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Resilience and mental health issues in classical musicians

a preliminary study

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1 **Resilience and Mental Health Issues in Classical Musicians: A Preliminary Study**

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38 **Resilience and Mental Health Issues in Classical Musicians: A Preliminary Study**

39 High-level classical musicians engage in a stressful profession, which might place
40 them under increased risk for mental health issues. Existing research has typically focused on
41 music-specific issues such as performance pressure (e.g., Buma, Bakker, & Oudejans, 2015;
42 Oudejans, Spitse, Kralt, & Bakker, 2017) and music performance anxiety (e.g., Papageorgi,
43 Creech, & Welch, 2013; Steptoe & Fidler, 1987; van Kemenade, van Son, & van Heesch,
44 1995; for a review see Kenny, 2011). However, musicians experience a much broader range
45 of clinical or sub-clinical mental disorders (Barbar, De Souza Crippa, & De Lima Osório,
46 2014; Hildebrandt, Nübling, & Candia, 2012; Kenny & Ackermann, 2015; Kenny, Driscoll,
47 & Ackermann, 2014; Vaag, Bjørngaard, & Bjerkeset, 2016; van Fenema et al., 2013; van
48 Fenema & van Geel, 2014; Wristen, 2013). To illustrate, Kenny et al. (2014) found high
49 symptom prevalence rates of affective disorders, such as social phobia (33%), PTSD (22%),
50 and depression (32%) in Australian professional orchestra musicians. Likewise, a study with
51 Brazilian musicians reported prevalence rates of 13% for moderate to severe general anxiety
52 symptoms, 19% for social anxiety symptoms, and 20% for symptoms of depression (Barbar
53 et al., 2014). Finally, in a recent large-scale study with Norwegian professional musicians,
54 Vaag, Bjørngaard, et al. (2016) found prevalence rates of 20.1% for symptoms of depression
55 and 14.7% for symptoms of anxiety. Overall, studies have shown that the prevalence of
56 mental health issues in musicians tend to be higher compared to the general population
57 (Vaag, Bjørngaard, et al., 2016; van Fenema & van Geel, 2014).

58 The relatively high rates of mental health issues might be directly related to
59 musicians' experienced occupational stressors and challenges (Perkins, Reid, Araújo, Clark,
60 & Williamon, 2017). For example, classical musicianship is characterised by extensive
61 comparison and competition, as well as high levels of job insecurity, financial instability, and
62 personal sacrifice (MacNamara, Holmes, & Collins, 2008; Pecun, Collins, & MacNamara,

63 2016; Perkins et al., 2017). Furthermore, musicians are subject to very long practice hours,
64 often conducted in isolation (Ericsson & Harwell, 2019). These challenges might all act as
65 barriers to optimal mental health (Perkins et al., 2017; Wristen, 2013). Moreover, the high
66 quantity of practice can also lead to playing-related musculoskeletal pain (Baadjou, 2018)
67 and overuse injuries (Bird, 2013), which in turn have been related to increased risk for
68 depression (Kenny & Ackermann, 2015). Finally, musicians traditionally possess poor
69 health-promoting behaviours (Araújo et al., 2017; Pecen et al., 2016). For example, sleep
70 quality is poor in many musicians (Araújo et al., 2017; Vaag, Saksvik-Lehouillier,
71 Bjørngaard, & Bjerkeset, 2016), which is reciprocally associated with mental health issues
72 (Roberts & Duong, 2013). Given these music-specific stressors and challenges, scholars have
73 proposed that musicians should be supported in building psychological resilience (Araújo et
74 al., 2017; Osborne, Greene, & Immel, 2014; Wiggins, 2011).

