



T.C.

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY

SOCIAL SCIENCES INSTITUTE

**THE EFFECTS OF STRESS FACTORS AND COGNITIVE
EMOTION REGULATION ON BURNOUT IN ATHLETES:
MIXED METHOD**

MASTER'S THESIS

Beyza Nur KILIC

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ankara - 2022

T.C.

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY

SOCIAL SCIENCES INSTITUTE

**THE EFFECTS OF STRESS FACTORS AND COGNITIVE
EMOTION REGULATION ON BURNOUT IN ATHLETES:
MIXED METHOD**

MASTER'S THESIS

Beyza Nur KILIC

Department of Psychology

Thesis Supervisor

Assoc. Prof. Hüdayar CIHAN

Ankara - 2022

APPROVAL PAGE

The thesis, prepared by Beyza Nur KILIC and titled ‘‘ The Effects of Stress Factors and Cognitive Emotion Regulation on Burnout in Athletes: Mixed Method’’ is accepted by the following jury unanimously / by majority of votes, at Ankara Yildirim Beyazit University Social Sciences Institute, Department of Psychology. accepted as thesis.

TITLE, NAME and SURNAME	Institution	Signature
Assoc. Prof. Hüdayer CIHAN	Ankara Yildirim Beyazit	
Approval <input type="checkbox"/> Rejection <input type="checkbox"/>	University	
Asst. Prof. Yankı SUSEN	Ankara Yildirim Beyazit	
Approval <input type="checkbox"/> Rejection <input type="checkbox"/>	University	
Asst. Prof. Emel GENÇ	Bartın University	
Approval <input type="checkbox"/> Rejection <input type="checkbox"/>		
Asst. Prof. Emine İNAN	Ankara Yildirim Beyazit	
Approval <input type="checkbox"/> Rejection <input type="checkbox"/>	University	
Assoc. Prof. Tuğba GORGULU	Ankara Bilim University	
Approval <input type="checkbox"/> Rejection <input type="checkbox"/>		

Thesis Defense Date: July 1st, 2022

I certify that this thesis fulfils the requirements to be deemed a master’s thesis at Ankara Yildirim Beyazit University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Psychology.

Acting Director of the Institute of
Social Sciences

.....

Title, Name and Surname
Prof. Dr. Yaşar YİĞİT

PLAGIARISM PAGE

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work. Date (01-07-2022)

Name, Last name: Beyza Nur KILIC

Signature:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor Assoc. Prof. Hüdayar CIHAN for her support and contributions during this hard process. I would like to thank my thesis jury Asst. Prof. Yankı SUSEN and Asst. Prof. Emel GENC for their time, valuable suggestions, and contributions to my thesis.

I would like to thank esteemed research assistant Mehmet KAVAKLI, who patiently answered all our questions throughout the entire thesis process and helped our analysis even if it took hours. Your support was very important to us during this process, thank you.

The thesis process is mostly psychological warfare. I would like to thank my dear family, who always made me feel their support during this process, for bringing me to where I am today.

My little family, Bensus and Bahar, who welcome all my cries and sighs with great compassion and support, who are always by my side, and whom I always want to be in my life, I am so glad to have you. It was a period in which social support was very important, and I am lucky that I have very nice friends such as Melike, Sema, Aslı, Hakan, and Zübeyde, thank you, guys!

I would like to thank my colleagues for their support during my busy periods. I would like to thank everyone who helped, contributed, and encouraged me during this whole process, whose names I cannot write here.

And finally, I thank myself for never giving up no matter what happens in my life, for striving for my goals and for the person I want to be, and for being able to exist through my mistakes, successes, and failures. There is still a long way to go and achievements to be made..

ABSTRACT

Athletes face many stress situations throughout their careers. If these stress situations are not managed well, negative factors such as burnout may occur and may have effects on the careers of the athletes. Athletes use some strategies to prevent their performance from being affected in stressful situations. To provide general perspective about research' questions and problems, convergent parallel design mixed method was used in this study which evaluates qualitative and quantitative results together (Creswell & Clark, 2015). This study has two purposes: Firstly, it is aimed to understand the stress athletes experience environmentally and their coping resources. For this purpose, 6 male and 5 female athletes, who continue their active and licensed sports careers and age between 23-41 participated in the qualitative part of the study. After the consent of the athletes to participate in the research was obtained, demographic information questions and semi-structured interview questions were asked, respectively and data were analyzed with the MAXQDA22. The second purpose of this study is to examine the moderator effect of cognitive emotion regulation strategies on the relationship between sub-dimensions of perceived stress and burnout. The ages of the athletes participating in the quantitative part of the study ranged from 18 to 60 ($M= 24.5$, $SD= 7.8$). 103 athletes, who continue their sports careers actively and as licensed, participated in the study. Informed consent form, demographic information form, perceived stress, burnout, and cognitive emotion regulation strategies scale were given to the athletes participating in the study. The data were collected from the athletes online with the snowball sampling method and were analyzed using SPSS 25 and Jamovi 1.6.23 statistical programs. As a result of the moderator analyzes, it was seen that some cognitive emotion regulation strategies have a moderator effect between perceived stress and burnout. According to findings of qualitative study, it was thought that the athletes used more problem-focused strategies than emotion regulation strategies, but they thought that stress was in a bad position in their careers. Therefore, such studies should be increased in sports psychology in the future to develop and intervention programs specific to the individual differences of the athletes.

Keywords: Athlete, perceived stress, burnout, emotion regulation, mixed method

ÖZET

Sporcular kariyerleri boyunca birçok stres durumuyla karşı karşıya kalırlar. Bu stres durumları iyi yönetilmezse tükenmişlik gibi olumsuz faktörler ortaya çıkabilir ve sporcuların kariyerleri üzerinde etkileri olabilir. Sporcular stresli durumlarda performanslarının etkilenmemesi için bazı stratejiler kullanırlar. Nitel ve nicel sonuçların birlikte değerlendirildiği bu çalışmada, araştırmanın soru ve problemlerine genel bir bakış açısı kazandırmak için yakınsak paralel desen karma yöntem kullanılmıştır (Creswell & Clark, 2015). Bu çalışmanın iki amacı vardır: İlk olarak, sporcuların çevresel olarak yaşadıkları stresi ve başa çıkma kaynaklarını anlamak amaçlanmaktadır. Bu amaçla, araştırmanın nitel kısmına 23-41 yaşları arasında aktif ve lisanslı spor kariyerlerine devam eden 6 erkek ve 5 kadın sporcu katılmıştır. Sporcuların araştırmaya katılmak için onamları alındıktan sonra sırasıyla demografik bilgi soruları ve yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme soruları sorulmuş ve veriler MAXQDA22 ile analiz edilmiştir. Bu çalışmanın ikinci amacı, algılanan stresin alt boyutları ile tükenmişlik arasındaki ilişkide bilişsel duygu düzenleme stratejilerinin düzenleyici etkisini incelemektir. Araştırmanın nicel kısmına katılan sporcuların yaşları 18 ile 60 ($Ort.= 24.5$, $SD= 7.8$) arasında değişmektedir. Çalışmaya aktif ve lisanslı olarak spor kariyerine devam eden 103 sporcu katılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılan sporculara bilgilendirilmiş onam formu, demografik bilgi formu, algılanan stres, tükenmişlik ve bilişsel duygu düzenleme stratejileri ölçeği verilmiştir. Veriler, sporculardan kartopu örnekleme yöntemiyle çevrimiçi olarak toplanmış ve SPSS 25 ve Jamovi 1.6.23 istatistik programları kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Moderatör analizleri sonucunda bazı bilişsel duygu düzenleme stratejilerinin algılanan stres ile tükenmişlik arasında düzenleyici etkisinin olduğu görülmüştür. Nitel araştırmanın bulgularına göre, sporcuların duygu düzenleme stratejilerinden daha çok problem odaklı stratejiler kullandıkları ancak stresin kariyerlerinde kötü bir konumda olduğunu düşündükleri düşünülmüştür. Bu nedenle sporcuların bireysel farklılıklarına özel müdahale programlarının geliştirilmesi ve gelecekte spor psikolojisi alanında bu tür çalışmaların artırılması gerekmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sporcu, algılanan stres, tükenmişlik, duygu düzenleme, karma yöntem

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ÖZET	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
List of Abbreviations	vi
List of Figures.....	vii
List of Tables	viii
CHAPTER 1	1
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. General Introduction.....	1
1.2. The Purpose and Research Questions of the Research	4
1.3. Importance of the Research.....	8
CHAPTER 2	10
2. LITERATURE PART	10
2.1. Burnout	10
2.1.2 Burnout Symptoms	11
2.1.3. Burnout in Sport.....	12
2.1.4. Burnout Models in Sport.....	13
2.2. Stress	15
2.2.2. Theoretical Framework of Stress	16
2.2.3. Stress in Sport.....	18
2.2.4. Theoretical Framework of Stress in Sport.....	19
2.3. Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies.....	21
2.3.1. Emotion	21
2.3.2. Emotion and Sport Performance.....	24
2.3.3. Emotion Regulation.....	25
2.3.4. Emotion Regulation and Sport	27
2.3.5. Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies.....	28
2.4. Burnout and Perceived Stress	29
2.5. Burnout and Cognitive Emotion Regulation.....	31
CHAPTER 3	33
3. METHOD	33
3.1. Study 1.....	33
3.1.1. Design.....	33
3.1.2. Participants.....	34

3.1.3. Materials	34
3.1.4. Process	35
3.1.5. Analysis of Data	35
3.2. Study 2.....	36
3.2.1. Participants.....	36
3.2.2. Materials	37
3.2.3. Design.....	39
3.2.4. Procedure	39
3.2.5. Analysis of Data	39
CHAPTER 4.....	41
4. RESULTS.....	41
4.1. Study 1 / Qualitative Study	41
4.1.1. Characteristics of the Participants	41
4.1.2. Qualitative Analysis	41
4.2. Study 2 / Quantitative Study	65
4.2.1. Characteristics of the Participants	65
4.2.2. Correlation Analysis.....	67
4.2.3. The Moderation Analysis.....	71
CHAPTER 5.....	90
5. DISCUSSION.....	90
5.1. Study 1 / Qualitative Study Discussion.....	90
5.2. Study 2 / Quantitative Study Discussion	92
5.3. General Discussion	94
5.4. Conclusion, Limitations and Future Directions	97
CHAPTER 6.....	99
6. REFERENCES	99
CHAPTER 7.....	122
7. APPENDICES	122
7.1. Appendix A: Demographic Information Form	122
7.2. Appendix B: Semi-structured Interview Questions.....	122
7.3. Appendix C: Ethical Approval	124
7.4. Appendix D: Perceived Stress Scale	125
7.5. Appendix E: Cognitive Emotion Regulation Scale	126
7.6. Appendix F: Athlete Burnout Questionnaire.....	128
7.7. Appendix G: Informed Consent Form / Study 1	129
7.8. Appendix H: Informed Consent Form / Study 2	130



List of Abbreviations

CRF:	Corticotropin-releasing hormone
ACTH:	Adrenocorticotropic hormone
CMR:	Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory
IZOF:	Individualized Zone of Optimal Functioning
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences



List of Figures

Figure 1 Diagram of the Applied Convergent Parallel Design	33
Figure 2. Conceptual Model	36
Figure 3 Simple Slope Plot	73
Figure 4 Simple Slope Plot of Re-focusing on the Plan, Stress/Discomfort and Decreasing Feel of Success.....	75
Figure 5 Simple Slope Plot of Accepting, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	77
Figure 6 Simple Slope Plot of Positive Refocusing, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	79
Figure 7 Simple Slope Plot of Putting it into Perspective, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	81
Figure 8 Simple Slope Plot of Accepting, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	83
Figure 9 Simple Slope Plot of Positive Refocusing, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	85
Figure 10 Simple Slope Plot of Positive Revision, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	87
Figure 11 Simple Slope Plot of Positive Refocusing on the Plan, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Desensitization	89

List of Tables

Table 1 The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Performance Issues	43
Table 2 The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Team Issues	45
Table 3 The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Leadership Issues	46
Table 4 The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Environmental Issues	48
Table 5 The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Opponent Issues	50
Table 6 The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Problem-Focused Strategies	52
Table 7 The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Emotion-Focused Strategies	53
Table 8 The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Reappraisal-Focused Strategies	55
Table 9 The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Avoidance Strategies	56
Table 10 The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Behavioral Outcomes	57
Table 11 The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Physical Outcomes	58
Table 12 The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Emotional Outcomes	59
Table 13 The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Cognitive Outcomes	61
Table 14 The Perception of Stress in Athletes: Stress Perception	62
Table 15 Areas with The Highest Perceived Stress	64
Table 16 Sociodemographic Characteristics of Athletes	66
Table 17 Correlation Between Perceived Stress, Cognitive Emotion Regulation and Burnout	69
Table 18 Moderation Estimates	72
Table 19 Simple Slope Estimates	73

Table 20 Moderation Estimates of Re-focusing on the Plan, Stress/Discomfort and Decreasing Feel of Success	74
Table 21 Simple Slope Estimates of Re-focusing on the Plan, Stress/Discomfort and Decreasing Feel of Success	75
Table 22 Moderation Estimates of Accepting, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	76
Table 23 Simple Slope Estimates of Accepting, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	77
Table 24 Moderation Estimates of Positive Refocusing, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	78
Table 25 Simple Slope Estimates of Positive Refocusing, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	79
Table 26 Moderation Estimates of Putting it into Perspective, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	80
Table 27 Simple Slope Estimates of Putting it into Perspective, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	81
Table 28 Moderation Estimates of Accepting, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	82
Table 29 Simple Slope Estimates of Accepting, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	83
Table 30 Moderation Estimates of Positive Refocusing, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	84
Table 31 Simple Slope Estimates of Positive Refocusing, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	85
Table 32 Moderation Estimates of Positive Revision, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion	86

Table 33 Simple Slope Estimates of Positive Revision, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion 87

Table 34 Moderation Estimates of Positive Refocusing on the Plan, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Desensitization 88

Table 35 Simple Slope Estimates of Positive Refocusing on the Plan, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Desensitization 89



CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Introduction

Athletes may encounter many stressful situations in both training and competition environments. These situations may affect especially to professional athletes (Gustafsson et al., 2016). Findings showed that athletes face stress caused by fear of being unsuccessful which athletes often experience due to the pressure and difficulties of winning, progress, and success (Conroy et al., 2007; Sagar et al., 2007, 2010). Hanton and colleagues (2005) conducted a study investigating the stress factors in professional athletes and they found that athletes experience and remember demands related to sports organization, which is primarily and directly exogenous factor rather than competitive performance. Fear of failure is a potential source of stress and anxiety for athletes (Conroy et al., 2002). Studies on stress are showing that especially the responses to stress are affected by the personalities, perceptions, and biological conditions of individuals (Köroğlu, 2005; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Relational Stress Model (Lazarus, 1966) highlights the importance of cognitive assessment for stress perception, it is emphasized that when individuals encounter a stimulus, they first make a primary evaluation in terms of the consequences of events. When individuals evaluate the situation, they encounter as a threat or a harmful, these cognitive evaluations can cause stress in the person by causing negative emotions such as fear, anxiety, and anger (Lazarus, 1966). The cognitive-emotional model (Smith, 1986) can be used as a framework to show how negative emotions are a critical dimension of stress in young athletes. Therefore, it can interpret that stress can be related to other concepts such as emotions.

One of the situations that can occur with chronic stress in athletes is burnout. Burnout results in psychological, emotional, and physical withdrawal, such as giving up participating in competitions from time to time (Rotella et al., 1991). In the model created to explain burnout in sports, Smith (1986) suggests that stress can lead to burnout in a four-stage process. The first step is to establish some expectations from the athletes, such as competitive pressure and/or high training load. The second stage is the cognitive evaluation of the athletes for these demands, where individual differences can also be seen. If the demands are perceived as harmful or overwhelming, they can lead to anxiety and fatigue. Demands

being perceived as too low or boredom can also cause stress in athletes. The third stage is the physiological response to cognitive assessment and includes increased levels of anxiety and fatigue. Finally, in the fourth stage, the athlete adopts a variety of behavioral responses, such as increasing training intensity, and avoiding or withdrawing from sports, to manage the physiological response. Although not all parts of the model have been tested, other studies in this area support the idea that stress is associated with burnout in athletes (Gustafsson et al., 2013; Raedeke & Smith, 2004). Burnout is not the concept only related to stress. It is also related to emotions according to literature. It has been found that burnout in athletes is positively related to negative emotional states, while it is negatively related to positive emotional states or psychological characteristics (Kelecek et al., 2016). It is associated with negative outcomes such as lack of enjoyment, anxiety, motivation, high perceived stress, mood disturbance, and health problems (DeFreese & Smith, 2014; Goodger et al., 2007; Gustafsson et al., 2008). For athletic performance, burnout is the concept associated with stress and with emotions.

85% of the athletes revealed that they aim to use emotion regulation techniques to control negative emotions such as anxiety before the performance (Lane et al., 2011). Regarding emotion regulation, Gross (1998) states that the emergence of emotion begins with evaluations. External or internal cues and the behavioral, experiential, physiological, and emotional reactions that will emerge tend to be regulated as a result of these evaluations. Garnefski and colleagues (2001) used the words "Cognitive Coping" and "Cognitive Emotion Regulation" in their studies in an indistinguishable way. From this point of view, emotion regulation strategies can be considered a coping strategy. In addition, they argue that emotion regulation through cognitions has an inevitable place in human life and that cognitive processes can enable us to manage or regulate our emotions. Nine cognitive emotion regulation strategies stated in the measurement tool they developed to measure the cognitive emotion regulation strategies used by individuals in the face of stressful life events (Garnefski et al., 2001). Acceptance, refocusing on the plan, positive refocusing, positive reappraisal, and devaluation of the event are described as functional strategies. However, self-blame, blaming others, rumination, and catastrophizing are defined as dysfunctional strategies (Garnefski et al., 2001). According to the study of Kelecek and Koruç (2018), the emotions felt by the athletes during their sportive performances provide information about the burnout process of the athletes. Gustafsson and colleagues (2016) showed that fear of failure is associated with burnout and perceived psychological stress among athletes.

Another study result showed that 1.3% of the participants in the study reported high levels of athlete burnout and it is indicated that various situational and demographic variables (e.g., training hours per week, gender, main sports) may determine as determinants of the concept (Zeimainz et al., 2015). When this study's results are examined, it seems to support the conditional theory (e.g., Coakley, 1992), which indicates that burnout is related to environmental factors and stress as a symptom rather than a causal factor of burnout (Zeimainz et al., 2015).

In the light of the information given above, burnout of the athlete experienced due to environmental expectation is perceived as stress by the athletes and strategies for coping with negative emotions such as emotion regulation. Thus, those variables should be examined together. Based on the models, experiencing stress or emotion is also related to how that situation is evaluated which emphasizes the importance of cognitions. Therefore, cognitive emotion regulation strategies will be used as variables in the research.

Considering the relationship between emotion regulation and burnout, which is another variable of the research, there are more studies in the field of industry and organization than in other fields (Altan & Özpehlivan, 2019; Keleş & Göktepe, 2020; Koçak & Gürsoy, 2018). Wharton (1999) defines 'emotional labor' as the effort of employees whose jobs require close interaction with customers to display emotions approved by the organization. In other words, the effort, planning, and control are shown to reflect the emotional behaviors desired by the organization. The regulation of emotions appears to be associated with emotional labor. Considering the studies, it is stated that emotional labor may cause some problems and one of these problems is burnout (Anderson et al., 2002; Filho, 2011; Hilmann, 2006; Wong & Wang, 2009). As in the field of industrial organization, athletes' efforts to constantly control and regulate negative emotions in competitions and daily lives for their performance cause physical and emotional fatigue such as burnout.

Adolescent athletes should train regularly to improve in their sports and strive to reach a professional level are especially at risk of burnout. Because they also compete with others, and at the same time achieve academic success by continuing their school life (Appleton et al., 2009; Gustafsson et al., 2008). The pressure and demand created on adolescent athletes to continue these parallel efforts may cause them to show signs of fatigue and decrease the pleasure they get from their sports and their motivation to continue their careers in sports (Gustafsson et al., 2008). In studies, it is seen that the prevalence of burnout symptoms among adolescent athletes is between 1% and 9% (Eklund & Cresswell, 2007;

Gustafsson et al., 2007). When athletes experience burnout symptoms, they run the risk of quitting sports (Gustafsson et al., 2011). When we look at the literature on burnout, it is seen that there are studies that generally determine the situation and investigate its relationship with other variables (Akbulut & Altınkök, 2018; Biber et al., 2010; Çaloğlu & Yalçın, 2020; Kelecek & Koruç, 2018; Özcoşan, 2018; Kelecek & Yıldırım, 2020; Sarı et al., 2020). More comprehensive studies are needed to deal with the situations experienced by the athletes and to prevent negative consequences such as early quitting. The effects of individuals' coping strategies on individuals in areas such as industrial organization and stress studies in other areas are not considered together as far as is known in the field of sports. For this reason, it is thought that it is important to investigate the stress factors and effects of Turkish athletes in-depth and to understand the relationship between these stress factors and coping strategies and burnout.

In the formation of an emotional response and in the regulation of that emotion, how the situation that causes the emotional response is evaluated and perceived is expressed in Gross's (2014) 'emotion model'. Therefore, perception and cognition processes should be considered in an emotion regulation process. As a result, variables of perceived stress and cognitive emotion regulation strategies were preferred in the study. Gross's (2014) 'emotion model' on which this study is based is discussed in detail in the next sections.

1.2. The Purpose and Research Questions of the Research

The general purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the stress experienced by athletes, coping strategies such as cognitive emotion regulation strategies, and stress outcomes such as burnout. For this purpose, the mixed method was used in this study. Therefore, the mixed method research question is “Do the qualitative findings and the quantitative results converge?”.

This study has two purposes. Firstly, it is aimed to understand the stress athletes experience environmentally and their coping resources. In accordance with this aim, answers to these questions will be sought out: 1. What are the athletes' experiences with stressors? 2. What are the coping strategies used by athletes to deal with these stressors?

