

Association of Career Satisfaction with Stress and Depression: The Case of Preservice Music Teachers

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Received: July 16, 2019 Accepted: August 10, 2019 Online Published: September 20, 2019

doi:10.5539/jel.v8n5p125 URL: <https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v8n5p125>

Abstract

In order to investigate the relationships between preservice music teachers' levels of career satisfaction, severity of depression, and perceived stress, ninety-four students enrolled in the music education BSc program of the faculty of education at a public university in southwestern part of Turkey were surveyed. Data were collected by Beck's Depression Inventory, Perceived Stress Scale, and Career Satisfaction Scale. Associations were analyzed by ANOVA, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient, and multiple linear regression. It was found that preservice music teachers' stress and depression levels were significantly higher compared to previously reported means while career satisfaction levels were lower. Preservice music teachers' career satisfaction scores significantly differed according to the grade level. There was a strong positive relationship between severity of depression and perceived stress level while career satisfaction was weakly and negatively associated with both severity of depression and perceived stress. Finally, career satisfaction neither was a predictor of nor predicted by stress or depression.

Keywords: teacher training, career satisfaction, perceived stress, depression, music education

1. Introduction

Qualified teachers are essential for effective music instruction. However, teacher qualifications alone may not be sufficient for achieving success in music education. Dinham and Scott (1996) argue that satisfaction, health, and motivation of teachers, who are charged with the task of educating youth and meeting society's educational demands, is a key issue. On the other hand, societal or extrinsic factors are continuously making teaching a less attractive career for both practicing and prospective teachers (Dinham & Scott, 2000). Since dissatisfaction is associated with beginning teacher attrition, teacher burnout, teacher dropout, teachers' health problems, and decreased productivity, teacher satisfaction has increased in importance (Castle & Martin, 2006; Inci & Burak, 2017; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Payne, Blackwell, & Collins, 2010; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). Therefore, insight into satisfaction of teachers is needed for solutions to the problems currently facing practicing and prospective teachers as well as education in general (Dinham & Scott, 2000), especially in developing countries (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004) like Turkey.

In addition to a number of different factors, pursuit of satisfaction is significantly tied to the consequences of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with career (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Payne et al., 2010). Identifying factors that affect teachers' career satisfaction may contribute to the development of evaluation systems to provide teachers with a more positive sense of their career experience and progress (Conley, Muncey, & You, 2005). On the other hand, Payne et al. (2010) report that quality of the education that workers received is related to the career satisfaction of those workers. Hence, research into career satisfaction of teachers may contribute to the improvement of the education provided by teacher training institutions. Moreover, mental distress is reported to be a predictor of career satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1996). Career satisfaction is also tied to stress, depression, health problems, and burnout (Becker, Millard, & Klock, 2006; Castle & Martin, 2006; Ferguson, Frost, & Hall, 2012; Payne et al., 2010). Stress and depression experienced by the teachers affect their teaching (Montgomery, & Rupp, 2005; Shin, Noh, Jang, Park, & Lee, 2013). Depression is one of the primary psychological or emotional disturbances that stressed individuals do experience (Tsai, Fung, & Chow, 2006). Teaching is argued to be one of the most stressful occupations in many countries (Cooper, Sloan, & Williams, 1988) and career satisfaction of teachers has been an issue of concern for many years (Akiri, 2014). Therefore, this study aims to

investigate the association of career satisfaction with depression and perceived stress levels of preservice music teachers.

1.1 Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction is defined as “an individual’s awareness of his/her current career achievements and projections for future advancement” (Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015, p. 72) or “an individual’s satisfaction with his or her career accomplishments” (p. 70). In another point of view; career satisfaction is “the satisfaction individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities” (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995, p. 487). Career satisfaction is a well-studied concept especially regarding its effects on individual and on job performance (Lepnurm, Dobson, Backman, & Keegan, 2007). It is associated with salary, relationships with colleagues in the department, departmental climate (August & Waltman, 2004); role ambiguity and work criteria autonomy (Conley et al., 2005). Additionally, it is reported that supervisory support has a positive effect on career satisfaction (Kang et al., 2015). Kumudha and Abraham (2008) stated that primary support programs related to self-development, information about job openings, and opportunities to learn new skills have contributed to the feeling of career satisfaction. Moreover; student achievement, helping students to modify their attitudes and behavior, positive relationships with students and others, self-growth, mastery of professional skills, and feeling part of a collegial, supportive environment are reported to be powerful predictors of career satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 1996; Dinham & Scott, 2000).

