

General Critical Evaluation of the Different Paradigms, Methodologies and Methods to Research Child and Adolescent Vocal Pedagogy.

Paradigms Shifts

During the period from the 1830s to the 1930s, singing was taught by systematic vocal instruction based on the method of the old Italian school, namely the Italian *bel canto* method (Mursell 1956). Students imitated this technique from their teachers, with no specific rules, except for some suggestions resulting from personal experience. The majority of schools in the United States and Europe developed the voice as an instrument, and children learnt to sing songs (Helding, 2013). However, this method was criticised because music teachers were using most of their singing class time with vocal exercises and devoting only a little time to singing. From the 1930s onwards, there was a gradual movement away from this towards the introduction of students to learn how to sing. Firstly, this approach emphasises singing, and secondly concentrates on technique. A problem emerges when this approach emphasises the teaching of songs while neglecting the following: the singing voice, the area of vocal quality, registers, breath management, posture and range. If the teacher does not understand a child's voice and adolescent vocal production, he or she does not understand the tone quality and voice placement which should be expected from these voices. James Mursell (1956) argues that the two most common reasons as why children abandon singing are the lack of vocal development and a poor vocal habit. Oren Brown (1996) was one of the first singing teachers to collaborate with an otolaryngologist. He recognised the value of the traditional voice training approach to utilising scientific concepts and methodology. Research on children and adolescent singing increased considerably in the 1990s and 2000s, not only in facilitating the evolution of voice into an interdisciplinary medical subspecialty, but also emphasising how the vocal anatomy and scientific analysis results evolve into voice pedagogy (Brunssen, 2018).

The paradigm shift was introduced by scientific historian Thomas S. Kuhn (1962), who discovered this shift in the evaluation of evidence in the forensic comparison sciences and introduced this word in his book, "The Structure of the Scientific Revolution" (Kuhn, 1962). Kuhn also presented a new opinion of history: "Science does not grow in a certain direction cumulatively, but changes the paradigm according to the times. The paradigm shifts call for changes in models or world views that result from unfavourable evidence that question generally accepted paradigms." This way of thinking has a considerable impact, not only in science but also in the field of thought and philosophy, thereby requiring forensic evidence to be evaluated and presented to the courts in a logically correct manner. Social scientists have now abandoned the spurious choice between qualitative and quantitative data. They are more concerned with the combination of both of these, thereby utilising the most valuable features of each. Merton and Kendall (1946) explained how to determine which points should be adopted by one approach and which should be adopted by the other.

Researchers need to understand that their research is framed by a series of related presuppositions. A paradigm is the "viewing and understanding of things" which become the dominant norm in a certain time or field. From a narrow perspective, this term is in the field of science and refers to "normative ideas that lead a certain period," as seen in theory. Such normative ideas sometimes cause revolutionary and non-continuous changes as the times change, and this change is known as a paradigm shift. It should be understood that the purpose of this concept is not to be judgemental, such as adopting a superior or an inferior attitude before and after the shift.

Several features in the "viewing and understanding of things" are known as a paradigm which describes a world view underlying the theories and methodology of a particular scientific subject or a typical example and pattern. Firstly, a paradigm is "shared by many people and acts as a dominant norm" in a specific age or field. Secondly, in some cases, different ideas are "mismatched" with each other. Thirdly, the paradigm sometimes achieves "revolutionary, non-continuous alternation". The word "paradigm" appears to be preferred when expressing "viewing and understanding of things" regarding the aforesaid characteristics and involves seeing problems and solutions from new perspectives. It is also apparent that the word "paradigm" is generally used when "a different framework from the current situation to break the current situation" is required. Modern practical paradigms should be negotiable (Felizer, 2009).

The scientific paradigms are theoretical models for describing or explaining relationships between interest variables. New equipment and research methods reveal new information and new answers. (Brussen, 2018).

Practice-based paradigms or intervention models specify particular world views concerning problems and solutions for improving outcomes of interest. The series of fundamental questions is associated with ontology, epistemology, and methodology and methods.

Everyday-life paradigms include individuals' personal beliefs about the way in which the world operates and how best to induce or not to induce change. In this twenty-first century, the situations of speaking and singing in the Western world differ from those of previous generations because there is currently instant access to music, recordings, videos and apps. In order to discover the theoretical position of the research, it is important to understand how the researcher sees what can be attained with knowledge of that world and how research concerns discipline and balance enquiries, which are conducted in a critical spirit (Thomas, 2013).