The second purpose of this study is to examine the moderator effect of cognitive emotion regulation strategies sub-dimensions on the relationship between perceived stress

sub-dimensions and burnout sub-dimensions. For this purpose, the research questions of the study are as follows:

- 1) Does self-blame sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
- 2) Does self-blame sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
- 3) Does self-blame sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
- 4) Does self-blame sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
- 5) Does self-blame sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
- 6) Does self-blame sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
- 7) Does acceptance sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
- 8) Does acceptance sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
- 9) Does acceptance sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
- 10) Does acceptance sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
- 11) Does acceptance sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
- 12) Does acceptance sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
- 13) Does focusing on thinking sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
- 14) Does focusing on thinking sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
- 15) Does focusing on thinking sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
- 16) Does focusing on thinking sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient

- self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
- 17) Does focusing on thinking sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 18) Does focusing on thinking sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 19) Does positive refocusing sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 20) Does positive refocusing sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 21) Does positive refocusing sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 22) Does positive refocusing sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 23) Does positive refocusing sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 24) Does positive refocusing sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 25) Does refocusing on the plan sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 26) Does refocusing on the plan sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 27) Does refocusing on the plan sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 28) Does refocusing on the plan sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 29) Does refocusing on the plan sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 30) Does refocusing on the plan sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 31) Does positive revision sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 32) Does positive revision sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 33) Does positive revision sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort

- and desensitization sub-dimension?
- 34) Does positive revision sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 35) Does positive revision sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 36) Does positive revision sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 37) Does putting into perspective sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 38) Does putting into perspective sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 39) Does putting into perspective sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 40) Does putting into perspective sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 41) Does putting into perspective sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 42) Does putting into perspective sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 43) Does disaster sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 44) Does disaster sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 45) Does disaster sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 46) Does disaster sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 47) Does disaster sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
 - 48) Does disaster sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?
 - 49) Does blaming others sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
 - 50) Does blaming others sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort

and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?

- 51) Does blaming others sub-dimension have a moderator effect between stress discomfort and desensitization sub-dimension?
- 52) Does blaming others sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and decreasing feel of success sub-dimension?
- 53) Does blaming others sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion sub-dimension?
- 54) Does blaming others sub-dimension have a moderator effect between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization sub-dimension?

1.3. Importance of the Research

One of the most common problems encountered in the field of sports in Turkey is that the athletes encounter many stressors originating from administrative, family and personality factors, and the negative effects of these problems on the athletes are not functionally coped with. Athletes should deal with the stress factors for many years which are specific to the branch especially when they start sports at an early age. This situation can be observed quite frequently in individual interviews with athletes in the practice area. Although the athletes functionally cope with the stress situations they encounter in the competitions and/or training periods they participate in, it is thought that constantly being exposed to a stressor and trying to cope with it affects the athletes negatively. Athletes may feel burnout due to this stress after intense seasons and may leave sports at an early age. Studies show the prevalence of burnout symptoms among adolescent athletes between 1% and 9% (Eklund & Cresswell, 2007; Gustafsson et al., 2007). When athletes experience burnout symptoms, they run the risk of quitting sports (Gustafsson et al., 2011). For this reason, it is thought that it is very important to examine the stress factors that professional athletes may encounter in their sports careers, to understand the coping strategies and their effects, so that the athletes do not break away from sports in the early period and are not faced with burnout. However, as far as is known, there are studies in Turkey that only reveal the burnout status of athletes and investigate its relationship with other variables (Akbulut & Altınkök, 2018; Biber et al, 2010; Çaloğlu & Yalçın, 2020; Kelecek & Koruç, 2018; Kelecek et al. Yıldırım, 2020; Özcoşan, 2018; Sarı et al, 2020). This study is unique in terms of researching the situations that can lead to burnout in athletes and revealing the situations that the athletes encounter in their careers, the strategies they use and the effects of these.

In sports psychology literature, it is seen that there are no studies to explain the relationship between emotion regulation strategies and burnout. The necessity of investigating this situation, which has emerged in the field of industry and organization, in the sports environment, where emotion regulation strategies are widely used, is one of the aims of this study. It is thought that the information to be obtained as a result of this study will make an important contribution to the sports psychology literature in Turkey.



CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE PART

In this section, the definitions of the variables investigated in the study, the models and theories in the literature, and the studies on the variables are given.

2.1. Burnout

The concept of burnout was first used by Freudenberger in the 1970s to reflect on business life (Yahya, 2021). Burnout as a concept with physical and behavioral symptoms and levels that can vary from person to person (Freudenberger, 1974). According to Maslach, professional burnout is a psychological syndrome that occurs because of chronic stress resulting from the incompatibility between a person and his/her profession as a result of exposure to stressful situations in the work environment (Maslach, 2003). Over time, it has become a concept that has started to be used in fields such as sports, marriage, and education as well as business life (Jacobs & Dodd, 2003; Pines, 2004). Although burnout is expressed as a higher level of overtraining and exhaustion in the literature, it is seen that this concept does not have a clear definition (Demirci, 2018). The most distinctive feature of an individual experiencing burnout is their psychological, emotional, physical, and social withdrawal from activities that were previously enjoyed but later become a source of stress (Gould & Whitley, 2009; Smith, 1986). The increase in research on burnout in the 1980s revealed the necessity of a reliable and valid measurement tool that can measure this concept, and the most widely used burnout scale in this field today was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) (as cited in Leiter et al., 2015).

Burnout was expressed as a three-dimensional psychological syndrome by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Maslach and Goldberg (1998). Those sub-dimensions were defined as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and loss of sense of accomplishment. Emotional burnout is the decrease and depletion of energy in the emotional and physical resources of the individual. This sub-dimension is shown as the most prominent feature and the cornerstone of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). Although emotional exhaustion appears to be a similar reaction to stress, depersonalization and decreased perception of personal achievement are considered together in burnout, unlike stress (Cam et al., 2018). Depersonalization, another sub-dimension of burnout,

acknowledges the interpersonal dimension of burnout (Maslach & Gouldberg; 1998). Individuals experiencing depersonalization display a negative, emotionless, and detached attitude toward the environment, the institution they work for, and the people around them (Maslach et al., 2001). In other words, the dimension of depersonalization is represented as a negative and condescending attitude towards colleagues and customers, especially in the work environment (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). Finally, the personal achievement dimension is expressed as the individual's negative evaluation of himself/herself and others (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). When individuals perceive themselves as 'inadequate', they experience a great sense of inadequacy and believe that nothing will change this situation. The areas in which they are successful are small and insignificant for these people (Sürvegil, 2014 as cited in Celebi, 2020).

2.1.2 Burnout Symptoms

Burnout manifests itself with different findings depending on the symptoms and level that can vary from person to person (Freudenberger, 1974). When we look at burnout syndrome, it seems to be associated with various problems such as emotional and physical exhaustion, increased alcohol and drug use, insomnia, and marital and family problems (Maslach and Pines, 1977; Maslach and Jackson, 1981). In addition, burnout can be associated not only with the presence of negative emotions but also with the absence of positive emotions (Sürvegil, 2014).

Physical symptoms can be noticed more easily in burnout. These physical symptoms are seen mainly in individuals as follows: symptoms such as fatigue and tiredness, insomnia and respiratory problems, frequent headaches and gastrointestinal diseases, and persistent colds (Freudenberger, 1974). Looking at the psychological symptoms, the following can be seen: the desire to be alone and the effort to isolate (Cardinel, 1981), avoidance of taking risks and creativity (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), dissatisfaction and criticism of people (Çam, 1991), and having negative feelings towards other people (Sürvegil, 2005). Finally, prolonging the time away from work and seeking opportunities to get away from work (Üstün, 1995), being emotionally sensitive, and experiencing sudden mood drops (Şahin, 2007), unnecessary drug use, and enjoying physical pain can be shown as behavioral symptoms of burnout.

When we look at the first studies on burnout, it has been seen that burnout is to more common in individuals working in the service sector, where customers are tried being

satisfied (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Although there are more studies in this area at the beginning, there are also studies on burnout in areas other than human services in the future. E.g; managers, entrepreneurs, white- and blue-collar workers (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

2.1.3. Burnout in Sport

Burnout among athletes is a critical concept which is arguing in the athletic community. Despite this importance, Weinberg (1990) indicated that a proper operational definition of athlete burnout is not offered yet (as cited in Raedeke and Smith, 2001). However, in the sports psychology literature, burnout, as defined by Gould and Whitley (2009), has been expressed as physical, emotional, and social withdrawal from a sporting activity that was previously enjoyed (as cited in Gould & Weinberg, 2015). Burnout, which is not only seen in athletes, shows itself as a refusal to care about sports in coaches, consultants, and assistant professionals, who are other elements of the sports environment (Demirci, 2018).

Although the definition cannot be made exactly, when the literature is examined, it is seen that researchers have developed different perspectives on the concept of burnout. For example, Smith (1986) expressed burnout as a condition that occurs as a result of chronic stress. This state of stress, which has become constant over time, causes the sportive activities that were perceived as enjoyable in the past to become no longer enjoyable and enjoyable. This situation leads to physical, psychological, and social withdrawal in athletes (Gould & Whitley, 2009). Perception of decerned unbalance between request and coping capacity can cause the stress (Martens, 1977). For this reason, wide acknowledgement about preventive sources are important in order to reduce burnout (Chen et al., 2008).

Raedeke and Smith (2001), based on Maslach and Jackson's (1981) studies on burnout, also addressed sports burnout in three dimensions: emotional/physical exhaustion, decreased sense of accomplishment, and depersonalization. Emotional/physical exhaustion can be expressed as the physical and emotional fatigue seen in athletes due to training and competitions, and the decreased sense of achievement can be expressed as the negative attitude of athletes towards their abilities and achievements, and depersonalization can be expressed as the contemptuous attitude of athletes towards their activities (Gustafsson et al., 2017; Raedeke & Smith, 2001). The following symptoms can be seen in athletes experiencing burnout: low motivation, concentration problems, apathy, sleep problems, low self-esteem, negative mood, ups and downs, emotional isolation, increased anxiety, etc. (Gould & Weinberg, 2015).

Although many studies aim to understand athlete burnout from a stress perspective, there are alternative studies in the literature that state that burnout is not only a response to chronic stress (Raedake, 1997). For instance, Schmidt and Stein (1991) developed an explanation of burnout from a commitment view, Coakley (1992) sought for a relationship between burnout and adolescent athletes from a sociological view. The studies in the field of sports provided the information about the relationship with burnout and the other variables. The concept of burnout in athletes was found positively associated with negative emotional states and on the other hand was found negatively associated with positive emotional states or psychological characteristics (Kelecek et al., 2016). Kelecek and Göktürk (2017)'s study showed that athletes' commitment to their sport branches is negatively associated with burnout when it is preventative of burnout. Another research results showed that understanding about internal or external motives of athletes and reasons for continuing sport are essential in burnout. In addition, to develop insight about the athletes' burnout processes, the feelings during their sport performance can provide important information (Kelecek & Koruç, 2018).

2.1.4. Burnout Models in Sport

The demands on the person due to the nature of sports show significant differences from the sources of stress in other areas where burnout is studied (Eklund & Cresswell, 2007). This situation requires dealing with athlete burnout from different perspectives. For this reason, burnout models in the literature are included in this section.

'The Cognitive-Emotional Model', which aims to explain burnout from the stress perspective, was put forward by Smith (1986). This model considers burnout as 4 components. The first component includes situational demands. If the individual perceives resources as unbalanced to the environmental demands, there may be a stress reaction. In the second component, people make a cognitive assessment of the situation they are in, and as a result of this assessment, the situation is perceived as a threat or a challenge. The physiological responses that emerge because of this evaluation are expressed as the third component of burnout. If the situation is perceived as a threat, the stress response may become chronic, and this may create negative situations such as tension and fatigue in the person. These chronic stress reactions can cause behavioral reactions such as the emergence of conflict as the fourth component or abandonment of the activity (Smith, 1986; Weinberg & Gould, 2019). In other words, how a person evaluates and reacts to emerging demands can

increase the risk of burnout. Another model that looks at burnout from another perspective is the 'Negative-Training Model' put forward by Silva (1990). According to this model, if the athlete has an intense training program, this may cause stress in the athlete. This negative stress response can lead to negative consequences such as burnout. A study on Swedish athletes, supporting the model created by Silva (1990), found that physical training affects the burnout process (Kentta & Hassmen, 1998; Kentta et al., 2001).

According to the 'One-Dimensional Identity Development and External Control Model' created by Coackley (1992), high-performance and competitive athletes stay away from the social environment because of their success-oriented lifestyles in sports. Accordingly, athletes who cannot get enough support from their social environment in possible failure situations may be exposed to extreme stress and this can lead to potential burnout.

Another perspective on burnout in sports is a commitment to sports. According to this approach, athletes who continue to do sports only because they think they must continue and feel as if they are trapped may experience burnout as a result (Raedeke, 1997; Schmidt & Stein, 1991). However, recent studies have shown that burnout is not experienced due to only one situation, but physical demands or training intensities together with various psychological and social stress factors that can be effective on burnout. For this reason, burnout is a phenomenon that should be viewed from a more comprehensive perspective (Gould & Whitley, 2009). Therefore, Gustafsson et. al. (2011) presented a more integrated model. According to this model, 'premises' such as overtraining and demands, 'pitfalls' such as one-sided identity and social inhibitions, 'signs' such as low motivation, mood instability, and poor performance, 'personality traits such as perfectionism and low self-esteem, negative 'environmental' factors and, finally, 'negative consequences such as abstinence from the activity and weight loss should all be considered together (Gustafsson et al., 2011; Weinberg & Gould, 2015).

Finally, the 'Self-Regulation Theory' put forward by Bandura (1997) is among the theories expressed to explain burnout. According to this theory, the individual observes his own feelings, thoughts, and behaviors make a judgment by comparing them with the criteria and organizing behaviors according to these criteria (as cited in Bandura, 2005). Looking at the literature within the framework of this theory, it is seen that burnout is positively related to the concepts of high personal expectations, low level of control, and low motivation (Bandura, 2005).

2.2. Stress

Stress is a trendy topic that individuals experience from time to time, and some people cope better with stress and some worse. However, there is no agreed definition of this concept (Senay Guzel, 2019; p: 1). There is so much confusion in both professional and scientific fields about the term "stress". Because it means different things to each person. Stress as a part of human life can be associated with various problems such as traumas caused by surgery, burns, emotional arousal, mental or physical effort, fatigue, pain, fear, need for concentration, and humiliation. In addition to these problems, frustration, blood loss, poisoning with drugs or environmental pollutants, and various achievements are also stress-related concepts. They require the individual to reformulate his life even though it is seen as a positive thing (Selye, 1980). In addition, stress can be expressed as a stimulus expressed as a stressor, a perception of stress that accelerates the formation of a response in the brain, and a stress response that physiologically reveals fight-or-flight behavior (Dhabhar & McEwen, 1997). From the perspective of the internal state of the organism, stress can also be expressed as physiological, emotional, and behavioral responses (Mason, 1975). Some researchers also defined stress as an unbalance between the demands of the environment and the capacity of one to cope with those demands (McGrath, 1970; Cox, 1978). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) also agreed with this definition and said, stress is the experience of inconsistency between difficulties and needs of one with the individual and environment interaction. Stress is a perceived process about one's own life and well-being. This perceived situation creates the possibility of loss or harm and may require coping strategies in physical, psychological, and behavioral dimensions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The stimuli or situations that cause this stress are called stressors (Mason, 1975). Stress is categorized according to its severity, time course (acute, recurrent, or chronic), and degree of control over the stressor.

As seen above, stress has various definitions due to its interest in various disciplines (Kasl, 1983 as cited in Senay Guzel, 2019). In summary, for stress to occur, a person should be affected by the environment in which he/she lives. Every individual is affected by environmental changes, but some individuals might be affected more or more slowly (Güçlü, 2001).

2.2.1. Perceived Stress

Perceived stress is a person's perceived feelings or thoughts about how stressed they are during a given period (Phillips, 2013). Individuals may have similar negative life

experiences. However, the effects of these negative experiences may be different on individuals as a result of evaluations shaped according to their personality traits, coping resources, and social support status. In this way, perceived stress represents the relationship between the person and the environment perceived as threatening and exceeding coping resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

2.2.2. Theoretical Framework of Stress

In this section, models and theories of stress in the literature are given.

2.2.2.1. General Adaptation Syndrome Model

According to Selye (1976), stress represents the rate of wear on the body and is additionally, described as the sum of all the changes caused by the impairment or damage in an organism. In his 'General Adaptation Syndrome Model' Selye (1951) claimed that all life changes are critical and harmful for individuals even if it is considered normal because it requires re-adaptation to the situations. In the general adaptation syndrome model, there are 3 stages of stress reactions: Alarm, resistance, and exhaustion (Baltaş & Baltaş, 2012).

The alarm phase is when the organism first encounters an external stimulus that it perceives as stressing the state in which the organism enters. At this stage, the body's immediate response to stress is subject. (Tokay, 2001). An alarm reaction can last from a few minutes to several hours and if the stressful situation disappears, the organism returns to normal. However, if the situation that causes stress continues, a resistance period is entered (Arik, 1996).

The resistance period is when the alarm reactions are almost normal, and it is the phase in which the organism's attention is focused on the stressful situation. To concentrate the energy only on the stressful situation, the systems that will fight the stressor will be activated, and the unrelated systems will be slowed down. If the resistance period hangs successfully the body returns to normal conditions, if it fails, the body weakens, and the organism enters the burnout period (Arik, 1996). When it comes to the exhaustion stage, the energy of harmony weakens with the continuation of the stressful state, so exhaustion and destruction begin as a result of serious and continuous tension. When the individual is exhausted, it means the person is completely stressed. The body system no longer responds. In the face of the events surrounding this person, pretends to be numb and cannot give any constructive response (Thompson, 1998 as cited in Yılmaz, 2006).

2.2.2.2. Fight or Flight

Cannon studied the effect of emotional arousal on physiological responses and adapted the 'fight and flight response for humans. It is stated that the physiological changes associated with this response are affected by emotional states (Pollock, 1988). According to Cannon (1939) a fight or flight response is caused by an activated sympathetic system (as cited in Goldstein, 2010).

The general response to both physical and psychological stress is the activation of the sympathetic nervous system with inhibition of the parasympathetic nervous system. When stress becomes severe or uncontrolled, adrenomedullin release of epinephrine occurs. As stress increases further, CRF not only activates the sympathetic nervous system but also leads to the release of adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) and adrenocortical steroids (Ziegler, 2012). Cannon (1915) explains this neuroendocrinal response to emotions and stress as a perfect evolutionary process. Cannon (1939) indicated that if individuals are treated by any internal or external changes, the corrective mechanism gets active to notice the change, prevent the threat, or return to the normal state (as cited in Goldstein & McEwen, 2009). Even if stress gave people power and confidence with endorphin yield, it also has negative effects on the immune system along with emotions (Amir et al., 1980).

The models of Cannon and Selye are similar because both highlight the general or universal responses to stress. According to those models, the increased sympathetic system is important no matter what caused it. In other words, both focus on the results and examine the stress responses (Şenay Güzel, 2019, p. 12-13).

2.2.2.3. Cognitive Appraisal Theory

In this theory, psychological stress refers to an individual-environment relationship that the person considers important for their well-being and that challenges or exceeds available coping resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986).

The term appraisals refer to an ongoing evaluation of how things are going in terms of one's goals, values, and beliefs, and in addition, because of the various appraisals that people have, they experience the same stressful situations in different ways (Folkman, 2013). In this perspective, stress is defined as being exposed to harmful stimuli that exceed the person's coping capacities (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to Folkman and Lazarus

(1988), there are two essential features of this theory which are ‘cognitive evaluation’ and ‘coping’.

The interactional model proposes that the stress response is influenced by cognitive processes and the evaluation of the meaning attributed to events and stimuli (Boyd et al., 2009; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The emphasis of the appraisals in the interactional stress model and coping theory highlights the perception of the stress to decide the cope with the stress instead of the problem itself (Güzel, 2019, p.15). There are two essential forms of evaluation, primary and secondary evaluation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Primary evaluation involves an assessment of what might be a meaningful threat as a result of a particular individual and environment interaction (Folkman, 1984; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Secondary evaluation is a process in which a person evaluates coping resources, situational variables, and coping styles after a situation seen as a threat (Folkman, 1984).

According to this model, the process of coping involves a constantly changing cognitive and behavioral effort to manage the internal and external demands which exceed the individual’s coping resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Finally, those efforts of coping with the stress activate the process of cognitive reappraisal according to new environmental information (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

2.2.3. Stress in Sport

Sports, as both active and passive participants, affect people all over the world and it is a concept that increasing and developing day by day. With this increasing interest, an important competitive environment has emerged among the countries and countries are making efforts to use the positive effects of sports (Tazegül, 2012). Today, increased popularity in sport has brought some psychological burdens to the athlete, thus athletes centered on psycho-social issues became necessary to deal with them scientifically (Gümüş, 2002). All this literature on this concept showed that not only becoming perfect as physically sufficient in sports performance but also psychological factors are very critical (Akarçeşme, 2004).

Organizational stressors can be expressed as environmental demands that arise primarily and are directly related to the organization in which the athletes operate (Fletcher et al., 2008). These stressors are associated with negative emotions – such as poor psychological state, undesirable behavior, dissatisfaction, burnout, and poor performance (Fletcher et al., 2010; Giga et al., 2003; Tabei et al., 2012). However, stressors can be both environmental and psychological which affect athletes.

In summary, the literature suggests that there are other stressful situations that athletes should cope with to perform better which are aspects of competition; interpersonal relationships such as teammates, family, coaches; financial issues; traumatic past, etc. (Hanton et al., 2009).

There are lots of psychological factors that affect sports performance. Stress is one of the most critical factors (Tazgeül, 2012). When an athlete loses a competition, he/she is aware of the possible suffering in terms of economy and reputation. As a result of this, the athlete has to exhibit performance by experiencing anxiety and stress while going out on the field in every competition (Akarçeşme, 2004). In such an environment, to ensure that the physical characteristics of the athlete are good, and the training process is as desired, athletes must learn the ability to cope with stress (Baltaş & Baltaş, 1990 as cited in Tazegül, 2012).

Stress can affect the self-confidence of athletes by causing them to question their competence, as well as disrupt their flow experience and prevent them from displaying the skills they have worked on for years. It can cause injuries and lead to early retirement, and cause athletes to overtrain. In addition, under stress athletes face problems with concentration, coordination, and branch-specific technique and tactics (Altungül, 2006). Stress can cause problems with the techniques that athletes used to do in training and can affect emotions. Thus, athletes may have dysfunctional behaviors (Gümüş, 2002).

2.2.4. Theoretical Framework of Stress in Sport

The drive theory is one of the leading theories put forward to explain the relationship between arousal and performance. The drive theory, first proposed by Hull (1943), was later revised to account for performance on complex tasks (Spence & Spence, 1966). This theory proposes that performance (P) is a function of drive and habit strength (Raglin, 1992). In the study, which supports the drive theory, Martens (1971) classified the participants by trait anxiety evaluations according to their emotions and examined the differences in the accompanying drive level. As a result, those with high trait anxiety would likely have

corresponding elevations in both emotional responses and impulses, so they would outperform participants with low trait anxiety. The lack of empirical studies for the drive theory and the formation of some methodological problems caused the theory to lose its effectiveness. It has been suggested that the Inverted U hypothesis, which is another of the hypotheses to explain the relationship between arousal and performance, represents the relationship more meaningfully and explains it more accurately (Martens, 1971; 1974; 1977).

