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9 **Sport Emotions Profiles: Relationships with Burnout and Coping Skills among**
10 **Competitive Athletes**

11 Abstract

12 The aims of the study were to identify naturally-occurring competitive emotional profiles and
13 examine whether participants from several profiles significantly differed on burnout and
14 coping. A sample of 424 competitive athletes ($M_{age} = 32.38$; $SD = 13.16$), completed a series of
15 self-report questionnaires. Comparing the sample as a whole, cluster analyses revealed two
16 emotional profiles: (a) High unpleasant emotions and low pleasant emotions; and (b)
17 moderately high pleasant emotions and low unpleasant emotions. Results of MANOVAs
18 showed significant differences across emotional profiles on burnout (emotional/physical
19 exhaustion, reduced accomplishment, sport devaluation) and coping (resignation, distancing,
20 venting emotions and mental distraction). Therefore, results suggested that an emotion profile
21 approach offered a robust heuristic for examining emotions in a more holistic method to unpack
22 their complex associations with key outcomes (coping, burnout) and they have implications for
23 intervention.

24 Keywords: Burnout, Cluster analysis, Coping, Emotion profiles, Sport competition.

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Introduction

29 Emotions are central in sport settings because of their significant influence on a wide variety of
30 parameters related to sport performance such as coping, burnout, concentration, activation,
31 decision-making, motor-control, etc.^{1,2,3,4} Moreover, this literature showed that pleasant
32 discrete emotions (PE) are related to challenge appraisal whereas unpleasant discrete emotions
33 (UE) are related to both threat and challenge appraisals depending on the situation, the
34 individual and/or the transaction between the individual and the situation.^{5,6,7,8} In other words,
35 a challenge appraisal means that the athlete will solve competition demands as if they were a
36 way to self-growth, meanwhile, a threat appraisal will force athlete to face competition demands
37 with the feeling that competition exceeds their skills and the athlete feels overwhelmed.^{5,6,7,8}
38 Concerning appraisal theory, it reveals that the emotions experienced by a person involve
39 evaluating and judging events and situations.^{5,6} Also, in this theory environment plays a key
40 role, because it depends on the evaluation of expecting and experienced environmental
41 conditions.^{7,8} Therefore, the athlete's appraisal attributes can shed light by showing the meaning
42 and the combination of the different emotions (PE or UE) experienced in the sporting context.

43 The definition of emotion has been subject to many controversies and debates within
44 scientific community and many terms (affect, emotion, mood) have been used in the emotion
45 literature.^{6,9} Whereas affect refers to the experiential component of all valence responses,
46 emotions are discrete reaction related to specific stimuli (events).⁶ Moreover, emotions are more
47 intense and of a shorter duration in comparison to moods.^{9,10} Athletes experience a wide range
48 of PE and UE while competing.^{6,10,11} Although a predominant line of research focused on UE
49 and especially anxiety^{10,12}, recent studies provided evidence for the prevalence of two PE
50 (happiness and excitement) as well as three UE (anger, anxiety and dejection) in sport settings.¹³
51 Thus, a comprehensive examination of emotion in sport settings should simultaneously
52 consider PE and UE.¹⁴

53 In order to capture the multivariate nature of emotions, previous studies suggested
54 using a person-centered approach.¹⁵ Such a methodological approach allows identifying
55 subgroups of athletes who experience similar emotions (emotion profiles; ^{16,17}). Indeed,
56 emotion profiles can provide insights on the different combinations of a wide range of PE and
57 UE experienced by athletes in sport competition.^{14,18} For instance, Martinent and colleagues¹⁴
58 have identified four profiles of emotion states before and during sport competition: High
59 positive emotional facilitators, facilitators, low emotional debilitators, and high negative
60 emotional debilitators. However, a main limitation of the Martinent and colleagues¹⁴ study was

