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Abstract

Objectives: This study aimed to identify dispositional anger profiles in table-tennis players and
examine whether participants from distinct profiles significantly differed on athlete burnout
symptoms and coping.

30 Design: A quantitative cross-sectional design was used in the present study.

Method: A sample of 244 table tennis players ( $M_{age} = 31.29$ ; SD = 9.72) completed a series of self-report questionnaires designed to assess anger (the State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory; STAXI-2), coping (the Coping Inventory for Competitive Sport; CICS) and athlete burnout symptoms (the Athlete Burnout Questionnaire; ABQ).

35 Results: Three-profile solution showed best fit to data, to analyse them LPA models were run 36 by first testing a one-class model and then exploring models with more classes in order to identify the anger profiles: The anger profiles were labelled as: (a) High anger profile 37 comprising players with moderate scores of temperament, external expression, external control, 38 reaction and high scores, internal expression and control (n = 91); (b) Overwhelmed anger 39 profile comprising players with high scores on temperament, reaction, internal and external 40 expression, and low scores of internal and external control (n = 13); and (c) Low anger profile 41 42 comprising players with low levels of temperament, reaction, internal and external expression 43 and high levels of internal and external control (n = 140). Results of BCH method revealed significant differences across profiles in athlete burnout symptoms and coping. In particular, 44 table-tennis players from the high anger profile reported significant higher scores of physical 45 46 and emotional exhaustion, sport devaluation, reduced sense of accomplishment, resignation, distancing and venting emotions than players belonging to the low anger profile. 47

48 Conclusions: Three different anger profiles among table-tennis players emerged from the 49 cluster analyses. Players from the overwhelmed anger profile were characterized by the worst 50 psychological adjustment based on their scores of coping and athlete burnout symptoms. Thus, it would be interesting to develop empirically proven interventions designed to help such
athletes modify their maladaptive anger profile in order to maximize their psychological
adjustment to the inherent demands of table-tennis.

- *Keywords: anger management, athlete burnout, cluster analysis, coping, emotion.*

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Several scholars have highlighted the salient influence of anger on athletes' performance 59 in the sporting context (Davis, 2011; González-García, Pelegrín & Trinidad, 2019; Martinent 60 & Ferrand, 2009; Robazza & Bortoli, 2007; Steffgen, 2017). Anger can increase or decrease 61 performance depending on the characteristics of the sport, the athlete's way of handling that 62 emotion and the environmental variables (contextual factors of task) (Davis, Woodman & 63 Callow, 2010; Martinent & Ferrand, 2009; Robazza & Bortoli, 2007; Ruiz & Hanin, 2011). For 64 instance, in contact sports (strength tasks characterised by a somewhat low fine skills 65 component), anger can enhance sporting performance (Davis, 2011; Davis et al., 2010; Robazza 66 67 & Bortoli, 2007), whereas, in sports involving fine skills (e.g. racket sports), anger can lead to a worsening of performance, due to the difficulty in controlling this emotion and the fine 68 technical skills required by the sport (Davis, 2011; Davis et al., 2010; Martinent & Ferrand, 69 70 2009; Martinent, Campo & Ferrand, 2012). For that reason, several investigations have studied the impact of anger in table tennis players (González-García et al., 2019; Martinent et al., 2012; 71 72 Martinent & Ferrand, 2009). Martinent and collaborators (Martinent & Ferrand, 2009; Martinent et al., 2012) found that anger and anxiety were the most difficult emotions to handle 73 74 in table tennis players. Moreover, some studies showed that high anger levels were experienced 75 by amateur table-tennis players but not professional and international ones (González-García et al., 2019; Menéndez-Santurio & Fernández-Río, 2015). 76

Despite controversies around the definition of emotions, because emotions are considered shorter than moods and are a response to a stimulus (Gross, 1998; Hanin, 2007; Lazarus, 2000), anger can be conceptualized as an emotion (including a facial expression component; Ekman, 1984; Frijda, 1986; Izard, 1977) that evokes an alert state and can provoke aggression (Deffenbacher & McKay, 2000; Lench, 2004). Anger can be experienced as a state or can be conceptualised as a personality trait (Spielberger, Miguel-Tobal, Casado & Cano-