The basic principle of the inverted U hypothesis is that performance will increase as arousal rises from very low to moderate levels, and peak performance when arousal is in the mid-range. Subsequently, performance deteriorates rapidly when arousal is above the mid-range. Seen this way, the relationship between arousal and performance takes an inverted U shape (Raglin, 1992). The results of Arent and Landers' (2003) study examining the relationship between anxiety, arousal, and performance in athletes also support the Inverted U hypothesis. The results showed that optimal performance in the simple task was seen at 60% and 70% of maximum arousal, supporting the prediction of the inverted-U hypothesis. There is an alternative IZOF theory to the Inverted-U hypothesis to explain the relationship between anxiety and performance. An increasing number of sports psychologists have begun to think that the inventories of anxiety measurement tools used are not specific to sports and the characteristics of the individual, and therefore they are not tools that can be used in practice in the sports environment (Hanin, 2000; Hanin & Syrja, 1995).

As a result of these concerns, the need for the emergence of new sports-specific theoretical approaches has led to the development of the IZOF model, which is an approach to examining subjective emotional experiences related to individual optimal and poor performances (Ruiz et al., 2015). According to the IZOF theory findings presented by Hanin (1978; 1986) individual athletes tend to perform best when their anxiety levels are in their optimal region before the competition. Contrary to the inverted-U hypothesis mentioned above, the IZOF theory says that athletes perform best when their anxiety levels are low or high, not moderate (Raglin, 1992).

An 'Inverted U' model was created for the relationship between stress and performance. According to this model, increased stress up to a certain point has a positive effect on performance, but performance accelerates when a critical level is exceeded is falling (Lewis, 1995 as cited in Yılmaz, 2006). In other words, certain increases in stress

levels are important in performance and individual success. If these limits are exceeded, positive or negative, it can result in poor performance (Ulukuş, 2001). It can be inferred from that perspective; that excessive stress can be harmful to the person and less stress may not be helpful for progress. A key to successful training is keeping a balance between stress and progress which means finding the optimal level (Loehr, 1999 as cited in Yılmaz, 2006). Research about Canadian athletes indicated that the athletes who are successful to manage stress, use the stress to their advantage and be more successful (Gaudreau, 2003 as cited in Yılmaz, 2006).

Mellalieu and colleagues (2009) examined the performance and organizational stressors encountered by elite and non-elite athletes in the competition environment and the results showed that athletes face more performance-related stressors before competition than those stemming from the organization. As Lazarus and Folkman (1996) indicated in their appraisal theory, the study (McLoughlin et al., 2021) showed that the relationships between the level of non-sports and sport-specific stress levels and health, which are exposed throughout life, are mediated by continuous stress assessments, the relationship between cognitive processes and stress has been shown. As a result of the study examining the exposure of individuals who play sports to various organizational stress factors, the evaluation processes of these situations and their coping strategies, the importance of categorizing stress management recommendations at both individual and institutional levels for certain target groups such as players, staff, and teams have been emphasized (Rumbold et al., 2018).

2.3. Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies

Under the title of "Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies", firstly the formation of the concept of emotion, its function in the lives of athletes, then the concept of emotion regulation and the place of this concept in sports, and finally cognitive emotion regulation strategies will be explained.

2.3.1. Emotion

Emotions have an auxiliary role in our lives. They can direct our attention to the environment, balance sensory perceptions, make it easier for us to make decisions about a subject, provide social relationships with other people, and improve episodic memory. On the other hand, depending on the intensity, duration, and type of the emotion, they can be

also harmful as well as beneficial to the individual (Gross, 2014; p.3). In general, the mentioned thing is that emotions are the motivational places in human life (Matsumoto et al., 2013). For example, while fear is aimed at keeping people alive, anger provides the necessary motivation to protect oneself (Greenberg, 2011). Besides its role in our lives, we may need a clear explanation of emotion.

Emotions are a concept that is constantly discussed. However, there is no standard definition that can be reached. If an empirical approach is developed to this issue, Frijda (1988) stated that emotions are the reactions of people to a situation depending on the laws. They are subjective experiences depending on pain or pleasure. In the definitions of emotion, the person-state relationship comes to the fore first. The individual feels emotion in line with the subject related. For example, if a situation will harm the social status of the person, feelings of anger can be aroused. Another situation is when the emotion leads to an action in the person. These are expressed as 'states of action readiness. Different emotions can be characterized by different states of action. For example, a person who feels humiliated may engage in retaliation. To summarize, situations related to the person can lead to a tendency to take action in different modalities (Frijda, 2007; Mesquita, 2003). Emotion, as a result of scientific research, is defined as a complex form of change including physiologically aroused, cognitive processes, and personal mental and bodily responses with behavioral responses to a situation are perceived as important (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2016). In addition to the definition of emotions, discussions continue on issues such as how many emotions there are, whether some emotions are simpler than others, whether emotion expressions change from culture to culture, and whether emotional responses or physiological responses are shown in other situations to change, and the relationship between cognitive processes and emotions (Ekman & Davidson, 1994 as cited in LeDoux, 1995).

Before determining what the concept of emotion is, it is necessary to have information about what it is not. The terms emotion and mood form a complex structure for psychologists. Although the words are often used interchangeably, most scholars have noted that the structures of the two concepts are different phenomena even though they are related (Beedie et al., 2005). In a study that examines the distinction between mood and emotion, content analysis results showed that there are differences according to cause, duration, control, experience, and consequences between the two concepts. In addition, there are 8 themes proposed from the literature about distinctions between mood and emotion which are duration, intentionality, cause, consequences, and function (Beedie et al., 2005). In a

common analogy, emotional reactions are expressed as a storm, and moods as seasonal climate changes (Rottenberg & Gross, 2007).

Although still, there is no definite point about the definition of emotions. Besides the definition, there are some theories about the characteristics of emotions. The first essential feature of emotion is when it arises. Appraisal theory states that emotions are formed as a result of the appraisals about a situation related to goals that are important to the individual (Lazarus, 1991). Lazarus (1984), who is the main proponent of cognitive emotion theory, stated that cognitive appraisals are important for finding the meaning of cognitive stimuli and coping with this stimulus. Modern appraisal theories see emotions not as a condition but as a process. This also expresses the fact that the term emotion is often used as a shortcut for an emotional state. Appraisal theories are seen as componential theories because an emotional state involves changes in several organism subsystems or components (Moors et al., 2013). In other words, emotions are important because they affect behavior through cognitive evaluation processes, namely appraisals and perception. For this reason, they affect people's decision-making processes and direct their search for goals (LeBlanc et al., 2017, p.4).

The second essential feature of emotion is that it has a multifaceted nature. Emotions include changes in subjective experiences throughout the body, and central and peripheral physiology (Mauss et al., 2005). Some theorists try to explain emotions through somatic sensations and aim to explain emotional expressions and the perception of these expressions (Zajonc, 1984). According to somatic theories, emotions occur as a result of bodily responses rather than cognitive judgments. Silvan Tomkins, Robert Plutchik, and Paul Ekman are important advocates of these theories (Folkman et al., 1986).

According to Tomkins (1984), the influence system is the basic motivation system that can increase other physical and bodily functions. Plutchik (1980) explains the evolution of emotions through instinctive behavior in animals. Ekman (1984), similar to the previous definitions of emotion, defines emotions as an adaptation process to cope with vital tasks and psychosomatic states that develop over time. According to Ekman, the main task of emotions is to help the organism react more quickly to a future situation, starting from the experienced situations. Gross (2014, p.5) defined an emotion as model in his book calls 'the modal model of emotion'. In this model emotion defined through situation- attention- appraisal- response sequence. This sequence usually begins with a psychologically related

situation. This situation can start with environmental stimuli as well as with internal stimuli. Regardless with it is external or internal, it is mostly ended up with appraisals comes from the individual's assessment of the situation which is related with their goals (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003 as cited in Gross, 2014). Studies on emotion span a wide spectrum. However, when research subjects are examined, it is seen that negative emotions such as anxiety, stress and anger come to the fore more than positive emotions such as fun, satisfaction and happiness (Jackson, 2000). Positive and negative emotions do not arise on their own. Individuals can experience different emotions at the same time, even if they are hedonic opposites, especially if they are mild or moderate in intensity (Cerin, 2004; Gilboa & Revelle, 1994).

Emotions have important roles in self-expression (Garnefski et al., 2002), in the formation of behavioral reactions in the decision-making process (Metin, 2018), and in facilitating interpersonal interaction. For this reason, it can be said that emotional regulation is the basis of social behavior and therefore it is important (Metin, 2018).

2.3.2. Emotion and Sport Performance

Examination of different emotions in sports has two kinds of importance, both theoretical and practical. First of all, it is considered important to study in sports because it is thought that emotions affect the performance of the athlete subjectively and/or objectively. The second importance is that it carries information in terms of the relationship between the athlete and the environment (Lazarus, 1999 as cited in Lazarus, 2000a). Thus, it provides a subjective perspective and the perceived coping style associated with the situation. Information on how athletes cope with such situations is important for the development of a program suitable for the development of the athlete's performance and for increasing their well-being. (Cerin, 2003). Although emotion is a broad concept for examining the relationship between emotion and performance, it is also possible to clarify the situation (McCarthy, 2011). Emotions can influence one's perception, attention, memory, decision-making and judgments which are essential elements for sport performance (Forgas, 1995).

Lazarus' (1991, 2000a) cognitive-motivational-relational (CMR) theory argues that certain emotions of athletes are guided by the theme that emerges as a result of the interaction of the individual and the environment. According to theory, depending on the complex athlete and environment interaction, the theme and action tendency associated with the situation will affect performance. For instance, if the emotion of anger creates a difference between the person's primary task and the resources to cope with that task, it can

negatively affect performance. However, anger can also positively affect performance if the performance provides an act of taking action against an opponent or attacker (Lazarus, 2000b).

The 800-meter runner can be considered as an example of the Lazarus CMRT model adapted to the sport. If an athlete is blocked / hit by his opponent during the race, it can be considered that this stimulus has something to do with his/her goal (winning the race) (Jones, 2003). If the athlete considers this interference as a threat to ego identity (purpose content), intentional behavior (blaming) and thinks that she can cope with a physical race (potential to cope), this event may result in anger. Lazarus (2000b) defined this situation as a 'demeaning offence against me and mine' (p. 234). As it is explained in the emotion part, appraisals are important not only to develop emotions but also to decide how emotions will affect sport performances. Thus, cognitive process should investigate broadly to develop understanding about emotions in sport. This subject will be discussed in the following sections.

The studies about the relationship between emotions and sports are measured by the Profile of Mood States (Beedie et al., 2000), the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (Craft et al., 2003) and the Individualized Zone of Optimal Functioning (IZOF) model (Jokela & Hanin, 1999).

In fact, reaching a state of well-being and achieving the desired performance in sports can be largely through the successful regulation of emotions (Gross & Thompson, 2007, p.4). In the next section, emotion regulation and the place of emotion regulation in sports will be discussed.

2.3.3. Emotion Regulation

Self-regulation is the process that includes actions, thoughts, emotions, and task performance to change an individual's continuum or reactions (Baumeister et al., 2007). Along with self-regulation, people became the subject who can control their behaviors in their life and emotional contexts (Koole et al., 2011). The strategies people used to develop to regulate their emotions are the main subject in recent empirical and theoretical studies and whether these strategies are adaptable or incompatible as well (Kring & Sloan, 2009). Emotion regulation can be defined as all the processes that change the flow of emotions, direct the emotions and take control (Gross & Thompson, 2007). Emotional responses in emotion regulation can be changed and the effect of the emotion can be alleviated (Wenar & Kerig, 2005 as cited in Karataş, 2020). Individuals face many conditions or situations that

trigger emotions internally or externally throughout their lives. In some conditions, when a condition or situation triggers not all emotions, emotions are triggered by internal or external stimuli, which shows emotion regulation (Karataş, 2020). Aldao (2013) stated that one of the main tasks of emotion regulation is to produce appropriate and regulated responses to the current situation. The emotion regulation process starts with determining which emotions individuals have when they have these emotions, how they are, how they affect their lives, and how they affect them. (Sloan & Kring, 2007).

In healthy emotion regulation process, people experience that in their daily lives that are essential to their daily lives. Because people prefer to regulate their emotions to maintain their social life when they feel emotions strongly (Gross et al., 2006). Many different activities in daily life can be defined as emotion regulation. Hitting the pillow when you get angry with a boss, pretending that the audience is naked when you get nervous at a piano recital, calling a friend when you are upset, going for a jog after an upsetting argument, listening to relaxing music after a busy workday can be examples of regulation process (Gross, 2014, p. 6). There are some essential features of emotion regulation. The first essential feature is the activation of a goal to modify the emotion-generative process (Gross et al., 2011). It can be activated in oneself or someone else. Gross (2014) gave the following example in his book about this feature. James regulates his own emotions which call intrinsic emotion regulation, James regulates Sarah's emotions which calls extrinsic emotion regulation. The second essential feature of emotion regulation is the involvement of processes responsible for modifying emotion (Gross, 2014).

According to Cole et. al. (1994), the emotion regulation process that takes place from time to time may not generate the targeted emotion. In addition, some types of emotion regulation may produce emotional consequences that the individual wishes to avoid, contrary to what is expected. If this situation is continuous, it may cause difficulty in emotion regulation, anxiety and mood disorders, harmful substance use, etc. It can cause psychopathologies consisting of various psychological disorders such as (Rude et al., 2004). It is seen in the literature that there are some variables examined about emotion regulation in Turkey. Although there are many studies on emotion regulation, the study of Şahin and Güçlü (2008) can be an example of research on what affects emotion regulation. According to the results of the study, resilience significantly predicts emotion regulation and explains 53 percent of the total variance. Gender variable is another variable whose relationship with emotion regulation was investigated. McRae et. al. (2008) investigated whether cognitive

emotion regulation strategies differ according to gender with the functional magnetic resonance imaging technique. Behaviorally, men and women showed comparable reductions in their negative emotional experiences. However, gender differences did occur at the neural level. Also, in another study, it was reported that women used several different emotion regulation strategies than men, and these differences were statistically significant even under control to reduce gender differences in depressive symptoms (Nolen-Hoeksema & Aldao, 2011).

When we look at the literature, some models related to emotion regulation processes are seen. Some of these are the process model (Gross, 1998), the functional coping model (Berking & Whitley, 2014), behavioral emotion regulation strategies (Kraaij & Garnefski, 2019), and cognitive emotion regulation strategies (Garnefski et al., 2002). Cognitive emotion regulation strategies among these models will be mentioned in the next section, as it is another variable of this research.

2.3.4. Emotion Regulation and Sport

Since the 1950s, the number of studies examining the effects of emotions in the field of sports has increased with the understanding of the effects of psychological factors on the performance of elite athletes (Regnier & Salmela, 1987, as cited in Eccles et al., 2011). How elite athletes regulate their emotions before, during, or after the performance is the main research topic of studies in sports psychology (Hardy et al., 1996).

Athletes use emotion regulation strategies if they think it will contribute to their performance, and 85% of them aim to control their emotions, such as anxiety, before a performance (Lane et al., 2011). In addition, when athletes prefer to regulate their emotions rather than suppressing them, it seems more beneficial (Lane et al., 2012). Uphill et al. (2009)'s study showed that in sports performance cognitive emotion regulation strategies such as attention, re-evaluation, and suppression are very critical and also create the basis of the behavior or internal emotions that occur during the performance (as cited in Altın, 2017).

In the sport psychology literature, when it comes to emotion regulation, a model calls the individual zones of optimal functioning (IZOF) (Hanin, 1997). This model focuses on the dynamics of individuals in pleasant and unpleasant emotions linked with the successful or non-successful performances as an idiographic (individual-oriented) sport-specific approach (Hagtvet & Hanin, 2007). The IZOF model opposed the idea that only positive emotions contributed to the performance and showed that anxiety, which is a negative

emotion, is not always harmful but can be beneficial when optimally controlled (Hanin, 1978, 1986).

Emotions defined as positive and negative can be helpful but also harmful depending on individuals' appraisals about those emotions (Hanin & Syrjä, 1995a, 1995b, cited in Robazza, 2016). An athlete may experience different levels of emotion, functional or nonfunctional. In either case, the adverse effects of emotion can be helpful (Robazza, 2016). It can be referred to that, to perform better, athletes try to define their optimal level of emotions and regulate them.

2.3.5. Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies

Cognition is intertwined with emotions (Strongman, 2003) and plays a critical role in people's emotions (Joormann et al., 2010). According to the cognitive theory of emotion, whether an emotion is experienced or not is determined as a result of cognitive evaluations, and therefore cognition is the first step in the formation process of emotions (Joormann et al., 2010; Siemer et al., 2007). Cognitions or cognitive processes help individuals cope with their emotions and enable them to be regulated when something negative is experienced or a stressful event is experienced, without being overwhelmed by their intensity (Garnefski et al., 2002). In summary, the regulation of emotions through thoughts is inextricably linked with human life. This cognitive regulation helps individuals to regulate, manage and control their emotions in situations of stress or danger (Garnefski et al., 2002). It is seen that some definitions have been made in the literature on cognitive emotion regulation.

According to Thompson (1991), cognitive emotion regulation can be defined as cognitively managing arousing emotional information. In other words, cognitive emotion regulation strategies are cognitive responses that individuals consciously or unconsciously give to emotional events to change the size and/or type of emotion or emotional experience (Rottenberg & Gross, 2003; Harvey et al., 2004). Cognitions or cognitive processes can be helpful to manage or regulate and keeping under control our emotions or feelings. In addition, it helps to handle those emotions, for instance, when during and after threatening or stressful situations (Garnefski et al., 2001). In their study, Garnefski et al. (2001) discussed cognitive emotion regulation strategies in two groups as adaptive and maladaptive coping strategies. In this way, acceptance, positive reappraisal, positive refocusing, putting into perspective, and refocusing on the plan are expressed as adaptive coping strategies. On the other hand, catastrophizing, rumination, and blaming oneself and others are expressed as

maladaptive coping strategies. In adaptive coping strategies, it is seen that the situation is reviewed by considering the experience in general, and positive emotional and physical responses to the stimulus that triggers the emotion are provided. (Gross, 1998).

Cognitive emotion regulation strategies involve nine dimensions in the instrument developed by Garnefski et. al. (2001) which consists of four items. The dimensions on the instrument, respectively, are as follows: Self-blame relates to the thoughts of blaming yourself for the situations experienced. Blaming others relates to the thought to blame others for the situations experienced. Acceptance relates to the thoughts of acceptance and letting yourself know what has happened. Refocus on planning relates to the thoughts of handling negative situations and making plans for them. Positive refocusing relates to the thoughts about happy and pleasurable things rather than the actual issue. Rumination relates to repetitive thoughts or feelings about negative situations. Positive reappraisal relates to the thoughts about looking at the positive perspective of the situations to keep personal growth. Putting into perspective relates with the thoughts of underestimating the seriousness of the event or comparing it to other events. Lastly, catastrophizing relates thoughts about negatively exaggerated situations (Garnefski et al., 2001).

When we look at the studies on adaptive and maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies, it is seen that people's use of adaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies affects positively such as reducing perceived stress and increasing psychological resilience; maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies were found to have negative effects (Demir et al., 2020; Gliebe, 2012).

2.4. Burnout and Perceived Stress

In their sports careers, athletes face many different personal and social performance demands, and they try to cope with these situations (Sarkar & Fletcher, 2014). They may experience stress when they cannot cope with these demands functionally (Nicholls et al., 2016). Even a single stress experience does not cause a problem, chronic stress experience can lead to harmful results such as burnout for athletes (Smith, 1986).

Smith's (1986) cognitive-affective stress model can take into account to describe the relationship between burnout and stress. According to the model, constantly when there is an imbalance between sport-specific demands and athletes' coping skills, it can cause chronic stress resulting in burnout (Smith, 1986). In this study, it is important not only to

investigate the relationship between stress and burnout but also to investigate which coping strategies are effective in this relationship.

When the studies in the literature are examined, it has been seen that the relationship between stress and burnout has been investigated in different areas other than sports. For instance, the study among dental students examined the relations between emotional exhaustion, burnout, and perceived stress. The study result showed that all students with perceived stress also had burnout (Jimenez-Ortiz et al., 2019). Swami et al. (2013) found a positive correlation between burnout and perceived stress and a negative correlation with trait emotional intelligence in their study with physician participants. In the mediation analysis, it was shown that perceived stress mediated the effect of trait emotional intelligence on burnout. Similar results were found in another study conducted on healthcare professionals. The results of the study showed that there are significant relationships between the variables of perceived stress, burnout and job satisfaction (Munnangi et al., 2018). Similar results were obtained in a study in which the same concept was used with school counselors. The perceived stress and burnout in the participants were found to be negatively related to their job satisfaction, and it was also found that burnout was a mediating variable between these two variables (Mullen et al., 2017). Considering the results of this study, it can be interpreted that stress and burnout are variables used together in many studies and this relationship is also studied with other variables. In this study, it was tried to examine a variable that could be a moderator between these two variables in the sports environment.

There are also studies in which the variables of perceived stress and burnout are studied together in the field of sports. In a study examining the mediating role of perceived stress between burnout and perfectionism, it was seen that athletes with high levels of perfectionism perceived higher levels of stress and thus were more prone to burnout (Olsson et al., 2021). In another study conducted on Norwegian athletes, the effect of many variables on burnout was examined and it was determined that among the variables, perceived stress has the strongest relative effect on athlete burnout (Raanes et al., 2019). Apart from athletes, it is seen that there are other studies examining these variables in the sports environment. For example, in a study conducted with athletic trainers, it was found that perceived stress, along with other variables, predicted burnout to a large extent (DeFreese & Mihalik, 2016). According to the literature review, studies that directly examine the relationship between perceived stress and burnout in sports are considered to be relatively few, as far as is known.

In addition, studies on perceived stress and burnout with different variables are also available in the sports environment as in other fields.

Gustafsson et al. (2015) examined the relationship between mindfulness and burnout with the mediating role of the perceived stress variable in their study with 233 athletes. According to the results, mindfulness has a significant negative relationship with both perceived stress and burnout. In another study examining the mediating role of perceived stress, the relationship between burnout and optimism in competitive athletes was examined. The findings showed that individual factors such as optimism may play an important role in the development of burnout due to their association with stress (Gustafsson & Skoog, 2012). Considering the mentioned studies, it is thought that there is a strong relationship between stress and burnout, which may be related to some different variables. This study, it is aimed to examine the dynamics of the relationship between perceived stress and burnout.

2.5. Burnout and Cognitive Emotion Regulation

Maslach and Jackson (1981) define burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs among individuals working in human-related jobs. Emotional exhaustion is both the definition of burnout and one of its components. In this respect, it can be thought that the concept of 'emotion' is an important phenomenon in burnout. The relationship between emotions and burnout is seen in the literature in Lazarus's (1966) coping model.

The way individuals manage stressful situations is expressed by Lazarus with the concept of coping. Coping is defined as “the thoughts and behaviors people use to manage the internal and external demands of situations that are considered stressful” (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Emotion-focused coping, which is one of the coping styles, involves alleviating the negative emotional consequences of stressful events by changing one's evaluations and emotions (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Considering the relationship between stress and burnout, as mentioned above, it is thought that how effectively one can cope with these situations may be related to burnout. In the literature, according to the findings of a meta-analysis study examining coping strategies and burnout among various occupational groups, it was found that emotion-focused coping was associated with higher levels of burnout in general, and problem-focused coping was associated with lower burnout levels (Shin. et al., 2014).