Career satisfaction is also a determinant of job performance and career commitment. Career commitment is defined as “attitude towards one’s profession or vocation” (Blau, 1985, p. 278). Fu (2010) stated that career satisfaction was the most important determinant of career commitment. Job performance is defined as “a worker’s effective execution of tasks or job and useful contribution to the social work environment” (Abramis, 1994, p. 549). Riaz and Haider (2010) found high correlation between job success and career satisfaction. Leadership (Wong & Laschinger, 2013) and social efficacy beliefs (Hochwarter, Kiewitz, Gundlach, & Stoner, 2004) were found to be the predictors of both job performance and career satisfaction. Career satisfaction is also related with psychological conditions such as stress, depression, and burnout. Becker et al. (2006) found that career satisfaction was inversely correlated with burnout and depression. Similarly, Ferguson et al. (2012) reported that teachers’ stress and depression had a significant and negative impact on job satisfaction. Teacher’s emotional states—particularly depression and stress—are also related to his or her performance in the classroom (Ripski, LoCasale-Crouch, & Decker, 2011). On the other hand, since career satisfaction is associated with being able to cope with stress (Lepnurm et al., 2007) shedding light on the dynamics of career satisfaction and emotional states such as stress and depression may contribute to the design, development and providing of strategies and resources for practicing and prospective teachers to confront the challenges of becoming and being a teacher.

1.2 Stress

Stress has different meanings “for different people under different conditions” (Fink, 2009, p. 5). The most generic definition of stress is proposed by Hans Selye: “[s]tress is the nonspecific response of the body to any demand” (Selye, 1976, p.74). It is also defined as “a real or interpreted threat to the psychological or psychological integrity of an individual that results in psychological or/and behavioral responses” (McEwen, 2010, p.11). Stress also has sub-concepts such as teacher stress or teaching stress. Borg and Riding (1991) defined teacher stress as “a condition of negative affects (e.g., anger) resulting from aspects of the teacher’s job which are perceived by the teacher as a threat to his/her psychological or physical well-being” (p. 266). Teacher stress is also defined as “the experience by a teacher of unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher” (Kyriacou, 2001, p. 38). Teaching related stress can affect a teacher’s health, well-being, and performance (Larchick & Chance, 2004). Similar with other forms of occupational stress, in addition to the personal health of the teacher, teacher stress can have serious implications for the organization in which the individual serves (Tsai et al., 2006).

Music has a role in alleviating or reducing the physiological effects of stress (Khalfa, Roy, Peretz & Lupien, 2003; Knight & Rickard, 2001). However, this role does not preclude preservice and inservice music teachers from experiencing stress. Hodge, Jupp, and Taylor (1994) found that music teachers were substantially more distressed and burnt out compared to mathematics teachers. Sources of stress for music teachers are varied (Dewe, 1986; Tsai et al., 2006). For example, Brown (1987) reported that, music teachers find the job-related stressors as the most stressful ones. Gordon (2002) found that management is a prevalent stressor for music educators. In the same study, music educators suggested that students’ apathy, behaviors, attitudes, and lack of

motivation to learn were pervasive stressors. In another study, Gordon (2000, p, 27) reported the sources of stress as: (1) behaviors and attitudes of students, colleagues, parents, and administrators; (2) difficulties of program management which negatively affect the music curriculum and offerings; and (3) inadequate preservice preparation for music. Burden of tedious administrative responsibilities, the constant need for music education advocacy, conflicts between personal and professional roles, and tension created by scheduling conflicts due to the increasingly busy schedules of students were also reported to be among the most significant stressors for music teachers (Scheib, 2003).

Music teachers and teachers of other branches vary in the sources of stress. Some of the sources of stress occur due to the nature of music itself, as well. Sternbach (2008) states that music students are exposed to the stresses of their age together with their peers and they have to cope with stress sources that are unique to music. For example, music students spend more time on music activities such as concerts and rehearsals than their peers, which may cause them not to spend enough time for relaxation and entertainment. Going on stage and preparing for it is another source of stress. Another source of stress is that the focus required by playing the instrument causes introversion and thus decreases social interaction. Both self-criticism and the criticisms coming from the environment regarding the performance of music by music teachers are also sources of stress unique to music (Sternbach, 2008).