Vindel, 2001). If it is experienced as a state, it means that the feeling of anger is triggered by a 83 84 situation of increasing anger levels (Davis, 2011; Hanin, 2007; Spielberg et al., 2001). Otherwise, a person can frequently feel anger in a number of situations (trait anger) (Davis, 85 2011; Hanin, 2007; Spielberg et al., 2001). In line with Spielberg et al. (2001), the anger trait 86 can be conceptualised as a multidimensional concept including temperament (anger quickly 87 experienced with little provocation), reaction (the tendency to become angry or agitated when 88 89 the respondent is criticized, receives negative feedback, or believes he/she is being treated badly), internal anger expression (individual holds things in or suppresses anger when he/she is 90 angry or furious), external anger expression (a person expresses his/her emotional experience 91 92 of anger in an outwardly negative and poorly controlled manner), internal anger control (how often a person's tendency to relax, calm down and reduce angry feelings before they get out of 93 control) and external anger control (the expenditure of energy to monitor and control the 94 95 physical or verbal expressions of anger). Since the aim of the present study was to identify anger profiles in table-tennis players, we focused on dispositional anger (trait anger). This 96 97 choice was based on the rationale that the effects of dispositional anger profiles would potentially be more salient than the effects of state anger profiles, as dispositional anger profiles 98 were representative of participants' anger experience in a number of situations (Deffenbacher 99 100 & McKay, 2000; Spielberg et al., 2001).

As a whole, the literature on anger in sport is mainly focused on bivariate relationships between anger and some other variables (Robazza & Bortoli, 2007; Steffgen, 2017). For example, previous research showed that higher anger levels were significantly related to disengagement-oriented coping (Diong et al., 2007) and higher external and internal anger control were related to more positive coping strategies (Casado & Franco, 2010). This approach has neglected the multivariate nature of the dispositional anger construct. However, the various dimensions of the dispositional anger construct could operate in conjunction with each other

based on the rationale that the effect of a particular anger component can depend on the scores 108 109 of other anger components. Thus, much information might be lost if dispositional anger dimensions are examined discretely and in isolation from one another, as this does not 110 encompass the systemic nature of the anger construct (interplay among dispositional anger 111 dimensions). As such, identifying distinct profiles of athletes based on the various dispositional 112 anger dimensions might provide new insights on the anger construct. In this perspective, 113 114 person-centred approaches (e.g. latent profile analysis) describe differences among individuals in how the several dispositional anger dimensions are related to each other and could further 115 the literature on anger in sport (Ichiro, 2012). Moreover, multivariate anger profiles could offer 116 117 a promising platform to examine not only the different combinations of anger dimensions that exist in real-world settings but also their complex interplay with salient psychological variables 118 (athlete burnout and coping). Athlete burnout and coping were selected because they seem 119 particularly poignant for competitive table tennis players (González-García & Martinent, 2019), 120 and they have a direct impact on performance in table-tennis (Martinent, Cece, Elferink-121 Gemser, Faber, & Decret, 2018). 122

Lazarus' (2000) Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory (CMRT) is one of the 123 emotion theories most used in sport settings. CMRT points out that the emotions experienced 124 125 (e.g. anger) and coping strategies used by athletes depend on the way the athletes evaluate events and situations that occur in competition (appraisals) (Lazarus, 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 126 1984; Martinent & Ferrand, 2015). Coping strategies can be defined as athletes' cognitive and 127 128 behavioural efforts implemented to control the internal and/or external demands evaluated as exceeding their perceived resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Congruent with findings that 129 130 individual coping strategies can be assigned to different macro dimensions of coping (e.g. Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood, 2003), Gaudreau and 131 collaborators (Gaudreau & Blondin, 2002; Nicolas, Gaudreau & Franche, 2011) identified three 132

coping dimensions in the context of sporting competition: Task-oriented coping (strategies 133 134 aimed at dealing directly with the stressful situation and the resulting thoughts and affects) such as logical analysis, imagery/thought control or social support; disengagement-oriented coping 135 (strategies through which a person withdraws from the process of actively striving toward the 136 realization of desirable outcomes) such as resignation or venting emotions; distraction-oriented 137 coping (strategies used to momentarily focus attention on external and internal stimuli unrelated 138 139 to the stressful situation) such as distancing or mental distraction. Within the context of table tennis, some studies pointed out that task-oriented coping led to better performance outcomes 140 (Kurimay, Pope-Rhodius, Kondric, 2017; Martinent & Decret, 2015). In line with these 141 142 outcomes, Doron and Martinent (2016) provided evidence in a dual sport (fencing) that taskoriented coping was related to challenge appraisal, positive emotions and performance, whereas 143 disengagement-oriented coping was linked with threat appraisal and negative emotions. 144 Concerning previous studies examining the anger-coping relationship, Bolgar, Janelles and 145 Giacobbi (2006) revealed that tennis players reporting the greatest trait-anger levels were those 146 147 who used the most problem and emotion-focused coping strategies (task-oriented coping). Likewise, Steffgen (2017) designed an intervention to reduce trait-anger in table tennis players, 148 149 and after one year the intervention group reported reductions in trait-anger levels and 150 improvements in coping skills. As such, this study provided further indirect evidence for the positive relationship between anger and coping among table-tennis players. 151