Most singing teachers have research design in practice-based problems which is essential to understand the area of the research, critical reflection and induction. The concepts of abductive reasoning and subjectivity allow researchers to move between them as required. The qualitative research methods of the observations and interviews could be included as personal experiences of teaching at the studio (Easterby-Smith, 2012).

The paradigms' basic frame of belief systems are based on ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods.

The Ontology

It is important that researchers ask relevant questions. Since ontology is one of the oldest forms of philosophy (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), the philosophical standpoints of social reality typically commence with ontology (Easterby-Smith, 2012) and each research paradigm is supported by ontological presuppositions. The scientific revolution caused a profound change in ontology, and such assumptions will form the starting point of all research as well as the study of being. Ontology is generally considered to be a subfield of metaphysics which itself has numerous definitions which mean the study of the fundamental nature of reality. This is closely related to ontological questions and occasionally there is an overlap between ontology and metaphysics which covers questions such as "What or how do things exist?" Ontological presuppositions make claims regarding the types of social phenomena which exist or are capable of doing so, as well as the conditions of their existence and their inter-relationships. From the perspective of social sciences, this concerns the nature of reality and existence. It also involves assertions of what exists, how it appears, how it is constructed and how different elements interact with each other (Blaikie, 2007). The social sciences are often reduced to two opposed and mutually exclusive positions, namely realism and relativism, which are concerned with different positions about truth and facts. Therefore, voice researchers must consider whether reality is being investigated objectively and externally to the individual or whether the reality is subjective in **nature** (Easterby-Smith, 2012).

Several categories of realism begin from a traditional standpoint. Science can progress only through observations which are directly related to the phenomena of the material that is studied. This position has been modified in recent decades in order to encompass different perspectives which emphasise that categories of realism are not universal in literature and also contain alternative categories with different definitions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This is verified by the classification of realism perspectives into three categories: naive, critical and historical realism, whereas Blaikie (2007) considers the following four categories as shallow: conceptual, cautious, depth and subtle realism. These categories are seen from two perspectives along the continuum, being the traditional perspectives which presuppose a single truth where existing facts may be revealed. Furthermore, it is necessary to have a gathering of indirect evidence in the case of an internal realism perspective which presupposes a single reality where it is impossible to access that reality directly. Crotty (1998) argues that social constructivism should be accepted as a relativist "thing is really what we mean, historically and culturally **intersected**".

The perspective asserts that realities take the form of multiple social constructions. The specific nature is dependent on the form and content of the individual and of groups holding the constructions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Social action involves a process of meaning and is the creation and maintenance of such meaning, the interpretation of which leads to the reality of social actors (Blaikie, 2012). Therefore, different observers may hold different perspectives, and experiences can vary, while ontology considers the different perspectives on what constitutes reality. Furthermore, it is important to consider what constitutes knowledge of that reality and

how it is measured which involves considerations of epistemology (Easterby-Smith, 2012).

Epistemology

The links between ontology and epistemology assumptions are referred to as research philosophies and research paradigms (Blaikie, 2007). Within the broader framework of theoretical and philosophical perspectives which consider different methods of making connections between ideas, social experience and social reality are located (Guba, 1990).

Epistemology is the study of knowledge and justified belief in answering questions in order to discuss the interpretive framework in terms of “knowledge claims”. These presuppositions are concerned with how such knowledge may be obtained and also provides criteria for how knowledge can be judged to be both adequate and legitimate (Creswell, 2003). It also provides for what can be assumed to exist, and also requires consideration of ways that are reliable and through which verifiable knowledge is produced (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

Therefore, voice researchers are required to identify, explain and justify the epistemological stance they have adopted (Crotty, 1998). In that respect, social researchers must consider whether it is possible to identify and communicate the nature of knowledge and if it may be transmitted in a tangible form which is of a subjective or even a transcendental type based on experience and insight of a unique and personal nature (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Researchers hold two contrasting opinions regarding how social science should be conducted: positivism and constructionism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). Positivism assumes that the social world is external and that its properties should be measured objectively on the basis of observed facts (Easterby-Smith, 2012). Constructionism implies that there is no meaning without a mind, and also that understanding can be obtained only by considering the frame of reference of social actors which emanates internally rather than externally (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). This worldview is not perceived as being a fixed constitution of objects, but rather as an extension of human consciousness and subjective experience (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). In this respect, different people may construct meanings in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998). Therefore, the mindset of different individuals would, in various ways, construct the society in which we desire to live. The cultural practices of a large organisation can, according to the acceptance of society, be transferred into norms because that society is composed of individuals. Easterby (2012).

