CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A careful study and exploration of the selected literature for present study is essential to have insight into work already done within the field. In our country, very little research work has been done as compared to other countries in relation to the field. The scholar has given a deep thinking to those studies and has gained valuable methodological hints from their procedure and findings which were of great importance in the formulation of the research problem. A brief review of related studies in the area of relational health, perceived stress, coping and athlete satisfaction were presented in this chapter.

Relational Health

Arce-Natalie-F (2004) studied racial differences in the relational health and depressive symptoms of college women. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among peer, mentor, and community relational health and depressive symptoms in a racially diverse sample of college women. An additional purpose was to determine whether racial differences exist among the levels of depression and relational health in college women. The study was grounded in the Relational-Cultural Theory. A convenient sample of undergraduate women was drawn from selected classes and campus organizational listservs. A total of 602 participants completed an on-line survey, which included the Relational Health Indices, the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale, and nine demographic questions. Data were analyzed using ANOVA and regression equations. Post-hoc tests were conducted to analyze variables that demonstrated a significant main effect for race.
Results indicated a significant negative association among depressive symptoms and peer, mentor, and community relational health in college women. Racial differences were found for depressive symptoms, mentor relational health, and community relational health. Findings suggest that growth-fostering peer, mentor, and community relationships may serve as a protective factor against depression for diverse groups of college women. Results of the study are presented, limitations are addressed, and the implications with regard to theory, practice, and research are discussed.

Liang (2002) examined a new measure of women's relationships, the Relational Health Indices (RHI), comprises three scales that assess growth fostering connections with peers, mentors, and communities. The RHI was developed using the Relational Model (Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver, Surrey, 1991; Miller & Stiver, 1997), a theory of women's psychological development. The 37-item measure assesses three conceptual dimensions of growth-fostering relationships: engagement, authenticity, and empowerment/zest. This study examined the psychometric properties of the RHI with a group of 450 students at a women's Liberal Arts College, providing evidence for the reliability, validity, and utility of the new measure. The factor analyses confirmed a three-subscale structure: engagement, authenticity and empowerment/zest. The RHI's components generally demonstrate good overall internal consistency. Furthermore, associations between RHI scales and convergent validation scales were significant and in the direction hypothesized. Correlations with adjustment scales varied across the RHI components. The RHI has potential for enriching our understanding of important, subtle qualities and complex dynamics of both dyadic and group relationships, especially among women. The instrument is available for use by researchers interested in continuing the scale and theory development.
Belle Liang (2004) investigated the popularity of mentoring programmes; the relational dimension of mentoring has not been elucidated. Traditional conceptions of mentoring may exclude factors that are particularly important for women and girls, thus limiting the efficacy of mentoring programmes for female adolescents. Belle Liang suggests that the presence of relational qualities in the mentoring relationship (e.g., empathy, engagement, authenticity, and empowerment) strongly influences the success of mentoring in the lives of young women. In this study, Belle Liang uses a promising new measure of mentoring, the Relational Health Index – Mentor, to explore the impact of relational aspects of mentoring in female college students. Liang found that mentoring relationships high in relational qualities were associated with higher self-esteem and less loneliness.

Liang et al. (2002) developed an instrument called the Relational Health Indices (RHI) designed to assess engagement/empathy, authenticity, and empowerment/zest in three contexts: close friend, mentor, and community relationships. Examining Relational Health across three relational contexts allows for a more complex and nuanced picture, which is important given that people simultaneously engage in various types of intimate and meaningful relationships. The psychometric properties of the Relational Health Indices were initially tested in a sample of young women; and the Relational Health Indices were found to be reliable, valid, and useful measures of growth-fostering relationships. Specifically, the factor analyses confirmed a three subscale structure, supporting the theory-based proposition that individuals make distinctions based on three types of relational qualities: engagement/ empathy, authenticity, and empowerment. The internal consistency investigation suggested good reliability for each of the three composite indices.
(i.e., close friend, mentor, and community) and the authenticity, engagement/empathy and empowerment subscales. Finally, the significant positive correlations between the RHI and measures assessing similar constructs provided evidence of the RHI’s convergent validity.

According to Gibson (2006) adolescence is marked by physical, cognitive, and social changes which affect how individuals perceive themselves. However, individuals do integrate their perceptions with those of significant others. Adolescents' self-concept is influenced by their relationships with family, peers, mentors, and community groups. In this study, the characteristics of these relationships are examined as well as the perception of parental involvement. The effect of perceived parental involvement and the use of growth-fostering relationships on self-concept were examined using 78 adolescents who were participating in GEAR UP (Gaining Early Awareness of Readiness for Undergraduate Programs). Results support the influence of family, peers, mentors, and involvement in community groups on adolescent self-concept.

Greenleaf, C. and Collins. K, (2001) presented their experiences, thoughts, and struggles in working toward understanding, embracing, and implementing feminist perspectives in scholarship and practice. Mentors, through their encouragement, guidance, and support, have played key roles in growth as feminist sport and exercise psychology professionals. It is through our work with mentors that have moved closer toward understanding and identifying with being feminist scholars. In their research, placed women as the central focus of work, take into account contextual factors, and look toward creating social change. The struggles have faced as young professionals include countering stereotypes of feminism, integrating feminist methodologies and
epistemology into a traditionally logical positivist field, and moving from research findings to creating social change. Looking toward the future, they hope that feminist sport and exercise psychology scholars continue to build a community to share and discuss the issues and struggles of feminist researchers.