Growing empirical research has provided evidence that athlete burnout can be defined as a syndrome characterized by physical/emotional exhaustion, sport devaluation, and a reduced sense of accomplishment (Martinent, Louvet & Decret, in press; Raedeke, 1997; Raedeke & Smith, 2001). Athlete burnout can be conceptualized as a response to chronic demands that exceeds the athlete's resources (Raedeke, 1997). Athlete burnout was related to a bulk of negative sport outcomes, such as drop out, decreased performance, lack of enthusiasm or loss

of social cohesion (Fletcher, Hanton & Wagstaff, 2012; Martinent et al., 2018; Nicholls & 158 Polman, 2007). For instance, athlete burnout is one of the leading factors of dropout among 159 table tennis players (Martinent et al., 2018, in press; Martinent, Decret, Guillet-Descas & 160 Isoard-Gautheur, 2014). Of particular importance in the context of the present study, previous 161 research has suggested that unpleasant emotions (such as anger) are related to emotional 162 exhaustion (Lee, Hyungil, Andrew & Richards, 2018). Identifying anger profiles in table tennis 163 164 players could reveal which players are particularly at risk for developing athlete burnout symptoms. Such information could ultimately be especially valuable for researchers and sport 165 psychologists for implementing practical interventions designed to prevent athlete burnout 166 167 symptoms.

As a whole, examination of anger profiles could go further in our understanding of how 168 the several dimensions of trait anger may operate. In turn, this could help practitioners to adapt 169 170 their intervention according to the needs of specific groups of athletes. Thus, this study aimed to identify dispositional anger profiles among a sample of table tennis players. We also 171 examined whether participants with distinct anger profiles significantly differed on athlete 172 burnout and coping. It was deemed premature to formulate specific hypotheses regarding the 173 174 number or characteristics of anger profiles because of the lack of studies grounded within an anger profile approach. Nevertheless, on the basis of existing research (Kurimay et al., 2017; 175 Lee et al., 2018; Martinent & Decret, 2015; Steffgen, 2017), we broadly hypothesized that: (a) 176 anger profiles characterized by high temperament, low internal control and external control and 177 178 high external and internal anger expression will be characterized by higher levels of athlete burnout, distraction-oriented and task-oriented coping; (b) anger profiles characterized by low 179 temperament, high anger internal and external control and low external and internal anger 180 expression will be characterized by lower levels of athlete burnout and disengagement-oriented 181 coping. 182

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#### Method

# 184 Design and Procedure

The research was carried out following international APA ethical guidelines, 185 Declaration of Helsinki and Spanish ethical guidelines, and anonymity was preserved. The 186 study followed a cross-sectional design in which researchers tried to collect participants from 187 all Spanish regions. The data of the sample collection was from January 2018 to June 2018. In 188 line with this, the Spanish table tennis federation was contacted by researchers to request an 189 announcement be placed on their website calling for participation in the study. Once 190 participants accessed the announcement, players interested in participating completed the 191 192 online survey. First, they signed an informed consent form and then they could begin to answer the survey questions. The full survey took thirty minutes and during the form-filling process, 193 they had to respond to the acquiescence questions of the Oviedo scale of infrequency response 194 (Fonseca-Pedrero, Lemos-Giráldez, Paino, Villazón-García, & Muñiz, 2009). This requirement 195 was only to ensure that participants were focused on the task and responded honestly. Finally, 196 in data collection around 527 players signed the informed consent, but only 244 players finished 197 the whole questionnaire, which provided the final sample. 198

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## 200 Participants

The sample was made up of 244 table tennis players ( $M_{age} = 31.29$ ; SD = 9.72; 181 men and 63 women). Regarding participants, 24 were professionals (9.8%) and 220 were amateurs (90.2%). In terms of sport success, 62 reached national successes (25.4%) and 21 reached international successes (8.6%). Concerning the time of sport practice per week, 50 players practised 0-5 hours (20.5%), 89 practised 5-10 hours (36.5%), 63 practised 10-15 hours (25.8%), 31 practised 15-20 hours (12.7%) and 11 practised more than 20 hours (4.5%). 207

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Selected inclusion criteria were: table tennis players, aged over 18 years and members of the Spanish federation.