Considering the studies on emotion regulation, researchers have focused on cognitive emotion regulation strategies, which refer to cognitive strategies to manage the reception of emotionally stimulating information (Garnefski et al., 2001). Studies on burnout and emotion regulation are available both in other fields and in the field of sports. The results of a study conducted among university students revealed that there is a negative relationship between burnout and emotion regulation. In other words, it was found to be associated with higher levels of burnout, less cognitive reappraisal, and more expressive suppression (Chalikkandy et al., 2022). Looking at the findings of another study, it was found that the use of automatic cognitive regulation strategies was associated with negative affect and burnout, while elaborative processes were associated with positive affect and engagement (Castellano et al., 2019). Considering the results of another study examining the relationship between cognitive emotion regulation strategies and burnout among geriatric nursing personnel, it is seen that cognitive emotion regulation strategies were found to predict variability in depersonalization, one of the sub-dimensions of burnout, but not in emotional exhaustion or variability in personal achievement. However, rumination was associated with greater depersonalization, and refocusing on planning was associated with lower depersonalization (Bamonti et al., 2020).

When examining the studies in the field of sports, studies in which burnout and cognitive emotion regulation strategies are studied together, as far as is known, could not be found. However, there are also studies examining the relationship between these two variables and different variables in the field of sports (González-García et al., 2020; Madigan et al., 2020; Smith, 2021; Wagstaff, 2014). As mentioned in the previous sections, it is thought that studying these variables, which are thought to be related, together will fill the gap in the literature.

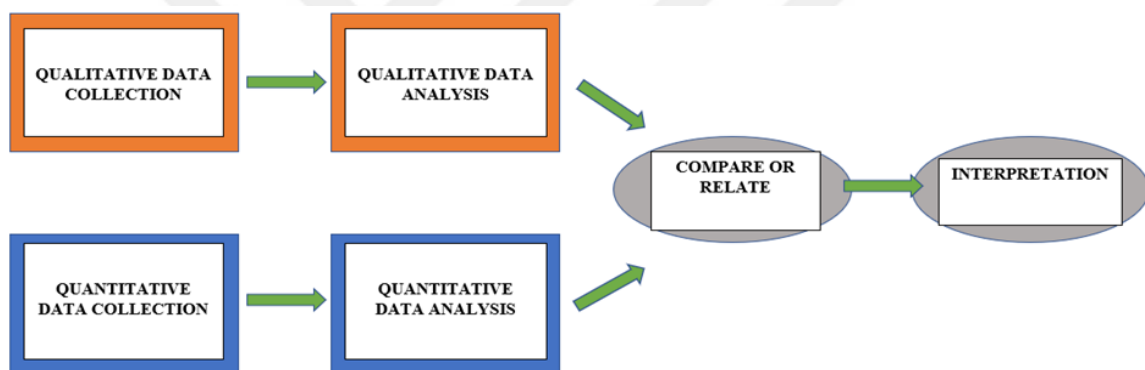
CHAPTER 3

3. METHOD

In this study mixed method was used which evaluates qualitative and quantitative results together (Creswell & Clark, 2015). Mixed method research is a process in which quantitative and/or qualitative data collected simultaneously or sequentially are integrated and analyzed in one or more stages in a single study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003 as cited in Byrne & Humble, 2007). Process of this research given in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Diagram of the Applied Convergent Parallel Design



(Creswell, 2014)

3.1. Study 1

In this section, information is given about the design of the study, participants, the materials used in the research and the research process.

3.1.1. Design

In this study, phenomenological approach was used as the research design which aims to examine individuals experience about a concept or phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). The phenomenon was studied in this research is ‘‘athletes’ stressors and coping strategies’’. The starting point of the research is to try to understand the stress that athletes are exposed to in the context of the systems they are in as well as individually and how they cope with

this stress. The processes of the athletes were tried to examine based on their own experiences.

3.1.2. Participants

As a prerequisite in the phenomenological approach, participants are expected to have experience with the phenomenon the researcher is examining. Criterion-based sampling, which is one of the purposive sampling methods, is used to select participants who have experience in the subject the researcher wants to examine (Creswell, 2013). For this reason, the participants were selected from among male and female athletes aged 18 and over who have a license from their own sports federation showing that they are official athletes. And also; Individuals who have been away from the sports environment for a long time for any reason, who have no previous competitive experience, who have a psychiatric diagnosis and/or who regularly use psychiatric drugs were not included in the study. Since the phenomenological approach will be used in the qualitative part of the research, the number of participants was determined according to when the data reached the saturation point.

The participants of the qualitative study consist of 11 athletes, 5 women and 6 men. All of the athletes are people who have been doing sports actively and for a long time. Athletes were selected from various branches by paying attention to the distribution of men and women. These branches are fencing, swimming, volleyball, football, tennis, taekwondo, and shooting. 7 of the participants are national athletes and 4 of them are professionally engaged in this sport. The age distribution of the athletes is between 23-41. All athletes gave consent to participate in the research, and no athlete subsequently refused to participate in the interview. After the interview, the participants allowed the information obtained during the interview to be used in the research, provided that their private information is reserved.

3.1.3. Materials

3.1.3.1. Demographic Information Form

Information such as gender, age, education, marital status, type of sport, year of sport, competition experience, national team or athlete experiences, and any psychological support experience are included in the form (see Appendix A).

3.1.3.2. Formation of Semi-structured Interview Questions

While creating semi-structured interview questions, it was aimed to include questions for the purpose of the research. For this purpose, a literature review was conducted, and a question pool was created. The questions selected from the question pool were finalized by taking the opinions of 2 experts working in this field. Afterwards, pilot interviews were conducted with 3 licensed former athletes who were trained or continue to study in the field of psychology, and the questions were finalized (see Appendix B).

3.1.4. Process

First, the athletes who met the research criteria were reached and their consent to participate in the research was obtained. Participants were reached through the sports center where they trained. The interviews were planned in March and April, and the dates and times of the interviews were determined according to the times when the athletes were available. Two athletes were interviewed face-to-face, and other athletes were interviewed via the online platform (zoom). The contact link was communicated to the athletes via their contact numbers. During the interview, only people allowed by the researcher were allowed to participate in the interview platform. The meeting place was planned in accordance with the silent and ethical interview conditions. Athletes were informed about the nature of the research prior to the interview, and verbal consent was obtained for participation in the research and audio recording. In order for the athletes to warm up to the interview, they were first informed about the concepts used in the research (eg what is stress, the effects of stress, etc.). Then, demographic information questions and then research questions were asked to the athletes.

After the interviews were completed, the audio recordings of the athletes were deciphered within the ethical framework and before the analysis, the athletes were asked to give their consent by sending transcripts. After the necessary additions/arrangements were approved, the analysis process of the transcripts was started.

3.1.5. Analysis of Data

Before collecting data, ethical approval was taken from the ethical committee of the Ankara Yildirim Beyazit University. The study code is 2021-290 (see Appendix C).

Data analyzes were performed with the MAXQDA2022 program. The transcripts were first read by taking notes on the program, and then the coding process was started. While coding, the aim of the research and similar studies were taken into consideration. After the coding was completed, an expert opinion was also taken. Then, categories and themes were created and analyzed.

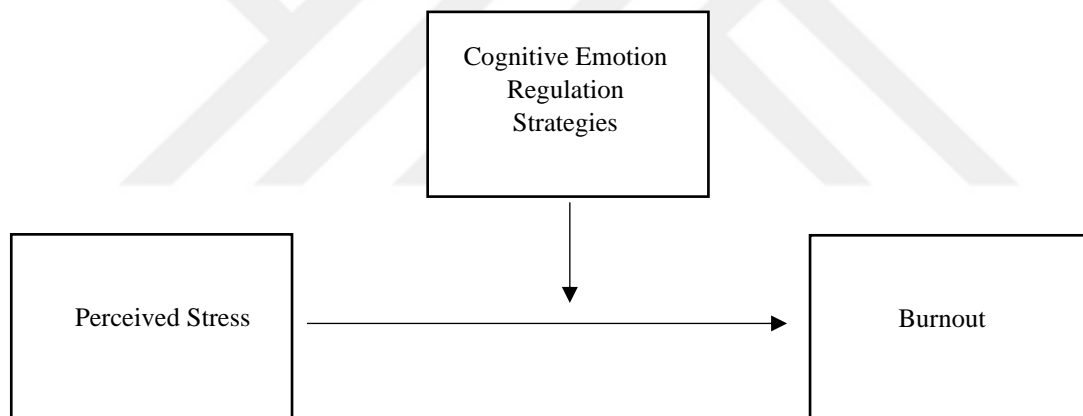
3.2. Study 2

In this section, information is given about the design of the study, participants, the materials used in the research and the research process.

In the quantitative dimension of the research, moderation analysis was performed. In Figure 2 the model of the research is given.

Figure 2

Conceptual Model



3.2.1. Participants

The participants of the quantitative study consisted of male or female athletes who were active in various sports branches among the athletes aged 18 and over. And also; Individuals who have been away from the sports environment for a long time for any reason, who have no previous competitive experience, who have a psychiatric diagnosis and/or who regularly use psychiatric drugs were not included in the study. Athletes were given an informed consent form before participating in the study. According to the power analysis, 103 participants seemed sufficient $B= .95$, $A=0.05$. For this reason, 103 licensed athletes participated in the study. A different quantitative study group was selected from the qualitative study group participants.

3.2.2. Materials

3.2.2.1. Demographic Information Form

Information such as gender, age, education, marital status, type of sport, year of sport, competition experience, national team or athlete experiences, and any psychological support experience are included in the form (see Appendix A).

3.2.2.2. Perceived Stress Scale

Perceived Stress Scale was developed by Cohen and colleagues (1983) to measure how stressful a person perceives certain situations in his life. The scale consists of a total of 14 items and 2 sub-dimensions, in a 5-point Likert type that is evaluated between 0 (none) and 4 (very frequent). Sub-dimensions included in the scale, it is the perception of insufficient Self-Efficacy and Stress / Discomfort. In the original form of the scale, it was determined that the Cronbach's Alpha value varied between .75 and .86 for the total scale and sub-dimensions. The scale was adapted into Turkish by Eskin et. al. (2013) as a 10-item short form. In the validity and reliability study, the internal consistency coefficient for the whole scale was .82 and the reliability coefficient for test-retest was determined as .88. As a result of the validity analysis, it was found that perceived stress scale has a significant and positive relationship with life events score ($r = .49$) and depression ($r = .62$); It was revealed that it was negatively related to life satisfaction ($r = -.39$), self-esteem ($r = -.39$), perceived social support from family ($r = -.26$) and perceived social support from friends ($r = -.22$). In this study, the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient for the whole scale is .88, .86 for the perception of stress-discomfort sub-dimension, and .74 for the perception of insufficient self-efficacy (see Appendix D).

3.2.2.3. Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies Scale

The cognitive emotion regulation scale has been developed by Garnefski and colleagues (2002) to evaluate the cognitive strategies used by individuals to manage their emotions in stressful life events. The scale consists of 36 items in 5-point Likert type evaluated between 1 (never) and 5 (always) and 9 sub-dimensions. The sub-dimensions included in the scale are: Self-blame, blaming others, refocusing on thought, disaster, positive refocusing, re-focusing on the plan, positive revision, putting it into perspective and accepting it. In the original form of the scale, the Cronbach's Alpha value ranges from .75 to

.86 for subscales in the adult sample. Test-retest reliability for sub-dimensions was reported to be between .48 and .65 (Garnefski et al., 2002). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Onat and Otrar (2010). The internal consistency values for the sub-dimensions of this adaptation were .56 for the self-blame sub-dimension, .56 for the acceptance sub-dimension, .62 for the focusing on thinking sub-dimension, .42 for the positive refocus sub-dimension, .68 for the refocusing sub-dimension. .66 for positive revision sub-dimension, .51 for placing in perspective sub-dimension, .71 for disaster sub-dimension, and .72 for blaming others sub-dimension. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient for the sub-dimensions of this study is .67 for the self-blame sub-dimension, .54 for the acceptance sub-dimension, .68 for the focusing on thinking sub-dimension, .65 for the positive refocus sub-dimension, .74 for the refocusing sub-dimension. .69 for positive revision sub-dimension, .66 for placing in perspective sub-dimension, .73 for disaster sub-dimension, and .77 for blaming others sub-dimension (see Appendix E.)

3.2.2.4. Athlete Burnout Questionnaire

Athlete Burnout Questionnaire developed by Raedeke and Smith (2001) in order to measure burnout levels of athletes. Burnout scale formed with 3 sub-dimensions such as decreasing feel of success, emotional / physical exhaustion and desensitization. Each sub-dimension evaluate with 5 items and the questionnaire has totally 15 items. The increase score of average from sub-dimensions means that athletes face with their emotions more frequently. In athlete Burnout Questionnaire Cronbach Alfa score for decreasing feel of success sub-dimension is 0.84, for emotional / physical exhaustion sub-dimension is 0.88 and for desensitization sub-dimension is 0.87 (Raedeke & Smith, 2001). The questionnaire evaluates with five-point likert scale. 1 represents "Never" and 5 represents "Always". Some of scale items' examples are given in the below (Raedeke & Smith, 2001). Turkish adaptation study of Athlete Burnout Scale made by Kelecek and colleagues (2016). In the adaptation study, the items stated in the original scale It was observed that it was collected in sub-dimensions and the 3-factor structure of the scale was preserved. However, 2 items in the scale were excluded due to low factor load and the scale was evaluated on 13 items. Internal consistency coefficients of .87 for the Emotional / Physical Exhaustion subscale; .75 for the Diminishing Sense of Success sub-dimension and It was determined as .83 for the desensitization sub-dimension. Cronbach Alpha internal consistency obtained for this study the coefficients were found .84 for the decreasing feel of success sub-dimension, .84

for the emotional / physical exhaustion sub-dimension, and .72 for desensitization sub-dimension (see Appendix F).

3.2.3. Design

Since this research represents the relational screening model, the participants answered the scales selected for the research question. Snowball sampling method was used to select the participants. In the study, the perceived stress sub-dimensions are the independent variable, the cognitive emotion regulation strategies sub-dimensions are the moderator variable, and the burnout sub-dimensions are the dependent variable.

3.2.4. Procedure

Before collecting data, ethical approval was taken from the ethical committee of the Ankara Yildirim Beyazit University. The study code is 2021-290 (see Appendix C). Informed consent was obtained from all patients for being included in the study (see Appendix G). First, women athletes answered the demographic information form, perceived stress scale, cognitive emotion regulation strategies scale, athlete burnout questionnaire. The athletes answered informed consent, demographic information form, and scales via the online platform (Qualtrics).

3.2.5. Analysis of Data

Data entry and required statistical analysis were performed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 and Jamovi 1.6.23 after the data collection. Additionally, missing variables were replaced after the data entrance. As stated in the articles of the perceived stress scale and athlete burnout questionnaire, some questions were reverse coded in the data entry. The sub-dimensions of the scales used after data entry were created as specified in the scale articles. For all the sub-dimensions, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated.

Normality, linearity, and the homogeneity of the sample variances (homoscedasticity) and multicollinearity are the basic assumptions of statistics before data analysis. Furthermore, whether the data had excessive scores was examined. Multivariate extreme values as a result of the analysis Mahalanobis distance ($p < .001$); univariate extreme values are evaluated according to the z distribution ($z \geq 3.30$) and no participants with

excessive scores in the data has been seen. Determination of normality, other than statistical tests, graphic drawings, comparison of means, etc., can also be determined. In normality, the arithmetic means, mode, and median values are equal (Karagöz, 2019: p.121). When the values of the dependent variable sub-dimensions in the study are examined, it can be said that it is a normal distribution. When the Q-Q plot tables of the variables are examined, it is observed that there is a normal distribution.

To calculate the characteristic of the athletes, descriptive statistics were used and finally, moderation analysis was performed by Jamovi 1.6.23.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

In this part of the study, the demographic information of the participants, descriptive statistics about the scales, correlation analysis, and qualitative and quantitative analyzes were included in order to answer the research questions.

4.1. Study 1 / Qualitative Study

4.1.1. Characteristics of the Participants

The participants of the qualitative study consist of 11 athletes, 5 women and 6 men. All of the athletes are people who have been doing sports actively and for a long time. Athletes were selected from various branches by paying attention to the distribution of men and women. These branches are fencing, swimming, volleyball, football, tennis, taekwondo, and shooting. 7 of the participants are national athletes and 4 of them are professionally engaged in this sport. The age distribution of the athletes is between 23-41.

4.1.2. Qualitative Analysis

The results derived from the data analysis procedures represent the athletes' collected responses. A total of 238 code provided from the interview transcripts. These were abstracted into 54 high-order themes and 94 lower-order themes. Those were subsequently categorized into 15 general dimensions. While creating the categories, the studies conducted in this field (Hanton et al., 2013; Rumbold et al., 2018) and the observations of the researcher were used. General dimensions were deductively categorized into the following components of the stress audit: The stressors encountered by athletes, the coping strategies, the stress outcomes, the perception of the stress and areas with the highest perceived stress. Table 1-15 show the high-order themes and general dimensions of each stress audit components. Lower-order themes were also showed in the table.

4.1.2.1. The Stressors Encountered by Athletes

The general dimensions for the stressors encountered by athletes were performance issues, team issues, leadership issues, environmental issues and opponent issues.

4.1.2.1.1. Performance Issues

Performance issues encompassed all competitive stresses directly related to competitive performance faced by athletes in their sports careers (see Table 1). The high-order themes within this dimension were: Preparation, perceived unfairness, injury, pressure, and self.

Only the ‘inadequate technical preparation’ was mentioned within the preparation theme. Also, ‘perceived unfairness during competition by referees’ within the perceived unfairness; ‘injury to affect performance’ within the theme of injury.

The most frequently cited themes within pressure were ‘expectations from others’ and ‘being watched by others during the performance’ which were also the most mentioned low-order themes in performance issues. This is illustrated in the following quote:

“It was the year under the age of 17 category, I am the first in the European ranking, I am in the first place as a result of all the matches, a medal is expected from there. Two days ago, my friend received a medal in the girls’ category, which was the first in the history of the branch. So, two days later, I had a match with the winner, I was the first, all arrows were turned towards me. They said things like, "Come on, it's your turn and so on". Then on the morning of the match, when we go to the hall, we are waiting for the shuttle bus, the ring bus. I looked at my hands, they were shaking, it was something I witnessed for the first time.”

(F-1)

Lastly, the cited theme withing the self was ‘appearance’. It seems like for the athletes, how they look in the match or in their daily lives and how they create a perception on their opponents can also be a source of stress.

Table 1

The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Performance Issues

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
	Preparation	Inadequate Technical Preparation (1)
	Perceived Unfairness	Perceived unfairness during competition by referees (2)
	Injury	Injury to affect performance (2)
Performance Issues		
	Pressure	Pressure to continue good performance (3) Expectations from others (5) Result oriented thinking (4) Being watched by others during the performance (5) Failure to receive rewards for the effort put in (1)

Making constantly mistakes during performance (1)

Pressure in international competitions (1)

Putting pressure on yourself (5)

Being seen as a failure by others (1)

Self

Appearance (2)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.1.2. Team Issues

All the situations that the athletes encountered in the team and defined as stress were included in the 'Team Issues' (see Table 2). The high-order themes within this dimension were: Attitudes of teammates and relationship with the teammates.

The most frequently cited theme within attitudes of teammates was 'aggressive attitudes of teammates. This is illustrated in the following quote:

'Since I am young, there are many situations in volleyball that are older and younger than age. If she is older than you, you must treat her like a big sister. You shouldn't talk too much, and you need to perform better. Someone came to me and said 'play bravely, we need you. It's like we can't accept it'. There were also those who supported me on the field, but they were saying it in such stressful words that forced me to say it like that''. (V-2)

In addition, only the 'conflict between the teammates' was mentioned within the relationship with the teammates theme.

Table 2

The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Team Issues

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
	Attitudes of teammates	Aggressive attitudes of teammates (7)
Team Issues	Relationship with teammates	Conflict between the teammates (1)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.1.3. Leadership Issues

All the situations that the athletes encountered stressors based on leadership situations were included in the 'Leadership Issues' (see Table 3). The high-order themes within this dimension were: Officials/ Staff, Sports Fans and Coach.

Mainly, athletes mentioned the stressors about sports fans and coach. The most frequently cited theme within sports fans was 'aggressive attitudes of sports fans. In addition, the most mentioned theme within coach were 'not good relationship with the coach, non-supportive coaching style, expectations from coach and aggressive attitudes of the coach.

Table 3

The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Leadership Issues

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
	Officials / Staff	Problems with the officials (2)
		Uncertainties about the organization (2)
Leadership Issues	Sports Fans	Aggressive attitudes of sports fans (3)
	Coach	Not good relationships with the coach (3)
		Non-supportive coaching style (3)
		Expectations from coach (3)
		Aggressive attitudes of the coach (3)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes

4.1.2.1.4. Environmental Issues

All the situations that the athletes encountered stressors based on environmental situations were included in the 'Environmental Issues' (see Table 4). The high-order

themes within this dimension were: Facilities and equipment, travel, competition environment and training environment.

The most frequently cited theme within facilities and equipment was ‘lack of facilities and equipment’, within travel was ‘travelling long distances’, within competition environment was ‘performing in an unfamiliar environment’ and lastly, within training environment was ‘staying in the training area for a long time’. An example of these themes were given in the following quote:

“Sometimes we have problems in reaching the opportunities. Sometimes this is a polygon, and sometimes it is the ammunition we will use. When we cannot find basic materials, how these will affect your performance and how they will affect your training. We are dealing with them more”. (S-1)

Table 4

The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Environmental Issues

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Environmental Issues	Facilities and Equipment	Lack of facilities and equipment (1)
	Travel	Travelling long distances (1)
	Competition Environment	Shortcomings of the organizing city (1)
		Performing in an unfamiliar environment (1)
	Training Environment	Staying in the training area for a long time (1)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.1.5. Opponent Issues

Finally, one of the stressors that athletes face in their careers is the situations related to their opponents. Stress situations experienced by athletes due to competitors are shown as

‘Opponent Issues’ (see Table 5). Opponent issues encompassed all competitive stresses directly related to competitive performance faced by athletes in their sports careers (see Table 5). The high-order themes within this dimension were: Performance of opponent, characteristics of opponent and relationship with opponent.

The most mentioned low-order themes within characteristics of opponent were ‘fear of losing to younger opponents. This is illustrated in the following quote:

‘I played a match last week. I don't know my opponent. For example, I said that the child is worse than me, I can easily beat this child. But again, something happens with a person, but when you lose 2 points in a row, you start to tense about why it happens like this’. (T-1)



Table 5

The Stressors Encountered by Athletes: Opponent Issues

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Opponent Issues	Performance of Opponent	Increasing the performance of opponents (1)
	Characteristics of opponent	Fear of losing to younger opponents (3)
	Relationship with an opponent	Playing with an opponent with whom not on good relationships (2)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.2. Coping Strategies of Athletes

The general dimensions for the coping strategies were problem-focused strategies, emotion-focused strategies, reappraisal-focused strategies, and avoidance strategies.