Research Methodology

Methodological assumptions are a reflection of the ontological and epistemological positions which indicate “What procedure or logic should be followed?”. Methodology is to study method, and to manage the philosophical assumptions which underlie the process. From another perspective, method collects data under these philo-

sophical presuppositions. The most common methods adopted in the ontological and epistemological positions of relativism are complemented by the situational context of the research; therefore, it concerns the adoption of a case study approach. Hammersley, Gomm & Foster (2000) argue that it has overlapped significantly with ethnography, participant observation, fieldwork, qualitative research and life history.

The majority of singing teachers and voice practitioners use case studies at their studios. Stake (2005) considers case study research to be a choice of what is to be studied, the case itself, whereas other case research authors consider it to be a strategy of inquiry, a methodology or a comprehensive research strategy (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Yin (2003) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. Good and Hatt (1952) identified that the case study is a method of organising data which preserve the unitary character of the social object under study. The case study involves the notion of a social unit, individual, group or event. Therefore, the focus of a case study may be a single individual or a set of actors engaged in a sequence of activities over a period of time which allows researchers to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of individual life cycles, organisational and managerial processes, neighbourhood change, international relations and the maturation of industries (Yin, 2003). Therefore, case study research seeks to obtain a holistic view of a specific phenomenon or series of events (Gummesson, 2000). The detailed observations entailed in the case study method enable us to study numerous different aspects, examine them in relation to each other, view the process within their total environment. Consequently, case study research provides a greater opportunity than do the other available methods in order to obtain a holistic view of a specific research project, being the understanding of the meaning in actions and interactions from the members' own viewing (Yin, 2003).

Qualitative Data and Quantitative Data

The two most commonly used quantitative data analysis methods are descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. There are two major types of research models and research paradigms (Creswell, 2003).

The first is quantitative, which is also known as traditional, positivist, experimental or empiricist, whereas the second is qualitative, which is known as constructivist, naturalistic, interpretive, post positivist or postmodern. After these steps, the data are ready for analysis. A quantitative approach is typically associated with finding evidence either to support or reject hypotheses that have been formulated at the earlier stages of the research process. The specific piece of primary data findings needs to be analysed critically and to be interpreted objectively by comparing it with other findings within the framework of the same research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The secondary data need to be integrated in data analysis in a logical and unbiased manner. Qualitative research is based on the view that social phenomena, human problems and the nature of cases are situational; therefore, choosing a case will invariably involve studying its situation (Guba & Lincoln 1994).

The understanding of qualitative cases requires an experience of the activities of the case, as in a particular situation which is expected to shape the activities, as well as to experience and interpret them (Stake, 2006). Therefore, case study research involves the study of a real situation (Ritchie and Lewis 2003), together with the behaviour of social actors viewed in the context of all the interactions occurring around them in their natural setting (the organisation) rather than in isolation. During the past three decades, an increasing number of qualitative researchers have indeed accepted and refined visual approaches to enhance these researchers' understanding of the human condition as numerical theory deductive. These encompass a wide range of visual forms, including films, videos, photographs, digital stories, cartoons, graffiti, maps, diagrams, cyber graphics, signs and symbols. O'Leary (2004) uses quantitative terms to refer to methods of data collection, analysis and reporting. The definitive and quantitative data types serve as analytical modes, whereas others which serve as qualitative and quantitative data are regarded as claimed data. This definition means that the terms qualitative and quantitative refer not only to theoretical approaches to research but also to data collection methods, analysis and reporting modes.