75 The concept of psychological resilience has typically been used to understand how an
76 individual (or group of individuals) is able to withstand or bounce back from significant
77 stressors or challenges that threaten its functioning, development, or wellbeing (Kegelaers,
78 2019; Masten, 2014). Research suggests that resilience reflects a psychological state that
79 emerges over time, resulting from the dynamic interaction between personal (e.g., challenge
80 appraisals, optimism, self-efficacy, commitment, etc.) and environmental (e.g., social
81 support, psychological climate, etc.) protective resources (Bryan, O'Shea, & MacIntyre,
82 2019; Fletcher & Sarkar, 2013). Over the past decade, the construct of resilience has gained
83 interest from a number of different performance psychology domains, including education
84 (Hartley, 2011), the military (Crane et al., 2019), police work (van der Meulen, van der
85 Velden, Setti, & van Veldhoven, 2018), sports (Kegelaers & Wylleman, 2019), and visual
86 arts (Siddins, Daniel, & Johnstone, 2016).

112 a wide range number of different instruments, spanning several instrument groups. Due to the
113 relatively small number of participants within the different types of instruments, all
114 participants were divided into three broad instrument groups for further analysis: *Strings*
115 (including: cello, double bass, viola, and violin), *Wind instruments* (including: bassoon,
116 clarinet, flute, French horn, oboe, recorder, and trombone), and *Other* (including:
117 composition, harp, harpsichord, percussion, piano, and voice). Detailed demographics are
118 provided in the results section.

119 **Materials**

120 The present study made use of a cross-sectional survey design. A number of
121 demographics were collected from the participants, including Age, Gender, Experience (i.e.,
122 years since starting to play their main instrument), Professional status (i.e., student or
123 professional), and Instrument. Additionally, questionnaires were used to measure
124 participants' symptoms of mental health issues (i.e., Depression/anxiety), resilience, hours of
125 practice per week, and physical health and health promoting behaviours.

126 **Symptoms of mental health issues.** The 12-item version of the General Health
127 Questionnaire (GHQ-12) was used to measure the prevalence of symptoms of mental health
128 issues (Goldberg et al., 1997). More specifically, the GHQ-12 is typically used to measure
129 symptoms of both depression and anxiety, given their high levels of comorbidity
130 (Gouttebauge et al., 2017; Lundin et al., 2016). The GHQ-12 has previously been
131 demonstrated to be a valid, reliable, and robust measure for symptoms of mental health issues
132 (Goldberg et al., 1997; Lundin et al., 2016). It contains 12 items (e.g., "*Have you recently*
133 *lost much sleep to worry?*"), scored on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 "*Not at all*" to 4
134 "*Much more than usual*". The traditional scoring system was adopted (0-0-1-1), whereby a
135 total scoring range from 0 to 12 was obtained (Goldberg et al., 1997). A cut-off score of 3 or
136 more symptoms was adopted as an indicator for the prevalence of Depression/anxiety

137 (Goldberg et al., 1997). Internal consistency of the GHQ-12 in the present sample was high
138 ($\alpha = .84$).

139 **Resilience.** Participants' capacity for resilience was measured using the Connor-
140 Davidson resilience scale 10 (CD-RISC-10; Campbell-Sills & Stein, 2007), an abbreviated
141 version of the original CD-RISC (Connor & Davidson, 2003). The CD-RISC-10 is a
142 unidimensional scale, measuring individuals' ability to adapt to adversity and stress through
143 the use of protective resources (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Windle, Bennett, & Noyes,
144 2011). The scale contains 10 items, scored on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 "*Not true at all*"
145 and 5 "*True nearly all of the time*". The CD-RISC-10 has good demonstrated reliability and
146 validity as a brief instrument to measure resilience within the general population (Campbell-
147 Sills & Stein, 2007). Internal consistency of the CD-RISC-10 in the present sample was high
148 ($\alpha = .82$).

149 **Hours of practice.** Solitary and total hours of practice per week were assessed using
150 two open questions. For solitary practice, participants were asked "*How many hours do you*
151 *practice individually during a typical week, without a teacher/conductor/répétiteur?*" For
152 total practice, participants were asked "*How many hours do you practice (all types of practice*
153 *combined) during a typical week?*" Similar approaches have been used in the past to estimate
154 quantity of practice in high-level musicians (e.g., Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Römer, 1993).