4.1.2.2.1. Problem-focused Strategies

Athletes can use a number of strategies to effectively cope with the stressors they encounter. Some athletes use some problem-focused coping strategies to cope with the situation, such as seeking social support. The higher-order themes within the problem-

focused were nutrition, divert attention, increased effort, communication, and informational support (see Table 6).

It is seen that athletes use the strategy of directing their attention, especially when exposed to a stressor. The most used techniques within the theme of divert attention were focusing on the technique/tactics and to divert attention to another area other than the stressful situation. It seems that athletes try to cope with the situation by focusing on their performance when exposed to stress, by thinking about which technique or tactic to apply. Example is given below:

‘I am trying to convey the match to my mind, I go to the match area as early as possible, I do the things I plan to do in the match during the warm-up process. I even take a friend of mine and say to him, for example, this is my opponent, he will fight this and that, you do the same’. (TK-1)

Table 6

The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Problem-Focused Strategies

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Problem-focused Strategies	Nutrition	Establishing a good diet (1)
	Divert Attention	Focusing on something that feels better (2)
		Focusing on technique/tactics (13)
		Divert attention to another area from the stressor (8)
		Performance Routines (1)
	Increased Effort	Trying to get to know the competition area (2)
To gain experience (2)		
Communication	Talking to the person who caused stress (2)	
Informational Support	Getting feedback from others (1)	

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.2.2. Emotion-focused Strategies

Emotion-focused coping strategies include the strategies that athletes use to control their emotions against the stressors they encounter. The higher-order themes within the emotion-focused strategies were mindful techniques, relaxation, projection, self-talk and receiving support (see Table 7).

Among these themes, the strategies that the athletes stated most used were primarily breathing and then positive self-talk. Athletes stated that they try to relax by breathing to both focus their attention and control their intense emotions in the face of the stress they face at that moment. The following is an athlete's experience as an example:

“During the match, I do things to encourage myself, for example, I just started meditation, a friend suggested. Nighttime meditation. The diaphragm breathes. It was very good because meditation affects breathing a lot in the match too”. (F-2)

Table 7

The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Emotion-Focused Strategies

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
	Mindful Techniques	Body-scan exercise (2)
	Relaxation	Breathing (9)
Emotion-focused Strategies		

Projection	Projecting the emotion to another direction/person (1)
------------	--

Self-talk	Directive self-talk (1)
	Positive self-talk (5)

Receiving Support	Social Support from others (4)
	Social Support from teammates (1)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.2.3. Reappraisal-focused Strategies

Reappraisal-focused strategies consist of to re-evaluate the stressful situations that athletes faced in order to cope with them. The high-order themes within the reappraisal-focused strategies were re-evaluate the stress response and evaluate the situation from a different perspective (see Table 8). The athletes mostly mentioned about the putting positive perspective on stress and being motivated by a negative situation. This is illustrated in the following quote:

‘I think because I am an ambitious person, the more I play badly, the better I play when I give myself some suggestions. I'm angry that I can do better. If the coach is very angry, for example, sometimes I get angry like this and say, "Okay, you'll see, I'll shut you up." I play better’. (V-2)

Table 8

The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Reappraisal-Focused Strategies

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Reappraisal-focused Strategies	Re-evaluate the stress response	Putting positive perspective on stress (2)
	Evaluate the situation from a different perspective	Getting confidence to being a recognized athlete (1) Be motivated by a negative situation (2)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.2.4. Avoidance Strategies

Avoidance strategies include the strategies that athletes use to avoid the stressor instead of actively coping with the stressor or managing emotions. The high-order theme within the avoidance strategies was avoiding which consist of avoiding/moving away from the stressful environment (see Table 9).

Table 9

The Coping Strategies of Athletes: Avoidance Strategies

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Avoidance Strategies	Avoiding	Avoiding /moving away from the stressful environment (2)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.3. Stressor Outcomes

4.1.2.3.1. Behavioral Outcomes

Behavioral outcome includes behavioral patterns that emerge as a result of athletes' experience with a stressor. The high-order themes within behavioral outcomes were motivation, performance, nutrition, sleep patterns and concentration. The themes and how often the athletes mentioned these themes are shown in the table 10.

Among the themes, the most mentioned themes were poor performance and difficulties in concentration. Athletes think that their performance affected by stressor negatively and because of stress they cannot perform as they want. In addition, they stated that they had difficulties in concentrating under stress. The following is an athlete's experience as an example:

'I think ahead in times of stress I don't know why it happens. I need to concentrate on the moment, I need to focus, but I think ahead, I don't know'. (T-1)

Table 10

The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Behavioral Outcomes

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
	Motivation	Decreased motivation (7)
		Increased motivation (2)
	Performance	Poor performance (6)
		Freeze response (1)
Behavioral Outcomes	Nutrition	Emotional eating (1)
	Sleep Patterns	Poor sleep (2)
	Concentration	Difficulties in concentration (4)
		Increased concentration (1)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.3.2. Physical Outcomes

Physical outcomes include physical symptoms that athletes experiencing under the stress. The high-order themes were physical effects, tiredness and injury (see Table 11).

The most mentioned themes were muscle tension within the physical effects and feeling physically tired within the injury. This is illustrated in the following quote:

“My shoulders hurt; I could never stop it. My neck hurts unbelievably, I can't sleep, it's getting physical. For example, when I am very nervous in training, my muscles tense or I do not want to train, or if I have high stress in a workout, my body starts to give signals”. (F-2)

Table 11

The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Physical Outcomes

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Physical Outcomes	Physical Effects	Muscle tension (6)
		Increased arousal (3)
	Tiredness	Feeling physically tired (4)
	Injury	The risk of injury (3)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.3.3. Emotional Outcomes

Emotional outcomes refer to the emotional reactions of athletes when they are exposed to stress. The high-order themes within emotional outcomes were anxiety, ambition, fear, anger, and self-confidence (see Table 12).

The most mentioned theme was fear of performing desired performance within fear. Athletes mostly feel fear to not performing as they do in the trainings when they face with stressor. The following is an athlete's experience as an example:

‘I'm a little scared too. I'm afraid of not being able to do what I aim for and want to do’.
(S-2)

Table 12

The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Emotional Outcomes

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Emotional Outcomes	Anxiety	Anxiety (worry) for the performance (3)
	Ambition	Ambition to perform well (2)
	Fear	Fear of performing desired performance (4)

Anger	Anger towards others (1)
	Anger towards himself / herself (1)
Self-confidence	Feeling inadequacy (1)
	Decreased self-confidence (1)
Sadness	Feeling sad for the undesired performance (2)
Aggression	Aggression towards referee's decisions (1)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.3.4. Cognitive Outcomes

Cognitive outcomes show what cognitions athletes have when they are exposed to stress. The high-order themes were burnout-based cognitions, anxiety-based cognitions and performance-related cognitions (see Table 13).

The most mentioned theme was thoughts based on anxiety. This is illustrated in the following quote:

‘There is a constant debate. Okay, that elbow is fine because I'm in these conditions, then I say, can I swim? The time for this is not before the race, but of course, yes, something is at

stake due to the stress and anxiety of the moment. What will the other athletes swim, what rank will I be, will I be able to maintain the current position or not?’’ (SW-2)

Table 13

The Outcomes Facing with Stressor in Athletes: Cognitive Outcomes

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
Cognitive Outcomes	Burnout-based Cognitions	Anhedonia (1)
	Anxiety-based Cognitions	Feeling mentally tired (2)
		Anxiety about what others think (1)
		Thoughts based on anxiety (4)
	Performance-related Cognitions	Uncertain thoughts about performance (2)
		Continually thinking about the competition (2)

Note. The numbers in parentheses in the last column indicate the rate at which each stressor is mentioned by the athletes.

4.1.2.4. The Perception of Stress

Stress perception includes how athletes define stress and how they think it is affected. When the definitions of the athletes about what stress is, it is seen that the themes are neutral stress perception, positive stress perception and negative stress perception. Neutral stress perception refers to situations in which athletes do not think that stress has a long-term effect on them or that they do not define as positive/negative.

In the table below, the themes related to the stress perceptions of the athletes are given. In addition to the more frequent mention of the negative stress perception by the athletes, there are also athletes who have a positive stress perception, expressing that it reflects positively on their performance.

Table 14

The Perception of Stress in Athletes: Stress Perception

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
	Neutral Perception	Not a long-lasting condition
Stress Perception	Positive Perception	Must have, needed Excitement

Negative Perception

Panic/not knowing what to do

Pressure

Barrier to goals

What is unusual /affecting
performance

4.1.2.5. Areas with the Highest Perceived Stress

In the interviews with the athletes, the athletes were also asked when they felt the mentioned stress factors the most. The areas where the stress is felt most include the areas where the athletes experience the effects of stress most intensely. The high-order themes were before the competition, during the competition and other (see Table 15).

Table 15

Areas with the Highest Perceived Stress

General Dimension	High-order themes	Lower-order themes (examples)
		During the preparation time
	Before the Competition	The period until the competition starts
		Training that doesn't perform well
		Important /critical situations
	During Competition	Having a win/loss situation
Areas with the highest perceived stress		Making positive conversations about winning
	Other	The time when thinking can't cope with the stress

It doesn't change according to situations

When the athlete's self-confidence decreases

4.2. Study 2 / Quantitative Study

4.2.1. Characteristics of the Participants

Athletes' ages who are participants of the study ranged between 18 and 60 ($M= 24.5$, $SD= 7.8$). 103 athletes participated in the study, and they all have active sport careers which means having an official sport license and participating in competitions constantly. An athletes' license is a document that athletes must obtain a visa every year and cannot participate in competitions without it. To get a license, the athletes must have a certain year of experience in their branches. For some components, they must be at a particular generation level and a certain age by taking the generation exams. For this reason, in our research, it has been accepted that having a license is one of the criteria that shows that they are doing sports for purposes other than hobby and that they are active.

Participation in the study was made from a wide variety of sports branches, and 73 of the athletes are doing individual sports (%70.9) and 30 of them are doing team sports (%29.1). Other demographic characteristics of athletes are shown in Table 16.

Table 16*Sociodemographic Characteristics of Athletes*

Characteristics	N	%	M
SD			
<hr/>			
Gender			
Women	46	44.7	
Men	56	54.4	
Age	103		24.57
7.			
Marital status			
Single	73	70.9	
Has Relationship	14	13.6	
Married	16	15.5	
Educational Level			
Middle School	1	1.0	
Highschool	28	27.2	
Undergraduate	64	62.1	
Master	6	5.8	
PhD	4	3.9	
Branch of Sport			
Individual Sport	73	70.9	
Team Sport	30	29.1	
National Team			
Yes	49	47.6	

No	54	52.4
Income from Sport		
Yes	52	50.5
No	51	49.5
Parent Sport History Status		
Yes	16	15.5
No	87	84.5
Siblings Sport History Status		
Yes	22	21.4
No	81	78.6

4.2.2. Correlation Analysis

Before the moderation analyzes were performed, correlation analysis was performed to examine the relationship between the variables of the study. The analysis results of the relationships are shown in table x. When the relationship between perceived stress, cognitive emotion regulation strategies and burnout variables was examined, it was found that almost all sub-dimensions were significantly related to each other.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to assess the relationship between stress/discomfort which is sub-dimension of perceived stress and sub dimensions of cognitive emotion regulation strategies. Stress/discomfort sub dimension was found significantly correlated positively with self-blame ($r = .29, p < .001$), accepting ($r = .28, p < .001$), refocusing on thought ($r = .28, p < .001$), disaster ($r = .50, p < .001$) and blaming others ($r = .36, p < .001$). On the other hand, it was found negatively correlated with positive refocusing ($r = -.33, p < .001$), re-focusing on the plan ($r = -.26, p < .001$), positive revision ($r = -.30, p < .001$). In addition, a Pearson correlation coefficient was analyzed to assess the relationship between stress/discomfort and sub dimensions of burnout. Stress/discomfort sub dimension was found positively correlated with decreasing feel of success ($r = .46, p < .001$), emotional/physical exhaustion ($r = .40, p < .001$), desensitization ($r = .35, p < .001$).

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to assess the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy which is sub-dimension of perceived stress and sub dimensions of cognitive emotion regulation strategies. Insufficient self-efficacy was found significantly correlated positively with self-blame ($r = .25, p < .001$), disaster ($r = .50, p < .001$) and blaming others ($r = .40, p < .001$). On the other hand, it was found negatively correlated with positive refocusing ($r = -.39, p < .001$), positive revision ($r = -.47, p < .001$). In addition, a Pearson correlation coefficient was analyzed to assess the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and sub dimensions of burnout. Insufficient self-efficacy sub dimension was found positively correlated with decreasing feel of success ($r = .36, p < .001$), emotional/physical exhaustion ($r = .40, p < .001$), desensitization ($r = .35, p < .001$).

A Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to assess the relationship between sub dimensions of burnout and sub dimensions of cognitive emotion regulation strategies. As a result of correlation analysis, it was found that decreasing feel of success significantly positive correlated with self-blame ($r = .36, p < .001$), accepting ($r = .28, p < .001$), disaster ($r = .24, p < .05$). In addition, decreasing feel of success was found negatively correlated with positive refocusing ($r = -.27, p < .001$), re-focusing on the plan ($r = -.26, p < .001$), positive revision ($r = -.20, p < .05$). Another correlation analysis was performed to analyze the relationship between emotional/physical exhaustion and sub dimensions of cognitive emotion regulation strategies. The results showed that emotional/physical exhaustion positively correlated with self-blame ($r = .30, p < .001$), accepting ($r = .30, p < .001$), disaster ($r = .34, p < .001$), blaming others ($r = .22, p < .05$). On the other hand, it was found that emotional/physical exhaustion negatively correlated with re-focusing on the plan ($r = -.28, p < .001$), positive revision ($r = -.21, p < .05$). Finally, a Pearson correlation analysis was performed to analyze relationship between desensitization and cognitive emotion regulation strategies. Desensitization was found significantly positive correlated with self-blame ($r = .27, p < .001$), accepting ($r = .25, p < .001$), disaster ($r = .26, p < .001$), blaming others ($r = .29, p < .001$). On the other hand, desensitization was found negatively correlated with positive refocusing ($r = -.20, p < .05$), re-focusing on the plan ($r = -.24, p < .05$).

Table 17*Correlation Between Perceived Stress, Cognitive Emotion Regulation and Burnout*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Stress / Discomfort	-	.70**	.29**	.28**	.28**	-.33**	-.26**	-.30**	-.07	.50**	.36**	.46**	.40**	.35**
2. Insufficient Self-Efficacy	.70**	-	.25**	.14	.07	-.39**	-.48**	-.47**	-.22**	.50**	.40**	.36**	.40**	.35**
3. Self-Blame	.29**	.25**	-	.45**	.41**	-.23*	.02	-.17	.05	.23*	.10	.36**	.30**	.27**
4. Accepting	.28**	.14	.45**	-	.36**	-.08	.15	.08	.23*	.20*	.14	.28**	.30**	.25**
5. Refocusing on Thought	.28**	.07	.41**	.36**	-	-.07	.29**	.25**	.13	.19*	.21*	.13	.13	.04
6. Positive Refocusing	-.33**	-.39**	-.23*	-.08	-.07	-	.40**	.48**	.41**	-.14	-.10	-.27**	-.13	-.20*
7. Re-focusing on the Plan	-.26**	-.48--	.02	.15	.29**	.40**	-	.66**	.39**	-.38**	-.12	-.26**	-.28**	-.24*
8. Positive Revision	-.30**	-.47**	-.17	.08	.25**	.48**	.66**	-	.48**	-.26**	-.04	-.20*	-.21*	-.19
9. Putting it into Perspective	-.07	-.22*	.05	.23*	.13	.41**	.39**	.48**	-	-.02	.17	.00	.13	.07
10. Disaster	.50**	.50**	.23*	.20*	.19*	-.14	-.38**	-.26**	-.025	-	.41**	.24*	.34**	.26**

11. Blaming Others	.36**	.40**	.10	.14	.21*	-.10	-.12	-.04	.17	.41**	-	.15	.22*	.29**
12. Decreasing Feel of Success	.46**	.36**	.36**	.28**	.13	-.27**	-.26**	-.20*	.00	.24*	.15	-	.61**	.71**
13. Emotional/ Phy. Exhaustion	.40**	.40**	.30**	.30**	.13	-.13	-.28**	-.21*	.13	.31**	.22*	.61**	-	.60**
14. Desensitization	.35**	.35**	.27**	.25**	.04	-.20*	-.24*	-.19	.07	.26**	.29**	.71**	.60**	-

$p^* < .05$

$p^{**} < .001$

4.2.3. The Moderation Analysis

In this part of the study, it is aimed to answer the research question. Jamovi statistics program was used to examine the moderator effect of cognitive emotion regulation strategies between perceived stress sub-dimensions and burnout sub-dimensions. The predictor variables are the sub-dimensions of perceived stress, dependent variables are the sub-dimensions of the burnout, and the moderator variables are the sub-dimensions of the cognitive emotion regulation strategies. The results that were found to be significant as a result of the moderator analyzes are given below.

4.2.3.1. The Moderation Effects of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies Between Stress/Discomfort and Decreasing Feel of Success

The moderating effect of cognitive emotion regulation strategies between the stress and discomfort sub-dimension and the decreasing success from the burnout sub-dimensions was examined. As a result of these analyzes, only self-blame and refocusing on the plan were found to have a significant moderator effect on cognitive emotion regulation strategies ($p < .05$)

4.2.3.1.1. Self-Blame, Stress/Discomfort and Decreasing Feel of Success

The moderator role of self-blame between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success was analyzed. The results shown that stress/discomfort which is predictor variable of the analysis has significantly related with decreasing feel of success $B = .36$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$, meaning that athletes who have higher level of stress/discomfort also have higher level of decreasing feel of success. In addition, it is found that self-blame emotion regulation strategy has significantly related with decreasing feel of success $B = .50$, $SE = .12$, $p < .001$. Finally, the moderation analysis showed that self-blame strategy significantly moderates the relationship between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success $B = -.05$, $SE = .02$, $p < .05$. The further analysis results given in the Table 18.

Table 18*Moderation Estimates*

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Stress/Discomfort	0.3659	0.0770	0.215	0.51685	4.75	< .001
Self-Blame	0.5008	0.1280	0.250	0.75171	3.91	< .001
Stress/Discomfort * Self-Blame	- 0.0584	0.0248	-0.107	-0.00970	- 2.35	0.019

Note. Stress/Discomfort is predictor variable, decreasing feel of success is dependent variable, self-blame is the moderator variable

The effect of the predictor variable (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Decreasing Feel of Success) at different levels of the moderator (Self-Blame) also examined. The results showed that when athletes use self-blame strategy at the low ($B = .36$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$) and average level ($B = .52$, $SE = .10$, $p < .001$), the relationship between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success were found stronger. On the other hand, when self-blame strategy at the higher level, the relationship between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success were found lower than the other levels ($B = .21$, $SE = .09$, $p < .05$). The results showed that when athletes use self-blame emotion regulation strategy, the effects of the stress/discomfort on the decreasing feel of success decreases. The results showed in the table 19 and the simple slope plot showed in figure 3.

Table 19

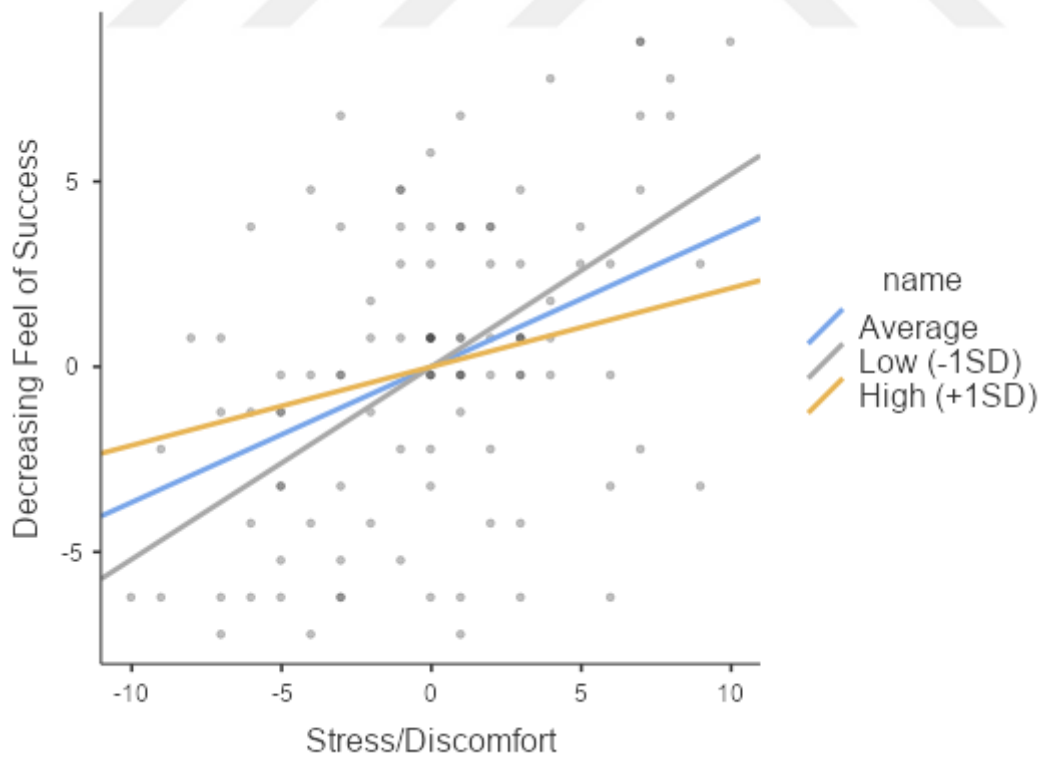
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.366	0.0785	0.2121	0.520	4.66	<.001
Low (-1SD)	0.520	0.1094	0.3052	0.734	4.75	<.001
High (+1SD)	0.212	0.0956	0.0249	0.400	2.22	0.026

Note. Shows the effect of the predictor (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Decreasing Feel of Success) at different levels of the moderator (Self-Blame)

Figure 3

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.1.2. Re-focusing on the Plan, Stress/Discomfort and Decreasing Feel of Success

The moderator role of re-focusing between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success was analyzed. The results shown that stress/discomfort which is predictor variable of the analysis has significantly related with decreasing feel of success $B= .40$, $SE= .07$, $p <.001$, meaning that athletes who have higher level of stress/discomfort also have higher level of decreasing feel of success. On the other hand, it is found that re-focusing on the plan emotion regulation strategy has not significant relationship with decreasing feel of success. Finally, the moderation analysis showed that re-focusing on the plan strategy significantly moderates the relationship between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success $B= -.04$, $SE = .02$, $p < .05$. The further analysis results given in the Table 20.