Case Study Research

Yin (2003) highlights three types of case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. Since numerous organisational issues are related to the intersection of human agents and structures, the distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. This is attained by capturing the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events in greater detail, with their unique strength being the ability to analyse a variety of evidence and variables, compared with other approaches. Stake (1995) indicated that a case study is defined as an interest in individual cases, rather than as the techniques of inquiry. Furthermore, Yin defines case study research as a strategy rather than as a technique of data collection and analysis. Yin argues that case study strategy should not be confused with qualitative research and that research evidence "can include, and even be limited to quantitative evidence". This means that it is not merely a data collection technique, but also design logic and specific approach to data analysis. Therefore, the connection between the elements in the research design is facilitated by research strategy which becomes "a way of linking ideas and evidence to produce a representation of some aspect of social life" in which research methods are applied in case studies (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2012). This reflects the huge variety of research problems and phenomena. Case study evidence may be quantitative, qualitative or a combination of both, and may be drawn from ethnographic, field research, unstructured interviews, observation, archival searches or highly-structured surveys, with all techniques of evidence gathering being interpretive (Eisenhardt, 1991; Gerring, 2007). Therefore, the relevant case study data are likely to emanate from multiple rather than singular sources of evidence in one or in a few cases (Yin, 2003; Hammersley & Gomm, 2000). Connolly (1998) considers quantitative and qualitative approaches to be complementary, but claims that quantitative work reveals little about causal relationships, while qualitative work can help to identify the relations of causality. The use of mixed or multiple methods in case study research typically contributes to an increasing accuracy, complexity and cov-

erage in a study. This method contrasts with the social survey where a relatively small amount of data is gathered from a large number of cases (Hammersley & Gomm, 2000). A further contrast can be seen between case studies and experimental research where the latter typically involves the investigation of a small number of cases, but is distinguished from case study by its direct control of variables, compared with case study, where researchers construct cases out of naturally occurring social situations. Therefore, while experimental research isolates the phenomena from their context, case studies highlight the rich, real-world context in which the phenomena occur (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007).

Case study, as a strategy of inquiry, has a long history and has been used in numerous fields: social anthropology, political science, sociology, education, organisational management, and strategy (Blaikie, 2010; Gummesson, 2000; Yin, 2003). Gerring (2007) argues that in the social sciences field, there is a shift from a variable-centred approach to causality towards a case-based approach. This is particularly useful for studying behaviour in organisations, including new or emerging behaviour, especially in new situations where there is minimal information about the phenomenon, and in situations where current theories appear to be inadequate (Easton, 1995; Eisenhardt, 1991; Yin, 2003). According to Gummesson (2000), case study research is a useful strategy for studying organisational processes. It is important that case researchers apply methodology and provide an account of methodology which is used to allow readers to evaluate the research adequately (Eisenhardt, 1991). Two main forms of case studies were identified by Yin (2014). The first of these was a holistic case which focuses on one case (e.g. a school or singing studio) as the unit of analysis in its entirety. The second was an embedded case study which focuses on one or more aspects or subunits of the case (e.g. more than one project conducted within a school). However, Golby (1994) indicated that a single case study may be conducted in more than one context. Day (2002) stated that this is an example of multiple sites from his own research in the case of a forum theatre workshop created by a UK-based theatre company and delivered in a number of secondary schools in London. The data suggest that there is a philosophical disparity about singing, meaning that teachers believe that it is an easy and natural process, whereas voice scientists support the contrary opinion (Hedden, 2012).

Single and Multiple Cases

Yin (2014) addressed the following types of case studies: critical, extreme, typical, longitudinal and revelatory. The single cases selected are either revelatory, extreme exemplars, which provide opportunities for unusual research (Yin, 2003). Eisenhardt (1991) considers that each case is analogous to an experiment, and that multiple cases are analogous to multiple experiments. Instrumental case studies aim to provide an insight into an issue or to seek a deeper understanding of another matter, perhaps to support a developing theory case studies which are also instrumental. These involve the study of numerous cases which represent some phenomenon, population or general condition where the aim is likely to be theory generation. This may apply to an even wider collection of such cases (Blaikie, 2007).

The explanatory nature of multiples cases can be used to explain the phenomena and the complexity of organisational culture and practices.

Multiple cases are generally regarded as more rigorous than single case studies, and comparisons of these cases allow for greater robustness in the development of insights and a consideration of their context dependency (Yin, 2003). However, multiple case studies can also be a time-consuming process as well as being more complex and expensive to conduct. Multiple case study research is particularly appropriate when there is a need to explore new topics and issues. Multiple cases are selected for theoretical reasons such as replication, extension of theory, contrary replication, and the elimination of alternative explanations as researchers argue that the number of cases selected will depend on the complexity of the phenomenon and the conditions in which it occurs. In a situation of greater complexity, a greater number of cases will be necessary in order to achieve confidence in the testing of the theory. Therefore, cases must be carefully selected either to predict similar results (a literal replication) or to predict contrasting results (Yin, 2003). However, Kennedy (1979) considers that findings emerging from the study of several highly heterogeneous sites would be more robust and more likely to be useful in understanding various other sites than findings derived from the study of several highly similar sites (Kennedy, 1979). The analytical generalisation is based on either corroborating, modifying, rejecting, or otherwise advancing theoretical concepts referenced in designing the case study that arose upon the completion of the case study (Yin 2014).