209 Measures

Anger was assessed through the Spanish version (Miguel-Tobal, Cano-Vindel, Casado 210 & Spielberger, 2001) of State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI-2) (Spielberger et al., 211 2001). The STAXI-2 is a 49-item survey that measures the intensity of anger as an emotional 212 213 state (state anger; 15 items) and the tendency to experience angry feelings as a personality trait (trait anger; 34 items). In the present work, we only used the trait anger scale which comprised 214 external anger expression (6 items), internal anger expression (6 items), temperament (5 items), 215 216 anger reaction (5 items), internal anger control (6 items) and external anger control (6 items) using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (almost never) to 4 (almost always). To cite 217 examples of some items: "I feel annoyed when I do not get recognition in sport"; "I control my 218 219 temper when I am competing or training". The instructions of STAXI-2 were slightly modified to focus on the sporting context (González-García et al., 2019). Previous studies provided 220 221 evidence for the validity and reliability of the trait anger scale scores (González-García et al., 2019; Miguel-Toba et al., 2001; Spielberger et al., 2001). In the present study, Cronbach alphas 222 provided evidence for acceptable reliability of scores for temperament ( $\alpha = .83$ ), reaction ( $\alpha =$ 223 224 .81), internal anger control ( $\alpha = .83$ ), external anger control ( $\alpha = .75$ ), internal anger expression  $(\alpha = .67)$  and external anger expression  $(\alpha = .75)$ . 225

The Spanish version (Molinero, Salguero, & Márquez, 2010) of the Coping Inventory for Competitive Sport (CICS; Gaudreau & Blondin, 2002) was used to measure coping skills in table tennis players. This scale contains 31 items using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much) (e.g. I tried to relax my body). Previous research provided evidence for the reliability and validity of Spanish CICS scores (González-García et al., 2019; Molinero et al., 2010). The scale is divided in 8 factors: resignation (4 items;  $\alpha = .73$ ), relaxation 232 (4 items;  $\alpha = .74$ ), distancing (3 items;  $\alpha = .43$ ), logical analysis (7 items;  $\alpha = .61$ ), seeking 233 support (2 items;  $\alpha = .83$ ), imagery/thought control (5 items;  $\alpha = .64$ ), venting emotions (3 234 items;  $\alpha = .78$ ) and mental distraction (3 items;  $\alpha = .73$ ).

The Spanish version (Arce, De Francisco, Andrade, Seoane, & Raedeke, 2012) of the 235 Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ; Raedeke & Smith, 2001) was used to evaluate athlete 236 burnout symptoms. It is made up of three subscales that measure emotional/physical exhaustion 237 238 (5 items), sport devaluation (5 items), and reduced accomplishment (5 items). Participants responded using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always) 239 (e.g. "I believe I am not as interested in sport as I was"). Previous research provided evidence 240 241 for the validity and reliability of the scores derived from the ABQ (Arce et al., 2012; González-García, Martinent, & Trinidad, 2019; Isoard-Gautheur, Oger, Guillet, & Martin-Krumm, 2010). 242 The Cronbach alphas were of 0.84 for emotional/physical exhaustion, 0.63 for reduced 243 accomplishment and 0.78 for sport devaluation and provided evidence for acceptable reliability 244 of ABQ factor scores. 245

The INF-OV was used (Fonseca-Pedrero et al., 2009) to identify acquiescence and 246 dishonest participants. This is a 12-item self-report measure with a 5-point Likert-type rating 247 scale format ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). Its goal is to detect 248 249 participants who responded randomly, pseudo-randomly or dishonestly on self-reports (e.g. "The distance between Madrid and Barcelona is greater than between Madrid and New York") 250 (González-García, Pelegrín, & Carballo, 2018). The participants with more than 4 incorrect 251 answers were deleted from the sample. In this study, 10 participants were taken out of the 252 sample. In addition, previous studies presented the accuracy of this scale in the detection of 253 dishonest participants (González-García et al., 2019). 254