155 **Physical health and health promoting behaviours.** Four statements were used to
156 assess physical health and health promoting behaviours. Statements addressed General
157 physical health ("*I feel I'm in a good physical condition*"), Chronic pain ("*I was free from*
158 *chronic physical aches during the past year*"), Sleep quality ("*I have a good night's rest*
159 *[roughly 8 hours] each night*"), and Eating habits ("*I have a healthy eating pattern*"). All
160 items were scored on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 "*Totally disagree*" tot 5 "*Totally agree*".

161 **Statistical analysis**

187 = 23.96 years, $SD_{Exp} = 11.76$). The distribution between male (46.9%) and female musicians
188 (51.6%) was almost equal, with one participant identifying as neither male nor female. The
189 majority of participants belonged to the *Strings* (49.6%), with other participants belonging to
190 the *Wind instruments* (20.3%), and *Other* (32.8%) groups. Demographics, as well as
191 prevalence rates of symptoms of Depression/anxiety and Resilience scores are illustrated in
192 Table 1.

193 -- INSERT TABLE 1 AROUND HERE --

194 **Prevalence of Depression/anxiety**

195 In total, 51.6% of participants scored above the cut-off score of the GHQ-12,
196 indicating symptoms of Depression/anxiety, 95% CI [38.7, 64.2]. Music students had a
197 prevalence rate of 61.1%, 95% CI [43.5, 76.9]; whereas the prevalence rate in music
198 professionals was 39.3%, 95% CI [21.5, 59.4]. Female musicians had a prevalence rate of
199 57.6%, 95% CI [39.2, 74.5]; compared to 44.8% in male musicians, 95% CI [25.5, 62.6]. The
200 two-way ANOVA (Professional status x Gender) on the continuous GHQ-12 scores indicated
201 that the differences in Depression/anxiety for both Professional status, $F(1, 59) = 6.262, p =$
202 $.015$; and Gender, $F(1, 59) = 4.255, p = .044$, were significant. The interaction between
203 Professional status and Gender was not significant, $F(1, 59) = 0.319, p = .575$. Furthermore,
204 the one-way ANOVA (*Strings, Wind instruments, Other*) showed that there were no
205 significant differences in GHQ-12 scores among the different instrument groups, $F(2, 61) =$
206 $1.750; p = .182$. As a consequence, type of instrument was excluded as a variable in further
207 analysis.

208 **Correlates and Regression Analysis**

209 Correlation coefficients are summarized in Table 2. Significant, yet moderate,
210 negative relationships were found between Depression/anxiety and Experience, General
211 physical health, Eating habits, and Sleep quality. The strongest negative relationship was

212 found between Resilience and Depression/anxiety. No significant correlations could be found
213 between Depression/anxiety and Age, Chronic pain, and Total or Solitary practice time.
214 Therefore, the latter variables were excluded from the consequent regression analysis.

215 -- INSERT TABLE 2 AROUND HERE --

216 A multiple regression analysis was then performed, with Depression/anxiety as
217 dependent variable (see Table 3). A commonly adopted rule of thumb for multiple regression
218 analysis is a minimum of at least 15 to 20 participants for each predictor included in the
219 regression. As such, we limited the total number of predictors in our analysis to four. The
220 predictors entered into the regression included Gender, coded as a dummy variable, as well as
221 the significant Depression/anxiety correlates Experience and General physical health. Given
222 the limited number of predictors that could be included in the regression, Eating habits and
223 Sleep quality were excluded as these correlated significantly with and were considered
224 conceptually underlying to General physical health¹. Although significant differences in
225 Depression/anxiety were present between music students and professionals, Professional
226 status was also excluded from the regression due to multicollinearity issues, as this was
227 strongly related to Experience. Resilience was added as the final potential predictor of
228 Depression/anxiety. The multiple regression analysis revealed that the model provided a
229 significant predictor of Depression/anxiety, explaining 42.4% of the total variance; $F(4,49) =$
230 10.76 ; $p < .001$. Looking at the individual predictors, both Resilience (Beta = $-.489$; $p < .001$)
231 and General physical health (Beta = $-.280$; $p = .015$) contributed significantly to the
232 regression model.