61 that the emotion profiles were based on the core (general) dimensions of positive and negative
62 affects rather than on a wide range of discrete emotions. Despite the fact that there are
63 limitations, the study reveals the way in that emotions can be combined in intensive training
64 settings, which is important in the present study to remark the multivariate combination of
65 emotions that can be assessed by a person-centered approach methodology. In order to provide
66 a more finely grained portrait of emotion profiles, Martinent and colleagues¹⁶ recently
67 examined emotion profiles based on a wide range of PE (happiness, confidence, love, harmony,
68 and vitality) and UE (sadness, anxiety, anger) with a sample of adolescent elite athletes involved
69 in intensive training centres. Results of latent profile transition analyses revealed four emotion
70 profiles through the competitive season: High PE and low UE, moderately high PE and low
71 UE, moderately high PE and UE, and moderate PE and UE. A limitation of the Martinent and
72 colleagues¹⁶ study was that they examined everyday emotions experienced by athletes during
73 the training process. Moreover, their study focused on adolescent athletes involved in intensive
74 training centers. Therefore, it is not necessarily possible to generalize the emerging emotion
75 profiles to sport competition and with adult competitive athletes. Thus, the aim of the present
76 study was to further develop this line of research by examining whether several subgroups of
77 adult athletes can be identified based on their scores of a wide range of UE (anxiety, anger, and
78 dejection) and PE (happiness, excitement) in sport competition. Moreover, some studies reveal
79 the prevalence of PE emotions in winning and UE emotions in loss matches. Wilson and Kerr¹⁹
80 revealed that winning produced a range of pleasant emotional outcomes and reductions in
81 arousal and stress, meanwhile, losing produced strong unpleasant emotional changes, a
82 reduction in arousal but no reduction in stress. In that way, Baker-Ward, Eaton and Banks²⁰
83 revealed that children who played on winning teams experienced “the thrill of victory,” whereas
84 their defeated opponents described their reactions as sadness, disappointment, and anger.
85 Regarding emotions in sport fans, Kerr, Wilson, Nakamura and Sudo²¹ discovered that losing
86 fans scored significantly higher than winning fans on boredom, anger, sullenness, humiliation
87 and resentment, and lower on relaxation.

88 As it was pointed out in previous works^{14,15,18}, emotions can be analysed with
89 multivariate profiles, which mean that the multivariate examination can reveal the way in that
90 various emotions can co-occur in competition. Multivariate emotion profiles could offer a
91 promising platform to re-examine, not only the different combinations of discrete emotions that
92 athletes experience in sport competition, but also their complex interplay with key athletic
93 outcomes, such as burnout and coping. We selected these two variables because they seem
94 particularly salient for a sample of competitive athletes. Coping refers to the set of cognitive

95 and behavioural efforts developed by individuals to control the several internal and/or external
96 demands evaluated as exceeding their perceived resources.²² Coping has been one of the most
97 investigated issues in sport context due to its strong influence on athletes' emotional experience
98 and performance.²⁰ Indeed, achievement of optimal performance can only be fulfilled if athletes
99 are able to cope with the various demands encountered in sport competition.^{18,24} As athletes are
100 using a wide variety of coping strategies, some authors proposed regrouping coping strategies
101 into a parsimonious and meaningful set of coping dimensions.²⁵ However, although several
102 classifications resulting from many empirical findings have been proposed in the last three
103 decades, a general agreement about how to classify all the coping strategies is still lacking.^{25,26}
104 In addition, the fact that a single coping strategy may serve multiple macro-level functions
105 highlighted difficulties in classifying specific coping strategies by the macro-level function they
106 are intended to serve.⁶ Thus, in the present study, we examined a wide variety of coping
107 strategies used by athletes to cope with sport competition, including resignation, relaxation,
108 distancing, logical analysis, seeking support, mental imagery/thought control, venting emotions
109 and mental distraction.^{27,28} Mental imagery/thought control and logical analysis have typically
110 been related to desirable outcomes such as increased performance, subjective well-being and/or
111 PE whereas resignation and distancing have typically been related to negative consequences
112 such as decreased performance, ill-being and UE.^{27,29}

