

# The winding road to the Tokyo Olympics: A dynamic approach to the relationships between stress appraisal, coping, performance, and burnout among an artistic swimming team.

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between stress appraisal, coping, performance and burnout among an artistic swimming
team **Abstract**This study aimed to better understand psychological adaptation processes of elite
athletes, and specifically how stress appraisal and coping processes are dynamically interrelated and the extent to which their dynamic relationship is associated with performance and

8 burnout among an artistic swimming team during the qualification phase for the Tokyo 2020 Olympics conducted in summer 2021. Fifteen elite artistic swimmers ( $M_{age} = 21$  years,  $SD_{age} =$ 9 3 years) completed an online questionnaire once a week measuring perceived stress, stress 10 11 mindset, individual and collective perceptions of control, individual and interpersonal coping 12 strategies, performance, and burnout (i.e., 19 time-points, January-May 2021). Results of 13 multilevel analyses showed that: (1) mastery coping mediated the association between stress 14 mindset and reduced sense of accomplishment, (2) goal-withdrawal coping mediated the 15 association between stress mindset and negative feelings towards sport, and (3) interpersonal 16 management of emotions mediated the association between collective perception of control and 17 collective performance. This study provides new knowledge about the psychological adaptation processes of elite athletes during the particularly stressful Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games 18 19 gualification phase. Furthermore, it highlights the need to longitudinally and frequently assess 20 changes in psychological adaptation processes in relation to burnout and performance 21 fluctuations in order to prevent burnout development and a deterioration in individual or team 22 performance, especially in extended challenging situations experienced by elite athletes.

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Keywords: cognitive appraisal, individual and interpersonal coping, process-oriented method,
COVID-19.

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# The winding road to the Tokyo Olympics: A dynamic approach to the relationships between stress appraisal, coping, performance and burnout among an artistic swimming team

#### 5 **1. Introduction**

6 For elite athletes, participating in the Olympic Games is the pinnacle of their sports 7 careers. The qualification phase is thus a particularly stressful period requiring them to deal 8 with highly challenging physical and psychological demands such as training load, performance 9 issues, self-doubt, expectations and pressures to perform (Gould & Maynard, 2009; Nicholls & 10 Levy, 2016). In 2020, the COVID-19 outbreak added extreme and hitherto unknown elements 11 with major implications for Olympic athletes (e.g., postponement of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games, lockdown, social distancing) (Pété et al., 2022). They had to face an unprecedented 12 13 situation with increased risk of exposure to additional multiple stressors and negative 14 psychological effects (e.g., depression, loneliness, fear of the uncertain future and the 15 alternation of the Olympic cycle) (Samuel et al., 2020). Consequently, the way they managed 16 and adapted to the various fluctuating demands of this particular qualifying period for the Tokyo 17 2020 Olympic Games deserves special attention as regards their performance and mental health (Szczypińska et al., 2021). The purpose of the study was thus to provide a more detailed 18 19 understanding of the psychological adaptation of elite athletes during this particular challenging 20 period.

According to the cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion (CMRT; Lazarus, 1991, 1999), it is the ways in which athletes appraise the demands of their performance environment that potentially lead to stress appraisal rather than the demands themselves. Stress appraisal involves an evaluation of both the demands of the situation (i.e., primary appraisal) and the coping resources available (i.e., secondary appraisal) (Folkman, 1992). Accordingly,

1 when an athlete undertakes primary appraisal, he or she evaluates the situation in terms of 2 personal meaning and significance based on the stakes in respect of goals, commitments, and 3 values (Lazarus, 1999). Situations appraised as stressful generally involve the perception of 4 harm/loss (i.e., damage to goals, commitments and values has occurred), threat (i.e., damage to 5 goals, commitments and values is possible), or challenge (i.e., positive perception of an obstacle 6 to achieving goals, commitments and values). Stress mindset theory offers a complementary 7 approach to primary appraisal, considering that individuals with a stress-is-enhancing mindset 8 view stress as having positive consequences on functioning, performance and health (Crum et 9 al., 2013; Hagger et al., 2020). This contrasts with a stress-is-debilitating mindset, in which stress is viewed as having negative consequences on outcomes (Crum et al., 2013; Hagger et 10 11 al., 2020). Individuals endorsing a stress-is-enhancing mindset report better performance and 12 health than individuals endorsing a stress-is-debilitating mindset (e.g., Crum et al., 2013). When 13 an athlete undertakes secondary appraisal, he or she evaluates the availability of coping options 14 and resources for dealing with the situation, as well as the degree of control that can be exerted 15 over that situation and/or the emotions experienced (Folkman, 1992). This perception of control 16 is viewed as a strong predictor of adaptive coping responses to stressful events (Skinner & 17 Zimmer-Gembeck, 2010). Thus, the way an athlete appraises the performance environment's demands can influence his or her coping response and have potential implications for 18 19 performance and mental health (Tamminen, 2021).

Coping is traditionally defined as the "constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). This definition outlines the dynamic and multidimensional nature of coping. As such, athletes may use a variety of coping strategies that change across time and different stressful sport situations (Doron & Gaudreau, 2014; Doron & Martinent, 2016, 2017, 2021; Gaudreau et al., 2010). In order to

1 manage the overlap between the different classifications of coping and accurately compare studies, Nicholls et al. (2016) devised a comprehensive coping classification by grouping 2 3 coping strategies into three higher-order dimensions that share similar coping functions: (1) Mastery coping refers to strategies that aim to control the situation and eliminate the stressor 4 5 (e.g., planning actions, analysis of the situation, effort expenditure), (2) Internal regulation 6 coping includes strategies designed to manage internal responses to stress (e.g., regulation of 7 emotions, seeking support, relaxation), and (3) Goal-withdrawal coping involves athletes 8 discontinuing efforts toward goal attainment (e.g., disengagement, venting emotions). 9 Moreover, there is evidence to support the notion that coping behaviours influence elite athletes' performance and mental health (e.g., Gould et al., 1993; Hooper et al., 2021). In sport 10 11 psychology literature, mastery coping strategies are generally associated with successful sport performance and psychological well-being, while goal-withdrawal coping strategies are 12 13 generally associated with sport performance issues and psychological distress (for reviews, see 14 Crocker et al., 2015; Nicholls et al., 2016). Findings remain more ambiguous regarding the 15 effectiveness of internal regulation coping (Nicholls et al., 2016). In addition, according to the 16 goodness-of-fit approach, coping will be more effective when there is an appropriate match 17 between perception of control and the coping strategies used (i.e., mastery coping in controllable situations vs. internal regulation coping in uncontrollable situations, Folkman, 18 19 1992). While research in sport supports the relationship between perception of control and 20 mastery coping, findings appear more equivocal regarding the relationship between perception 21 of control and internal regulation coping or goal-withdrawal coping (Poliseo & McDonough, 2012). 22