233 -- INSERT TABLE 3 AROUND HERE --

234 Discussion

¹ A separate regression analysis was conducted with Eating habits and Sleep quality as additional predictive factors. No additional significant predictors were found. Therefore, only the regression analysis excluding Eating habits and Sleep quality is reported here.

235 The findings demonstrate that the prevalence of symptoms of mental health issues
236 (i.e., Depression/anxiety) was relatively high among the participants of the present study,
237 varying between 39.3% for professional musicians and 61.1% for music students. Overall,
238 these prevalence rates seem to be in line with – or somewhat higher than – previous studies
239 examining musicians’ mental health. For example, studies with professional musicians have
240 reported symptoms of depression varying between 20% (Barbar et al., 2014) and 32%
241 (Kenny et al., 2014). The results also support previous work indicating that the prevalence of
242 mental health issues in musicians tends to be higher compared to the general population
243 (Vaag, Bjørngaard, et al., 2016; van Fenema & van Geel, 2014); with prevalence rates in the
244 general population (as measured by the GHQ-12) typically varying between 10% and 20%
245 (Hoeymans, Garssen, Westert, & Verhaak, 2004; Lundin et al., 2016). Furthermore, a gender
246 difference was present in the current study, with female musicians reporting higher
247 prevalence rates of mental health issues. This is consistent with previous research, both in
248 musicians (e.g., Kenny et al., 2014) and in the general population (e.g., Hoeymans et al.,
249 2004). However, no significant differences were found among musicians playing different
250 types of instruments (cf. Vaag, Bjørngaard, et al., 2016).

251 One key finding of the present study was the large apparent difference in mental
252 health issues between music students and professional musicians. In a study with music
253 students, Wristen (2013) previously found that 12% of students met the *DSM-IV* diagnostic
254 criteria for depression. However, a total 58% of students in her study reported some
255 symptoms of depression, which, whilst remaining under the clinical threshold, still impacted
256 their functioning (Wristen, 2013); an approach which is more consistent with the purpose of
257 the GHQ-12. Moreover, a recent study with dance students found that 42% of students
258 experienced one or more mental health issues over the course of one year (van Winden, van
259 Rijn, Savelsbergh, Oudejans, & Stubbe, in press). Overall, these findings are consistent with

260 meta-analysis research demonstrating that the prevalence of mental health issues is
261 significantly higher in higher education students compared to the general population
262 (Ibrahim, Kelly, Adams, & Glazebrook, 2013). It remains unclear, however, how this
263 difference can be explained. Potentially, higher education is accompanied by a number of
264 additional psychological (e.g., academic concerns, professional uncertainty) and psychosocial
265 demands (e.g., separation from home, new friend groups), which might place students at an
266 increased risk for mental health issues. It has also been proposed that such differences reflect
267 a cohort effect as prevalence of mental health issues might be increasing over time (Hunt &
268 Eisenberg, 2010), although little evidence has been found to support this notion (Ibrahim et
269 al., 2013). Further research is clearly needed to structurally examine differences in the
270 prevalence and determinants of mental health issues in music students and professionals.