113 We also assessed athlete burnout which refers to a syndrome characterised by
114 emotional and physical exhaustion, sport devaluation, and a reduced sense of
115 accomplishment.^{30,31} Whereas reduced accomplishment is due to the lack of success feeling and
116 self-growth in sport context, sport devaluation is considered as the loss of interest in the activity
117 and a progressive increase in the withdrawal desire.³⁰ Furthermore, physical and emotional
118 exhaustion can come from high demands in the competitive environment and low personal
119 accomplishment.³¹ Sport burnout may lead to several detrimental consequences such as drop
120 out, decreased performance, lack of enthusiasm, loss of social cohesion or depressive
121 symptoms.^{5,29} Of remarkable importance in the context of the present study, previous research
122 has provided strong evidence that burnout is positively related to UE and, to a lesser extent,
123 negatively related to PE.^{30,31,33,34} In particular, UE were linked with emotional exhaustion which
124 is the burnout factor related with the feeling of mental tiredness.³¹ Nevertheless, the trigger of
125 UE emotions is when the athlete is competing which is when we measured emotions in this
126 study.^{14,15,18} Otherwise, the cause of emotional exhaustion is due to the continuous exposition
127 to a stress that overcome athlete's resources.^{30,31} Therefore, the cause of the experience of
128 UE/physical exhaustion is different although they are similar factors.

129 To sum up, further examination of emotion profiles among athletes involved in sport
130 competition seems relevant and important. Understanding how different emotion profiles may
131 operate is a critical issue not only for theorists but also for practitioners who work with the
132 complexities associated with athletes. In particular, it can be useful to implement interventions
133 for athletes who could benefit the most from changing their pattern of emotions and can allow
134 adapting intervention according to the needs of specific groups of athletes.¹⁶ Thus, the aims of
135 the study were to identify naturally-occurring emotion profiles and examine whether
136 participants from several profiles significantly differed on burnout and coping. Given that few
137 studies examined emotion profiles related to sport competition using a wide variety of discrete
138 emotions, no specific hypotheses were advanced regarding the number of profiles or their
139 characteristics (scores of the several discrete emotions). Concerning the relationships between
140 emotion profiles, burnout and coping, in line with empirical research.^{8,27,31,32,34}, we
141 hypothesized that: (a) athletes belonging to the emotion profile characterised by high scores of
142 PE and low scores of UE will report low scores of burnout, resignation and distancing and high
143 scores of mental imagery/thought control and logical analysis.

144

Method

Participants

146 A sample of 424 athletes ($M_{age} = 32.38$; $SD = 13.16$; 330 men and 94 women) voluntarily
147 participated in the study. Most of the sample was comprised of athletes who were not
148 professional ($n = 364$). Regarding the time of sport practice, 115 athletes practiced less than 5
149 hours per week, 160 athletes practiced between 5 and 10 hours per week, 84 athletes practiced
150 between 10 and 15 hours per week and 47 athletes practiced more than 15 hours per week. The
151 sample was selected through a non-random sampling, trying to collect participants from the
152 greatest diversity of areas of Spain. In particular, athletes practiced a variety of sports, including
153 both team sports (e.g., handball, rugby, volleyball, basketball, football, etc; $n = 87$; 20.51%)
154 and individual sports (e.g., tennis, table tennis, boxing, cycling, CrossFit, Rowing, Baseball,
155 etc; $n = 355$; 79.49%). As an inclusion criterion, it was selected only athletes, which means that
156 physical activity practitioners and sedentary people were not allowed to participate in the study.
157 A heterogeneous sample was selected from various individual and team sports, male and female
158 athletes as well as elite and nonelite athletes, to maximize the external validity and
159 generalizability of the emotion profiles.¹⁴

Measures

161 A Spanish translation of the Sports Emotion Questionnaire (SEQ)¹³ was used to measure
162 emotions experienced in competition. Standardized back-translation procedures were used to