The ways Olympians specifically experience and cope with stress have been investigated previously (for a review, see Gould & Maynard, 2009). For example, Gould et al. (1993) identified the coping strategies wrestlers used to deal with the challenges related to the

Seoul 1988 Olympic Games. Their research showed that elite athletes had a wide range of 1 coping strategies at their disposal for dealing with adversity, and that mastery and internal 2 3 regulation coping strategies (e.g., thought control, concentration on goals, following a routine, 4 relaxed breathing) were the preferred strategies. However, these studies have predominantly 5 used retrospective accounts which may provide distorted data. To the best of our knowledge, 6 only Nicholls and Levy (2016) have documented the lived emotional experiences of elite 7 athletes in regard to stressors and coping experiences in preparation and a qualifying 8 competition for the London 2012 Olympic Games. However, Nicholls and Levy (2016) 9 acknowledge that the short length of the assessment period (i.e., 28 days) and the lack of stress 10 appraisal measure may have limited the complete understanding of the psychological adaptation 11 processes involved in this particular and challenging context. Given that coping is viewed as a 12 dynamic and complex process in this context (Pensgaard & Ursin, 1998), the ways in which 13 stress appraisal and coping are intertwined need further investigation in order to better 14 understand the extent to which their dynamic relationship is associated with performance and 15 mental health.

16 The dynamic nature of the relationships between stress appraisal, coping and the extent 17 to which they are associated with variations in sport-related outcomes within highly demanding 18 sport situations have been previously examined (Doron & Gaudreau, 2014; Doron & Martinent, 19 2016, 2017, 2021; Gaudreau et al., 2010). Based on original process-oriented methods, several 20 longitudinal studies have emphasised the dynamic nature of the relationships between stress appraisal and coping processes over specific periods in highly demanding environments and 21 22 their adaptive vs. maladaptive links to objective and subjective performance (Doron & 23 Gaudreau, 2014; Doron & Martinent, 2016, 2017, 2021; Gaudreau et al., 2010). Moreover, the 24 mediating role played by coping in the dynamic relationships between stress appraisal (e.g., 25 challenge, threat, perceived control) and sport-related outcomes (e.g., performance) during

competitive events has been highlighted at multiple points in time (Doron & Martinent, 2017, 2021). Given that the relationships between stress appraisal, coping processes and sport-related outcomes seem to rely heavily on the specific contextual and psychological demands and constraints of sporting situations (Doron & Martinent, 2021), examination of these relationships over the course of an Olympic Games qualification phase is required to improve understanding of how elite athletes effectively manage the demands of such periods in terms of performance and mental health.

8 Due to the particular exposure to stress related to Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games 9 qualification, elite athletes may be more vulnerable to psychological distress, including nonspecific symptoms of stress, anxiety and depression (Hooper et al., 2021; Pété et al., 2022; 10 11 Szczypińska et al., 2021). Specifically, the risk of burnout may be higher for those athletes who 12 have chronic difficulties in coping with stressful situations (Gustafsson et al., 2011). Athlete 13 burnout can be defined as a cognitive-affective syndrome characterised by negative feelings 14 toward sport, physical exhaustion, and a reduced sense of accomplishment (Isoard-Gautheur et 15 al., 2018). Previous longitudinal studies have highlighted the critical role that coping plays in 16 the development of athlete burnout (Madigan et al., 2020; Martinent & Decret, 2015; Pires & 17 Ugrinowitsch, 2021; Schellenberg et al., 2013). Results showed that the use of goal-withdrawal coping (e.g., disengagement-oriented coping, avoidance coping) was linked to an increase in 18 19 athlete burnout over time, while the use of mastery coping (e.g., problem-focused coping, task-20 oriented coping) and/or internal regulation coping (e.g., relaxation or seeking support strategies) was unrelated or negatively associated with changes in burnout over time. However, 21 22 while the coping-burnout relationship has already been studied longitudinally, the 23 aforementioned studies were mainly conducted with young athletes during regular sport seasons 24 that did not involve either the same stress exposure as Olympic Games qualification or the same risk of developing burnout. In addition, the role of stress appraisal in the dynamic coping-25

burnout relationship was not taken into account in these studies. Consequently, longitudinal
assessment of changes in stress appraisal-coping-burnout relationships would appear important
in developing knowledge on how stress appraisal, coping and burnout are linked in a dynamic
relationship, as well as in preventing the risk of athlete burnout.

5 Furthermore, Nicholls and Levy (2016) pointed out an interesting result regarding the day-to-day influence of teammate interactions on stressors, coping, and emotions during the 6 7 London 2012 Olympics qualification phase. This result outlined the need to also consider the 8 social nature of coping processes when athletes deal with shared challenges and demands 9 (Tamminen & Gaudreau, 2014; Tamminen & Neely, 2021). For instance, Hayward et al. (2017) showed evidence of shared stress experiences within the athletic triad (parents, coaches and 10 11 athletes) and the capacity to influence one another's stress experiences. More recently, Pété et 12 al. (2022) highlighted the orientation of athletes toward interpersonal coping according to their 13 individual coping profile when facing the COVID-19 outbreak with their training partners or 14 teammates. It seems beneficial in terms of mental health and group functioning for members of 15 a group to coordinate and develop strategies to deal collectively with stressful circumstances 16 (Lyons et al., 1998). For example, this can foster individual post-traumatic growth and social 17 well-being of people affected by collective trauma (Wlodarczyk et al., 2016). Given that the qualification phase of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games has an inherently social context likely 18 19 to influence athletes' experiences of stress and coping (Nicholls & Levy, 2016), it would appear 20 important to consider interpersonal coping perspectives for a more detailed understanding of psychological adaptation and its potential impact on performance and burnout. Despite this, to 21 22 date, the dynamics of the relationships between stress appraisal and coping and their links to performance and burnout have been almost exclusively examined through an intrapersonal 23 24 perspective.

1 The present study therefore aimed to better understand how stress appraisal and coping 2 processes are dynamically inter-related and the extent to which their dynamic relationship is 3 associated with performance and burnout among a sport team during the qualification phase for the Tokyo 2020 Olympics. Based on an intrapersonal perspective, the first goal was to 4 5 investigate the dynamic relationships between stress appraisal (i.e., perceived stress, stress 6 mindset, individual perception of control), individual coping (i.e., mastery coping, internal regulation coping, goal-withdrawal coping), individual subjective performance, and burnout 7 8 (i.e., negative feelings toward sport, physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment) 9 during the qualification phase (see Model A, Figure 1). It was hypothesised that (1) stress appraisal would be associated with individual coping, (2) stress appraisal and individual coping 10 11 would be associated with individual subjective performance and burnout, (3) individual coping 12 would mediate the relationship between stress appraisal and individual subjective performance, 13 and (4) individual coping strategies would mediate the relationship between stress appraisal and 14 burnout. The hypotheses are specified in Figure 1 (see Model A).