Table 20

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Stress/Discomfort	0.4006	0.0784	0.2470	0.55423	5.11	< .001
Re-focusing on the Plan	-0.1242	0.1207	-0.3608	0.11246	1.03	0.304
Stress/Discomfort * Re-focusing on the Plan	-0.0494	0.0221	-0.0928	-0.00599	2.23	0.026

The effect of the predictor variable (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Decreasing Feel of Success) at different levels of the moderator (Re-focusing on the plan) also examined. The results showed that when athletes use re-focusing on the plan strategy at the low ($B= .54$, $SE= .10$, $p < .001$) and average level ($B= .40$, $SE= .07$, $p < .001$), the relationship between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success were found stronger. On the other hand, when re-focusing on the plan strategy at the higher level, the relationship between stress/discomfort and decreasing feel of success were found lower than the other levels ($B= .25$, $SE= .10$, $p < .05$). The results showed that when athletes use re-focusing on the plan cognitive emotion regulation strategy, the effects of the stress/discomfort on the

decreasing feel of success decreases. The results showed in the table X and the simple slope plot showed in figure 4.

Table 21

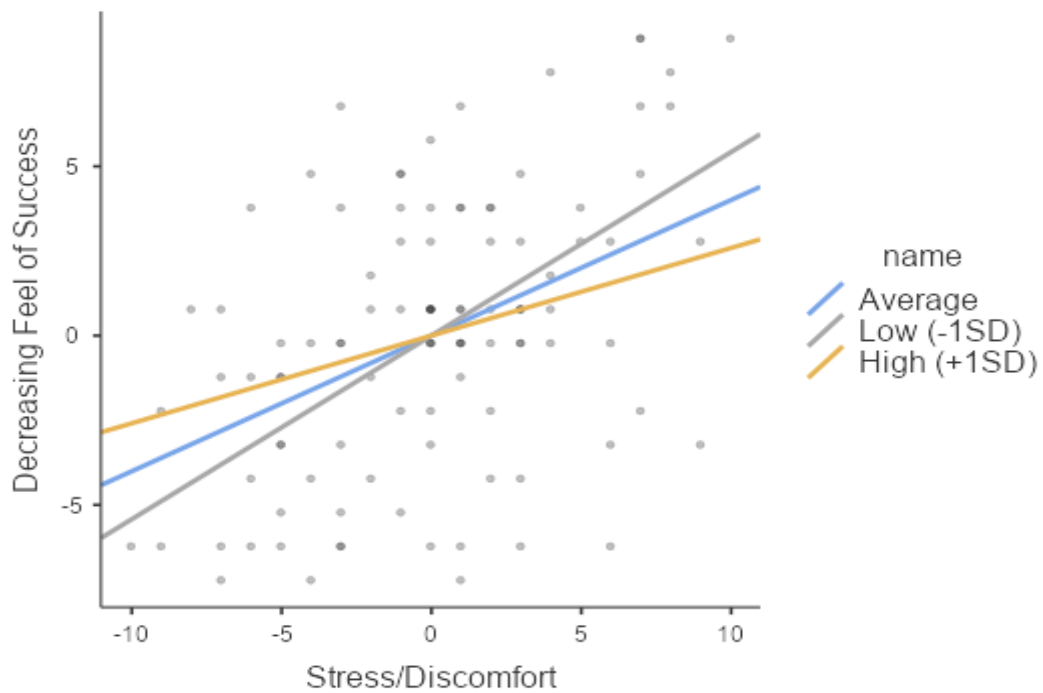
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.401	0.0796	0.2446	0.557	5.03	< .001
Low (-1SD)	0.542	0.1006	0.3451	0.739	5.39	< .001
High (+1SD)	0.259	0.1040	0.0551	0.463	2.49	0.013

Note. Shows the effect of the predictor (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Decreasing Feel of Success) at different levels of the moderator (Re-focusing on the Plan)

Figure 4

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.2. The Moderation Effects of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies Between Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

4.2.3.2.1. Accepting, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

The moderator role of accepting cognitive emotion regulation strategy between stress/discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion was analyzed. The results shown that stress/discomfort which is predictor variable of the analysis has significantly related with emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .36, SE= .09, p <.001$), meaning that athletes who have higher level of stress/discomfort also have higher level of emotional/physical exhaustion. On the other hand, it is found that accepting strategy has significantly positive relationship with emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .37, SE= .16, p <.05$). Finally, the moderation analysis showed that accepting strategy significantly moderates the relationship between stress/discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .06, SE = .03, p < .05$). The further analysis results given in the Table 22.

Table 22

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Stress/Discomfort	0.3699	0.0912	0.19110	0.549	4.05	<.001
Accepting	0.3732	0.1643	0.05127	0.695	2.27	0.023
Stress/Discomfort * Accepting	0.0624	0.0312	0.00121	0.124	2.00	0.046

The effect of the predictor variable (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Emotional/physical exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Accepting) examined. It is found that when athletes use accepting strategy at the low level ($B= .21, SE= .12, p > .05$) there is no significant moderation effect. On the other hand, when athletes use that strategy at the average level ($B= .37, SE= .09, p < .001$) and at the higher level ($B= .52, SE= .12, p < .001$), the relationship between stress/discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion were found stronger. The results showed that when athletes use more accepting cognitive

emotion regulation strategy, there are stronger effects of the stress/discomfort on the emotional/physical exhaustion. The results showed in the table 23 and the simple slope plot showed in figure 5.

Table 23

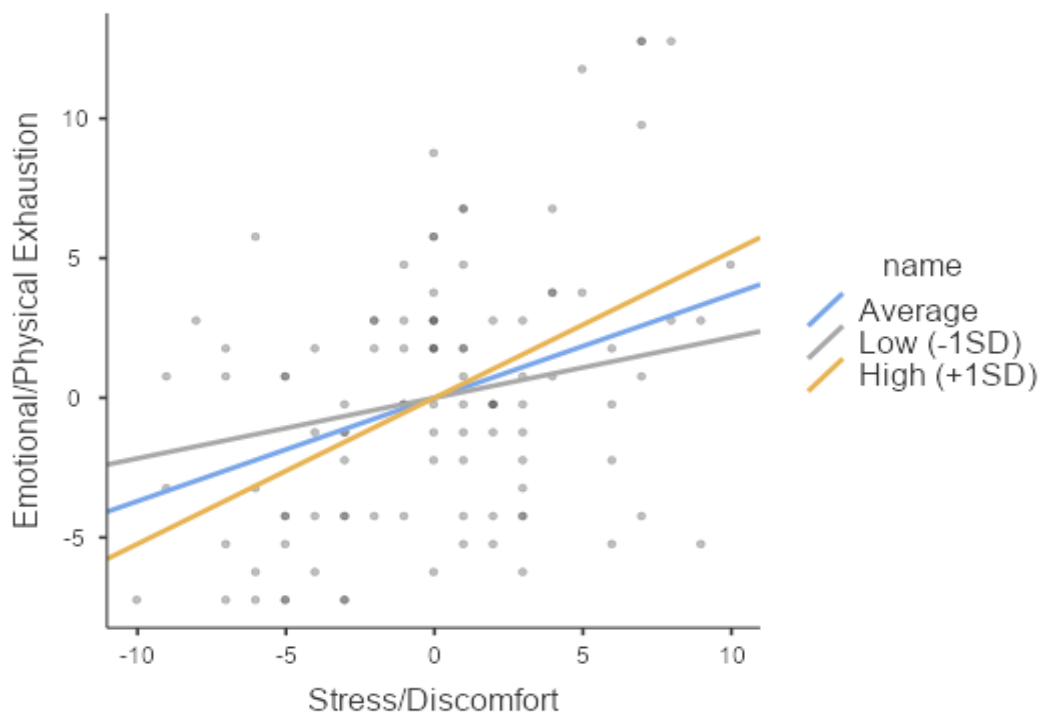
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.370	0.0925	0.1887	0.551	4.00	< .001
Low (-1SD)	0.217	0.1209	-0.0201	0.454	1.79	0.073
High (+1SD)	0.523	0.1202	0.2874	0.759	4.35	< .001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Emotional/Physical Exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Accepting)

Figure 5

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.2.2. Positive Refocusing, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

The moderator role of positive refocusing cognitive emotion regulation strategy between stress/discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion was analyzed. The results shown that stress/discomfort which is predictor variable of the analysis has significantly related with emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .46, SE= .09, p <.001$), meaning that athletes who have higher level of stress/discomfort also have higher level of emotional/physical exhaustion. However, it is found that there is no significant relationship between positive refocusing strategy and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .04, SE= .14, p > .05$). In addition, the moderation analysis showed that positive refocusing strategy significantly moderates the relationship between stress/discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .06, SE = .02, p < .05$). The further analysis results given in the Table 24.

Table 24

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Stress/Discomfort	0.4608	0.0929	0.2788	0.643	4.961	< .001
Positive Refocusing	0.0401	0.1478	-0.2495	0.330	0.272	0.786
Stress/Discomfort * Positive Refocusing	0.0686	0.0277	0.0144	0.123	2.482	0.013

The effect of the predictor variable (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Emotional/physical exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Positive refocusing) examined. It is found there are significant relationship at every level of positive refocusing. However, at the average level ($B= .46, SE= .09, p < .001$) and at the high level ($B= .65, SE= .12, p < .001$) there are stronger relationship than the low level ($B= .27, SE= .11, p < .05$). The results showed that when athletes use more positive refocusing cognitive emotion regulation strategy, there are stronger effects of the stress/discomfort on the emotional/physical exhaustion. The results showed in the table X and the simple slope plot showed in figure 6.

Table 25

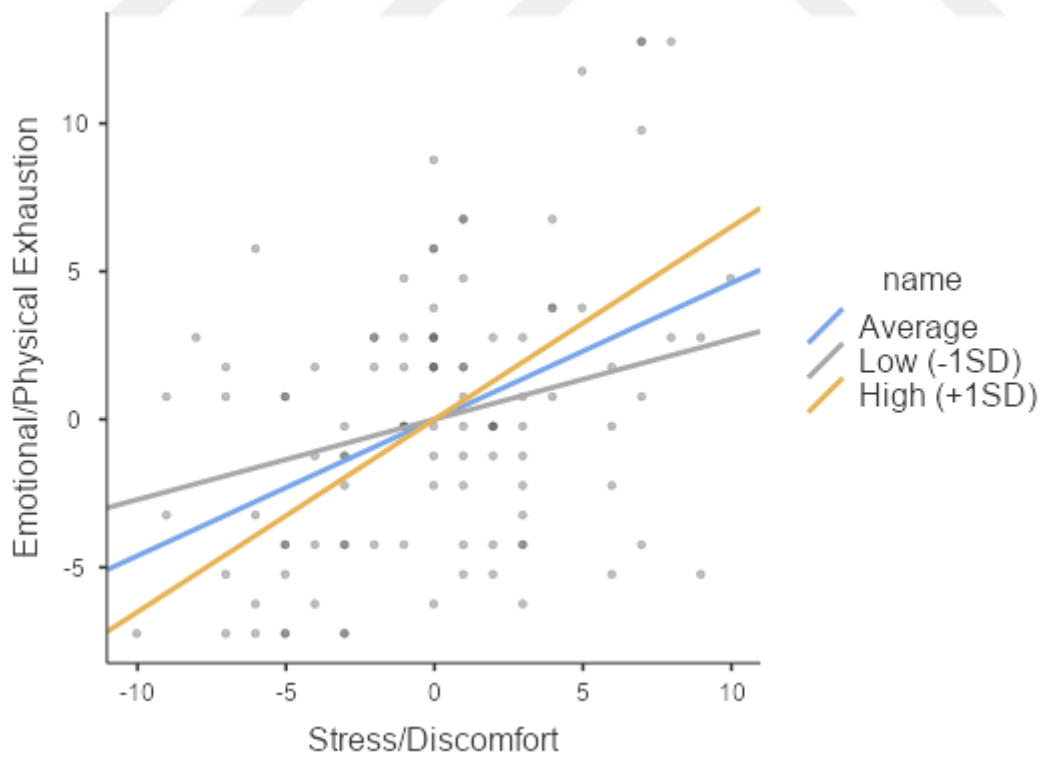
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.461	0.0948	0.2751	0.647	4.86	< .001
Low (-1SD)	0.271	0.1168	0.0421	0.500	2.32	0.020
High (+1SD)	0.651	0.1280	0.3999	0.901	5.09	< .001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Emotional/Physical Exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Positive Refocusing)

Figure 6

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.2.3. Putting it into Perspective, Stress/Discomfort and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

The moderator role of putting it into perspective cognitive emotion regulation strategy between stress/discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion was analyzed. End of the analysis it is seen that stress/discomfort which is predictor variable of the analysis has significantly related with emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .44, SE= .09, p <.001$), meaning that athletes who have higher level of stress/discomfort also have higher level of emotional/physical exhaustion. However, it is found that there is no significant relationship between putting it into perspective and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .19, SE= .14, p > 05$). In addition, the moderation analysis showed that putting it into perspective strategy significantly moderates the relationship between stress/discomfort and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .06, SE = .02, p < .05$). Detailed information about the results is given in table 26.

Table 26

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Stress/Discomfort	0.4473	0.0917	0.26758	0.627	4.88	< .001
Putting it into Perspective	0.1929	0.1442	-0.08972	0.476	1.34	0.181
Stress/Discomfort * Putting it into Perspective	0.0637	0.0288	0.00714	0.120	2.21	0.027

The effect of the predictor variable (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Emotional/physical exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Putting it into Perspective) examined. It is found there are significant relationship at every level of positive refocusing. However, at the average level ($B= .44, SE= .09, p < .001$) and at the high level ($B= .62, SE= .12, p < .001$) there are stronger relationship than the low level ($B= .26, SE=$

.12, $p < .05$). The results showed that when athletes use more putting it into perspective strategy, there are stronger effects of the stress/discomfort on the emotional/physical exhaustion. The results showed in the table X and the simple slope plot showed in figure 7.

Table 27

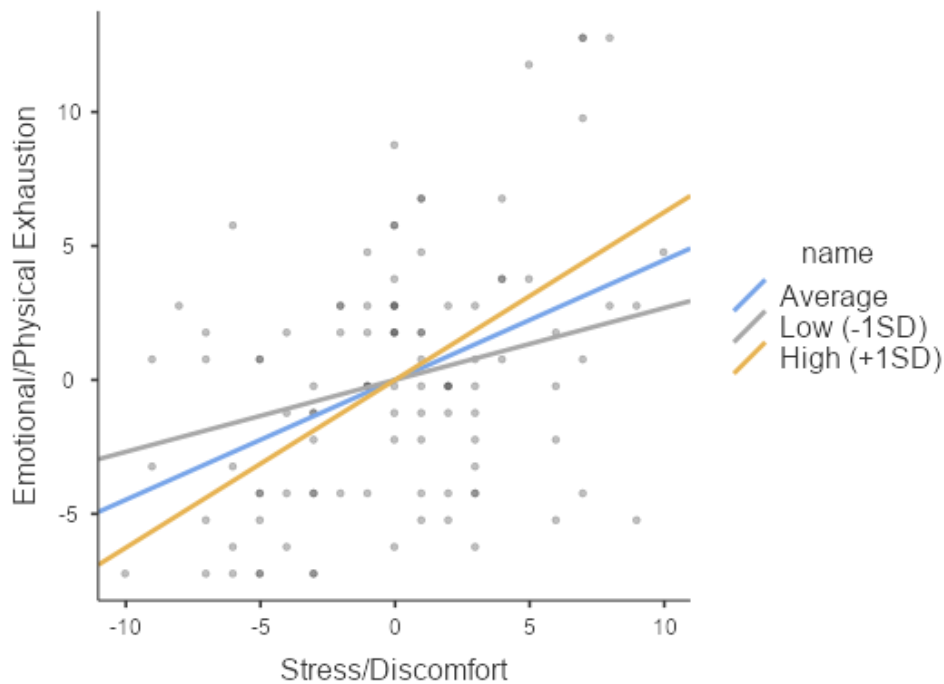
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.447	0.0933	0.2643	0.630	4.79	< .001
Low (-1SD)	0.268	0.1220	0.0293	0.508	2.20	0.028
High (+1SD)	0.626	0.1264	0.3783	0.874	4.95	< .001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (Stress/Discomfort) on the dependent variable (Emotional/Physical Exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Putting it into Perspective)

Figure 7

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.3. The Moderation Effects of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies Between Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

4.2.3.3.1. Accepting, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

The moderator role of accepting cognitive emotion regulation strategy between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion was analyzed. The results showed that insufficient self-efficacy significantly related with emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .65, SE= .14, p <.001$), meaning that when the level of insufficient self-efficacy increased, emotional/physical exhaustion level is increases too. In addition to that, it is found that there is significant relationship between accepting and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .43, SE= .16, p < .05$). Also, the moderation analysis result showed that accepting strategy significantly moderates the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .11, SE = .05, p < .05$). Detailed information about the results is given in table 28.

Table 28

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Insufficient Self-Efficacy	0.658	0.1459	0.37259	0.944	4.51	<.001
Accepting	0.432	0.1622	0.11403	0.750	2.66	0.008
Insufficient Self-Efficacy * Accepting	0.119	0.0572	0.00671	0.231	2.08	0.038

The effect of the predictor variable (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Emotional/physical exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Accepting) examined. It is found that when athletes use accepting strategy at the low level ($B= .36, SE= .19, p > .05$) there is no significant moderation effect. On the other hand, when athletes use that strategy at the average level ($B= .65, SE= .14, p < .001$) and at the higher level ($B= .95, SE= .21, p < .001$), the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion were found stronger. The results showed that the more the athletes use the

accepting strategy, the stronger the relationship between the predictor and the dependent variable becomes. The results showed in the table 29 and the simple slope plot showed in figure 8.

Table 29

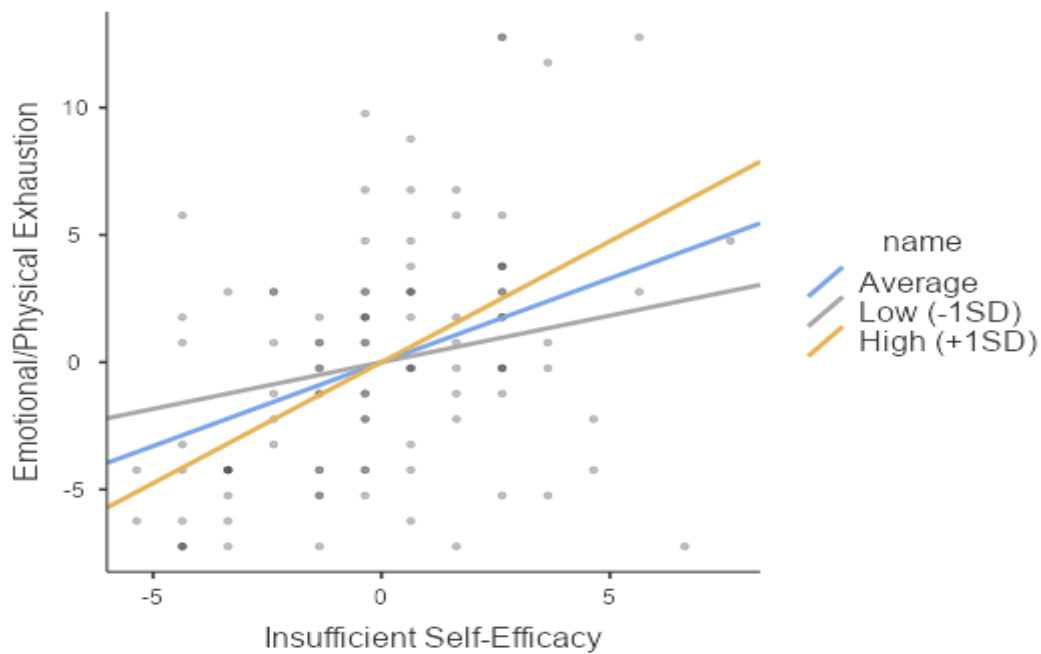
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.658	0.149	0.3671	0.950	4.43	< .001
Low (-1SD)	0.367	0.194	-0.0137	0.747	1.89	0.059
High (+1SD)	0.950	0.217	0.5260	1.375	4.39	< .001

Note. Shows the effect of the predictor (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Emotional/Physical Exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Accepting)

Figure 8

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.3.2. Positive Refocusing, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

The moderator role of positive refocusing cognitive emotion regulation strategy between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion was analyzed. The results showed that insufficient self-efficacy has significantly related with emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .74, SE= .14, p <.001$), meaning that athletes who have higher level of insufficient self-efficacy also have higher level of emotional/physical exhaustion. However, it is found that there is no significant relationship between positive refocusing and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .06, SE= .14, p > .05$). In addition, the moderation analysis showed that positive refocusing strategy significantly moderates the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .14, SE = .04, p < .001$). Detailed information about the results is given in table 30.

Table 30

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Insufficient Self-Efficacy	0.7451	0.1465	0.4581	1.032	5.088	< .001
Positive Refocusing	0.0667	0.1450	-0.2176	0.351	0.460	0.646
Insufficient Self-Efficacy * Positive Refocusing	0.1465	0.0443	0.0597	0.233	3.306	< .001

The effect of the predictor variable (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Emotional/physical exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Positive refocusing) examined. It is found that when athletes use positive refocusing strategy at the low level ($B= .34, SE= .19, p > .05$) there is no significant moderation effect. On the other hand, when athletes use that strategy at the average level ($B= .74, SE= .15, p < .001$) and at the higher level ($B= 1.15, SE= .20, p < .001$), the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion were found stronger. The results showed that the more the athletes use the positive refocusing strategy, the stronger the relationship between

the predictor and the dependent variable becomes. The results showed in the table 31 and the simple slope plot showed in figure 9.