163 develop a Spanish version of the SEQ using three independent bilingual translators.³⁵ The SEQ
164 contains 22 items measuring happiness (4 items, $\alpha = .91$), excitement (4 items, $\alpha = .77$),
165 dejection (5 items, $\alpha = .91$), anxiety (5 items, $\alpha = .79$), and anger (4 items, $\alpha = .88$). Participants
166 completed the SEQ using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely).
167 Previously to respond SEQ, it was pointed out in the questionnaire that they have to answer
168 about the emotions that they felt in their last competition. A confirmatory factor analysis was
169 performed with a robust maximum likelihood estimation procedure. Fit indices indicate that the
170 measurement model is acceptable ($\chi^2 = 2720.15$, $p < .001$, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .05).

171 A Spanish version²⁸ of the Coping Inventory for Competitive Sport (CICS)²⁷ was used
172 to assess coping strategies in sport competition. It contains 31 items measuring resignation (4
173 items, $\alpha = .74$), relaxation (4 items, $\alpha = .77$), distancing (3 items, $\alpha = .45$), logical analysis (7
174 items, $\alpha = .61$), seeking support (2 items, $\alpha = .81$), mental imagery/thought control (5 items, α
175 = .62), venting emotions (3 items, $\alpha = .80$) and mental distraction (3 items, $\alpha = .75$). Other
176 researchers prefer the use of the raw mean inter-item correlation as a statistical marker of
177 internal consistency. As a rule of thumb, Clark and Watson³⁶ recommended that the average
178 inter-item correlation fall in the range of .15 to .50. The mean inter-item Pearson correlations
179 were: distancing ($r = .22$), logical analysis ($r = .20$), mental imagery/thought control ($r = .25$),
180 resignation ($r = .43$), seeking for support ($r = .45$), relaxation ($r = .46$), venting emotions ($r =$
181 $.48$) and mental distraction ($r = .39$). Participants responded to the CICS items using on a 5-
182 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (does not correspond at all) to 5 (corresponds very strongly).

183 The Spanish version³⁷ of the Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ)³¹ was used to
184 assess athlete burnout. This questionnaire contains three 5-item subscales measuring emotional/
185 physical exhaustion ($\alpha = .86$), sport devaluation ($\alpha = .74$), and reduced accomplishment ($\alpha =$
186 $.67$). Participants responded to the ABQ items using on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1
187 (almost never) to 5 (most of the time).

188 The Oviedo scale of infrequency response was used (INF-OV)³⁸ to assess
189 acquiescence and dishonest participants. This is a 12-item self-report measure with a 5-point
190 Likert-type rating scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). For instance, "*I*
191 *know people who wear glasses*" (totally disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree,
192 totally agree), "*I have never been to the cinema*" (totally disagree, disagree, neither agree nor
193 disagree, agree, totally agree). This questionnaire helps to detect participants who respond
194 randomly, pseudo-randomly or dishonestly on self-reports. Following authors
195 recommendation³⁸, the participants with more than 4 incorrect answers were deleted from the
196 sample. In this study, 10 participants were taken out in the sample.

197 ***Procedure***

198 The research was conducted in accordance with international ethical guidelines and anonymity
199 was preserved. The Spanish federations (e.g., Table tennis, Tennis, Basketball, CrossFit,
200 Paddle, Football, Volleyball, Cycling, etc) announced on their website the conditions to
201 participate in the study. Then, the athletes who were interested in participating completed the
202 online survey. Before the participants accessed the survey link, they fulfilled an informed
203 consent form that was separated in another google form. Furthermore, the only way to fill out
204 the survey was through the federations announce.