15 Based on an interpersonal perspective, the second goal was to examine the dynamic 16 relationships between stress appraisal (i.e., perceived stress, stress mindset, individual and 17 collective perception of control), interpersonal coping (i.e., problem-focused interpersonal efforts, interpersonal management of emotions, interpersonal-goal withdrawal, relationship-18 19 focused coping), individual and collective subjective performance, and burnout over the course 20 of the qualification phase (see Model B, Figure 1). It was hypothesised that (1) stress appraisal would be associated with interpersonal coping, (2) stress appraisal and interpersonal coping 21 22 would be associated with subjective performance and burnout, (3) interpersonal coping would 23 mediate the relationship between stress appraisal and subjective performance, and (4) 24 interpersonal coping would mediate the relationship between stress appraisal and burnout. The hypotheses are specified in Figure 1 (see Model B). 25

# ADAPTATION PROCESSES IN ELITE ARTISTIC SWIMMING TEAM [INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE]

#### 2 **2. Method**

1

3 2.1. Participants

4 Fifteen Caucasian female national team elite artistic swimmers aged between 17 and 28 years ( $M_{age} = 21$  years,  $SD_{age} = 3$  years) participated in this study. They had been involved in 5 their sport for at least 10 years. They were all attempting to qualify for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic 6 7 Games and practiced between 35 and 40 hours per week. Artistic swimming was chosen 8 because swimmers expend large amounts of energy every day and train 40 hours per week on 9 average for most of the year (Mountjoy, 2009). Given the heavy training load, these athletes 10 are at risk of burnout (Schaal et al., 2017). Prior to participation, athletes completed a consent 11 form specifying the criteria for free participation, anonymity, and confidentiality of responses. 12 For athletes under 18 years old, parents signed the consent form. The protocol was approved 13 by a local ethics committee (xxx. Ref. 20032020-2).

In view of the nature of the sample (i.e., sampling of an entire population of elite athlete), and considering that "whenever it is possible to measure the entire population, the sample size justification becomes straightforward: the researcher used all the data that is available" (Lakens, 2022, p. 3), an a posteriori power analysis was performed using Power IN Two-level design software, which is designed to estimate standard errors of regression coefficients in hierarchical linear models for power calculations (Snijders & Bosker, 1993).

If  $\alpha$  is chosen at .05, a medium effect size of .50 is expected. In this sample of 15 participants and 19 measurement points, power is 1.00 for the present study. Given Cohen's (1988) suggestion that power is high when it is at least .80, the sample size of the present study was deemed acceptable.

24 2.2. Procedure and measures

After obtaining the coaches' agreement for participation in the study, the purpose, procedure and measures were presented to the athletes by the second author at a meeting. All participants were instructed to complete an online questionnaire on their smartphones via the Athlete360 application at the start of each week during their mental training session. The completion of the questionnaire took approximatively five minutes. The second author was present each week to answer any questions athletes may have had when completing the questionnaire.

8 To measure the study variables, participants were instructed to answer the questionnaire 9 regarding their weekly individual and team experiences in training. At the time of the study, 10 face-to-face practice was allowed for elite athletes. In view of the longitudinal design of this 11 study, the data collection frequency (i.e., once a week for 19 weeks), the particular data 12 collection period corresponding to the qualification phase for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games 13 and occurring during the COVID-19 outbreak (i.e., from 29 December 2020 to 9 June 2021), 14 as well as the intense training demands (e.g., many hours of training), the questionnaire was 15 adapted and condensed to facilitate the task for the artistic swimmers. For this purpose, single-16 items and a definitional approach were used to measure the study variables (Allen et al., 2022; 17 Ptacek et al., 1994).

**Individual perception of stress.** Perceived stress was assessed using a version of the stress thermometer (Kowalski & Crocker, 2001). Participants were asked to indicate the amount of stress they felt at the moment of answering the questions on a visual analogue scale ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 5 (*strongly*).

Individual stress mindset. Stress mindset was assessed based on the direction scale of the French version of the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory - 2 Revised (Jones & Swain, 1992; Martinent et al., 2010), as this scale measures in the sport context the interpretation of symptoms associated with anxiety as being facilitative or debilitative towards performance. Participants

were asked to indicate their perception of the effects stress had on their optimal functioning at
 the moment of answering the questions on a visual analogue scale ranging from -3 (*very unfavourable*) to +3 (*very favourable*).

Individual and collective perception of control. Two single-item visual analogue scales were
used to measure individual and collective perception of control (Kaiseler et al., 2009).
Participants were asked to rate the degree of control they and their team had over stressors they
encountered at the moment of answering the questions from 0 (*no control*) to 5 (*full control*).

8 Individual and interpersonal coping. A single-item definitional approach (e.g., Doron & 9 Martinent, 2017, 2021; Ptacek et al., 1994) was used to assess individual and interpersonal 10 coping. Given the longitudinal design of the present study, this approach seemed better adapted 11 to facilitating the frequent collection of data and the involvement of elite athletes throughout 12 the protocol than lengthy multi-item scales (Doron & Martinent, 2017, 2021; Pété et al., 2022). 13 The coping variables were defined succinctly (see Table 1 for definitions) and participants had 14 to provide a single rating to measure individual (i.e., mastery coping, internal regulation coping, 15 goal-withdrawal coping) and interpersonal coping strategies (i.e., problem-focused 16 interpersonal efforts, interpersonal management of emotions, interpersonal-goal withdrawal, 17 relationship-focused coping). The definitions were based on existing theoretical definitions of 18 individual (Nicholls et al., 2016) and interpersonal (Leprince et al., 2018) coping strategies, as 19 well as previous empirical studies that have used this approach in a sport context (Doron & 20 Martinent, 2017, 2021; Pété et al., 2022). Participants were asked to indicate on visual analogue scales the extent to which they and their team used each of the individual and interpersonal 21 22 coping strategies when facing stress at the moment of answering the questions, ranging from 0 23 (never) to 5 (very often).

24

#### [INSERT TABLE 1 HERE]

Individual and collective subjective performance. Two single-item visual analogue scales
were used to measure individual and collective subjective performance (Pensgaard & Duda,

2003). Participants were asked to indicate how satisfactory they considered their own
 performance and the team performance at the moment of answering the questions, ranging from
 0 (*not at all satisfactory*) to 5 (*extremely satisfactory*).

Athlete burnout. The short version of the Athlete Burnout Scale (Isoard-Gautheur et al., 2018)
was used to measure the three dimensions of burnout (i.e., negative feelings towards sport,
physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment). Participants were asked to report how
they felt regarding the three dimensions of burnout at the moment of answering the questions
on visual analogue scales ranging from 0 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost always*).