1.3 Depression

Depression, which is also called clinical depression or major depressive disorder, is defined by American Psychiatric Association as “a common and serious medical illness that negatively affects how you feel, the way you think and how you act” (Parekh, 2017). National Institute of Mental Health of the United States of America (2018) states that depression is a common but serious mood disorder. The institute indicates that depression causes severe symptoms that affect how individuals feel, think, work, and handle daily activities. In an operational sense, depression is also defined as the medical illness experienced by individuals who meet necessary criteria as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, & Erbaugh, 1961; Carroll & Robinson, 2000). Çoban (2005) states that depression is a psychiatric condition in which a person feels depressed, sad, and has complaints such as slowing speech and movements, stagnation, thoughts of worthlessness, susceptibility, loss of confidence, reluctance, and inability to work. Siegrist (2008) suggests that, due to their high prevalence and severe consequences, depressive disorders provide a primary challenge to medicine and public health.

In addition to stress, teachers’ performance in the classroom is linked to depression (Hamre & Pianta, 2004; Ripski, LoCasale-Crouch, & Decker, 2011; Uzman & Telef, 2015). Teacher candidates with higher levels of depression and stress implement a less qualified teaching in the following years when they interact with students (Ripski, LoCasale-Crouch, & Decker, 2011). Depression and stress are the most common psychiatric health problems teachers experience (Uzman & Telef, 2015). Hildebrandt, Nübling, and Candia (2012) claimed that in recent times, a clear association between psychosocial stress in work environments and risk for depression has been presented. Shin et al. (2013) found a significant relationship between teacher burnout and depression. Hammen and DeMayo (1982) reported that teachers experience a high degree of stress-related depressive symptomatology.

Previous research shows that music has positive effects on reducing depression (Field, Martinez, Nawrocki, Pickens, Fox, & Schanberg, 1998; Magee & Davidson, 2002; Siedliecki & Good, 2006; Waldon, 2001). However, dealing with music is not enough to avoid depression. Spahn, Strukely, and Lehmann (2004) reported that music students rated 8.4% in depression scale and 33.5% on the anxiety scale, which was significantly more than the other students were and placed them in the borderline or elevated range. Moreover, Wristen (2013) found that, among music students at university, a considerable number of students show symptoms indicative of anxiety or depression. She also took attention to the high rate of untreated anxiety and depression among the music students (Wristen, 2013).

2. Method

The study was designed as a correlational research. Throughout the study, Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct have been observed (American Psychological Association, 2002). Only consenting individuals have participated in the research.

2.1 Participants

Ninety-four preservice music teachers participated in the study. All the participants were students enrolled in the music education BSc program of the faculty of education at a public university in southwestern part of Turkey

($N = 94$). Of 94 preservice music teachers; 51 (54.3%) were female (0) and 43 (45.7%) were male (1) ($\bar{x} = 0.46$; $s = 0.501$). Ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 34 ($\bar{x} = 21.18$; $s = 2.871$). Of all participants; 28 (29.8%) were first, 30 (31.9%) were second, 13 (13.8%) were third, and 23 (24.5%) were fourth grade students ($\bar{x} = 2.33$; $s = 1.149$).

2.2 Data Collection Tools

Data were collected by a paper-and-pencil instrument comprised of Beck's Depression Inventory, Perceived Stress Scale, Career Satisfaction Scale, and a demographics form for determining participants' grade and sex.

2.2.1 Beck's Depression Inventory

The inventory was developed by Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, and Erbaugh (1961) for measuring the severity of depression and was adapted for Turkish by Hisli (1988). The scale consists of 21 items. Score range is 0 to 63 and higher scores indicate more severe depressive symptoms. Questions are answered by one of the 4 forced choices. Every choice of the rating scale is unique. For the first question, the rating scale is as follows: 0 = I do not feel sad, 1 = I feel sad, 2 = I am sad all the time and I can't snap out of it, and 3 = I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it. For the standard cut-off scores; 0–9 represents minimal depression, 10–18 represents mild depression, 19–29 represents moderate depression, and 30–63 represents severe depression. Cronbach's alpha of the scale is 0.86.