205

206 ***Data Analyses***

207 All the analyses were conducted using the statistics package SPSS 20 version software. After
208 the data was screened for multivariate outliers and multicollinearity of scales, hierarchical and
209 non-hierarchical cluster analyses were conducted in order to increase the confidence in the
210 stability of the cluster solution.³⁹ Cluster analyses were conducted using standardized SEQ
211 scores.¹⁴ In particular, a hierarchical cluster analysis (Ward's linkage with squared Euclidian
212 distance) was first conducted in order to identify the number of clusters (emotion profiles).
213 Secondly, a *k* means cluster analysis was performed, specifying which is the most appropriate
214 cluster solution from stage one. Thirdly, a MANOVA with psychological variables (coping and
215 burnout), entered as the dependent variables, was conducted to examine cluster group
216 differences on burnout and coping variables. In the analyses, a significant multivariate effect (p
217 $< .05$) was followed up with subsequent ANOVAs using Bonferroni adjustment ($p < .0045$ for
218 psychological variables) in order to prevent Type I error. The Partial eta squared (η^2) was
219 assessed for providing an index of effect size. Fourthly, to explore potential demographic
220 confounds of the clusters, a series of chi-square was conducted: Gender, level of competition
221 (international, national, regional and local), coach versus no coach, professional versus no
222 professional athletes. Moreover, a MANOVA with quantitative demographic variables (age,
223 hours of practice) entered as the dependent variables was conducted to examine cluster group
224 differences on such demographic variables.

225

Results

226 ***Emotion Profiles***

227 Based on the agglomeration schedule coefficient and the dendrogram, the results of hierarchical
228 cluster analysis suggested that a two-cluster was the most suitable solution. Non-hierarchical
229 cluster analysis provided support for the hierarchical one because similar clusters were obtained
230 for the two clustering methods. In these analyses the clusters must be chosen to maximize the

231 differences between participants, in order to classify the sample in different groups. Even
232 though, MANOVA detected significant multivariate effect of cluster membership on the
233 emotions (Wilk's Lambda = .28; $F(5.41) = 212.36$; $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .71$). Follow-up analyses of
234 variance (ANOVAs) showed that the two clusters were significantly different ($p < .001$) on all
235 emotions, which provided an excellent indicator of tenability for the cluster solution (Table 1).
236 Understanding sample characteristics, descriptive labels for clusters are: (a) High UE and low
237 PE profile ($n = 115$) comprising athletes reporting very high scores on dejection and anger, high
238 score on anxiety and low scores on excitement and happiness; (b) moderately high PE and low
239 UE profile ($n = 309$) comprising athletes reporting moderately high scores on excitement and
240 happiness and low scores on anxiety, dejection and anger.

241

242 ***Cluster Group Differences on Burnout and Coping Variables***

243 Results of MANOVA showed significant differences across the cluster on burnout and coping
244 variables as a whole (Wilk's Lambda = .74; $F(11.41) = 12.86$; $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .26$). After
245 Bonferroni correction ($p < .0045$), the follow-up ANOVAs reported significant differences on
246 emotional/physical exhaustion, reduced accomplishment, sport devaluation, resignation,
247 coping distancing, venting emotions and mental distraction. In particular, athletes from the high
248 UE and low PE profile reported significantly higher scores of emotional and physical
249 exhaustions, reduced accomplishment, sport devaluation, resignation, distancing, venting
250 emotions and mental imagery than athletes from the moderately high PE and low UE. On the
251 other hand, there were not found differences among clusters on relaxation, logical analysis,
252 seeking support and mental imagery/thought control (Table 2).

253

254 ***Cluster Group Differences on Demographic Variables***

255 Results of chi square tests showed no significant difference in clusters across gender ($\chi^2(1) =$
256 $.02$; $p > .05$), level of competition ($\chi^2(4) = 2.29$; $p > .05$), coach versus no coach ($\chi^2(1) = 2.29$;
257 $p > .05$), and professional versus no professional athletes ($\chi^2(1) = 2.19$; $p > .05$). Moreover,
258 results of MANOVA (Wilk's Lambda = .99, $F(2.42) = 1.20$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2 = .006$) showed no
259 significant differences on age and hours of practice across the two clusters.