**Perceived Stress**

Kontorinakis, Maria (2004) suggested that the stress process model identifies the interrelationships among stressors, stress mediators, and stress outcomes. The main goal of this study is to place perceived discrimination within the stress process and to clarify whether it operates as a stress mediator or an independent stressor that has a significant impact on mental health. Evidence from previous research suggests that discrimination should be studied further in undergraduates. Perceived discrimination is positively associated with education. Some important life events or strains faced by undergraduate students are considered including ending a relationship, financial trouble, and academic crisis, coping with family conflicts, roommate problems, and death of someone important. It was predicted that perceived discrimination mediates the connection between these life events and depressive symptoms. Based on a sample of 3,449 undergraduate students at a state university the relationship between life events and strains, perceived discrimination, and depressive symptoms is evaluated. The results indicate that perceived discrimination is strongly related to depressive symptoms net of other factors. The relationship between life events and depressive symptoms did not change after controlling for perceived discrimination. These results give some evidence that perceived discrimination operates as an independent life event and not a mediator between stressors and stress outcomes.
Marshall, L. L., Nykamp, D. and Allison, A. E (2007) conducted a study to determine the level of perceived stress, strategies employed to ameliorate stress, and mental and physical health-related quality of life (HRQOL) among a sample of doctor of pharmacy students. All third-year pharmacy students were invited to participate in an Institutional Review Board approved study examining stress at two time points during the academic year while students were in required pharmacotherapy modules. The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), a 14-item validated scale by Cohen, was used to measure stress level and reactions to stressful situations. The validated Health Outcome Short Form version 2, 12 item survey, SF-12 HRQOL, was used to measure mental and physical HRQOL. A Personal Survey instrument was designed and used to gather demographic data and strategies students employed to ameliorate stress. Participants were surveyed and will be surveyed again. Responses were anonymous, but surveys were numbered. Correlations will be examined between the PSS, SF-12 HRQOL, and Personal Survey results. Results on the PSS and SF-12 HRQOL will be compared by different groups from the demographic data from the Personal Survey - gender, G.P.A. ranges, and hours employed outside of school. Common strategies employed to ameliorate stress will be reported, including those with positive and negative impact on overall health.

Angela R. Starkweather (2007) examined the Biochemical markers of inflammation which have been used in recent physical activity intervention studies. However, these same biochemical markers, mainly proinflammatory cytokines, may also be influenced by the individual’s level of stress and mood. Accordingly, this pilot study was implemented to determine the effect of a physical activity intervention on perceived stress, mood, quality of life, serum interleukin-6 (IL-6), and cortisol among
10 older adults, age 60 to 90. The results were compared to those of 10 older adults who were not engaging in regular physical activity. The 10-week intervention was applied using student nurses who taught the older adults how to calculate 60% of their maximum heart rate while ambulating for 30-min intervals. After the 10-week period, the participants in the exercise group reported significant improvements in stress, mood, and several quality of life indices. They also demonstrated a significant decrease in serum IL-6. Stress, mood, and quality of life scores in the exercise group were also significantly improved compared to the control group. This study adds information on the specific intensity, duration, and frequency of exercise necessary to achieve improvements in psychological variables and IL-6 levels. It also supports the need to measure psychological stress in physical activity intervention studies. Although the psychological variables were highly correlated, there were only weak correlations found with IL-6, suggesting that other factors are likely involved in reducing IL-6 when engaging in low-impact physical activity.

Erin H. Sitz and Nicholas Poche (1998) investigated the relationship between optimism and perceived stress among 30 males and 30 females at Loyola University. One hypothesis stated that if higher levels of optimism were exhibited, lower levels of perceived stress would also be exhibited. The second hypothesis stated that females would exhibit higher levels of optimism than males, and therefore would exhibit lower levels of perceived stress also. The Life Orientation Test measured optimism and the Perceived Stress Scale measured perceived stress. A Pearson correlation indicated a strong relationship between optimism and perceived stress. However, there was not a strong relationship between gender and optimism or perceived stress.
In 1992, Aspinwall and Taylor studied the relationship between dispositional optimism and perceived stress in college students, by means of the Life Orientation Test and the Perceived Stress Scale. Results showed that students scoring high on the LOT (dispositional optimism) experienced less perceived stress at that point in time and three months later. A strong negative correlation was found between dispositional optimism and perceived stress among 50 UCLA Law students. While much of the research already conducted has authenticated a relationship between optimism and stress, it has not focused much attention on optimism levels and stress levels among gender. Beyond possibly reconfirming a relationship between optimism and stress, it is hoped to confirm a relationship between optimism and gender also. In the studies it is hypothesized that higher optimism levels would negatively correlate with perceived stress and that higher optimism levels would be displayed among females rather than males.

Jennifer Skues and Robert J. Kirkby (1996) found that work stress is costly, not only to the well-being of the individual but also to the efficiency of the employing agency and ultimately to the community at large. Although the last half of the century has seen a substantial increase in women in the paid workforce, investigations into work stress has focused predominantly on the effectiveness and health of males. Although it appears that, in general, women benefit from paid employment, working women can suffer from the increased responsibilities of maintaining both employment and the expected role in the home. Epidemiological data have indicated that not only do women in the larger community have lower mortality and higher morbidity than do men, but also that this pattern holds for those in paid employment. It has been reported that, in particular, health workers are vulnerable to occupational stressors.
Given the high proportions of females working in health care, these findings have important implications for these professions. It is hoped that future research workers will pay increased attention to the particular needs of women in the workforce to manage stress.