2.2.2 Perceived Stress Scale

The scale was developed by Cohen, Kamarck, and Mermelstein (1983) to measure the degree to which situations in one's life are appraised as stressful. It was adapted for Turkish by Yerlikaya and İnanç (2007). The Turkish version of the scale is a 5-point Likert type scale consisting of 10 items. Score range is 0 to 40 and higher scores indicate more perceived stress. The rating scale is as follows: 0 = Never, 1 = Almost never, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, and 4 = Very often. A sample item of the scale is: "In the last month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?" In this research, Cronbach's alpha of the scale is 0.84.

2.2.3 Career Satisfaction Scale

The scale was developed by Parayitam, Desai, Desai, and Eason (2010) and consists of three items; two items originally developed by Childs and Klimoski (1986) and one developed by Martins, Eddleston, and Veiga (2002). The scale is a 5-point Likert type scale. The rating scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A sample item of the scale is: "I am satisfied with my career status". Cronbach's alpha of the scale is 0.80.

2.3 Procedure

After conducting a literature review and determining the scales, the survey instrument was prepared as a paper-and-pencil survey. Permissions were received from instructors of the courses that the students take. Data were collected in the classrooms during the lessons.

2.4 Data Analysis

After preliminary screening of the completed survey instruments, answers of the participants were transferred to computer. Data were stored, arranged, reviewed, and analyzed by the use of IBM SPSS Statistics computer program (IBM SPSS Statistics Version 25). In addition to descriptive techniques, the data were analyzed by Cronbach's α estimate, t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tukey's HSD, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient, and multiple linear regression. Cronbach's α internal consistency estimate was calculated for the scales in order to check the reliability of the instrument. While t-test was conducted for gender differences, ANOVA and Post-Hoc Tukey's HSD test was employed for differences among grades. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was computed for the correlations among Beck's depression, perceived stress, and career satisfaction levels. Finally, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted.

3. Results

Initially, after calculating scale scores through both averaging and summation, a descriptive analysis was conducted on those scale scores. Table 1 depicts the results of descriptive analysis on the scales. After descriptive analyses, an independent samples t-test was performed in order to compare the levels of perceived stress, depression, and career satisfaction in females and males. Results revealed that there were no significant differences in the levels of perceived stress ($p = 0.985$), depression ($p = 0.251$), or career satisfaction ($p = 0.312$) for females and males.

Table 1. Descriptive results for scale scores

	N	Mean of Scores				Sum of Scores			
		Min.	Max.	\bar{x}	s	Min.	Max.	\bar{x}	s
Perceived Stress	94	0.40	3.70	2.27	0.68	4	37	22.66	4.51
Depression	93	0.10	2.24	0.72	0.43	2	47	14.78	9.05
Career Satisfaction	94	1.00	5.00	3.76	0.92	3	15	11.29	2.78

In the next step, three sets of ANOVA were conducted on the levels of perceived stress, depression, and career satisfaction to determine if the scores vary according to grades of preservice music teachers. Table 2 illustrates the results of the ANOVA computations. First ANOVA showed that there was not a significant effect of grade on perceived stress, $F(3, 90) = 1.870, p = 0.140$. Similarly, there was not a significant effect of grade on depression as determined by second ANOVA, $F(3, 89) = 1.030, p = 0.383$. In contrast, third ANOVA computation revealed that there was a significant difference in career satisfaction levels between grades, $F(3, 90) = 4.226, p = 0.008, \eta^2 = 0.12$. A Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed that mean career satisfaction score of 4th graders ($\bar{x} = 3.20, s = 0.90$) is significantly lower than the scores of 1st ($\bar{x} = 4.02, s = 0.90, p = 0.007$) and 2nd ($\bar{x} = 3.91, s = 0.76, p = 0.024$) graders.