The Range of Research Methods

Methods also vary according to whether they collect qualitative data, quantitative data, or both. However, the method is often confused in the final question which is associated with the method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). It is possible to ask which data collection techniques ought to be used, and it is also possible to ask how and why. Researchers share new discoveries and publish their research in the form of a dissertation in order to improve the public understanding of various themes. One factor considered by editors of journals when selecting a paper for publication is methodology. This must logically explain not only the research results but also the process for obtaining such results as well as the basis for the conclusions drawn. Furthermore, the meaning of the research method section is to enable the reader to reproduce the experiment and to evaluate the validity of the result, and it is vital that the methods are clear. A research method is a section to describe the research procedure and the actual method employed.

1. In-depth Interview

The in-depth interview produces the most iconic qualitative data-collection activities. All qualitative researchers employ this technique to some extent for numerous projects. There is also a good reason for the pervasiveness of this method which is that it is versatile across a range of study topics, adaptable to challenging field conditions and excellent not only in providing information, but also in generating understanding. It is more productive to evaluate the extent to which any preformed opinions may have tarnished the legitimacy of the research (Peshkin, 1988). The rea-

son for in-depth interview is to consider an interviewer's path in pursuit of learning from the experience of others. Researchers could ask the questions which are of the greatest interest and also share the answers which the interviewers hear in ways that illuminate and deepen their understanding (Mears, 2015).

2. Focus Group

In order to gain a collective view on research topics, focus groups and group interviews are often used synonymously to mean organisational discussions with selected personal groups. Group interviews are a way of obtaining considerable feedback and opinions from individuals in group settings. However, these are mainly didactic between an interview and each individual in the group (Toner, 2009). Group opinion is at least as important as individual opinion, and the group itself may adopt its own life which is not anticipated or initiated by the researcher.

3. Observation

The researchers conducting qualitative studies may desire to collect their data through observational methods. This often involves the development of an instrument focused on the variables of interests. For example, in the school classroom, an observation form can be constructed which identifies if pupils are involved in activities. Subsequently, observers can note the time percentage for those individually engaged in such activities in the classroom. The training of observers is used to check that the observations noted by one observer are replicated by others (Hambledon, 2003).

Ethical Consideration

Ethics and insider research are important topics.

There are multiple opinions as to how conclusions and decisions regarding ethical matters should be drawn (Hammersley, 2015). Since the terms of ethics can vary, these values can be divided into two categories: epistemic and practical. Epistemic values are concerned with knowledge. The epistemological value approaches sometimes cause controversy among social and educational researchers (Hammersley & Traianou, 2001). One argument is scepticism as to whether the truth could be known. The other is the claim that the pursuit of knowledge itself denies the worth, either as researchers improve, or are repressed. However, it depends on how these limitations can be the only legal goal of practical and cognitive value, and to pursue questions in the best effort to produce knowledge.

Some of these practical values fall under the heading of ethics. It is a topic in most of these discussions of how researchers should treat the people whom they meet in their work, especially those who are focused on research. These include fellow researchers, informants, and viewers of research results. In discussing relationships with the people who are being studied, most discussions of research ethics identify certain particularly important principles (Hammersley, 2015b).

Conclusion

One of my first steps will be to consider what I desire to learn from my investigation and also what is the purpose of my investigation from my teaching studio. Furthermore, I would like to know what are the deep insights of cause and effect and interpretations of meaning, variables or personal stories, or possibly a combination of pursuits. If I desire to learn from the qualities of experience and the significance of events or situations, the methodology will probably involve interviewing and observation. It will also involve qualitative study of individuals or small groups in order to produce a deeper understanding and appreciation of the circumstances of people's lives. I would use case study from my own teaching studio and experimental research and qualitative research for teaching children voice skills and observation of other singing teachers' studios.

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