271 Symptoms of depression/anxiety were negatively associated with psychological
272 resilience. This is consistent with a meta-analysis finding that resilience has an important
273 protective role for optimal mental health (Hu et al., 2015). Furthermore, symptoms of
274 depression/anxiety were also negatively associated with general physical health. This finding
275 provides support for the argument that musicians need health-promoting behaviours, not only
276 to safeguard their physical health but also their mental health (Araújo et al., 2017). Contrary
277 to earlier work, however, no association was found between mental health issues and chronic
278 pain (Kenny & Ackermann, 2015). Finally, mental health was also not directly related to total
279 or solitary practice time.

280 The findings of the present study seem to support the call for the development and
281 testing of resilience-building interventions for musicians (Araújo et al., 2017; Wiggins,
282 2011). Although resilience development research has remained absent within music
283 psychology, insights from other performance domains might provide guidance for such
284 interventions. Drawing on sport psychology, Fletcher and Sarkar (2016) proposed that

285 resilience development is a complex and multifaceted endeavour, which should focus on
286 three central pillars; i.e., (a) developing a challenge mindset, (b) strengthening psychological
287 skills, and (c) providing a facilitative environment. A challenge mindset reflects individuals'
288 "awareness of any negative thoughts that make them more vulnerable to the negative effects
289 of stress [...] and realizing and accepting that they have a choice about how they react to and
290 think about events" (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2016, p. 145). Such a challenge mindset might be
291 promoted by teaching musicians basic cognitive-behavioral (Osborne et al., 2014) or
292 acceptance and commitment training techniques (Juncos & de Paiva e Pona, 2018).

293 In addition to a challenge mindset, psychological or mental skills might also play an
294 important role in strengthening resilience. Research has demonstrated that such psychological
295 skills (e.g., goal-setting, imagery, relaxation techniques) play a crucial role in helping
296 musicians navigate significant career challenges (MacNamara et al., 2008), as well as
297 reducing music performance anxiety (e.g., Clark & Williamon, 2011; Hatfield, 2016).
298 Furthermore, psychological skills might also contribute to improved practice efficiency
299 (Bakker, Kouwenhoven, Schuijjer, & Oudejans, 2016; Clark & Williamon, 2011). Although
300 our study found no direct relationship with practice time, more efficient practice has been
301 found to be an important enabler for musicians' physical and mental health (Perkins et al.,
302 2017). Finally, the close environment also plays an important role in resilience development
303 (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2016). Indeed, Siddins et al. (2016) already examined the role of
304 educators in promoting resilience development in visual artists. Music organizations (e.g.,
305 conservatories, orchestras) might therefore invest in creating a facilitative environment,
306 which reduces stigma, increases mental health literacy, and encourages help-seeking
307 behaviors (Wiggins, 2011), as well as stimulates physical health-promoting behaviors (Pecen
308 et al., 2016).

309 A number of limitations should be recognized when discussing the results of the
310 present study. First, the study adopted only a relatively small sample size. As such, our ability
311 to draw broad statistical generalizations might be limited. Furthermore, our small sample size
312 also limits the number of variables we could include in the regression analysis. We recognize
313 that a wide range of additional factors (e.g., history of adverse life events, coping repertoire,
314 social support, alcohol and substance use, etc.) might all influence musicians' resilience and
315 mental health, and thus warrant further investigation. The omission of a control group can
316 also be considered a limitation of the present study. In future research, the inclusion of
317 carefully age-matched and relevant control groups (e.g., regular higher education students)
318 would allow for a more detailed examination of potential music, education, or cohort specific
319 determinants of mental health issues in musicians.