Table 2. Results of ANOVA using grade as the criterion

		SS	MS	df	F	p	η^2
Perceived Stress	Btw. Groups	2.527	0.842	3	1.870	0.140	
	Wth. Groups	40.544	0.450	90			
	Total	43.071		93			
Depression	Btw. Groups	0.574	0.191	3	1.030	0.383	
	Wth. Groups	16.524	0.186	89			
	Total	17.097		92			
Career Satisfaction	Btw. Groups	9.868	3.289	3	4.226*	0.008	0.12
	Wth. Groups	70.048	0.778	90			
	Total	79.916		93			

Note. “*” $p < 0.05$. “Btw.” and “Wth.” stand for between and within, respectively.

After the t-test and ANOVA, Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for the relationships between perceived stress, depression, and career satisfaction in order to measure the strength and direction of possible associations. Results of the computations are displayed in Table 3. There was a weak, negative correlation between career satisfaction and perceived stress, which was statistically significant ($r = -0.297, n = 94, p = 0.004$). Similarly, there was a weak, negative correlation between career satisfaction and depression, which was again statistically significant ($r = -0.291, n = 93, p = 0.005$). On the other hand, there was a strong, positive correlation between perceived stress and depression, which was statistically significant ($r = 0.671, n = 93, p = 0.000$).

Table 3. Results of Pearson's correlation coefficient computations

		Career Satisfaction	Perceived Stress	Depression
Career Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.297*	-0.291*
	Significance (2-tailed)		0.004	0.005
	N	94	94	93
Perceived Stress	Pearson Correlation	-0.297*	1	0.671**
	Significance (2-tailed)	0.004		0.000
	N	94	94	93
Depression	Pearson Correlation	-0.291*	0.671**	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	0.005	0.000	
	N	93	93	93

Note. “*” $p < 0.01$ and “**” $p < 0.001$. “N” stands for sample size.

Finally, three multiple linear regression analyses were conducted. The first regression model was used to test if depression and career satisfaction significantly predicted perceived stress. Results of the analysis indicated that

46.2% of the variance in perceived stress was explained by only one of the predictors ($R^2 = 0.462$, $F(2, 90) = 38.685$, $p = 0.000$). It was found that depression significantly predicted perceived stress ($\beta = 0.638$, $p = 0.000$). The second regression model was used to test if perceived stress and career satisfaction significantly predicted depression. Results of the analysis indicated that 46% of the variance in depression was explained by again one of the predictors ($R^2 = 0.459$, $F(2, 90) = 38.247$, $p = 0.000$). It was found that perceived stress significantly predicted depression ($\beta = 0.642$, $p = 0.000$). Career satisfaction was not a significant predictor in both models. The third regression model was used to test if perceived stress and depression significantly predicted career satisfaction. Even though the model was significant ($R^2 = 0.104$, $F(2, 90) = 5.233$, $p = 0.007$), it was found that neither perceived stress ($\beta = -0.189$, $p = 0.164$) nor depression ($\beta = -0.164$, $p = 0.226$) could significantly predict career satisfaction.

4. Discussion

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationships between career satisfaction, depression, and perceived stress levels of preservice music teachers. Initially, it was found that preservice music teachers' levels of perceived stress and severity of depression were significantly high while career satisfaction levels were low. Mean career satisfaction level of preservice music teachers (3.76) was considerably lower compared to previously reported mean with a sample of undergraduate and graduate students (Parayitam et al., 2010). In contrast, mean perceived stress level (22.66) was quite higher compared to previously reported norms (14.2) with a general population sample of 18 to 29 years of age (Cohen, 1994). Similarly, mean level of severity of depression (14.78) was higher than the norm mean value (9.14) reported by Whisman and Richardson (2015). Additionally, the proportion of preservice music teachers who scored 19 and above on Beck's Depression Inventory and therefore associated with moderate to severe depressive symptoms was 26.6%, which in turn was considerably higher than the proportion of undergraduate students (12%) as reported by Whisman and Richardson (2015). Moreover, mean values do not differ according to gender. On the other hand, high levels of stress and depression among preservice music teachers is in parallel with previous research on professional musicians (Breda & Kulesa, 1999; Smith, Brice, Collins, Matthews, & McNamara, 2000; Steptoe, 1989; Vaag, Bjørngaard, & Bjerkeset, 2016).