9 2.3. Data analysis

10 A Random Coefficient Regression Model (RCRM) approach with Maximum 11 Likelihood estimation method was used with the R package lme4 (Bates et al., 2015). Firstly, intra-class correlations with null models were examined for all study variables. Secondly, as 12 13 time-series data violate the assumption that residual effects are independent, level-1 models 14 were developed that accounted for residual autocorrelation in the data (i.e., controlling for 15 lagged parameters, variables at t-1) (Doron & Martinent, 2017, 2021). Moreover, group mean 16 centring was used for all (Level 1) predictors based on the rationale that no centring may produce biased point estimates (Doron & Martinent, 2016). Thirdly, to examine within-17 18 individual (level-1) relationships between the study variables and test mediation effects, a series 19 of RCRMs was performed between stress appraisal, coping, subjective performance and 20 burnout, where (a) stress appraisal was regressed onto coping (see Figure 1), and (b) stress appraisal and coping were regressed onto subjective performance and burnout (see Figure 1). 21 22 Results of RCRMs were adjusted for multiple comparisons with a Bonferroni adjustment (p < p.007 for model A, and p < .006 for model B). Finally, the Monte Carlo Method for Assessing 23 24 Mediation (MCMAM, Selig & Preacher, 2008) was used to explore the mediating effects of coping on the relationship between stress appraisal and subjective performance (see Figure 1)
 and between stress appraisal and burnout (see Figure 1).

3 2.4. Transparency and openness

Due to the elite sport context and thus the data's confidential nature, the data is not available. The codes for the RCRMs and the questionnaire used in this study are available in the supplementary material and/or upon request from the corresponding author. The study was not preregistered.

8 **3. Results** 

The intra-class correlations (ICC =  $\tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2)$ ) showed that between-individual 9 10 variance represented 37% to 77% of total variance for all variables (see Table A in the 11 supplementary material). This indicated that within-individual variance represented 23% to 12 63% of total variance, suggesting that variables varied across weeks and thus strengthening the 13 RCRM approach adopted in this study. Lagged parameters (variables at t-1) were significant predictors of perceived stress ( $\gamma_{10} = .36$ , p < .01), individual subjective performance ( $\gamma_{10} = .23$ , 14 15 p < .01), physical exhaustion ( $\gamma_{10} = .30$ , p < .01) and reduced sense of accomplishment ( $\gamma_{10} = .01$ ) 16 .30, p < .001) (see Table A). Although not all lagged parameters were significant predictors, 17 repeated measure designs violate the assumption that residual effects are independent. Thus, all 18 subsequent level-1 models controlled for lagged effects.

19 3.1. Relationship between stress appraisal, individual coping, subjective performance and
20 burnout

21 When stress appraisal was entered as a predictor of individual coping, stress mindset 22 (i.e., stress-is-enhancing mindset) significantly positively predicted mastery coping ( $\beta = .33$ , p23 = .000) (see Table 2). When stress appraisal and individual coping were entered as predictors 24 of individual subjective performance and burnout, stress mindset (i.e., stress-is-enhancing 25 mindset) significantly positively predicted individual subjective performance ( $\beta = .25$ , p = .000)

and negatively reduced sense of accomplishment ( $\beta = -.20$ , p = .002); in addition, goalwithdrawal coping significantly positively predicted negative feelings toward sport ( $\beta = .22$ , p= .004) (see Table 2). The results of the Monte Carlo Method for Assessing Mediation indicated that (1) mastery coping mediated the relationship between stress mindset and reduced sense of accomplishment (95% CI [-.15, -.02]), and (2) goal-withdrawal coping mediated the relationship between stress mindset and negative feelings towards sport (95% CI [-.08, -.00]) (see Figure 2).

8

#### [INSERT TABLE 2 HERE]

9 3.2. Relationship between stress appraisal, interpersonal coping, subjective performance and
10 burnout

11 When stress appraisal was entered as a predictor of interpersonal coping, stress mindset 12 (i.e., stress-is-enhancing mindset) significantly positively predicted relationship-focused 13 coping ( $\beta = .23$ , p = .001); and collective perception of control significantly positively predicted problem-focused interpersonal efforts ( $\beta = .22$ , p = .005) and interpersonal management of 14 15 emotions ( $\beta = .22$ , p = .003) (see Table 3). When stress appraisal and interpersonal coping were 16 entered as predictors of individual and collective subjective performance and burnout, stress 17 mindset (i.e., stress-is-enhancing mindset) significantly positively predicted individual subjective performance ( $\beta = .28$ , p = .000), and negatively reduced sense of accomplishment ( $\beta$ 18 19 = -.25, p = .000) (see Table 3). The results of the Monte Carlo Method for Assessing Mediation 20 indicated that interpersonal management of emotions mediated the relationship between 21 collective perception of control and collective subjective performance (95% CI [.00, .07]) (see 22 Figure 2).

- 23[INSERT TABLE 3 HERE]24[INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE]
- 25
- 26 **4. Discussion**

1 The present study aimed to longitudinally track and explore the dynamic relationships 2 between stress appraisal, individual and interpersonal coping responses in relation to subjective 3 performance and burnout during the particularly stressful qualification phase for the Tokyo 4 2020 Olympics. The originality of the study stems from the implementation of methodological 5 and statistical approaches allowing the real-time capture of the psychological adaptation 6 processes and their associated outcomes among an elite artistic swimming team over the course 7 of an unprecedented stressful context of interest. Thus, the findings provide a new overview of 8 the dynamic and ongoing process-like nature of the relationships between stress appraisal, 9 individual and interpersonal coping response, subjective performance and burnout during the 10 Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games qualification phase.

11 From an intrapersonal perspective, the results of model A (see Figure 1) firstly revealed 12 a dynamic relationship between stress appraisal and individual coping (hypothesis 1, model A). 13 Results showed that stress mindset was positively related to mastery coping over the course of 14 the Olympic Games qualification phase. This result provided additional support to the positive 15 links between a stress-is-enhancing mindset and coping behaviours oriented toward the task 16 and goals, as well as new insight regarding the dynamic nature of this relationship over time 17 (e.g., Crum et al., 2013). Contrary to expectations, perceived stress was not related to individual 18 coping (Gaudreau et al., 2010). Thus, perceived stress does not appear to be the best indicator 19 in understanding the psychological adaptation of elite athletes over the course of a challenging 20 period (Crum et al., 2013). Moreover, perception of control was not associated with individual coping. This unexpected result could potentially be explained by the particular context related 21 22 to the COVID-19 outbreak during which this study was conducted and the lack of control felt by elite athletes during this unprecedented situation (Szczypińska et al., 2021). 23

24 Secondly, the dynamic relationships between stress appraisal, individual coping, and 25 subjective performance were examined (hypothesis 2, model A). Results showed that stress

1 mindset (i.e., stress-is-enhancing mindset) was positively associated with individual subjective 2 performance, supporting the conclusions of previous studies conducted in the field of work 3 psychology showing that perceiving stress as favourable for performance promotes effective functioning and performance (Crum et al., 2013). However, individual coping was not related 4 5 to individual subjective performance, and no mediational effects of coping were observed 6 between stress appraisal and individual subjective performance over the course of the qualifying period (hypotheses 2 and 3, model A). This result differed from previous research emphasising 7 8 the mediating role played by coping in the relationship between stress appraisal and 9 performance over the course of competitive events (Doron & Martinent, 2017, 2021). This could be explained by the lack of competitions due to the COVID-19 outbreak during the Tokyo 10 11 2020 Olympic Games qualification phase, leading swimmers to associate the notion of 12 performance with the work carried out in training, which differs from the usual challenging 13 performance environment related to sport competitions (Doron & Martinent, 2021).