260

260 **Discussion**

261 The aims of this study were to identify naturally-occurring emotion profiles and examine
262 whether participants from several profiles significantly differed on burnout and coping. Results
263 of the present study advanced knowledge base regarding the emotions in sport competition in
264 two ways. Firstly, the cluster analytic approach provided a parsimonious and meaningful way

265 to summarize athletes' discrete emotions experienced in sport competition (rather than to
266 individually consider the wide range of discrete emotions experienced during competition).
267 Secondly, not only has the cluster analytic approach offered a holistic representation of the
268 concept of emotion but has also allowed highlighting the relationships with key athletic
269 covariates such as athlete burnout and coping. To date, most of the previous sport emotion
270 studies explored bivariate relationships between discrete emotions and some other variables³⁷,
271 neglecting the multivariate nature of the emotion construct.

272 Two emotional profiles not confounded by demographic variables emerged from the
273 cluster analyses: A high UE and low PE profile and a moderately high PE and low UE profile.
274 The moderately high PE and low UE profile also emerged in a previous study conducted with
275 a sample of adolescent athletes involved in intensive training centers.¹⁶ However, the second
276 profile identified in the present study was not observed in the Martinent and colleagues¹⁶ study
277 whereas 3 emotion profiles (high PE and low UE, moderately high PE and UE, and moderate
278 PE and UE) identified in the Martinent and colleagues¹⁶ study did not emerge in the present
279 study. These results provided evidence for the contextual variability of emotion profiles.
280 Indeed, Martinent and colleagues¹⁶ examined the emotion profiles that are prevalent within the
281 training process in athletes' everyday life whereas the present study focused on emotion profiles
282 in sport competition. Thus, the data timing collection strongly impacted the emotion profiles
283 that are prevalent in particular settings (everyday training process versus sport competition).
284 Moreover, although several scholars have described sport competition as inherently
285 stressful^{10,11,37}, in the present study, only 27% of athletes have experienced high levels of
286 anxiety, anger and dejection (high UE and low PE profile). In contrast, 73% of athletes
287 experienced rather low levels of such UE (moderately high PE and low UE). Thus, although
288 athletes' emotional experience in demanding sport settings was generally described in terms of
289 UE, our results suggested that PE tend to co-occur with UE in the context of sport competition.
290 This seems particularly salient given that PE are not an absence of UE and vice versa.¹⁸
291 However, the moderately high PE and low UE could be explained by temporal emotion bias,
292 because the more immediate the stimulus is, the higher the arousal and the emotions perceptions
293 are. Therefore, temporally bias should be taken in consideration in the intensity of the emotional
294 experience.⁴⁰

295 Apart from offering a description of natural-occurring combinations of the different
296 discrete emotions experienced by athletes during competition, this study also examined the
297 relationships between emotion profiles, athlete burnout and coping strategies. Results showed
298 that athletes from the high UE and low PE reported significantly higher scores on the three

299 dimensions of athlete burnout (emotional and physical exhaustion, reduced accomplishment,
300 sport devaluation) than athletes from the moderately high PE and low UE. Besides, a big effect
301 size was found for reduced accomplishment and sport devaluation, meanwhile, and a medium
302 effect size was reported in emotional and physical exhaustion. Albeit using a different
303 methodology (cluster analytic approach), these results are consistent with previous studies
304 showing strong positive relationships between UE and burnout in sport and other
305 domains.^{31,32,34,41}