255 Data Analyses

Statistical analyses were conducted using M plus version 7.3 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). 256 257 To test the hypotheses, we used a Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) approach. LPA is a multivariate statistical model which posits that an underlying grouping variable (e.g. anger profile) is not 258 observed but can be inferred from a set of indicators (Martinent & Nicolas, 2017). Firstly, to 259 identify the model that best fits the selection of the different anger profiles, a series of 260 measurement models was performed to determine which model is the best fit (Martinent & 261 262 Nicolas, 2016). Specifically, LPA models are grounded in a series of modelling steps, starting with the specification of a one-class model. The number of classes is then increased until there 263 is no further improvement of the model, since adding another class would result in meaningless 264 265 classes (Martinent & Nicolas, 2016). In LPA models, several statistical indicators are used to assess the model fit to the data. As such, a combination of statistical indicators was used to 266 decide which model fit the best: log likelihood value, Akaike information criterion (AIC; 267 268 Akaike, 1987), Bayesian information criterion (BIC; Schwartz, 1978); Adjusted BIC (ABIC; Sclove, 1987), entropy, and Lo, Mendell, and Rubin likelihood ratio test (LRT; Lo, Mendell, & 269 270 Rubin, 2001). The model that contains the smallest values on the AIC, BIC, and ABIC, as well as the highest values on the log likelihood value and the entropy, indicates the best-fitting model 271 272 (Martinent & Nicolas, 2017). In addition, the LRT was used for model comparison (chi-square 273 difference test). Although there are no firm rules of thumb concerning the required sample size in LPA, Collins and Wugalter (1992) and Park and Yu (2017) suggested a minimum N of almost 274 250. Moreover, because profiles with few participants (e.g. less than 5% of the total sample) 275 276 may be difficult to interpret or validate, it is generally advisable to select profiles comprising more than 5% of the total sample (Collins & Lanza, 2010). Another main issue in LPTA relates 277 to the number of indicators (Martinent & Nicolas, 2017). In particular, adding indicators to a 278 LPA model could increase the number of possible response patterns, some of which may be 279 observed infrequently, leading to data sparseness (Collins & Lanza, 2010). Hence, researchers 280

generally prefer using fewer indicators (from 4 to 10 indicators) with LPA even if there are no
firm rules of thumb concerning this point (Collins & Lanza, 2010).

Thirdly, because the use of classify-analyze approaches (e.g., ANOVA) to compare 283 distal outcomes across anger profiles are related to several weaknesses (Nylund-Gibson, 284 Grimm, & Masyn, 2019), we used the Bolck, Croon, and Hagenaars (2004) method (BCH 285 method) to examine anger profile group differences on athlete burnout and coping. The 286 inclusion of some outcomes (athlete burnout and coping) in mixture models introduces some 287 complexity because the LPA measurement model (trait anger profiles) can substantially shift 288 when moving from the unconditional latent profile measurement model to a structural equation 289 290 mixture model including the anger profiles (Nylund-Gibson et al., 2019). The BCH method allowed to compute athlete burnout and coping dimensions as consequences rather than 291 indicators of anger profiles. To perform the different analyses a confident interval of 95% was 292 taken and to work out the effect size Eta<sup>2</sup> was selected (Cohen, 1988). Finally, a series of chi-293 square tests were conducted in order to identify demographic differences across the three anger 294 profiles such as gender, level of competition (international, national and under national), and 295 the type of practice (professional versus no professional players). 296

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## Results

298 Anger latent profiles analysis

The LPA models were run by first testing a one-class model and then exploring models with more classes. Table 1 includes fit information (log likelihood ratio, AIC, BIC, ABIC, entropy, and LRT) for LPA models with one through five classes. For the AIC, BIC, and ABIC, there were big drops between one and two classes and between two and three classes. The LRTs also found that two classes showed better fit than one, three classes showed better fit than two, four classes showed better fit than three, but five classes did not show better fit than four. Thus, to achieve the balance between theoretical and statistical considerations, we used the model parameters to make sense of the classes and decide which model fits best. As a result, based on the interpretability of the anger profiles (i.e. the three-class solutions made more theoretical sense and added substantive meaning to the understanding of anger profile than the two-class solution whereas a fourth class did not add anything substantive to the understanding of anger profiles) and the LPA statistical indicators, a three-class solution was selected.