Table 31

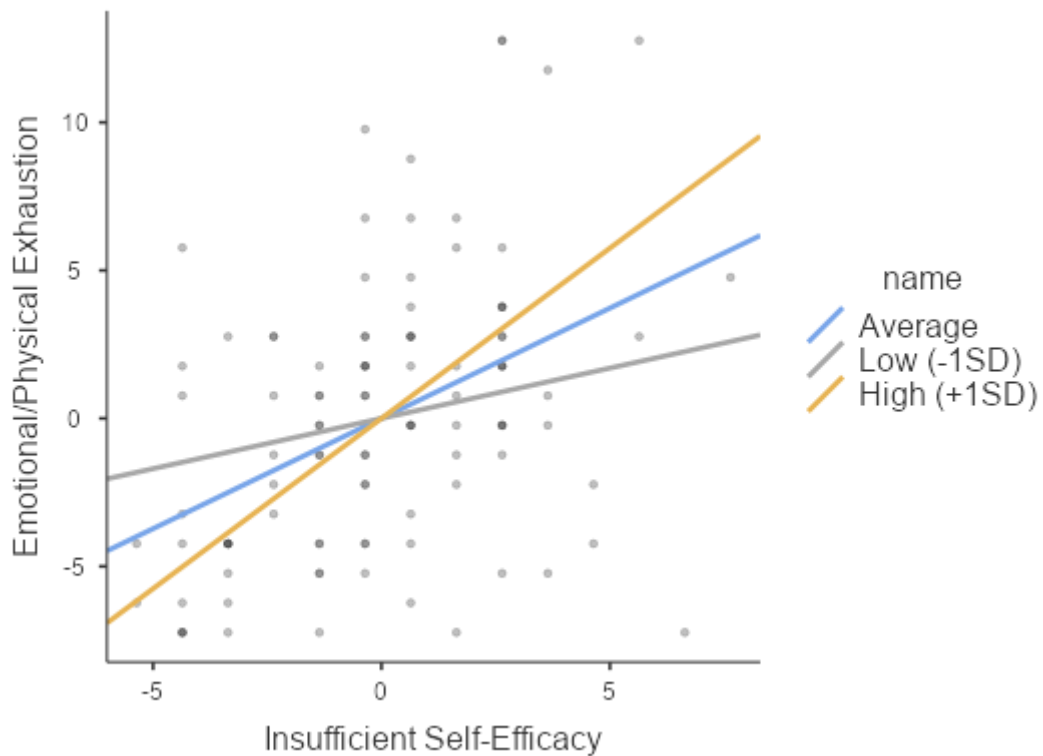
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.745	0.152	0.4476	1.043	4.91	< .001
Low (-1SD)	0.340	0.190	-0.0322	0.712	1.79	0.073
High (+1SD)	1.150	0.204	0.7502	1.551	5.63	< .001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Emotional/Physical Exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Positive Refocusing)

Figure 9

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.3.2. Positive Revision, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Emotional/ Physical Exhaustion

The moderator role of positive revision cognitive emotion regulation strategy between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion was analyzed. The results showed that insufficient self-efficacy has significantly related with emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .65, SE= .14, p <.001$), meaning that athletes who have higher level of insufficient self-efficacy also have higher level of emotional/physical exhaustion. However, it is found that there is no significant relationship between positive revision and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .06, SE= .14, p > .05$). In addition, the moderation analysis showed that positive revision strategy significantly moderates the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion ($B= .13, SE = .04, p < .05$). The further results are given in table 32.

Table 32

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Insufficient Self-Efficacy	0.6563	0.1477	0.3668	0.946	4.444	< .001
Positive Revision	-0.0850	0.1505	-0.3800	0.210	0.565	0.572
Insufficient Self-Efficacy * Positive Revision	0.1355	0.0465	0.0444	0.227	2.914	0.004

The effect of the predictor variable (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Emotional/physical exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Positive revision) examined. It is found that when athletes use positive revision strategy at the low level ($B= .29, SE= .19, p > .05$) there is no significant moderation effect. However, when athletes use that strategy at the average level ($B= .65, SE= .15, p < .001$) and at the higher level ($B= 1.02, SE= .20, p < .001$), the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and emotional/physical exhaustion were found stronger. The results showed that the more the

athletes use the positive revision strategy, the stronger the relationship between the predictor and the dependent variable becomes. The results showed in the table 33 and the simple slope plot showed in figure 10.

Table 33

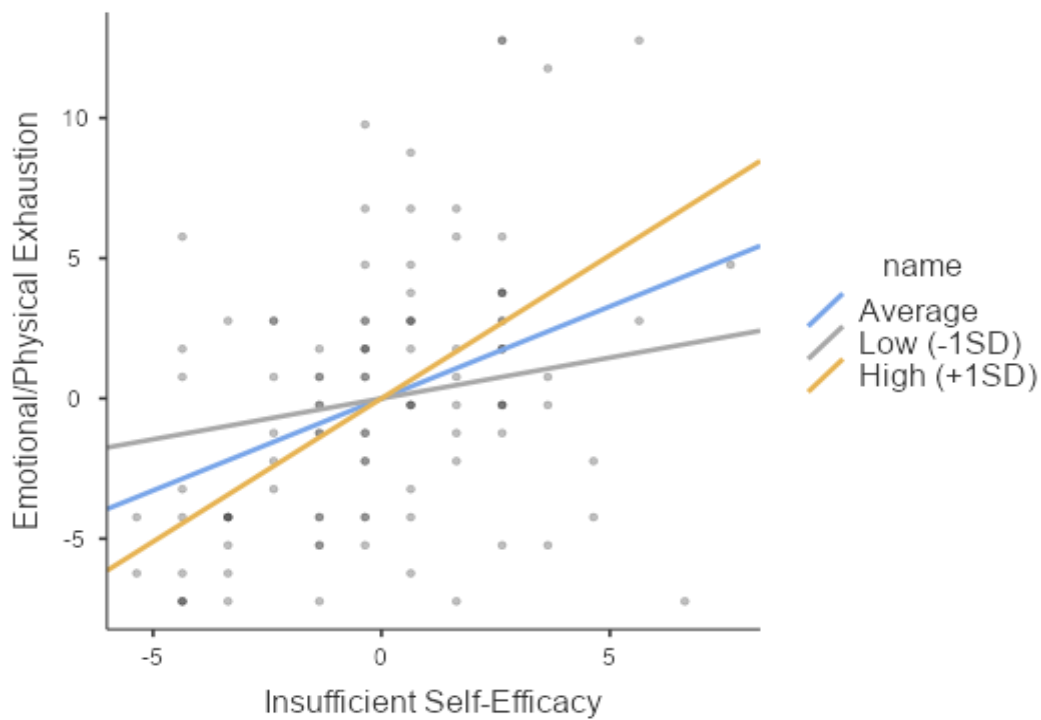
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.656	0.152	0.3584	0.954	4.32	<.001
Low (-1SD)	0.291	0.195	-0.0914	0.674	1.49	0.136
High (+1SD)	1.021	0.202	0.6255	1.417	5.06	<.001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Emotional/Physical Exhaustion) at different levels of the moderator (Positive Revision)

Figure 10

Simple Slope Plot



4.2.3.4. The Moderation Effects of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies Between Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Desensitization

4.2.3.4.1. Positive Refocusing on the Plan, Insufficient Self-Efficacy and Desensitization

The moderator role of positive refocusing cognitive emotion regulation strategy between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization was analyzed. The results showed that insufficient self-efficacy has significantly related with desensitization ($B= .47, SE= .12, p <.001$). It is also found that there is no significant relationship between positive refocusing and desensitization ($B= -.11, SE= .12, p > .05$). At the end, moderation analysis showed that positive refocusing strategy significantly moderates the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization ($B= .07, SE = .03, p < .05$). The further results are given in table 34.

Table 34

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Insufficient Self-Efficacy	0.4775	0.1293	0.22398	0.731	3.692	< .001
Positive Refocusing	-0.1101	0.1281	-0.36112	0.141	-0.860	0.390
Insufficient Self-Efficacy * Positive Refocusing	0.0781	0.0391	0.00139	0.155	1.996	0.046

The effect of the predictor variable (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Desensitization) at different levels of the moderator (Positive refocusing) examined. The results shown that when positive refocusing strategy at the low level ($B= .26, SE= .16, p > .05$) there is no significant moderation effect. However, when athletes use that strategy at the average level ($B= .47, SE= .13, p < .001$) and at the higher level ($B= .69, SE= .17, p < .001$), the relationship between insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization were

found stronger. The results showed that the more the athletes use the positive refocusing strategy, the stronger the relationship between the insufficient self-efficacy and desensitization. The results showed in the table 35 and the simple slope plot showed in figure 11.

Table 35

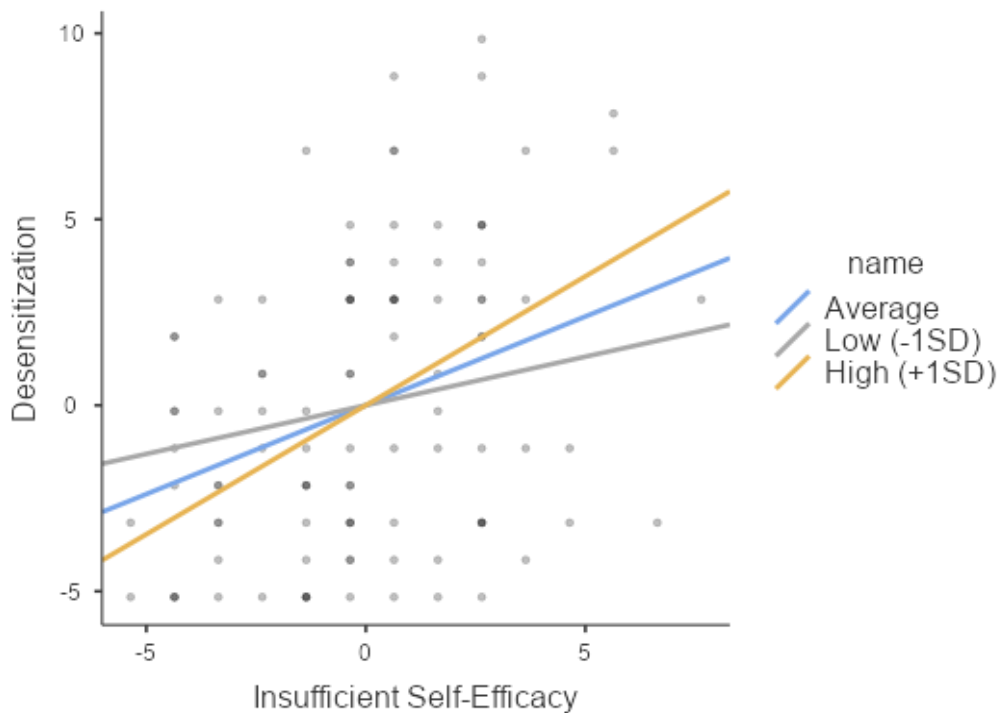
Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Z	p
			Lower	Upper		
Average	0.477	0.131	0.2206	0.734	3.64	< .001
Low (-1SD)	0.261	0.164	-0.0601	0.583	1.59	0.111
High (+1SD)	0.693	0.177	0.3466	1.040	3.92	< .001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (Insufficient Self-Efficacy) on the dependent variable (Desensitization) at different levels of the moderator (Positive Refocusing)

Figure 11

Simple Slope Plot



CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION

The general purpose of this research is to understand the stress situations that the athletes face in their careers and to examine the strategies they use to cope with these situations and the effects of these strategies on the athletes. For this purpose, the mixed method using both quantitative and qualitative research was studied in this study. In this part, the results of each study will be discussed.

5.1. Study 1 / Qualitative Study Discussion

The qualitative part of this study aimed to provide deeper understanding of stress factors, effects of these factors, athletes' coping strategies and outcomes of stressors that athletes experienced. The research question was formed to examine the experiences of the athletes about the stressful situations they encountered in their sports careers.

Looking at the findings of the interviews it was found that the areas where the athletes experience stress are performance, team, leadership, environmental and opponent issues. The methods of coping with the stress situations faced by the athletes include problem-focused, emotion-focused, reappraisal-focused and avoidance strategies. In situations of stress, athletes show the effects of stress with behavioral, physical, emotional, and cognitive outcomes. When the athletes' perception of stress and how they evaluate the effects of stress in their own lives are examined and it was seen that while the majority of athletes have a negative perception of stress because it has a negative effect on their performance, some athletes stated that they are more positively affected by this situation. A few athletes, on the other hand, have a neutral perception of stress because they do not consider stress as a very effective situation on their performance. When looking at the time periods when stress was felt most, the athletes stated that they experience more intense stress, especially during the preparation/training periods and when they feel that they cannot cope with the stress.

As a result of this study, when the stress factors encountered by the athletes were examined, it was seen that the athletes mostly mentioned about the pressure factors related to performance, the attitudes of their teammates, the attitudes of the coach and the situations related to the opponent. The results indicated that both competitive and organizational stress factors are the important feature of the athletes' life. Hanton and colleagues' (2007) study

findings supported this study results. They categorized the demands of competitive performance under the performance issues and the demands of sport organization under the environmental issues, personal issues, leadership issues and team issues. Similarly, there are other studies also mentioned about the organizational stressors which also mostly mentioned by athletes in this study (Fletcher et al., 2012; Rumbold et al., 2018). Unlike the findings of other studies, in this study, it has been seen that the younger opponent in situations related to the opponent is also a stress factor for the athletes. Athletes expect more success from themselves when they will compete with a competitor from a younger age group, and therefore the slightest mistakes they make are becoming more noticeable from their perspective. Another result of the study is that what kind of strategy that athletes use to cope with stressors they encountered. The results showed that athletes mostly use the strategy of focusing on techniques or tactics when they face with stressor. Also, they try to divert their attention to another area from the stressor. Those kinds of strategies are mainly based on problem-focused strategies. Thus, it can be interpreted that athletes prefer problem-focused strategies to cope with stressors. Also, problem-focused strategies are the first methods that come to mind of athletes when they encounter a stressful situation, and which they think are the most effective. Kaiseler and colleagues' (2009) study results supported the findings about the athletes' coping strategies. They examined the extent use of the coping strategies and their perceived effectiveness. The active coping and increasing effort are the most used and thought to be effective strategies which are the problem-focused strategy. Considering the answers given by the athletes participating in this study about the effects of stress, it was seen that behavioral outputs such as decreased motivation, difficulties in concentration, physical tension in the muscles are expressed the most, and emotional outputs were expressed as fear and anxiety. Fletcher and colleagues' (2012) study was conducted to examine the performers' responses to stressors encountered in sport organizations and results are similar with this study results. On the other hand, in addition to other results, it was found that the athletes in this study also had difficulties in concentration especially under stress.

When we look at the other findings obtained in this study, it is seen that the stress perceptions of the athletes are mostly negative, and they think of it as an obstacle to their performance. How stress is perceived can be a factor that determines how it will affect the performance of athletes and their careers in the long term. Kaiseler and colleagues (2009) stated that mentally strong athletes see stress as a challenge, and they actively cope with the stress situations encountered as a result of this perception. Another study examined the

athletes' appraisals of organizational stressors (Hanton et al., 2012). The results showed that athletes mostly appraised organizational stressors as threatening or harmful, with little few of control, and think of few copings strategy available. It is thought that the fact that the athletes understand what the concept of stress is and use the effects of stress as a factor that increases their performance will also increase the positive effect of stress in sports. For this reason, psychoeducational programs to be prepared for athletes about stress and its effects in sports can help athletes regulate the negative effects of stress, and thus, the negative effects on athletes and their careers will be reduced. Considering the other findings, athletes do not actually feel stress only in competition environments, contrary to what is thought. Training and preparation periods are also times when stress is felt quite a lot for athletes. For this reason, stress factors in the daily lives of athletes should be examined and understood in detail, apart from the competition processes. It is thought that this situation can reduce the stress perceived by the athletes during the competition and help them to cope with a stressor more easily.

5.2. Study 2 / Quantitative Study Discussion

In this part of the study, the moderator effect of cognitive emotion regulation strategies, which are thought to affect the relationship between perceived stress and burnout, was examined. As a result, self-blame, refocusing on the plan, accepting, positive refocusing, placing in perspective, positive reconsideration and positive refocusing on the plan which are the sub-dimensions of cognitive emotion regulation strategies have significant moderator effect in the quantitative dimension of the research between perceived stress sub-dimensions and burnout sub-dimensions. It can interpret that some results are unexpected because of the coping strategies, which are seen as functional in the literature, strengthen the relationship between perceived stress and burnout. When it comes to the reasons for the results in this way, as far as is known in the field of sports psychology, this kind of studies are not enough to discuss the results. Therefore, although it is difficult, the results are discussed in the light of some study findings in the literature.

First of all, it is seen that the self-blame sub-dimension strengthens the relationship between stress and burnout according to the rate of use. According to Garnefski et al. (2001), self-blame coping strategy is seen as a dysfunctional coping strategy together with strategies such as blaming others, rumination, and catastrophizing. However, it is seen that the more the athlete uses this strategy, the lower the relationship between stress and decreased

perception of success. Considering these results, although it is an expected result that it strengthens the relationship between stress and burnout, it is seen that the opposite is the case when the athletes use this strategy more. The reason for this may be that the athletes use this strategy consciously and turn it into a motivation tool. The feeling of control is the key point in this result. Self-blame is indirectly associated with perceived control. Individuals who use self-blame a lot tend to believe they have more control over their own lives (Hooker, 2013). This situation can be explained through attribution theory. In a study conducted with 61 patients with lung cancer, the relationship between causal attributions and perceived control was examined. Looking at the results, it was seen that both internal and external causal attributions were significantly positively correlated with perceived control, and the relationship between internal causal attributions and perceived control was stronger (Berckman & Austin, 1993). Therefore, it can be said that when individuals want to have a sense of control over the situations, they tend to prefer to internal situations such as self-blame.

Individual differences and branch-specific situations in sports can be quite effective on performance. For example, the IZOF theory (Jokela & Hanin, 1999) what is the important theory in sports psychology, stating that optimal performance in sports can be different for each athlete and sport branch. For this reason, it is thought that this result of the research may be related to individual differences in sports. In a study of Crocker & Graham (1995), results showed that what kind of coping strategies that competitive athletes use with performance stress. Also in that study, self-blame is seemed common strategy to cope with stress among athletes. Whether it is functional or not, athletes tend to use this strategy.

Another one of the functional coping strategies is the acceptance strategy (Garnefski et al., 2001) which also seen in this study as strengthening the relationship between perceived stress and burnout. Considering the study results of Martin & Dahlen (2005), the acceptance strategy is positively associated with depression, stress, and unhealthy anger suppression. When the question items are examined as stated in the results of the study (eg: I think I cannot change anything about this issue), a possible explanation may be that this strategy increases the degree of hopelessness in the person. From this point of view, it may be that the acceptance strategy in this study also strengthens the relationship between stress and burnout in terms of causing hopelessness in the athletes. Another strategy that has a significant moderator effect is positive refocusing and putting into perspective. The questions of the positive refocus strategy consist of questions such as: "I prefer to think of

better things than to think about my experiences, I prefer to think of good things rather than events". The questions of the perspective strategy are: "I think everything could have been worse, I think others have encountered worse events". When we look at the question styles, it is seen that it is aimed to think of other things that can manage the emotion there rather than the problem. Considering the correlation results of this study, it was found that these strategies were positively related to the acceptance strategy. Likewise, according to the findings of Baltaş & Odaman's (2014) study, the acceptance strategy is positively related to these strategies. Therefore, these sub-dimensions, such as 'acceptance', may not be functional in actively coping with the stress factors encountered in athletes, but may strengthen the relationship between stress and burnout.

To conclude, quantitative part of the study examined the moderation effects of cognitive emotion regulation strategies between perceived stress and burnout. The findings discussed within the limited sport psychology literature about this topic. As stated above, it is considered particularly important to study these kinds of subjects in sports psychology and athletes which generally investigated in general psychology and the normal population. Because it has been seen that some variables in the sports environment may have different effects depending on individual characteristics and sports branch. In this way, future studies will contribute more to sports psychology. Practically, by incorporating these findings into stress management programs or one-by-one sessions, sport psychologists may help more effectively to the athletes.

5.3. General Discussion

The general aim of this study is to examine the stress situations of athletes and their effects on athletes in a broad framework. For this reason, the mixed method was preferred in the study. One of the research questions is 'Do the qualitative findings and the quantitative results converge?'. Considering the quantitative and qualitative findings of the study, it is important to understand the stress situations and effects of the athletes, as well as what factors may cause the negative consequences of stress. Although stress and burnout in sports are variables that are widely researched and found to be related (Hendrix et al., 2000; Smith, 1986; Taylor et al., 1990), the factors causing the relationship between these variables have not been studied as far as is known. In addition, there are no studies examining the moderator effect of cognitive emotion regulation strategies in both quantitative and qualitative dimensions.

In quantitative study results, it is seen that some cognitive emotion regulation strategies increase the relationship between perceived stress and burnout. For instance, the self-blame sub-dimension strengthens the relationship between stress and burnout according to the rate of use. As a matter of fact, in the qualitative findings of the study, some athletes reported some experiences of coping with stress such as " I take advantage of the chaos", "I get more ambitious when I get angry at myself". As a result, it is thought that the results may vary according to the purpose of using this strategy by the athletes. In the interviews conducted in the qualitative aspect of the study, it is seen that the athletes prefer active coping strategies that can remove the obstacle, instead of a strategy such as accepting, because they see stress factors as a barrier in front of their performance. From this perspective, athletes do not see the acceptance strategy as a coping strategy which also found to be moderator between perceived stress and burnout, on the contrary, it is seen that its use can create negative effects. In support of this, one of the athletes stated this situation as follows: "When you accept that there is a problem sometimes and you start to think about it constantly, it grows bigger, and it has such an effect on me".

Looking at the qualitative study findings, it was found that the athletes talked more about problem-focused coping strategies such as 'focusing on technique' and 'directing their attention to the breath'. In addition, in the quantitative part of the study, it was found that some emotion focused strategies increasing the relationship between perceived stress sub-dimensions and burnout sub-dimensions even some strategies were seemed functional in psychology literature. Emotion-focused coping is an indicator of a lack of control and inability to act directly, which is associated with negative emotional problems (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998). A professional swimmer who participated in the interviews has stated that she prefers to use all coping strategies one after the other as a routine because it gives her the feeling that she has control of the situation, and it relieves her. In this perspective, feeling of control seems important to the athletes. That is why athletes prefer to use problem-focused strategies rather than emotion-focused strategies and, those strategies are more effective on athletes because giving feel of control to the athletes.

Since the stress encountered in the sports environment is a type of stress that requires constant coping, cognitive emotion regulation strategies may have a different effect in the sports environment. In addition, the results of the study of Martin & Dahlen (2005), which showed that cognitive emotion regulation strategies may be ineffective in the relationship

between stress and mediation, stated that under stressful conditions - when complete control is most needed - cognitive regulation may be ineffective in controlling emotional reactions. There are studies in the literature showing that elite athletes experience and remember the demands of sports organization rather than competitive performance (Hanton et al., 2005). It is stated that when athletes encounter such stressors, they prefer more problem-focused coping methods and problem-focused coping strategies are more functional compared to emotion-focused coping strategies (Kaiseler et al., 2009). In addition, the preferred coping strategies in the sports environment and their effects may be affected by the individual differences of the athletes. Supports this, Allen et al. (2011) examined the personality traits of the athletes and their preferred coping strategies and found differences.

The models commonly used in the field of sports (eg: IZOF), this situation can vary according to the branch and the optimal status of the athlete, and according to the qualitative findings of the study, the stressful situations defined by the athletes and the methods they use to cope seem different from the cognitive emotion regulation strategies. The moments when the athletes especially feel the stress most intensely include the pre-match times. In the meantime, it is seen that different active coping methods are used instead of emotionally reducing the effect of that stressor in situations where there is still a stress. For example, while the expectations of others create a lot of pressure on the athlete, it is seen that she/he uses to turn her/his focus to herself/himself at this point.