Lazarus (1984) and Zajonc (1984) debated on the idea that cognitive or emotional reactions are important in stress reactions. Lazarus contended that cognitive processes of appraisal are central in determining if a situation is potentially threatening or harmful. He, therefore, believed that cognition determined both the perception of stress and the individual’s emotional reaction to it. Zajonc disagreed and stated that simple awareness should not be equated with cognition and that emotional reaction to stress occurs before and may even be at odds with cognitive reactions. In reality, the answer is both because individuals may react first and think later; on the other hand, individuals may not become upset until they finally realize the full meaning of the threat to their situation Aldwin (1994). Mason (2001) defined stress as the way a body responds to negative influences. His studies showed that “external stress may be positive or negative (pleasure, challenge, divorce, work responsibilities)”.

Olsen (1993) reported that stress generally implies a physiological or psychological response to some aspect in the environment that an individual perceives as exceeding personal resources. Allen (1983), however, perceived stress as more than just physiological reactions and included events that triggered mental or cognitive arousal that resulted in psychogenic stress. These reactions, he believed, had possibilities of involving the entire body not just certain parts. Seaward (1997) concurred with Allen’s perception of stress and reported that the perceived stress is
the sum of the individual’s physical and emotional reactions to any stimulus that disturbs the body’s balance. Bradley & Boles (1999), however, defined stress as an external or an internal pressure to act. She stated that the body throughout evolution has responded to stress by “activating a complex system that produces an array of hormones and neurotransmitters, which are intended to help the heart and brain work better physiologically to meet the demand”. Stress definitions included not only these three stresses but also cognitive ones.

Other researchers defined stress as a demand that requires adjustment or adaptation (Witkin, 1991), while Kindler and Ginsburg (1994) characterized stress as the response to external and self-regulated events that push individuals’ abilities and resources to cope. Davidson (1997), labeled stress as wear and tear on the body; however, Looker and Gregson (1997) identified stress as an adaptive response by the body to changes in the environment. They reasoned that stress is a condition in which a mismatch occurs between perceived demands and perceived ability to cope. Other researchers, Miller and Smerglia (1998), defined stress as an individual’s general feeling of uneasiness or displeasure in response to an upsetting life event and the accumulation of other related problems or changes. They divided stress into two concepts. These two concepts are added stress or coincidental contextual stresses and event stresses that are the reactions directly related to a stressful life event. Added or coincidental contextual stress is a result of addition problems and changes that occur simultaneously with the event or primary stress.

Dill and Henley (1998) conducted a survey which found that traditional and non-traditional groups differed in concerns about various areas, including academic concerns, social relations, family and network, autonomy and responsibility, and
intimacy. Traditional students worried more about academic performance and were less likely to enjoy going to classes than nontraditional students. Despite these differences, both groups rated many aspects of college life as being stressful, which could manifest in tension and anxiety despite their traditional or nontraditional status.

Similarly, there are differences in stress, active coping, and academic performance among persisting and non persisting college students. Persisters are defined as those students who remained in courses through an academic year, versus nonpersisters who left after the fall semester. Shields (2001) found that reported stress had a negative effect on grade point average (GPA) among persisters, but there was an indirect positive effect on grades when these students used positive coping skills. Additionally, active coping strategies were strongly related to retention rates among persisters.

This study was unique from the others presented because it took the view that stress did not have to be a negative experience. In other words, the individual can perceive stress as either challenging or threatening. Events that were perceived as challenging led to positive coping responses (trying harder in school) while threatening events were often met with avoidant and negative coping responses such as dropping out, or in this case, nonpersisting in college. This study has important ramifications for understanding better adjustment to college for students who use active coping methods (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992).

Research has also shown that students and faculty at colleges and universities can perceive stress in different ways (Gmelch, Wilke, Lovrich, 1986; Misra, 2000). Misra (2000) examined the academic stress of college students by comparing student and faculty perceptions noted that these two sets of individuals differed significantly
in their perceptions of students’ stressors and reactions to those stressors. This research found that faculty members perceived that their students experienced higher amounts of stress than students actually reported. However, both students and faculty agreed that main sources of student stress are related to competition, meeting deadlines, and interpersonal relationships. Students also reported their reactions to stress in terms of emotional (i.e., fear, anxiety, worry) and cognitive themes (i.e., appraisal of situations and the use of strategies). The study also confirmed other articles’ findings that suggested that students may perceive stress differently by year of school, with the freshman year often being rated as the most stressful (Allen & Hiebert, 1991; Rawson, Bloomer, & Kendall, 1994).

In another study on stress at college, Hudd and colleagues (2000) examined the effects of self-reported stress on health habits, health status, and self-esteem among 225 undergraduate students in randomly selected dorm rooms on-campus. The outcome measures of interest were demographic data, health status and habit data, self-esteem, and frequency of feeling stressed. Over half of the students indicated high levels of stress during a typical semester, as indicated by feeling stressed ‘all, most, or a good bit of the time.’