The STAXI-II estimates were used to differentiate and add substantive meaning to the 311 anger profiles (Table 2). The anger profiles were labelled as: (a) High anger profile comprising 312 players with moderate scores of temperament, external expression, external control, reaction 313 and high scores, internal expression and control (n = 91); (b) Overwhelmed anger profile 314 315 comprising players with high scores on temperament, reaction, internal and external expression, and low scores of internal and external control (n = 13); and (c) Low anger profile comprising 316 players with low levels of temperament, reaction, internal and external expression and high 317 levels of internal and external control (n = 140). 318

319 Anger profiles differences on athlete burnout symptoms and coping variables

Results of LPA using the BCH method are presented in Table 3 and provided evidence 320 of the statistically significant differences on athlete burnout and coping among the profiles. In 321 particular, results showed that: (a) players from the high anger profile reported significantly 322 higher scores of physical and emotional exhaustion ( $Eta^2 = .06$ ), reduced sense of 323 accomplishment ( $Eta^2 = .07$ ), resignation ( $Eta^2 = .08$ ) and venting emotions ( $Eta^2 = .12$ ) than 324 players belonging to the low anger profile; (b) players from the overwhelmed anger profile 325 reported significantly higher scores of reduced accomplishment ( $Eta^2 = .07$ ), sport devaluation 326  $(Eta^2 = .04)$ , resignation  $(Eta^2 = .08)$ , distancing  $(Eta^2 = .03)$  and venting emotions  $(Eta^2 = .12)$ 327 than players belonging to the low anger profile; and (c) players from the overwhelmed anger 328 profile reported significantly higher scores of sport devaluation ( $Eta^2 = .04$ ) and distancing ( $Eta^2$ 329 = .03) than players belonging to the higher anger profile. 330

### 331 Anger Profiles Differences on Demographic Variables

Results of chi-square tests showed no significant difference (p > .05) across gender ( $\chi^2$ (2) = 8.35;  $Eta^2$  = .15), and practice level ( $\chi^2$  (3) =1.43;  $Eta^2$  = .09), but a significant difference across athletes' status ( $\chi^2$  (2) = 8.67; p < .05;  $Eta^2$  = .18). In particular, 62.5%, 8.33% and 29.16% of professional players belonged to high anger profile, overwhelmed anger profile, and low anger profile, respectively whereas 34.54%, 5%, and 60.45% of non-professional players belonged to the aforementioned anger profiles respectively.

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# Discussion

The aims of the study were to identify dispositional anger profiles in table-tennis players 339 340 and to examine whether participants from distinct profiles significantly differed on athlete burnout and coping. The results of the present study advanced the knowledge base regarding 341 anger symptoms in sport settings in two ways. Firstly, latent profile analysis provided a 342 parsimonious yet nuanced summary of the heterogeneity of trait anger symptoms among table 343 tennis players involved in competitive sport situations. Rather than individually consider the 344 several trait anger dimensions, latent profile analysis emerged as an effective way to organize 345 information about anger dimensions in a meaningful way (Collins & Lanza, 2010; Martinent & 346 Nicolas, 2017). Indeed, these combinations of trait anger dimensions (anger profiles) informed 347 348 on the multivariate nature of trait anger symptoms, in contrast to previous literature in sport which has mainly investigated the antecedents and/or consequences of anger dimensions in 349 isolation from other anger dimensions (Davis, 2011; Davis et al., 2010; Martinent & Ferrand, 350 351 2009; Martinent et al., 2012). Secondly, the latent profile approach has not only offered a robust heuristic to examine the construct of trait anger within a more holistic approach but has also 352 allowed unpacking their complex associations with key sport outcomes such as coping and 353 athlete burnout. In contrast, previous studies primarily investigated the bivariate relationships 354

between anger dimensions and some other variables (Davis, 2011; Davis et al., 2010; Martinent
& Ferrand, 2009; Martinent et al., 2012).

The results revealed that three dispositional anger profiles emerged from latent profile 357 analysis among table tennis players: (a) a high anger profile with moderate scores of 358 temperament, external expression, and high scores of reaction, external control, internal 359 expression and control; (b) an overwhelmed anger profile with high scores on temperament, 360 361 reaction, internal and external expression, and low scores of internal and external control; (c) a low anger profile with low levels of temperament, reaction, internal and external expression 362 and high levels of internal and external control. Most of the players pertained to the low anger 363 364 profiles (57% of the players) whereas the overwhelmed anger profile was the one with least players (5% of the players). Whereas the proportion of men and women or international, 365 national and non-national players did not significantly differ across the three anger profiles, it 366 367 is noteworthy that the proportion of professional versus amateur players significantly differed across the three anger profiles. In particular, the results showed that the high anger profile was 368 the most represented in terms of professional players whereas the low anger profile was over-369 represented among amateur players. The significant difference identified in the present study 370 371 between professional versus amateur players contradicts the results of previous studies in other 372 sports which showed that amateur players reported significantly higher levels of anger (González-García et al., 2019; Menéndez-Santurio & Fernández-Río, 2015). As this is the first 373 study, to our knowledge, to report that amateur players reported lower symptoms of anger in 374 375 comparison to professional players, future research should test this relationship again to see whether it emerges in other samples, or whether it was a result specific to the current sample. 376