14 Thirdly, the dynamic relationships between stress appraisal, individual coping, and 15 burnout were investigated (hypothesis 2, model A). Results showed that stress mindset as stress-16 is-enhancing was negatively related to reduced sense of accomplishment. In a similar way to 17 the relationships reported between stress mindset and well-being of workers (Crum et al., 2013), the way elite athletes interpreted the effects of stress were associated with changes in the 18 19 dimensions of burnout during the qualification phase for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games. 20 Overall, this study addressed the limitations of previous studies by examining the role of stress appraisal in relation to the changes in burnout dimensions over the course of Olympic 21 22 qualification (Madigan et al., 2020; Martinent & Decret, 2015; Pires & Ugrinowitsch, 2021; 23 Schellenberg et al., 2013).

24 Multilevel analyses also showed that goal-withdrawal coping was positively associated 25 with negative feelings toward sport. As previously shown, goal-withdrawal coping strategies

1 were associated with burnout development (Madigan et al., 2020; Schellenberg et al., 2013). 2 Furthermore, the mediating role of coping within dynamic relationships between stress 3 appraisal and burnout was supported (hypothesis 4, model A). Two distinct patterns of psychological adaptation were highlighted: one adaptive, where mastery coping mediated the 4 5 dynamic relationship between stress mindset (i.e., stress-is-enhancing mindset) and burnout 6 (i.e., reduced sense of accomplishment); another maladaptive, where goal-withdrawal coping 7 mediated the dynamic relationship between stress mindset (i.e., stress-is-debilitating mindset) 8 and burnout (i.e., negative feelings towards sport). These results extend previous studies by 9 highlighting the mediating role of coping in the stress appraisal-burnout relationship over time (Madigan et al., 2020; Pires & Ugrinowitsch, 2021; Schellenberg et al., 2013). They also 10 11 support the central role of stress mindset in protecting from burnout through the differentiated 12 use of adaptive coping strategies (i.e., mastery coping) vs. maladaptive coping strategies (i.e., 13 goal-withdrawal coping) over time and during stressful circumstances (Crum et al., 2013).

14 From an interpersonal perspective, the results of model B (see Figure 1) showed a 15 complementary overview of the dynamic relationships between psychological adaptation 16 processes, and their links with subjective performance and burnout during the Tokyo 2020 17 Olympic Games qualification. Results showed that a stress-is-enhancing mindset was positively related to relationship-focused coping, and that collective perception of control was positively 18 19 related to problem-focused interpersonal efforts and interpersonal management of emotions 20 (hypothesis 1, model B). Accordingly, stress mindset and collective perception of control 21 appeared to play a significant role in the use of specific interpersonal coping strategies when 22 elite athletes deal with shared challenges and demands over the course of the Olympic Games 23 qualification phase. The absence of any significant links between individual perception of 24 control and interpersonal coping may reinforce the specificity of the psychological adaptation patterns at interpersonal level (Tamminen & Gaudreau, 2014). Given that this study was the 25

first to report dynamic relationships between stress appraisal and interpersonal coping during
 an Olympic qualification phase, further investigation is needed (Nicholls & Levy, 2016;
 Tamminen & Gaudreau, 2014).

4 Moreover, the mediating role of interpersonal coping was supported within the dynamic relationship between collective perception of control and collective performance (hypothesis 3, 5 6 model B). While this result did not support the traditional principles of the goodness-of-fit theory regarding the intrapersonal approach of stress appraisal and coping (Folkman, 1992; 7 8 Park et al., 2004), it showed that within the particular context of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic 9 Games team qualification, the match between collective perception of control and interpersonal 10 management of emotions appeared more effective for team performance. This result adds a 11 further equivocal result to previous research in sport regarding the relationship between 12 perception of control and forms of internal regulation coping (Poliseo & McDonough, 2012) 13 and invites researchers to reconsider the effectiveness of this relationship in specific stressful 14 contexts. Thus, this study provides new insights regarding the specificity of the psychological 15 adaptation of elite teams to the various fluctuating demands of the particularly stressful 16 qualifying period for the Tokyo 2020 Olympics (Poliseo & McDonough, 2012). This study 17 therefore extends knowledge on the dynamics of psychological adaptation processes in relation to performance fluctuations from an interpersonal perspective (Nicholls & Levy, 2016; 18 19 Tamminen & Gaudreau, 2014). Contrary to expectations, burnout was not associated with 20 interpersonal coping, and no mediational effects of interpersonal coping were observed between stress appraisal and burnout (hypotheses 2 and 4, model B). It had been expected that facing 21 22 stressful situations collectively could protect athletes from mental health problems such as burnout (Lyons et al., 1998). However, the fact that burnout was only measured at individual 23 24 level may explain this result. Only collective perception of control was negatively related to

1 reduced sense of accomplishment, suggesting, from an interpersonal perspective, that a lack of 2 control was an early symptom that could lead to burnout (Gustafsson et al., 2011).

3 Several limitations should be mentioned in this study. Firstly, this study was conducted 4 with a small sample of French elite artistic swimmers. Although these results extend knowledge 5 on the dynamic relationships between stress appraisal, coping, performance and burnout over the specific course of Olympic qualification, it remains difficult to generalise these results to 6 7 other samples (e.g., other teams, other sports), other contexts and other countries/cultures. It 8 could be interesting to investigate these dynamic relationships with other teams from different 9 countries and in different sports over the course of an Olympic Games qualifying phase without pandemic. Secondly, only one team was included in this research, inhibiting the use of 10 11 multilevel analyses in order to examine the sharing of psychological adaptation processes at 12 team level (i.e., collective perception of control, interpersonal coping strategies and collective 13 performance within the team) (Gaudreau et al., 2020). The inclusion of several teams in future 14 studies could confirm the shared nature of the interpersonal psychological adaptation processes. 15 Thirdly, in order to facilitate elite athletes' engagement in the protocol, especially over this 16 particular period, a single-item approach was preferred. However, it should be acknowledged 17 that this approach limits the ability to provide indicators of reliability and validity of the 18 measurement (Allen et al., 2022; Ptacek et al., 1994) and may not be sufficient, in particular, to 19 capture the complex nature of stress appraisal and coping. Future studies could use traditional 20 questionnaires for stress appraisal (e.g., Stress Mindset Measure, Crum et al., 2013) and coping (see Crocker et al., 2015, for a review). Moreover, core elements linked to primary (i.e., 21 22 perceptions of challenge, threat, harm/loss) and secondary (i.e., perceived coping resources) appraisals were not assessed in the present study. Future studies should asses more exhaustively 23 24 stress appraisals (Lazarus, 1991, 1999).