Females were most likely to be stressed and athletes were reportedly less stressed than non athletes. Stress responses were related to the practice of other health behaviours. Those who experienced high levels of stress were more likely to have had alcohol within the past twenty-four hours and were more likely to eat junk food than lower stressed groups. These findings were confirmed in another study on perceived stress among adults, with higher ratings of stress being associated with negative health behaviours.
Perceived stress may also play a role on one’s reactions to beneficial health messages. Millar (2005) hypothesized that increases in perceived stress would hamper college students’ ability to process messages that encouraged disease detection behaviours. This study used the Perceived Stress Scale to measure current stress experienced in the past month, and other self-report measures that were taken on perceived health status. After students completed the measures, they were asked to read one of six persuasive health messages that encouraged either the performance of a health promotion or disease detection behaviour. After reading the health messages, students were asked to rate their amount of agreement with the message, and they were asked to recall as much of the message as possible by typing what they remembered into a computer. The results indicated that increases in perceived stress were associated with shorter reading times of the health messages and poorer message recall. The implication here, as discussed by the author, is that persons with high stress levels may be prone to avoid health detection behaviours. In college populations in particular this could have serious ramifications for those with sexually transmitted infections, mental health problems, and other health issues that would benefit from early detection and treatment.

The research by Hudd, Dumlao, Erdmann-Sager, Murray, Phan, Soukas, and Yokozura (2000) had the limitation of a low-response rate (approximately 60%), and most of the respondents were seniors and white. Additionally, the researchers required the students to post the completed questionnaires outside of the students’ dorm rooms for pick up, suggesting a potential selection bias among individuals who may have felt freer to disclose certain opinions. The study also did not have a standard index assessing stress, but simply one question measuring this construct. However, this
research showed an existing relationship between perceived stress and unhealthy behaviours, which therefore helped in quantifying the burden of stress among this group.

Other studies suffered from methodological concerns in addition to low response rates such as small study samples and lack of statistical power, non-randomized designs, self-section biases, and short or no follow-up periods. Additionally, some studies measured perceived stress only and did not make any attempts to control for the number of actual or perceived stressful events that were currently in the students’ lives or that had occurred previously (Shields, 2001; Dill & Henley, 1998; Lochbaum, Lutz, Sell, Ready & Carson, 2004).

**Coping Style**

Stewart-Tabatha-Ann (2004) studied emotional coping, internalized shame, self-esteem, and relational health: a cross-sectional study of women who have had weight-loss surgery. Despite significant increases in the requirement of psychological evaluation before surgical interventions to treat obesity, currently there is no standardized assessment protocol. In this study, coping strategies, level of shame, self-esteem, depression, emotional eating, and relational health were examined in women (N = 202) who had weight-loss surgery. Standardized instruments were used in order to develop an assessment protocol. Data were collected online and in person. Results found that low emotional coping, high depression, low self-esteem, high internalized shame, and continued emotional eating were not predictors of overall success at weight loss or amount of regain a patient might experience. In addition, relational health variables of empowerment, authenticity, and engagement did not
predict greater success at weight loss. The type of surgery one had also did not predict overall success at weight loss.

Anshel (2000) examines the sources of acute stress and related coping processes following stressful events in competitive sport for 65 adult (37 males and 28 females), and 74 adolescent (39 males and 35 females) athletes. The sources of intense acute stress and concomitant “typical” coping responses following acute stressors were identified. MANOVA indicated that stress intensity was a function of the type of stressful event. For example, males and adults experienced significantly higher acute stress intensity than females and adolescents, respectively, following performance-related stressors (e.g., making a physical or mental error). However, females reported higher stress intensity than males for the stressor, social evaluation; adolescents were more stressed than adults due to events related to the actions of others (e.g., coach and parents hassling or criticizing, spectators booing). Chi-square analyses indicated significant age and gender differences in the frequency with which selected coping strategies were used as a function of the stressor. For example, males preferred problem-focused coping and females used emotion focused coping after the stressors, experiencing pain and injury, being intimidated by opponents, and parental criticism. However, emotion-focused coping was more common among adolescent males than adolescent females in response to a cheating opponent. Age, gender, and characteristics about the stressful event, supporting the transactional coping model, should jointly be taken into consideration while investigating the coping process in sport. Implications of these results include the need for coaches and parents to be cautious in their communication style when providing critical feedback on performance. In addition, since younger athletes use maladaptive coping skills more
often than older-aged competitors, they are more susceptible to both acute and chronic forms of stress in sport. Examining the manner in which the coping process changes from adolescence to adulthood following stressful events in competitive sport clearly warrants further study.

Tobin et al. (1989) organized coping into two factors called engagement and disengagement coping. Engagement coping involves active efforts to manage the situation as well as efforts to manage emotional responses to the situation. Disengagement coping involves avoiding behaviours to avoid the stressful situation and strategies to avoid thinking about the situation. Engagement and disengagement coping strategies seem particularly useful for categorizing coping in challenging sports events. For example, performance is enhanced when the athlete focuses on the task and is able to block out distractions (engagement coping), whereas performance will suffer if the athlete is self-critical or focuses his or her attention away from the task at hand (disengagement coping).

Kent C. Kowalski’s (2000) studies reported the development and validation of the Coping Function Questionnaire (CFQ) for adolescent sport participants. The final 18-item CFQ assessed three coping functions: (a) problem focused coping consisted of six items to assess an effort to actively change and remain in the situation that was causing the stress, (b) emotion focused coping consisted of seven items and assessed an effort to control thoughts or emotions while remaining in the situation that was causing the stress. And (c) avoidance coping consisted of five items and assessed an effort to remove oneself either permanently or temporarily from the situation that was causing the stress. Confirmatory factor analysis with data from 344 male and 339 female adolescent sport participants showed the three coping function CFQ
measurement model to be acceptable for males (TLI = .898, CFI = .912,) and females (TLI = .882, CFI = .898). All item factor loadings were above .40 for each of the three coping function scales. Simultaneous group analysis demonstrated factor loading and factor variance gender invariance for the CFQ measurement model suggesting the questionnaire is appropriate for both males and females. Convergent and divergent validity was supported by correlations between the CFQ and select coping scales from the COPE, the sport modified COPE and Life Situation Inventory. Respecifications to the CFQ measurement model which improved model fit were also discussed. The CFQ appears to be a promising step towards measurement of coping function in adolescent sport samples.