The results of the present study highlighted the usefulness of adopting a person-centred approach (assessment of ideographic trait anger profiles) rather than a variable-centred approach (Collins & Lanza, 2010; Martinent & Nicolas, 2017). Anger profiles (i.e. meaningful

combinations of trait anger dimensions and their respective magnitudes) revealed important 380 381 information regarding the functional nature of the anger construct. Whereas players from both the high anger and low anger profiles experienced similar levels of reaction, players from the 382 high anger profile who also reported significantly higher scores of external anger expression 383 and internal anger expression were characterized by poorer psychological adjustment (higher 384 scores of reduced sense of accomplishment, physical and emotional exhaustion, resignation, 385 386 venting emotions). Thus, the present results suggested that trait anger dimensions likely operate in conjunction with one another, and their effect might vary as a function of alternative anger 387 dimensions that are experienced concurrently. This is why instead of pitting the effect of one 388 389 anger dimension against another, future research should consider the profiles (the meaningful configurations) of anger dimensions. 390

Of particular importance in the context of the present study, results revealed significant 391 392 differences across anger profiles on athlete burnout and coping scores. In particular, table tennis players belonging to the low anger profile reported significantly lower scores of physical and 393 emotional exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, sport devaluation, resignation, 394 distancing and venting emotions in comparison to the players belonging to the high anger 395 profile and/or the overwhelmed anger profile. These higher scores of athlete burnout symptoms, 396 397 disengagement and distraction-oriented coping reported by players from the high anger or overwhelmed anger profiles suggested that these athletes were characterized by poorer 398 psychological adjustment (Doron & Martinent, 2016; Kurimay et al., 2017; Martinent & Decret, 399 400 2015). Furthermore, overwhelmed and high anger profile reported differences between them in distancing and sport devaluation, in favour of overwhelmed anger profile, which signifies that 401 these profiles stands out by extreme scores in the cited variables. Thus, high anger and 402 overwhelmed anger profiles could be conceptualised as dysfunctional profiles that could be 403

404 classified as at risk of dropout and could, in turn, deserve the concern of sport practitioners and405 sport psychologists.

The findings of the present study could also be used to enhance applied psychology 406 consultants' efforts with athletes in sport settings. The person-centred perspective used in this 407 study may be useful in identifying higher risk profiles for individuals in need of targeted and 408 adaptive intervention approaches. Indeed, knowing dispositional anger profiles of athletes 409 410 could help coaches and sport psychologists to tailor programs to groups of individuals with particular trait anger characteristics. Furthermore, understanding relationships between 411 dispositional anger profiles and key sport outcomes (such as coping and athlete burnout) is 412 413 paramount for designing prevention and intervention strategies that will be most salient to particular athletes. For instance, knowing which of the multivariate trait anger profiles are 414 associated with adaptive or maladaptive psychological adaptation (inferred from coping and 415 416 athlete burnout scores) could help practitioners in targeting athletes who could benefit the most from changing their anger scores. Based on the results of the present study, players from the 417 418 high anger profile and from the overwhelmed anger profile should benefit the most from an intervention on the anger construct. Moreover, the intervention designed on such players could 419 420 be adapted to the particular combinations of the trait anger dimensions of such players.

421 As is always the case with latent profile studies, the trait anger profiles are data-driven and sample-specific (Collins & Lanza, 2010; Martinent & Nicolas, 2016). Future research is 422 needed to replicate the present findings with individuals of different ages, cultures and sports. 423 424 Another methodological limitation refers to the exclusive use of self-report questionnaires, which are sensitive to some memory bias, as well as social desirability, exaggeration of results, 425 426 lack of motivation in the form-filling procedure, distraction and response in terms of the study target (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Also, the use of a cross-sectional 427 design can be a limitation from the perspective that the time of the sample taking could not be 428

a representative moment (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In addition, despite the proven evidence that 429 430 LPA analysis can be run in little sample sizes (Collins & Wugalter, 1992; Park and Yu, 2017), it might be considered as a possible limitation and this issue should be addressed in future 431 approaches. Notwithstanding these limitations, the present study proposed an alternative 432 person-centred approach that may provide researchers and practitioners with a useful way to 433 examine combinations of the several trait anger dimensions (Davis, 2011; Davis et al., 2010; 434 Martinent & Ferrand, 2009; Martinent et al., 2012). Because understanding relationships 435 between coping and athlete burnout with anger profiles is paramount for designing prevention 436 and intervention strategies that will be most salient to a particular athlete, knowing that players 437 438 from the high anger and overwhelmed anger profiles were characterized by poorer psychological adjustment could help practitioners in targeting athletes who might benefit most 439 from changing their chronic anger experience. Hence, these results must be taken into 440 441 consideration to develop empirically proven interventions designed to help such athletes modify their maladaptive anger profile in order to maximize their psychological adjustment to the 442 443 inherent demands of table-tennis.