306 Similarly, supporting the hypotheses and previous sport studies²⁹, athletes from the
307 high UE and low PE reported significantly higher scores on resignation, distancing, and venting
308 emotions than athletes from the moderately high PE and low UE. Also, a large effect size was
309 found for resignation, and a medium effect for distancing and venting emotions. Indeed, using
310 avoidance- or disengagement-oriented coping strategies is related to the experience of high UE
311 and low PE.²⁷ However, contrary to the hypotheses and previous sport studies^{14,43}, no significant
312 difference was found across emotion profiles regarding the coping strategies of relaxation,
313 logical analysis, seeking support and mental imagery/thought control. At first glance, this result
314 is rather surprising as literature provided evidence that such task- and problem-oriented coping
315 strategies were associated with a wide range of positive outcomes such as PE.²⁷ These
316 surprising results can be explained by the manner in which coping has been defined within the
317 literature.^{6,22} In particular, the conceptualization of the construct of coping involves a
318 fundamental distinction between the use of coping strategies and the effectiveness of coping
319 strategies.⁴³ Even though an athlete may use a coping strategy, it does not automatically imply
320 that the strategy is effective. Thus, future studies should simultaneously assess the use and
321 effectiveness of coping strategies to clearly disentangle the effects of the use versus
322 effectiveness of a wide variety of coping strategies.⁴³

323 As a whole, results of the present study could be used to help coaches and sport
324 psychologists working with athletes involved in sport competition. The methodological
325 approach used in this study could be useful for identifying dysfunctional emotional profiles and
326 ultimately helping coaches and sport psychologists developing interventions adapted to
327 subgroups of competitive athletes experiencing similar combinations of UE and PE. Moreover,
328 knowing which coping strategy and burnout dimension is related to which emotional profile
329 could further inform coaches and sport psychologists on the (dys)functional nature of emotional
330 profiles. Based on the premise that emotional profiles can be seen as a nomothetic-idiographic
331 process characterised by both change and stability across time¹⁶, sport psychologists could try
332 to develop empirically-proven interventions to help competitive athletes change their

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Tables

486 *Table 1. Standardized Emotion Scores Across the Clusters.*

	High unpleasant emotions and low pleasant emotions (<i>n</i> = 115)	Moderately high pleasant emotions and low unpleasant emotions (<i>n</i> = 309)	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Eta ²	Cronbach <i>a</i>
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)				
Anxiety	.61 (.77)	-.22 (.97)	68.47	< .001*	.14	.79
Dejection	1.32 (.83)	-.49 (.46)	796.93	< .001*	.65	.91
Excitement	-.36 (1.05)	.13 (.94)	21.72	< .001*	.05	.77
Happiness	-.56 (1.15)	.20 (.84)	55.93	< .001*	.12	.91
Anger	1.30 (.95)	-.48 (.40)	720.86	< .001*	.63	.88

487 *Note.* * *p* < .01.

488 Table 2. Cluster Differences on Burnout and Coping Variables.

	High unpleasant emotions and low pleasant emotions (n=115)	Moderately high pleasant emotions and low unpleasant emotions (n=309)	F (11.41)	Eta ²	Cronbach a
	M (SD)	M (SD)			
Emotional/Physical Exhaustion	13.06 (3.97)	10.78 (3.89)	28.30*	.06	.86
Reduced Accomplishment	14.20 (3.54)	11.33 (3.18)	64.02*	.13	.67
Sport Devaluation	12.39 (4.30)	9.32 (3.62)	54.11*	.11	.74
Resignation	9.93 (3.43)	7.12 (2.57)	82.00*	.16	.74
Relaxation	13.02 (3.27)	13.57 (3.09)	2.53	.01	.77
Distancing	7.66 (2.20)	6.58 (2.17)	20.39*	.05	.45
Logical Analysis	24.60 (3.97)	24.91 (4.11)	.50	.00	.61
Seeking Support	6.71 (2.11)	6.99 (2.15)	1.46	.00	.81
Mental Imagery/Thought Control	17.95 (2.96)	18.55 (3.41)	2.73	.01	.62
Venting Emotions	9.27 (2.72)	7.27 (2.89)	41.22*	.09	.80
Mental Distraction	7.50 (2.52)	6.26 (2.61)	19.08*	.04	.75

489 Note. * $p < .0045$ (after Bonferroni adjustment); *MANOVA* detected significant multivariate
 490 effect of cluster membership on the dependent variables (coping and burnout dimensions):
 491 Wilk's Lambda = .74; $F(11.41) = 12.86$; $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .26$.

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