Bockaerts (1996) has presented a model for children’s adolescent’s coping process consistent with the framework presented by Lazarus in his cognitive – motivational – relational theory. She proposed that cognitive appraisal and subsequent emotions are based on an adolescent’s perception of the situation, his or her coping repertoire, and coping goals. Cognitive appraisal may be age-dependent, as adolescents of various ages may perceive different meaning of the situation, personal ability to control the situation, changeability of the situation on its own, possible recurrence of the situation, uncertainty created by the situation, a personal experience with that type of situation. Based on cognitive appraisal, an adolescent will develop an intention to cope in a certain way. This intention will be the primary determinant of which coping strategies will be selected.

Haney and Long (1995) modified the WCC to assess higher – order coping strategies. The two higher – order coping dimensions were engagement (managing a situation through active coping) and disengagement (distancing or detaching oneself
from the task). This modified WCC consisted primarily of items from the original WCC and was developed through factor analysis. Although Long’s modified WCC was an attempt to assess coping at a more global level and was modified specifically for a sporting population, the approach – avoidance oriented coping strategies (Roth & Cohen, 1986). An individual may continue to engage in a task and use more emotion regulation strategies, or engage in a situation with efforts aimed at changing the situation. Thus, the engagement – disengagement approach may actually be too general when looking at the relationship between coping strategies and appraisal variables. Also, although the modified WCC was designed for a sporting sample, the items were from original WCC, which was developed for non-sporting populations and may not adequately reflect the experience of an individual engaged in sport. Also assessing high-order dimensions of coping may require items written at a similar global level.

Amirkhan (1990) developed a three factor coping measure for a heterogeneous community sample. His coping strategy indicator (CSI) was developed primarily from empirical methods and resulted in problem solving, seeking social support, and avoidance coping dimensions. Although a strength of the CSI is its psychometric properties, some have argued that social support may not be suitable as a coping dimension. Social support can serve a number of functions, from talking to others to help solve a problem, to having others near for emotional support. Thus, the CSI dimensions seem to contain both coping strategies and coping functions at the same level of analysis or may instead measure three types of coping strategies. A cognitive-motivational- relational theory of coping and emotions seems to suggest that social support can be used for both problem and emotion focused reasons, but may not be an
independent dimension at the functional level. The CSI social support items seem aspect to include strategies with both emotion- and problem-focused function. For example, the social support scales include “Talked to people about the situation because talking about it helped you feel better” (Emotion focused) and “Went to a friend for advice on how to change the situation” (problem focused). Thus, it appears that social support is an important aspect of coping but may be best measured at the coping strategy level rather than at a coping function level where there are fewer more broad coping dimensions.

Most children are not discontinuing sport involvement due to excessive competitive stress (Gould, 1993), however, a significant number of athletes in sport do experience a great deal of sport related stress. The long-term consequences of stress in sport are not known but there can be negative physical and behavioural results. One form of withdrawal that has been associated with prolonged stress is burnout (Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Lochr, 1996; Smith, 1986). Burnout is defined as psychological, emotional, and physical withdrawal from an imbalance between perceived demands and resources over a long period of time can lead to cognitions associated with burnout (Smith, 1986). Thus, it appears that burnout is a special case of withdrawal (Gould, 1993). Burnout is clearly stress related, but it seems likely that withdrawal often occurs for stress related reasons before the point of burnout occurs, such as when the stress cognitions result in interests in other activities (Gould, Udry, et al., 1996). Schmidt and Stein (1991) have suggested that dropout from sport occurs when the level of stress pushes the value of outcome of being involved in other activities. Often, the athlete will drop out before the stress reaches the chronic stage. Therefore, withdrawal can be used as coping strategy to manage sport related stress.
both in reaction to stress over time and/ or as a reaction to more discrete stressful events.

Withdrawal due to stress seems often to be the last coping option, many times occurring only after a long process of decision making. In Gould, Tuffey, et al.’s (1996) qualitative study of competitive Tennis players, withdrawal due to burnout occurred only after a long period of trying to manage competitive stress. Often the value of remaining in an activity is greater than alternative activities despite increasing costs of participation (Smith, 1986). The use of other coping strategies often delays the process of withdrawal due to burnout. And as mentioned, sometimes withdrawal occurs as an effort to prevent the stressful experience from reaching a stage burnout, or a point where the stress becomes crippling (Roth & Cohen, 1986). Scheier, Weintraub, and Craver (1986) suggested that implicit in the meaning of problem and emotion-focused coping efforts is that they will eventually result in reduction of stress. Often though, people may find they are unable to reduce the demand versus resources discrepancy in stressful transaction and may give up their efforts to attain even their important goals.