1 Despite these limitations, this study makes some new contributions regarding the 2 psychological adaptation processes of elite athletes over the course of the qualification phase 3 for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games, disrupted by the COVID-19 outbreak. By capturing these processes and their associated outcomes (i.e., subjective performance and burnout) in real time 4 5 and prospectively over the course of a stressful six-month period, this study provides insights 6 into the ways elite athletes effectively managed the chronic and challenging demands associated 7 with an Olympic Games qualifying phase compounded by the additional stress of the COVID-8 19 outbreak (e.g., uncertainty, cancellation and postponement of qualifying competitions, risk 9 of the cancellation of the Olympic Games). As such, stress mindset and mastery coping seem to play key roles in athletes' psychological adaptation and help them to mitigate maladaptive 10 11 stress-related outcomes over time (Crum et al., 2013). This study therefore underlines the need 12 to consider stress mindset rather than stress intensity in future research on psychological 13 adaptation processes of athletes in sport performance contexts.

14 Furthermore, this study highlights the dynamic relationships between stress appraisal 15 and interpersonal coping in relation to team performance during an Olympic qualification 16 phase. Specifically, perceived control at group level and the use of interpersonal management 17 of emotions seem to help elite athletes maintain collective performance when the performance environment is unusual and uncertain. These findings call for further investigation of the 18 19 goodness-of-fit hypothesis in the sport context, and specifically between perception of control 20 and forms of internal regulation coping of athletes at both individual and team levels (Poliseo & McDonough, 2012). This new knowledge on the psychological adaptation process of elite 21 22 teams facing a particularly challenging period should encourage researchers to consider the 23 social context in which athletes evolve and its potential implication on stress and coping 24 processes (Nicholls & Levy, 2016; Tamminen & Gaudreau, 2014). In addition, these results also provide preliminary support for an extension of the CMRT of emotions (Lazarus, 1991, 25

1999) at the interpersonal level, taking into consideration the social context within which athlete
 coping is embedded.

3 From an applied perspective, stress management intervention could be oriented toward 4 the development of a stress mindset and mastery coping strategies in order to improve 5 performance and protect athletes from symptoms of burnout (Crum et al., 2013). Elite athletes 6 could be taught to develop a stress-is-enhancing mindset, in which stress can be viewed as 7 having positive consequences on their performance or mental health, as well as to use adaptive 8 coping strategies such as mastery coping (e.g., planification, effort expenditure). These 9 interventions may offer effective ways to manage chronic stress and prevent negative effects 10 on athletes' mental health (Hagger et al., 2020).

At the team level, these interventions could also integrate content related to the development of a collective perception of control and collective coping strategies such as interpersonal management of emotions in order to enhance team performance. Team athletes could be taught to recognise their emotions and those of others, and to regulate them (Campo et al., 2016). Given that the Tokyo 2020 Olympics qualification phase was unprecedented, with high levels of uncertainty for athletes, focusing on regulation of emotions would seem to be the most effective team's coping strategy to maintain team performance.

Finally, it may be worthwhile to monitor the psychological adaptation processes closely in relation to the development of burnout among groups of elite athletes at risk, such as artistic swimmers, and specifically over the course of a particular period of stress. In this way, from a practical perspective, sport psychologists and coaches could be made aware in real time of changes in the psychological adaptation processes, burnout and performance of their athletes or teams, allowing them to adapt training and improve individual and team resources.

#### 24 **5.** Conclusion

1 To conclude, the present study provides a more detailed understanding of the 2 psychological adaptation of elite athletes during the qualification for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic 3 Games. This study highlights different patterns of psychological adaptation processes at 4 individual and interpersonal levels: adaptive (i.e., between stress mindset and mastery coping; 5 and between collective control and interpersonal management of emotions) and maladaptive 6 (i.e., between stress mindset and goal-withdrawal coping) as regards performance and burnout 7 in this unprecedented stressful context. Consequently, frequent longitudinal assessment of 8 changes in psychological adaptation processes in relation to burnout and performance 9 fluctuations appears important in preventing elite athletes from developing burnout and a 10 deterioration in individual or team performance, especially in chronic and challenging situations 11 of stress. Furthermore, the present study is the first to investigate interpersonal coping 12 dynamically, and thus provides the first empirical evidence of the importance of others in 13 dealing with stressful situations (Tamminen & Neely, 2021). This study therefore underlines the need to consider the social nature of the psychological adaptation processes when elite 14 15 athletes deal with shared demands and challenges.

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# Table 1

# Definitions of the study variables using a definitional approach.

Variables	Definitions	Examples						
Mastery coping	These strategies aim to take control of a stressful situation and	1 I analyse the situation to find solutions to						
	eliminate the stressor.	the problem. I focus on what I have to do.						
Internal regulation coping	These strategies aim to manage internal responses to stress.	I accept my thoughts, emotions and						
		sensations. I seek support from others.						
Goal-withdrawal coping	These strategies aim to cease efforts to achieve a goal.	I get discouraged. I reduce my efforts.						
Problem-focused	These strategies aim to implement actions, generate efforts, and/or	We think of solutions to solve the problem.						
interpersonal efforts	increase own resources to collectively deal with a stressful situation.	We redouble our efforts.						
Interpersonal management	These strategies aim to collectively manage the emotions, thoughts	We talk to each other to reassure each other.						
of emotions	and feelings induced by a source of stress when they interfere with	We laugh to play down the situation.						
	the performance or optimal functioning of a group/team.							
Interpersonal-goal	These strategies aim at withdrawal from a stressful situation. They	We give up. We get angry and express our						
withdrawal	are observed in collective behaviours in which the stressful situation	frustrations.						
	is avoided and, consequently, involve disengagement from the task							
	and a move away from the group/team objective.							
Relationship-focused	These strategies aim to maintain relationships between members of	We motivate ourselves. We encourage each						
coping	the same group/team during a stressful situation.	other. We gather.						

#### Table 2

Random-coefficient regression models of individual coping, subjective performance, and burnout controlling for lagged effects.

