bulletin of the Council for Research in Music*
 24 *Education*, 158, 58-67.

- 1 Holmes, P. (2005). Imagination in practice: A study of the integrated roles of
2 interpretation, imagery and technique in the learning and memorisation processes of
3 two experienced solo performers. *British Journal of Music Education*, 22(3), 217-
4 235.
- 5 Jones, G., Hanton, S., & Swain, A.B.J. (1994). Intensity and interpretation of anxiety
6 symptoms in elite and non-elite sports performers. *Personality and Individual*
7 *Differences*, 17, 657-663.
- 8 Jones, G. & Swain, A.B.J. (1992). Intensity and direction dimensions of competitive state
9 anxiety and relationships with competitiveness. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 74,
10 467-472.
- 11 Jørgensen, H. (2004). Strategies for individual practice. In A. Williamon (Ed.), *Musical*
12 *Excellence: Strategies and Techniques to Enhance Performance* (pp. 85-104).
13 Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 14 Kabacoff, R.I., Segal, D.L., Hersen, M., & Van Hasselt, V.B. (1997). Psychometric
15 properties and diagnostic utility of the Beck Anxiety Inventory and the State-Trait
16 Anxiety Inventory with older adult psychiatric outpatients. *Journal of Anxiety*
17 *Disorders*, 11, 33-47.
- 18 Kendrick, M.J., Craig, K.D., Lawson, D.M., & Davidson, P.O. (1982). Cognitive and
19 behavioral therapy for musical performance anxiety. *Journal of Consulting and*
20 *Clinical Psychology*, 50, 353-362.
- 21 Kimmerle, M. & Côte-Laurence, P. (2003). *Teaching dance skills: A motor learning and*
22 *development approach*. Andover, NJ: Michael Ryan.

- 1 Mamassis, G. & Doganis, G. (2004). The effects of a mental training program on juniors
 2 pre-competitive anxiety, self-confidence, and tennis performance. *Journal of*
 3 *Applied Sport Psychology, 16*, 118-137.
- 4 McCormick, J. & McPherson, G. (2003). The role of self-efficacy in a musical
 5 performance examination: An exploratory structural equation analysis. *Psychology*
 6 *of Music, 31(1)*, 37-51.
- 7 McPherson, G. & McCormick, J. (2006). Self-efficacy and music performance.
 8 *Psychology of Music, 34(3)*, 322-336.
- 9 McPherson, G. & Schubert, E. (2004). Measuring performance enhancement in music. In
 10 A. Williamon (Ed.), *Musical Excellence: Strategies and Techniques to Enhance*
 11 *Performance* (pp.61-84). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 12 McPherson, G. & Zimmerman, B. (2002). Self-regulation of musical learning: A social
 13 cognitive perspective. In R. Colwell & C. Richardson (Eds.), *The new handbook of*
 14 *research on music teaching and learning* (pp. 327-347). Oxford: Oxford University
 15 Press.
- 16 Miller, S.R. & Chesky, K. (2004). The multidimensional anxiety theory: An assessment
 17 of and relationships between intensity and direction of cognitive anxiety, somatic
 18 anxiety, and self-confidence over multiple performance requirements among
 19 college music majors. *Science and Medicine, 9*, 12-20.
- 20 Partington, J. (1995). *Making Music*. Ottawa: Carlton University Press.
- 21 Ritchie, L. & Williamon, A. (in press). Measuring distinct types of musical self-efficacy.
 22 *Psychology of Music*.

- 1 Roland, D. (1994). How professional performers manage performance anxiety. *Research*
 2 *Studies in Music Education, 2*, 25-35.
- 3 Rogers, W., Hall, C., & Buckolz, E. (1991). The effects of an imagery training program
 4 on imagery ability, imagery use, and figure skating performance. *Journal of Applied*
 5 *Sport Psychology, 3*, 109-125.
- 6 Ross, S. (1985). The effectiveness of mental training practice on improving performance
 7 of college trombonists. *Journal of Research in Music Education, 33*, 221-230.
- 8 Sheehan, P. (1967). A shortened form of Betts' questionnaire upon mental imagery.
 9 *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 23*, 386-389.
- 10 Smith, A., Maragos, A., & Van Dyke, A. (2000). Psychology of the Musician. In R.
 11 Tubiana & P. Amadio (Eds.), *Medical problems of the instrumentalist musician*
 12 (pp.135-170). London: Martin Dunitz.
- 13 Smith, J. & Osborn, M. (2003). Interpretive phenomenological analysis. In J. Smith (Ed.),
 14 *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 51-80).
 15 London: Sage.
- 16 Spielberger, C.D., Gorsuch, R.L., & Lushene, R.F. (1970). *STAI: Manual for the State-*
 17 *Trait Anxiety Inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- 18 Spielberger, C.D., Gorsuch, R.L., Luschene, R., Vagg, P.R. & Jacobs, G.A. (1983).
 19 *Manual for the State-trait Anxiety Inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting
 20 Psychologists Press.
- 21 Stanton, H. (1994). Reduction of performance anxiety in music student. *Australian*
 22 *Psychologist, 29*(2), 124-127.

- 1 Thompson, S. & Williamon, A. (2003). Evaluating evaluation: Musical performance
 2 assessment as a research tool. *Music Perception, 21*, 21-41.
- 3 Vigneau, F. & Cormier, S. (2008). The factor structure of the State-Trait Anxiety
 4 Inventory: An alternative view. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 90*, 280-285.
- 5 Weinberg, R. & Williams, J. (2006). Integrating and implementing a psychological skills
 6 training program. In J.M. Williams (Ed.), *Applied sport psychology: Personal
 7 growth to peak performance* (5th ed., pp. 425-457). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- 8 Wetzel, C. (2006). *Surgical stress management strategies*. Unpublished manuscript.
- 9 Williamon, A. (2004). A guide to enhancing musical performance. In A. Williamon
 10 (Ed.), *Musical excellence: Strategies and techniques to enhance performance* (pp.
 11 pp. 3-18). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 12 Williamon, A. & Thompson, S. (2006). Awareness and incidence of health problems
 13 among conservatoire students. *Psychology of Music, 34*, 411-430.
- 14 Zimmerman, B.J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self regulated learning. *Journal of
 15 Educational Psychology, 81*, 329-339.
- 16 Zimmerman, B. & Martinez-Pons, M. (1988). Construct validation of a strategy model of
 17 student self-regulated learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80*, 284-290.
- 18