One reason why withdrawal may not be used early in a stressful transaction is that coping efforts can some times create stress in other areas (Folkman, 1984; Patterson & McCubbin, 1987). Withdrawal may not be an attractive option because it may actually create more distress in other areas than is present in the current situation. For young athletes whose ego-‘identity’ is more threatening compared to threats to their sport related goals. The choice to withdraw needs to be considered in the larger context of the athlete’s life, and often withdrawal may be more stress including than stress relieving, at least until a point where the cost becomes too great.
Patterson and McCubbin (1987) concluded that the A-COPE contains four coping patterns that are generally directed at avoidance: ventilating feelings, seeking diversions, avoiding problems and relaxing. These coping factors do not attempt to address the underlying dimension of avoidance and appear to primarily reflect emotion-focused coping strategies. For example, relaxing seems to serve a function to control emotions, as does ventilating feelings. The seeking diversions and avoiding problem factors may contain items that serve to help the individual remove him or herself from the stressful transaction, but the underlying coping functions were not assessed. It is quite possible that an item like “Read” which was on the seeking diversions factor could serve a number of underlying functions, only one of which being avoidance. The A-COPE also appears coping style (youth are asked to rate how often they engaged in each coping behaviour when difficulties or when feeling tense).

In 1996, Anshel examined the use of approach and avoidance coping styles and problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies among a group of male athletes from a variety of sports. Results of this study found that the eight stressors that emerged from the complete 128-item inventory accounted for 89% of the variance. This indicated a moderate-to-high level of predictive validity in predicting the athlete’s coping styles. The reliabilities for the two dimensions of approach and avoidance coping, and two sub-dimensions of problem and emotion-focused coping ranged from .84 (approach problem-focused coping) to .91 (avoidance problem-focused coping). Upon examination of correlations between these four components it becomes clear that, as indicated by the low correlations between approach and avoidance coping style, they were relatively independent from one another. However, the sub-
dimensions of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies displayed substantially more commonalities.

In a similar study Anshel et al., (2000) found that the 65 items that emerged from the initial 134-item Coping Styles in Sport Survey accounted for 88% of the variance. Similar to the findings of Anshel (1996), this result also indicates a moderate to high degree of predictive validity in predicting athlete’s coping styles. As well, the low correlation between avoidance and approach coping styles indicated a relative independence of coping style. However, contrary to what Anshel (1996) found, the sub-dimension of task- and emotion-focused coping strategies exhibited low correlations.

Anshel and Kaissidis (1997) found that among a sample of Basketball players, on average, players used more approach than avoidance coping strategies during the game. However, situational appraisals were found to be linked with coping responses. Perceived stress was positively and significantly correlated with avoidance coping (r = .38) and moderately negatively correlated with avoidance coping (r = -.21). Perceived control was significantly correlated with approach coping (r = .41) and weakly negatively correlated with avoidance coping (r = -.16). These results suggest that approach coping strategies were related to high perceived stress and high perceived controllability, whereas, avoidance coping strategies were related to low perceived stress and low perceived controllability. These situational appraisals were found to be better predictors of coping responses than personal dispositions as measured by the Miller Behavioural Style Scale (Miller, 1987), thus suggesting that an athlete’s coping responses at least partially reflect situational demands.
The Ways of Coping Scale (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), which was designed to measure the extent to which people cope using problem-and emotion-focused strategies, was too simplistic and suffered from a lack of clear focus. It is based on representative and empirical examples of potential coping responses and was not deemed to be theoretically sound. In the COPE inventory, developed by Carver et al., (1989), only four of the 13 categories were potential coping responses. The majority, nine of the 13 categories of coping on the COPE scale, represent a construct that is theoretically related to coping.

Several studies have also provided support for the concept that female tends to use more social support than to cope with stressful situation compared to male (e.g., Crocker & Graham, 1995; Hammermeister & Burton, 2004). However, Anshel and Delany (2001) found no evidence that male and females differed on social support coping responses.

Holt and Hogg (2002) found that among seven players on an international female soccer team, problem- and emotion – focused coping strategies were reported more frequently than avoidance coping strategies. Avoidance coping strategies were only employed to deal with distractions in order to block out irrelevant stimuli. The coping responses identified in this study fall in to four main characteristics with further sub categories; reappraising (positive self talk, problem sloving, remembering past success), use of social resources (encouragement from teammates, family support, support from significant others), performance behaviours (on-field task communication, good warm up-start) and blocking (blocking irrelevant stimuli, blocking coaches).
**Athlete Satisfaction**

Riemer, H.A. (1998) developed a 15-dimension, 56-item Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) based on Chelladurai and Riemer's (1997) classification of facets of athlete satisfaction. Qualitative procedures included item generation, expert judgment, and independent placement of items in relevant facets. Quantitative procedures, item-to-total correlations, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, involving 172 undergraduate students and 614 Canadian university athletes, confirmed the construct validity of the scale. Correlations between the ASQ's subscales and scales of commitment and negative affectivity provided evidence of criterion-related validity. Reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) ranged from .78 to .95. The 15 facets of ASQ encompassed salient aspects of athletic participation, performance (both individual and team), leadership, the team, the organization, and the athlete.

Wang-Tsung-Teng (2004) studied the effect of coach leadership on player satisfaction in Volleyball in Taiwan (China). The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behaviour of University Volleyball Coaches in Taiwan and its association with athletes' satisfaction according to Bass's transformational/transactional leadership model. The participants included 89 players, (41 males and 48 females), and 15 coaches representing Divisions I, II, and III from the current men and women's Volleyball teams competing in the Chinese Taipei University Sports Federation. Three survey instruments were used: Transformational Leadership Questionnaire, Transactional Leadership Questionnaire, and Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire. Differences in transformational/transactional leadership behaviours were observed for the leader characteristics of level of education and the coaches'
playing experience. The coaches with more education and playing experience found it easier to develop transformational leadership behaviour. Furthermore, players’ satisfaction with leadership was positively and strongly associated with transformational leadership, whereas negative relationship was observed for contingent reward behaviour.