	Fixed effect								Randor	n effects	_2*	
Model equations	γ <sub>00</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>10</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>20</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>30</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>40</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>50</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>60</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>70</sub> (SE)	$\sigma^2$ (SD)	$\tau_{00}$ (SD)	loglikelihood	
$MC_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} (MC_{ij,t-1}) + \beta_{2j} (Perceived stress_{ij}) + \beta_{3j} (Stress)$	3.31**	10	.02	.33**	.01	-	-	-	.63	.21	324.9	
mindset <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$	(.21)	(.06)	(.04)	(.04)	(.05)				(.80)	(.46)		
$IRC_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} (IRC_{ij,t-1}) + \beta_{2j} (Perceived stress_{ij}) + \beta_{3j} (Stress)$	3.13**	07	04	.06	.16*	-	-	-	.49	.45	464.9	
mindset <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta$ 4j (Individual control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$	(.19)	(.07)	(.06)	(.06)	(.07)				(.70)	(.67)		
$GWC_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} (GWC_{ij,t-1}) + \beta_{2j} (Perceived stress_{ij}) + \beta_{3j} (Stress)$	1.51**	.17*	.08	15*	.11	-	-	-	1.85	.50	505.6	
mindset <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{4j}$ (Individual control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$	(.36)	(.07)	(.06)	(.06)	(.07)				(1.36)	(.71)		
Individual performance <sub>ij</sub> = $\beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}$ (Individual performance <sub>ij,t-1</sub> ) +	2.38**	.15*	00	.25**	.03	.12	00	.00	.60	.39	439.5	
$\beta_{2i}$ (Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3i}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual	(.21)	(.07)	(.05)	(.07)	(.06)	(.10)	(.07)	(.06)	(.78)	(.62)		
control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{5j}$ (MC <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{6j}$ (IRC <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{7j}$ (GWC <sub>ij</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$												
Negative feelings <sub>ij</sub> = $\beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}$ (Negative feelings <sub>ij,t-1</sub> ) + $\beta_{2j}$	2.43**	.11	16*	10	01	22	15	.22**	2.40	.56	531.1	
(Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3i}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual	(.40)	(.07)	(.06)	(.08)	(.08)	(.12)	(.08)	(.08)	(1.55)	(.75)		
control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (MC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{6i}$ (IRC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{7i}$ (GWC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $r_{ii}$												
Physical exhaustion <sub>ij</sub> = $\beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}$ (Physical exhaustion <sub>ij,t-1</sub> ) + $\beta_{2j}$	3.10**	.31**	.13*	00	.05	.07	.16*	.03	1.17	.53	507.9	
(Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3i}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual	(.29)	(.07)	(.06)	(.08)	(.07)	(.16)	(.08)	(.07)	(1.08)	(.73)		
control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (MC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{6i}$ (IRC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{7i}$ (GWC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $r_{ii}$												
Reduced accomplishment <sub>ii</sub> = $\beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}$ (Reduced accomplishment <sub>ii,t</sub> -	2.82**	.22**	.05	20**	03	24*	.10	.00	.80	.37	431.9	
1) + $\beta_{2i}$ (Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3i}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual	(.24)	(.06)	(.05)	(.06)	(.06)	(.10)	(.07)	(.06)	(.89)	(.61)		
control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (MC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{6i}$ (IRC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{7i}$ (GWC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$		. /	. /	. /	. /	. /	. ,	. /		. /		
$\beta = \alpha + U + \beta = \alpha + U$												

 $\frac{\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + U_{0j}; \beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} \text{ or } \beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + U_{1j}; \beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + U_{2j}; \beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + U_{2j}; \beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30} + U_{3j}; \beta_{4j} = \gamma_{40} + U_{4j}; \beta_{5j} = \gamma_{50} + U_{5j}; \beta_{6j} = \gamma_{60} + U_{6j}; \beta_{7j} = \gamma_{70} + U_{7j}}{Note. MC} = Mastery coping; IRC = Internal regulation coping; GWC = Goal-withdrawal coping; SE = Standard error; SD = Standard deviation; \gamma_{00} = intercept$ of level-2 regression predicting  $\beta_{0j}$ ;  $\gamma_{10}$ ,  $\gamma_{20}$ ,  $\gamma_{30}$ ,  $\gamma_{40}$ ,  $\gamma_{50}$ ,  $\gamma_{60}$  and  $\gamma_{70}$  = intercept of level-2 regression predicting  $\beta_{1j}$ ,  $\beta_{2j}$ ,  $\beta_{3j}$ ,  $\beta_{4j}$ ,  $\beta_{5j}$ ,  $\beta_{6j}$  and  $\beta_{7j}$ ;  $\sigma^2$  = var( $\mathbf{r}_{ij}$ ) variance in level-1 residual (i.e., variance in  $\mathbf{T}_{ij}$ );  $\tau_{00}$  = var( $\mathbf{U}_{0j}$ ) variance in level-2 residual (i.e., variance in  $\mathbf{U}_{0j}$ ); \* p < .05, \*\* p < .007 (Bonferroni adjustment)

### Table 3

Random-coefficient regression models of interpersonal coping, subjective performance, and burnout controlling for lagged effects.