Results of ANOVA on the effect of grade of preservice teachers indicate that levels of perceived stress and severity of depression do not differ according to the grade level of the students. However, career satisfaction scores significantly differ according to the grade level; mean levels significantly dropping from 4.02 to 3.91 between 1st and 2nd grades and from 3.91 to 3.20 between 2nd and 4th grades. Remarkably, results indicate that aspiring music teachers come to teacher training institutions with considerably higher stress and depression levels, even though being satisfied with their career progress to-date. From 1st to 4th grade, stress and depression levels stand firm in the aforementioned higher position while career satisfaction levels decline. Results indicate that preservice music teachers are as worried about their "career development" as professional musicians (Cooper & Wills, 1989; Wills & Cooper, 1987) and they are more concerned as they learn more about their profession. Interestingly, music seems to be failing to fulfill the role of alleviating the effects of stress (Khalfa et al., 2003; Knight & Rickard, 2001) and depression (Field et al., 1998; Magee & Davidson, 2002; Siedliecki & Good, 2006; Waldon, 2001) for preservice music teachers, in parallel with the findings of Hodge et al. (1994), Spahn et al. (2004), and Wristen (2013). Possible positive effects of music may be hindered by the sources of stress occurring due to the nature of music itself such as spending long periods of time on music activities like concerts and rehearsals, going on stage and preparing for it, self-criticism and the criticisms coming from the environment regarding the performance of music, focus required by playing the instrument, and not having enough time for relaxation and entertainment (Sternbach, 2008).

Findings from correlational analyses indicate a strong positive relationship between severity of depression and perceived stress level while career satisfaction is weakly and negatively associated with both severity of depression and perceived stress level. Previous research indicates that there are complex interactions between stress and depression (Fagundes, Glaser, Hwang, Malarkey, & Kiecolt-Glaser, 2013). Stress is one of the causes of depression (Maddock & Pariante, 2001; Sherina, Rampal, & Kanason, 2004; Welch & Austin, 2001) while being depressed is a predictor of perceived stress (Olinger, Kuiper, & Shaw, 1987). Hence, strong correlation between perceived stress and severity of depression is in parallel with previous research that stress is both an etiology and a symptom of depression. Regression models also indicate that perceived stress and severity of depression predict approximately 46% of variance in each other. However, career satisfaction neither is a predictor of nor predicted by stress or depression.

Even though there is a relationship between three of the variables, findings of this study indicate that—since stress and depression doesn't but career satisfaction do vary according to grade levels—career satisfaction is

controlled by factors other than perceived stress and severity of depression while also correlating with them. The decline in career satisfaction may be due to the facts that preservice teachers have learned about their future profession during their university education such as teacher salary (August & Waltman, 2004; Judge et al., 1995), advancement and developmental opportunities (Abraham, 2008; Conley et al., 2005; Judge et al., 1995) workplace conditions and relationship with other colleagues and administrators (August & Waltman, 2004; Conley et al., 2005; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Dinham & Scott, 2000; Kang et al., 2015), possibility of succeeding in the job (Wong & Laschinger, 2013) and social efficacy beliefs (Hochwarter et al., 2004). During their field teaching practice, pre-service teachers may have had experiences which caused them to face with their teaching competences or which were not compatible with their existing mental models regarding being a teacher. Additionally, it was reported that the development of pre-service teachers' professional identity during field teaching practice has an effect on their professional commitment through emotional evaluation of and belief in the teaching profession (Zhao & Zhang, 2017). Findings of this study revealed that, experiences of pre-service teachers during their field teaching practice might have negatively influenced their emotional evaluation of and belief in the teaching profession. Therefore, preservice music teachers may be losing faith in their career progression as they learn more about what it actually means for a young individual to be a teacher in the classroom.

Finding of this study revealed that, preservice music teachers need resources that may help them cope with stress and depression during their education. It should also be noted that depression is a serious illness and letting depressed individuals to practice teaching profession may produce more serious problems for children as well as the teacher himself. Hence, reaching out freshmen for letting them to be aware of their health status is important for being able to provide them the opportunities and resources for coping with stress and depression. On the other hand, teaching profession may be in need of serious intervention for the improvement of the working conditions. Such decline in career satisfaction levels of preservice teachers after learning more about the real-world working conditions of teaching profession needs to be taken into consideration by policy makers, administrators, education entrepreneurs, and other related parties.

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