Ipinmorot (1998) investigated the exhibition of transformational leadership behaviour of Nigeria College Coaches and its impact on athletes’ satisfaction on individual performance. 196 athletes were selected among those who participated in the Nigeria Colleges of Education Games (NICEGA) held in June 2005 as sample for the study. 131 were males while 65 were females. Stratified Random Sampling technique was used. The instruments used for data collection were Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory (TLI) developed and Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ATQ). The result shows that the perception of the athletes about transformational leadership behaviour of their coaches was not significantly affected by both gender and age. The result also showed that exhibition of transformational leadership behaviours by Nigerian College Coaches was statistically significant. (Mean = 114.23, F=2.255, p<0.05, df = 6,190). The results also reveal that transformational leadership behaviour of coaches had a significant impact on athletes’ satisfaction with their performance (t = -2.276, p<0.05). The implication of this is that athletes who evaluate their coaches as highly transformational were more likely to be satisfied with their task performance than their colleagues who evaluated their coaches as low in transformational leadership behaviours. It was recommended among others that apart from high-level officers, sports organisations could create more transformational leaders by encouraging subordinates to exhibit transformational behaviours. Rewarding
and promoting people on the basis of exhibiting transformational characteristics can do this.

Nikos Theodorakis (2004) states that, even though athletes are probably the most important components of every sport program or activity, the concept of athlete satisfaction has received little attention by the researchers. Thus, the purpose of this study was twofold: 1). to assess the construct validity of the “Athlete Satisfaction Scale” presented by Chelladurai et al. (1988), and 2). To examine, if variables such as the gender, the sport, the weekly training programme, and the athletic experience, influence the levels of athletes’ satisfaction. The sample of this study was 141 athletes from four different team sports. Results from factor analysis provided evidence for the construct validity of the scale developed by Chelladurai et al. (1988). Also, as results indicated only the gender, as well as, the athletic experience influenced athletes’ satisfaction.

Eys, Mark A. (2003) mentions that Athlete satisfaction has been defined as a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience’ (Chelladurai and Riemer, 1997). Although the construct of athlete satisfaction has been of interest to researchers, few studies have addressed the underlying standards and processes that determine whether an athlete perceives his or her experience as being satisfying or dissatisfying (Riemer and Chelladurai, 1998). An individual's perception of his or her satisfaction has been posited to be important in sport. Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) noted several reasons why this might be the case. First, individual satisfaction and performance should be naturally linked. For example, a more satisfied athlete might be expected to exert more effort and persistence in the face of competition. Second,
athlete involvement is central to athletic programmes and endeavours and, therefore, the satisfaction of the athlete has both theoretical and practical implications. Third, athlete satisfaction is related to and/or included as an antecedent or outcome in the conceptual frameworks of other constructs, such as cohesion and leadership. Finally, member satisfaction (as well as individual performance) has been theorized, and shown in a substantial body of research undertaken by Chelladurai and his colleagues, to be a major consequence of specific coaching behaviours (Chelladurai, 1993).

In their review of early research on satisfaction in sport, Chelladurai and Riemer (1998) suggested that operational definitions of satisfaction used in previous research were questionable from the perspective of validity. To overcome this limitation, Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) advanced a conceptual model and operational definition, which led to the development of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire. This questionnaire contains 15 potential manifestations of satisfaction that fall within one of five main themes: satisfaction with aspects of performance (e.g. personal performance), leadership (e.g. ability utilization), the team (e.g. group integration), the organization (e.g. budget) and the individual correlates of sport involvement (e.g. personal dedication). Riemer and Chelladural (1998) suggested that the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire would be useful in a number of sport settings (i.e. various types of sports) and contexts (i.e. both individual and team sports). Also, they proposed that the questionnaire provides excellent dimensions for use in research on sport-related group dynamics.

Young-Jun Park (2008) examines the level of satisfaction of elite track and field athletes in South Korea with six factors; facilities, equipment, financial support, head coach's technical ability, training methods, and leadership. The subjects were
194 track and field athletes who were selected from a 1997 ranking list of the top five athletes in each track and field event. A survey questionnaire was distributed to each subject with a return rate of 80% (N = 168). Statistical analyses were conducted using the SPSS-Window statistical package. Descriptive statistics, independent t-tests, one-way ANOVA and Post Hoc tests were used to analyze the data. Results of this study indicated there were statistically significant differences among means of the six factors. The results of the post hoc test indicated financial support was significantly lower than facilities, head coach's technical ability, training methods, and leadership. The findings indicated the majority of the track and field athletes were satisfied with all aspects of their facilities, head coach's technical ability, training methods, and leadership. However, athletes were not satisfied with financial support from their club, company or school. Results of this study indicated financial support should be improved for track and field athletes in South Korea.

Paul C Singh and Jhalukpreya Spruill (2006) pointed out that one of the most frequently studied sectors of sport management is university sport which, in the South African context, includes the overall experiences of student athletes of higher education institutions in relation to the sport department/bureau, their personnel activity programmes and offerings. The purpose of this study was to determine what contributed to the satisfaction of athletes at universities in South Africa. The participants in this study consisted of 400 student-athletes at universities in the Gauteng province of South Africa. The instrument that was used in the study was a validated athlete satisfaction questionnaire (ASQ) developed by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998). The study has identified support, individual performance, and personal treatment by the coach, team task contribution and strategy as important
indicators of athlete satisfaction. The findings of the study have important
implications for universities as a whole as it can influence the reputation and image of
the institution, the financial and other resources being made available for the
institution, the number of quality athletes that can be attracted to the institution and
the culture of the institution.