	Fixed effect							Random effects		-2*			
Model equations	γ <sub>00</sub> (SE)	$\gamma_{10}$ (SE)	γ <sub>20</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>30</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>40</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>50</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>60</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>70</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>80</sub> (SE)	γ <sub>90</sub> (SE)	$\sigma^2$ (SD)	τ <sub>00</sub> (SD)	lihood
$PFIE_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} (PFIE_{ij,t-1}) + \beta_{2j} (Perceived stress_{ij}) + \beta_{3j}$	3.27**	.23**	.02	.13*	07	.22**	-	-	-	-	.48	.44	459.9
(Stress mindset <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{4j}$ (Individual control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{5j}$ (Collective control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$	(.19)	(.07)	(.05)	(.06)	(.07)	(.08)					(.69)	(.66)	
$IME_{ii} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i} (IME_{ii,t-1}) + \beta_{2i} (Perceived stress_{ii}) + \beta_{3i} (Stress)$	3.13**	.04	03	.02	12	.22**	-	-	-	-	.51	.40	441.2
mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (Collective control <sub>ii</sub> )	(.19)	(.07)	(.05)	(.06)	(.07)	(.07)					(.72)	(.63)	
$+ r_{ii}$													
$IGW_{ii} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i} (IGW_{ii} + 1) + \beta_{2i} (Perceived stress_{ii}) + \beta_{3i}$	1.39**	.09	.02	10	.08	.02	-	-	-	-	1.76	.38	452.9
(Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (Collective	(.35)	(.06)	(.05)	(.06)	(.07)	(.07)					(1.3	(.62)	
$control_{ii}$ ) + $r_{ii}$	× ,					~ /					3)	· /	
$RFC_{ii} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i} (RFC_{ii,t-1}) + \beta_{2i} (Perceived stress_{ii}) + \beta_{3i} (Stress)$	3.32**	01	.06	.23**	.04	.13	-	-	-	-	.68	.55	508.3
mindset <sub>ii</sub> + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (Collective control <sub>ii</sub> ) +	(.22)	(.07)	(.06)	(.07)	(.08)	(.09)					(.83)	(.74)	
r <sub>ii</sub>	· · /	· /		× /		· /					· · /	· /	
Individual performance <sub>ij</sub> = $\beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}$ (Individual performance <sub>ij,t-1</sub> )	2.38**	.16*	00	.28**	.01	.06	.01	.10	03	.00	.60	.39	437.7
+ $\beta_{2i}$ (Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3i}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$	(.21)	(.07)	(.05)	(.06)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)	(.08)	(.07)	(.06)	(.77)	(.62)	
(Individual control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{5j}$ (Collective control <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{6j}$ (PFIE <sub>ij</sub> ) +													
$\beta_{7j}$ (IME <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{8j}$ (IGW <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{9j}$ (RFC <sub>ij</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$													
Collective performance <sub>ij</sub> = $\beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}$ (Collective performance <sub>ij,t-1</sub> )	3.07**	.13	05	.03	02	.02	.05	.13*	.03	.09	.18	.24	327.5
+ $\beta_{2i}$ (Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3j}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$	(.12)	(.07)	(.04)	(.05)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.05)	(.43)	(.49)	
(Individual control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (Collective control <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{6i}$ (PFIE <sub>ii</sub> ) +													
$\beta_{7j}$ (IME <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{8j}$ (IGW <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{9j}$ (RFC <sub>ij</sub> ) + $r_{ij}$													
Negative feelings <sub>ij</sub> = $\beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}$ (Negative feelings <sub>ij,t-1</sub> ) + $\beta_{2j}$	2.44**	.14	14*	18*	01	03	.03	09	.12	07	2.39	.60	542.8
(Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3i}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual	(.40)	(.07)	(.06)	(.07)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.08)	(1.5	(.77)	
$control_{ij}$ ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (Collective $control_{ij}$ ) + $\beta_{6i}$ (PFIE <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{7i}$ (IME <sub>ij</sub> ) +											5)		
$\beta_{8i}$ (IGW <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{9i}$ (RFC <sub>ii</sub> ) + $r_{ii}$													
Physical exhaustion <sub>ij</sub> = $\beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}$ (Physical exhaustion <sub>ij,t-1</sub> ) + $\beta_{2j}$	3.10**	.30**	.12	.01	.08	02	.07	07	.02	.04	1.19	.54	511.7
(Perceived stress <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{3i}$ (Stress mindset <sub>ii</sub> ) + $\beta_{4i}$ (Individual	(.29)	(.07)	(.06)	(.07)	(.08)	(.09)	(.08)	(.09)	(.09)	(.07)	(1.0	(.73)	
$control_{ij}$ ) + $\beta_{5i}$ (Collective control_{ij}) + $\beta_{6i}$ (PFIE <sub>ij</sub> ) + $\beta_{7i}$ (IME <sub>ii</sub> ) +											9)		
$\beta_{8j} (IGW_{ij}) + \beta_{9j} (RFC_{ij}) + r_{ij}$													

Reduced accomplishment<sub>ii</sub> =  $\beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}$  (Reduced 2.81\*\* .23\*\* -.25\*\* .08 -.19\* 430.6 .05 -.05 .06 .04 .02 .79 .36 accomplishment<sub>ij,t-1</sub>) +  $\beta_{2j}$  (Perceived stress<sub>ij</sub>) +  $\beta_{3j}$  (Stress (.07) (.07) (.07) (.06) (.23)(.06)(.05)(.06) (.07) (.07) (.89) (.60) mindset<sub>ii</sub>) +  $\beta_{4i}$  (Individual control<sub>ii</sub>) +  $\beta_{5i}$  (Collective control<sub>ii</sub>) +  $\beta_{6i}$  (PFIE<sub>ii</sub>) +  $\beta_{7i}$  (IME<sub>ii</sub>) +  $\beta_{8i}$  (IGW<sub>ii</sub>) +  $\beta_{9i}$  (RFC<sub>ii</sub>) +  $r_{ii}$  $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + U_{0j}; \ \beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} \text{ or } \beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + U_{1j}; \ \beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + U_{2j}; \ \beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + U_{2j}; \ \beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30} + U_{3j}; \ \beta_{4j} = \gamma_{40} + U_{4j}; \ \beta_{5j} = \gamma_{50} + U_{5j}; \ \beta_{6j} = \gamma_{60} + U_{6j}; \ \beta_{7j} = \gamma_{70} + U_{7j}; \ \beta_{8j} = \gamma_{80} + U_{8j}; \ \beta_{9i} = \gamma_{90} + U_{9i}; \ \beta_{9i} = \gamma_{90} + U_{9i}; \ \beta_{9i} = \gamma_{90} + U_{2j}; \ \beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + U_{2j}; \ \beta_{2$ 

*Note*. PFIE = Problem-focused interpersonal efforts; IME = Interpersonal management of emotions; IGW = Interpersonal goal-withdrawal; RFC = Relationship-focused coping; SE = Standard error; SD = Standard deviation;  $\gamma_{00}$  = intercept of level-2 regression predicting  $\beta_{0j}$ ;  $\gamma_{10}$ ,  $\gamma_{20}$ ,  $\gamma_{30}$ ,  $\gamma_{40}$ ,  $\gamma_{50}$ ,  $\gamma_{60}$ ,  $\gamma_{70}$ ,  $\gamma_{80}$  and  $\gamma_{90}$  = intercept of level-2 regression predicting  $\beta_{1j}$ ,  $\beta_{2j}$ ,  $\beta_{3j}$ ,  $\beta_{4j}$ ,  $\beta_{5j}$ ,  $\beta_{6j}$ ,  $\beta_{7j}$ ,  $\beta_{8j}$  and  $\beta_{9j}$ ;  $\sigma^2$  = var( $r_{ij}$ ) variance in level-1 residual (i.e., variance in  $r_{ij}$ );  $\tau_{00}$  = var( $U_{0j}$ ) variance in level-2 regression predicting  $\mu_{1j}$ ;  $\tau_{00}$  = var( $U_{0j}$ ) variance in level-2 residual (i.e., variance in  $U_{0j}$ );  $\star p < .05$ ,  $\star \star p < .006$  (Bonferroni adjustment)

#### Figure 1



Representation of the hypothesised models.

*Note.* These models were tested through a longitudinal design. Expected positive links are reported as full lines, and expected negative links as dotted lines.

#### Figure 2

Representation of the significant results



Note. Positive links are reported as full lines, negative links as dotted lines, and mediations as bold lines.