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No. of classes	1	2	3	4	5	
No. of free parameters						
log likelihood	-3956.20	-3824.84	-3760.09	-3733.91	-3705.69	
AIC	7936.40	7687.69	7572.18	7533.83	7491.37	
BIC	7978.37	7754.13	7663.11	7649.23	7631.26	
ABIC	7940.33	7693.90	7680.69	7554.63	7504.46	
LRT	—	262.72*	129.50*	52.36*	56.46	
Entropy	—	.80	.90	.84	.83	
BLRT	—	262.72**	129.50**	52.36**	56.46**	

Table 1. Fit Indices for Latent Profile Analysis Models.

Note: AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; ABIC = AdjustedBIC; LRT = Lo, Mendell, and Rubin Likelihood Ratio Test; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .001; Bold entries reflect selected model.

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Estimates of latent STAXI	2	Anger profiles				
scores and prevalence of anger profiles	High anger profile (N = 91) (SD)	Overwhemed anger profile (N = 13) (SD)	Low anger profile (N = 140) (SD)			
Temperament	10.05 (1.60)	16.76 (1.81)	6.08 (1.15)			
Reaction	14.12 (3.16)	14.80 (3.74)	10.94 (3.12)			
External Anger Expression	12.53 (2.59)	17.13 (2.07)	9.20 (2.21)			
Internal Anger Expression	14.68 (3.21)	16.28 (2.36)	11.51 (3.13)			
External Anger Control	16.47 (3.41)	12.86 (3.92)	19.88 (3.32)			
Internal Anger Control	14.31 (3.79)	11.81 (4.64)	15.70 (4.45)			

Table 2. Estimates of Latent STAXI-2 Scores and Prevalence of Anger Profiles for the LPA Model.

	(a) High anger profile ( <i>n</i> =91)	(b) Overwhelmed anger profile (n=13)	(c) Low anger profile ( <i>n</i> =140)	Chi-Square tests		Eta <sup>2</sup>	α		
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	overall test	(a) vs. (b)	(a) vs. (c)	(b) vs. (c)		
Physical and Emotional Exhaustion	12.13 (.45)	12.62 (1.34)	10.11 (.28)	15.61***	.12	13.45***	3.36 <sup>¥</sup>	.06	.84
Reduce Sense of Accomplishment	13.05 (.39)	13.78 (1.26)	11.05 (.30)	18.09***	.30	15.49***	4.48*	.07	.63
Sport Devaluation	10.00 (.48)	13.27 (1.48)	9.34 (.33)	7.37*	4.40*	1.17	6.76**	.04	.78
Resignation	9.00 (.38)	9.16 (1.01)	7.00 (.23)	21.55***	.02	18.95***	4.33*	.08	.73
Relaxation	13.00 (.35)	13.70 (.72)	13.44 (.27)	1.22	.76	.91	.11	.01	.74
Distancing	7.06 (.25)	8.32 (.49)	6.55 (.19)	12.19**	5.32*	2.38	11.58***	.03	.43
Logical Analysis	24.77 (.49)	24.77 (.96)	24.52 (.36)	.19	.00	.16	.06	.00	.61
Seeking for support	6.82 (.25)	6.92 (.72)	6.93 (.20)	.11	.02	.11	.00	.00	.83
Imaginery/Thought Control	18.18 (.37)	19.17 (.61)	18.88 (.29)	2.69	1.85	1.99	.18	.01	.64
Venting Emotions	8.81 (.35)	9.00 (.80)	6.56 (.23)	31.35***	.05	26.73***	8.56**	.12	.78
Mental Distraction	6.41 (.29)	8.10 (.96)	6.50 (.24)	2.80	2.77	.05	2.59	.02	.73

Table 3. Profile Differences in Burnout and Coping using the Bolck, Croon, and Hagenaars Method.

*Note.*  ${}^{\pm} p \le .07 * p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001.$