320 Another limitation relates to the use of the CD-RISC-10 as a measure for resilience.
321 Although the CD-RISC-10 is widely used and one of the more psychometrically sound
322 resilience measures available (Windle et al., 2011), some authors have criticized the scale for
323 overly focusing on resilient qualities at the individual level, without adequate attention for
324 environmental resilience factors (Sarkar & Fletcher, 2013). The CD-RISC was also
325 developed for specific use in the general population. Some scholars have argued that
326 resilience can vary among different contexts, depending on specific characteristics and
327 demands of those contexts (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2013). In music, for example, some scholars
328 have suggested that a certain level of psychological vulnerability – which has often been
329 considered the antithesis of resilience (Masten, 2014) – might actually be required for
330 creativity (Silvia & Kaufman, 2010) and musical agency (Wiggins, 2011). As such, future
331 research would benefit from the development of a music-specific scale to gain a more
332 contextualized understanding of musicians' resilience. Finally, we recognize that we are
333 limited in our choice to only include one measure of mental health. Considering the

334 relationships found in the present study, future research might benefit from the inclusion of
335 additional measures, which are sensitive to a broader range of specific mental disorders (e.g.,
336 music performance anxiety, major depression, bipolar disorder, generalized anxiety disorders,
337 burnout, etc.).

338 **Conclusion**

339 This study examined the relationship between mental health issues (i.e.,
340 depression/anxiety) and resilience within classical musicians. The results highlight that the
341 prevalence of mental health issues is relatively high among these musicians. Symptoms of
342 Depression/anxiety seemed especially common in music students, with prevalence rates as
343 high as 61%. Furthermore, it seems both resilience and physical health might serve as
344 protective factors against these mental health issues. Based on these preliminary results,
345 future theoretical and applied work should further explore the mental health of music
346 students, as well as the protective role of psychological resilience in classical musicians.

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527 Table 1

528 *Demographics, Resilience, and Depression/anxiety prevalence rates*

	Total	Students	Professionals
<i>N</i>	64	36	28
<i>Age (SD)</i>	27.66 (10.78)	22.92 (3.43)	33.75 (13.70)
<i>Gender (%)</i>			
Male	30 (46.9%)	19 (52.8%)	11 (39.3%)
Female	33 (51.6%)	16 (45.7%)	17 (60.7%)
N/A	1 (1.6%)	1 (2.8%)	-
<i>Instrument (%)</i>			
Strings	30 (46.9%)	11 (30.6%)	19 (67.9%)
Wind instruments	13 (20.3%)	6 (16.7%)	7 (25%)
Other	21 (32.8%)	19 (52.8%)	2 (7.1%)
<i>Experience (SD)</i>	17.88 (9.81)	13.14 (3.71)	23.96 (11.76)
<i>Practice hours per week (SD)</i>	27.9 (11.1)	26.9 (10.9)	29.7 (11.5)
<i>Solitary practice hours per week (SD)</i>	18.8 (9.0)	19.1 (9.6)	18.3 (8.3)
<i>% Prevalence Depression/anxiety (95% CI)</i>	51.6% [38.7-64.2]	61.1% [43.5-76.9]	38.5% [21.5-62.6]
<i>Resilience scores (SD)</i>	36.9 (5.4)	35.0 (5.2)	38.9 (5.0)

529

530 Table 2

531 *Spearman's rank correlation coefficients*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	1	.72***	.14	-.01	.30*	.09	-.11	-.23	.26	-.10
2. Experience		1	.09	.04	.15	.16	.04	-.18	.40**	-.26*
3. Health			1	.25*	.31*	-.10	-.06	-.01	.28*	-.38**
4. Sleep				1	.43***	-.11	-.10	-.08	.19	-.31*
5. Eating					1	-.13	-.10	-.14	.32*	-.33**
6. Pain						1	-.04	-.28*	-.01	.06
7. Total practice hours							1	.59***	-.08	.16
8. Solitary practice hours								1	-.04	.12
9. Resilience									1	-.65***
10. Depression/anxiety										1

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

532

533 Table 3

534 *Multiple regression analysis results*

	B	SE B	b	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	R^2_{adj}	<i>p</i>
Overall model						.424	.001
Gender	-.359	.654	-.059	.585	-0.550		
Experience	-.034	.038	-.100	.374	-0.897		
Health	-.983	.390	-.280	.015	-2.524		
Resilience	-.276	.064	-.484	.001	-4.283		

535