Todd M. Longhead and James Hardy (1996) studied that Athlete leadership on
sport teams can be represented by an individual occupying a formal or informal
leadership role within a team who influences a group of team members to achieve a
common goal. The purpose of the present study was to examine, at both the beginning
and end of a competitive season, the relationship between individual perceptions of
athlete leader dispersion across three types of leadership functions (i.e., task, social,
external) and satisfaction. Participants included 218 intercollegiate athletes from a
variety of interactive team sports. At the beginning and end of their competitive
seasons, athletes indicated who the task, social, and external leaders were on their
respective teams and responded to four dimensions of the Athlete Satisfaction
Questionnaire. Those who perceived all three leadership functions to be represented to
the same degree (i.e., higher number of leaders for all three functions, an average
number of leaders for all three functions, or a lower number of leaders for all three
functions) were more satisfied with their team's performance and degree to which the
team was integrated than those individuals who perceived an imbalance in the number
of athletes engaging in those functions.

Van Sickle, Jennifer (2004) examined the relationship between the emotional
intelligence competencies of selected Division I head Softball coaches and coaching
effectiveness. Sixteen head Softball coaches and their players from two NCAA
Division I conferences completed the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) as a measure of emotional intelligence. Coaching effectiveness was measured by win-loss record and athlete satisfaction, which was determined through completion of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). Results of both the ASQ and the ECI were compared with respect to the player’s role, years played for the current coach, and amount of athletic scholarship. Finally, results of the ECI were compared to overall and current win-loss record and athlete satisfaction to determine if a relationship existed between emotional intelligence and coaching effectiveness. Results revealed that three of the four clusters of emotional intelligence, Self-Awareness, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management, were related to at least one measure of coaching effectiveness. Self-Awareness was related to both win-loss record and athlete satisfaction. Social Awareness showed a positive relationship with current win-loss record and Relationship Management was positively related to overall win-loss record. Results of this study also indicated a discrepancy in coaches’ self-ratings on the ECI as compared to the ratings by their players, with coaches consistently rating themselves higher. Additionally, results showed high levels of satisfaction among athletes who play for coaches with a current winning record. Finally, results revealed a negative relationship between years’ experience and athlete satisfaction and a negative relationship between years’ experience and emotional intelligence.

Mohamad Nizam Bin Hj. Nazarudin et al. (2009) conducted the study to identify the leadership style of coaches, player satisfaction and relationship between leadership style of the coaches and player satisfaction. This study comprises of 101 Basketball players in Malaysian Intervarsity Championship. This study was conducted during the competition season. A descriptive study is used in carrying out this
research. Two instruments, revised version Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) by Zhang, Jensen and Mann (1997) and Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) by Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) were used to examine style of coaching behaviours which university Football players preferred and their satisfaction in Football team. The data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) The descriptive analysis of the data were analyzed using by means, frequencies, percentage, and standard deviations for each item were found for males, females and each level of sport involvement. For the purpose of correlation, Pearson’s method was used. Correlation was done with leadership style against athlete satisfaction. The level of significance was set at p < 0.05. Athletes were preferred training and instruction coaching behaviour with the highest mean score (M = 3.01, SD = .82) and followed by positive feedback coaching behaviour (M = 2.94, SD = .85), social consideration coaching behaviour (M = 2.87, SD = .86), social support coaching behaviour (M = 2.61, SD = .90), democratic coaching behaviour (M = 2.37, SD = .92) and autocratic coaching behaviour (M = 2.03, SD = .96). Team integration (M = 3.74, SD = .83) was the most important subscale influencing athlete satisfaction in Universities Basketball team. Analyzed of the mean scores showed that training and instruction (M = 3.65, SD = .84) was the second highest mean scored for athlete satisfaction. The others factors were external agents (M = 2.84, SD = .92) factors most obvious of which are media and local community, the lowest rated satisfied for athlete satisfaction. The overall correlations were moderate and positive indicating a substantial relationship was democratic (r = .407, p < 0.01), positive feedback (r = .442, p < 0.01), training and instruction (r = .456, p < 0.01), social consideration (r = .550, p < 0.01), social support (r = .428, p < 0.01) and autocratic (r = .413, p < .01).
Carla M. Chicau Lamb et al., (2009) examine the psychometric properties of the Portuguese version of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ), developed by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998), through confirmatory factor analysis since cultural and language Characteristics can affect the interpretation of the Applicability and the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire multidimensional. The ASQ has 14 dimensions, with 54 items to evaluate the athletes' satisfaction with their sports experience. The model was tested with a sample of 527 athletes (Basketball, Handball, Soccer and Volleyball players) from national and regional championships in Portugal. All factors "Have good internal reliability Coefficients, with Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.70 to 0.94. The results of confirmatory analysis (robust TLI / NNFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.93, IFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.042 (0039-0044) and SRMR = 0.05) that the show has good model fit indexes, which expression ITS quality. Therefore, this study points out the evaluation of satisfaction of athletes in different facets which are considered relevant to their sports experiences through the use of the ASQ Portuguese version is valid and reliable.