Looking at the qualitative findings of this study, it is seen that the athletes mostly talk about organizational stress factors. Athletes may prefer problem-focused coping strategies, since stress areas are situations that require more active coping. However, in the qualitative findings, it is seen that the athletes continue to be adversely affected by this process. A functional coping strategy for the specified stress areas may not be determined, and this may cause the effects of burnout, which is expressed as fatigue, to be experienced. Considering the results of cognitive emotion regulation strategies, it is thought that it is important to understand individual differences and what the individual's needs are. Because although it may seem functional, methods that are not suitable for that stress area or athlete may lead to the continuation of the negative situation and its effect. As Daniel et. al. (2013) and Skinner et. al. (2003) stated, at the individual level, players' coping proficiency is important because the behaviors used to perform coping functions may be supportive of well-being in certain contexts, while others may be maladaptive. Similarly, Lazarus and

Folkman (1984) stated that coping is a dynamic and iterative process that changes from situation to situation.

Although athletes develop and use coping strategies, they tend to perceive stress negatively in their careers. It is thought that perhaps the first interventions for stress perception and stress assessment (appraisals) may be effective in reducing the effects of stress. It is seen as a stress area in areas such as teammates, coaches and federation officials. In such cases, more integrated and collaborative programs can be created in programs for coping with stress.

5.4. Conclusion, Limitations and Future Directions

To conclude, considering the results of the quantitative findings, it was seen that some cognitive emotion regulation strategies had a moderator effect between perceived stress and burnout. When the effects of these strategies on the relationship were examined, it was found that the more the athletes use strategies such as positive refocusing and positive reconsideration, which are seen as functional emotion regulation strategies in the literature, the stronger the relationship between stress and burnout. Looking at the qualitative findings of the study, it was seen that the areas where the athletes experience stress, their coping strategies, the effects of stress, the stress perceptions of the athletes and the areas where they feel stress most intensely. Looking at the results of the research, it is seen that the research questions were answered. The results of this study will also contribute to the studies of sports psychologists in the field in terms of examining the stress situations and coping strategies of the athletes in depth. More functional intervention programs can be created. In addition, the findings of this study gave a different perspective on how intervention programs in the sports environment can be made more suitable for sports, unlike other areas.

As with any study, this study also has some limitations. Probably one of the most obvious limitations of the study was that the qualitative part of the study was aimed at obtaining information based on retrospective experience. There was no way to test for attribution effects and memory bias in the data collected after the events occurred. Another point was that the athletes had limited knowledge of the nature of the concepts investigated. Some athletes had difficulties in distinguishing between the concept of stress and anxiety and arousal. Although the researcher gave information on these issues before the interview, the interviewer had to elaborate the concepts again in some situations during the interview.

It is thought that the conditions determined for participation in the research also bring a limitation to the study. Conducting research with a higher number of participants in future studies will provide more comprehensive results. The collection of data online was also seen as a limitation. However, both the pandemic conditions and the intense competition and training programs of the athletes required the use of online platforms. In addition to these limitations, the fact that the research is a mixed-method study, contributing to a small number of studies on this subject, and providing a different perspective to sports psychology practices also reveal the strengths of the study. Although the quantitative findings seem difficult to discuss due to the small number of studies in the literature, the qualitative part of the study enabled the two findings to be discussed together. For this reason, it is thought that it is important to increase the number of mixed method studies to be carried out in the future. Although this may be a limitation of the study at some point, it is thought to be an important study in terms of giving a different perspective to future studies and / or intervention programs. Understanding the stress experienced by athletes and how they are affected by it is very important for the development of intervention programs.

Considering that the sports environment can be dynamic and different from other fields, the more practice-oriented studies in the field of sports psychology are necessary. In addition, it can be stated that intervention programs based on problem-focused coping strategies may be more functional in studies conducted with athletes. It is thought that examining such subjects, which are not studied much in sports psychology, with mixed method methods will bring wider awareness. Finally, in future studies, the relationship between different variables can also be examined. Especially, research can be carried out with concepts that have become more popular recently. For example, self-compassion, which is one of the positive psychology concepts, can be examine as a mediator or moderator variable and its relationship with other variables. As emphasized in the results, since individuals' differences are also important in the sports environment, concepts such as personality may also be the subject of research in the future.

CHAPTER 6

6. REFERENCES

- Akarçeşme, C. (2004). *Voleybolda müsabaka öncesi durumluk kaygı ile performans ölçütleri arasındaki ilişki* (Yüksek lisans tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi).
- Aldao, A. (2013). The future of emotion regulation research capturing context. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 8(2), 155-172. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691612459518>
- Allen, M. S., Greenlees, I., & Jones, M. (2011). An investigation of the five-factor model of personality and coping behaviour in sport. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 29(8), 841-850. doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2011.565064
- Altan, S., Özpehlivan, M. (2019). Duygusal emek ve tükenmişlik ilişkisi. *International Journal of Management and Administration*, 3(5), 80-110. <https://doi.org/10.29064/ijma.518590>
- Altın, M. O. (2017). *Amatör düzeyde futbol oynayan sporcuların bilişsel duygu düzenleme ve saldırganlık düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi* (Yüksek lisans tezi). Maltepe Üniversitesi.
- Altungül, O. (2006). *Futbol aktivitelerine katılanların kişilik özellikleri ışığında stres düzeylerinin belirlenmesi* (Yüksek lisans tezi, Fırat Üniversitesi). <http://acikerisim.firat.edu.tr/xmlui/bitstream/handle/11508/12996/194550.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Amir, S., Brown, Z.W., Amit, Z. (1980). The role of endorphins in stress: Evidence and speculations. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 4(1), 77-86. [doi:10.1016/0149-7634\(80\)90027-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0149-7634(80)90027-5)
- Arent, S. M., & Landers, D. M. (2003). Arousal, anxiety, and performance: A reexamination of the inverted-U hypothesis. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 74(4), 436-444. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.2003.10609113>
- Arık, İ. A. (1996). *Motivasyon ve heyecana giriş*. Çantay Kitabevi.

- Baltaş, A., & Baltas, Z. (2012). *Stres ve başa çıkma yolları*. Remzi Kitabevi.
- Baltas, Z., & Odaman, H. (2014). Stress appraisal and cognitive emotion regulation strategies of employees. *European Health Psychologist*, 667-667.
- Bamonti, P. M., Smith, A., & Smith, H. M. (2020). Cognitive emotion regulation strategies predict burnout in geriatric nursing staff. *Clinical Gerontologist*, 1-9.
- Bandura, A. (2005). The primacy of self-regulation in health promotion. *Applied Psychology*, 54(2), 245-254.
- Banny, A. M., Cicchetti, D., Rogosch, F. A., Oshri, A., & Crick, N. R. (2013). Vulnerability to depression: A moderated mediation model of the roles of child maltreatment, peer victimization, and 5-HTTLPR genetic variation among children from low-SES backgrounds. *Development and Psychopathology*, 25(3), 599. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579413000047>
- Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2007). Self-Regulation, ego depletion, and motivation. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 1(1), 115-128. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2007.00001.x>
- Beedie, C. J., Terry, P. C., Lane, A. M. (2000). The profile of mood states and athletic performance: Two meta-analyses. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 12(1), 49-68. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10413200008404213>
- Beedie, C., Terry, P., Lane, A. (2005). Distinctions between emotion and mood. *Cognition & Emotion*, 19(6), 847-878. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699930541000057>
- Berckman, K.L., & Austin, J.K. (1993). Causal attribution, perceived control, and adjustment in patients with lung cancer. In *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 20(1), 23-30.
- Berking, M., & Whitley, B. (2014). The adaptive coping with emotions model (ACE model). In *Affect regulation training* (pp. 19-29). Springer.
- Boyd, N. G., Lewin, J. E., & Sager, J. K. (2009). A model of stress and coping and their influence on individual and organizational outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75(2), 197-211. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2009.03.010>

- Bronfenbrenner, U. 1989. Ecological systems theory. *Annals of Child Development*, 6, 187-249.
- Byrne, J., & Humble, A. M. (2007). An introduction to mixed method research. *Atlantic Research Centre for Family-Work Issues*, 1-4.
- Cam, O. (1991). *Investigation of the burnout syndrome in nurses* (Ph.D. Thesis), Ege University.
- Çam, O., Ekitli, G.B., Dökmetaş, T.B., Mercan, N. (2018). Ege üniversitesi fakültesi öğrencilerinin tükenmişlik düzeyinin incelenmesi. *Ege Üniversitesi Hemşirelik Fakültesi Dergisi*, 34(3), 89-102.
- Cannon, W. B. (1915). *Bodily changes in pain, hunger, fear and rage: An account of recent researches into the function of emotional excitement*. Appleton & Company.
- Cannon, W. B. (1939). *The Wisdom of the Body*. W. W. Norton and Co Inc.
- Castellano, E., Muñoz Navarro, R., Toledo, M. S., Spontón, C., & Medrano, L. A. (2019). Cognitive processes of emotional regulation, burnout and work engagement. *Psicothema*,31(1), 73-80.
- Çelebi, C. (2020). *Türkiye süper lig hentbol oyuncularında tükenmişlik durumu* (Yüksek lisans tezi). Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi.
- Cerin, E. (2003). Anxiety versus fundamental emotions as predictors of perceived functionality of pre-competitive emotional states, threat, and challenge in individual sports. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 15(3), 223-238. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10413200305389>
- Cerin, E. (2004). Predictors of competitive anxiety direction in male taekwondo practitioners: A multilevel mixed idiographic/nomothetic interactional approach. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 5(4), 497-516. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1469-0292\(03\)00041-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1469-0292(03)00041-4)
- Chalikkandy, S., Alhifzi, R. S. A., Asiri, M. A. Y., Alshahrani, R. S. A., Saeed, W. N. A., & Alamri, S. G. (2022). Burnout and Its Relation to Emotion Dysregulation and Social

- Cognition among Female Interns and Undergraduate Dental Students at King Khalid University. *Applied Sciences*, 12(3), 1588.
- Chen, L. H., Chen, M. Y., Kee, Y. H., & Tsai, Y. M. (2008). Relation of perfectionism with athletes' burnout: Further examination. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 106(3), 811-820. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.106.3.811-820>
- Chen, L. H., Kee, Y. H., & Tsai, Y. M. (2008). Relation of dispositional optimism with burnout among athletes. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 106(3), 693-698. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.106.3.693-698>
- Coakley, J. (1992). Burnout among adolescent athletes: A personal failure or social problem?. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 9(3), 271-285.
- Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). Perceived stress scale (PSS). *J Health Soc Beh*, 24, 285.
- Cole, P. M., Michel, M. K., Teti, L. O. (1994). The development of emotion regulation and dysregulation: A clinical perspective. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 59(2-3), 73–100, 250–283. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1166139>
- Cox, T. (1978). *Stress*. Baltimore, University Park Press.
- Craft, L. L., Magyar, T. M., Becker, B. J., Feltz, D. L. (2003). The relationship between the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 and sport performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 25(1), 44-65.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. (4th ed.). USA.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2015). Karma yöntem arařtırmaları: Tasarımı ve yürütülmesi (2. Baskı). Çev. Y. Dede, SB Demir. Ankara
- Creswell, J. W., Klassen, A. C., Plano Clark, V. L., & Smith, K. C. (2011). Best practices for mixed methods research in the health sciences. *Bethesda (Maryland): National Institutes of Health*, 2013, 541-545.

- Crocker, P. R. E., Graham, T.R. (1995). Coping by competitive athletes with performance stress: Gender differences and relationships with affect. *Sport Psychologist*, 9(3), 325-338. <https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.9.3.325>
- Daniels, K., Beesley, N., Wimalasiri, V., & Cheyne, A. (2013). Problem solving and well-being: Exploring the instrumental role of job control and social support. *Journal of Management*, 39(4), 1016-1043. doi.org/10.1177/0149206311430262
- DeFreese, J. D., & Mihalik, J. P. (2016). Work-based social interactions, perceived stress, and workload incongruence as antecedents of athletic trainer burnout. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 51(1), 28-34. <https://doi.org/10.4085/1062-6050-51.2.05>
- DeFreese, J.D., Smith, A.L. (2014). Athlete social support, negative social interactions, and psychological health across a competitive sport season. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 36(6), 619-30. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.2014-0040>
- Demir, Z., Böge, K., Fan, Y., Hartling, C., Harb, M. R., Hahn, E., ... & Bajbouj, M. (2020). The role of emotion regulation as a mediator between early life stress and posttraumatic stress disorder, depression and anxiety in Syrian refugees. *Translational Psychiatry*, 10(1), 1-10.
- Demirci, E. (2018). *Sporcularda tutkunluk, mükemmeliyetçilik ve tükenmişlik arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi* (Yüksek lisans tezi). Mersin Üniversitesi
- Dhabhar, F. S., & Mcewen, B. S. (1997). Acute stress enhances while chronic stress suppresses cell-mediated immunity in vivo: A potential role for leukocyte trafficking. *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity*, 11(4), 286-306.
- Eccles, D. W., Ward, P., Woodman, T., Janelle, C. M., Le Scanff, C., Ehrlinger, J., ... & Coombes, S. A. (2011). Where's the emotion? How sport psychology can inform research on emotion in human factors. *Human Factors*, 53(2), 180-202. doi.org/10.1177/0018720811403731
- Eklund, R.C. & Cresswell, S.L. (2007). Athlete burnout. In: Tenenbaum G, Eklund R.C. (Eds), *Handbook of sport psychology* (pp. 621-641). Hoboken: Wiley.

- Ekman, P. (1984). Expression and the nature of emotion. *Approaches to emotion*, 3(19), 344.
- Eskin, M., Harlak, H., Demirkıran, F., & Dereboy, Ç. (2013). Algılanan stres ölçeğinin Türkçeye uyarlanması: güvenilirlik ve geçerlik analizi. In *New/Yeni Symposium Journal*, 51 (3), 132-140.
- Fletcher, D., Hanton, S., & Mellalieu, S. D. (2008). *An Organizational Stress Review: Conceptual and Theoretical Issues in Competitive Sport*. Nova Science Publishers.
- Fletcher, D., Hanton, S., Mellalieu, S. D., & Neil, R. (2010). A conceptual framework of organizational stressors in sport performers. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports*, 22(4), 545-557. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0838.2010.01242.x>
- Fletcher, D., Hanton, S., & Wagstaff, C. R. (2012). Performers' responses to stressors encountered in sport organisations. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 30(4), 349-358. doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2011.633545
- Folkman, S. (1984). Personal control and stress and coping processes: a theoretical analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46(4), 839-852. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.46.4.839>
- Folkman, S. (2013). Stress, coping, and hope. In *Psychological Aspects of Cancer* (pp. 119-127). Springer, Boston, MA.
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1988). Coping as a mediator of emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(3), 466-475. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.3.466>
- Folkman, S., & Moskowitz, J. T. (2004). Coping: Pitfalls and promise. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 745-774. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.55.090902.141456>
- Folkman, S., Lazarus, R. S., Gruen, R. J., DeLongis, A. (1986). Appraisal, coping, health status, and psychological symptoms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(3), 571.

- Forgas, J.P. (1995). Mood and judgment: the affect infusion model (AIM). *Psychological Review*, *117*(1), 39-66. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.117.1.39>
- Freudenberger, H. J. (1974). Staff burn-out. *Journal of Social Issues*, *30*(1), 159-165. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1974.tb00706.x>
- Frijda, N. H. (1988). The laws of emotion. *American Psychologist*, *43*(5), 349.
- Frijda, N. H. (2007). The laws of emotion. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Garnefski, N., Kraaij, V. ve Spinhoven, P. (2002). CERQ: Manual for the use of the cognitive emotion regulation questionnaire, DATEC. Leiden University: The Netherlands.
- Garnefski, N., Kraaij, V., & Spinhoven, P. (2001). Negative life events, cognitive emotion regulation and emotional problems. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *30*(8), 1311-1327. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(00\)00113-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(00)00113-6)
- Garnefski, N., Van Den Kommer, T., Kraaij, V., Teerds, J., Legerstee, J., Onstein, E. (2002). The relationship between cognitive emotion regulation strategies and emotional problems: comparison between a clinical and a non-clinical sample. *European Journal of Personality*, *16*(5), 403-420. <https://doi.org/10.1002/per.458>
- Giga, S. I., Noblet, A. J., Faragher, B., & Cooper, C. L. (2003). The UK perspective: A review of research on organisational stress management interventions. *Australian Psychologist*, *38*(2), 158-164. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00050060310001707167>
- Gilboa, E., & Revelle, W. (1994). Personality and the structure of affective responses. In S. H. M. van Goozen, N. E. Van de Poll, & J. A. Sergeant (Eds.), *Emotions: Essays on emotion theory* (pp. 135–159). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Gliebe, S. K. (2012). *A study of the relationship between cognitive emotion regulation, optimism, and perceived stress among selected teachers in Lutheran Schools*. Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary.
- Goldstein, D. S. (2010). Adrenal responses to stress. *Cellular and Molecular Neurobiology*, *30*(8), 1433-1440.

- Goldstein, D. S., & McEwen, B. (2002). Allostasis, homeostats, and the nature of stress. *Stress*, 5(1), 55-58. <https://doi.org/10.1080/102538902900012345>
- González-García, H., Martinent, G., & Pelegrín, A. (2020). Sport emotions profiles: Relationships with burnout and coping skills among competitive athletes. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 15(1), 9-16. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1747954119884039>
- Goodger K., Gorely T., Lavallee D., Harwood C. (2007). Burnout in sport: a systematic review. *Sport Psychologist*, 21(2), 127–151. <https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.21.2.127>
- Gould, D., & Whitley, M. A. (2009). Sources and consequences of athletic burnout among college athletes. *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport*, 2(1), 16-30. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jis.2.1.16>
- Grandey, A.A. (2000). Emotion regulation in the workplace: A new way to conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(1), 95-110.
- Greenberg, L. S. (2011). *Emotion-focused therapy*. American Psychological Association.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255-274. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1163620>
- Gross, J. J. (1998). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology*, 2(3), 271-299.
- Gross, J. J. (1998). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology*, 2(3), 271-299. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.2.3.271>
- Gross, J. J. (Ed.). (2014). *Handbook of emotion regulation* (2nd ed.). The Guilford Press.
- Gross, J. J., Richards, J. M., & John, O. P. (2006). Emotion Regulation in Everyday Life. In D. K. Snyder, J. Simpson, & J. N. Hughes (Eds.), *Emotion regulation in couples and families: Pathways to dysfunction and health* (pp. 13–35). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/11468-001>

- Gross, J. J., Sheppes, G., & Urry, H. L. (2011). Emotion generation and emotion regulation: A distinction we should make (carefully). *Cognition and Emotion*, 25, 765–781.
- Gross, J. J. & Thompson, R. A. (2007). Handbook of emotion regulation, Ed. J.J. Thompson, Guilford Press.
- Güçlü, N. (2001). Stres yönetimi. *Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 21(1).
- Gümüş, M. (2002). *Profesyonel futbol takımlarında puan sıralamasına göre durumluk kaygı düzeylerinin incelenmesi* (Yüksek lisans tezi, Sakarya Üniversitesi).
<https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12619/93789>
- Güngör, H. C. (2016) Experiences regarding the transition to parenthood in turkish culture and family resilience: A qualitative study. *American International Journal of Social Science*, 5(1), 53-66.
- Gustafsson, H., DeFreese, J. D., & Madigan, D. J. (2017). Athlete burnout: Review and recommendations. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 16, 109-113.
- Gustafsson, H., Hassmén, P., & Hassmén, N. (2011). Are athletes burning out with passion?. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 11(6), 387-395.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17461391.2010.536573>
- Gustafsson, H., Hassmen, P., Kentta, G., & Johansson, M. (2008). A qualitative analysis of burnout in elite Swedish athletes. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 9(6), 800-816.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2007.11.004>
- Gustafsson, H., Sagar, S. S., & Stenling, A. (2016). Fear of failure, psychological stress, and burnout among adolescent athletes competing in high level sport. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports*, 27(12), 2091–2102.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/sms.12797>
- Gustafsson, H., Skoog, T. (2012). The mediational role of perceived stress in the relation between optimism and burnout in competitive athletes. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, 25(2), 183-199.

- Gustafsson, H., Skoog, T., Davis, P., Kenttä, G., Haberl, P. (2015). Mindfulness and its relationship with perceived stress, affect, and burnout in elite junior athletes. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology*, 9(3), 263-281.
- Güvendi, Y. (2020). *Milli güreşçilerin psikolojik becerilerinin tükenmişlik düzeyleri ile ilişkisi* (Master's thesis, İstanbul Gelişim Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü).
- Hagtvet, K. A., & Hanin, Y. L. (2007). Consistency of performance-related emotions in elite athletes: Generalizability theory applied to the IZOF model. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 8(1), 47-72.
- Hanin, Y. (1978). Study of anxiety in sports. *Voprosy Psikhologii*, 6, 94-106.
- Hanin, Y. L. (1986). State-trait anxiety research on sports in USSR. In C. D. Spielberger & R. Díaz Guerrero (Eds.), *Cross-cultural Anxiety* (vol. 3, pp. 45–64). DC: Hemisphere.
- Hanin, Y. L. (1997). Emotions and athletic performance: Individual zones of optimal functioning model. *European Yearbook of Sport Psychology*, 1, 29–72.
- Hanin, Y., & Syrjä, P. (1995). Performance affect in junior ice hockey players: An application of the individual zones of optimal functioning model. *The Sport Psychologist*, 9(2), 169-187. <https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.9.2.169>
- Hanin, Y.L. (2000). Successful and poor performance emotions. In Y.L. Hanin (Ed.), *Emotions in Sport* (pp. 157-187). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Hanton, S., Fletcher, D., & Coughlan, G. (2005). Stress in elite sport performers: A comparative study of competitive and organizational stressors. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 23(10), 1129-1141. doi.org/10.1080/02640410500131480
- Hanton, S., Fletcher, D., & Coughlan, G. (2007). Stress in elite sport performers: A comparative study of competitive and organizational stressors. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 23(10), 1129-1141. doi.org/10.1080/02640410500131480
- Hanton, S., Cropley, B., Lee, S. (2009). Reflective practice, experience, and the interpretation of anxiety symptoms. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 27(5), 517-533. doi.org/10.1080/02640410802668668

- Hanton, S., Wagstaff, C. R., & Fletcher, D. (2012). Cognitive appraisals of stressors encountered in sport organizations. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 10*(4), 276-289. doi.org/10.1080/1612197X.2012.682376
- Hardy, L., Jones, G., & Gould, D. (2018). *Understanding psychological preparation for sport: Theory and practice of elite performers*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Härkönen, U. (2001). The Bronfenbrenner ecological systems theory of human development.
- Harvey, A. G., Watkins, E., & Mansell, W. (2004). *Cognitive behavioural processes across psychological disorders: A transdiagnostic approach to research and treatment*. Oxford University Press.
- Hendrix, A. E., Acevedo, E. O., & Hebert, E. (2000). An examination of stress and burnout in certified athletic trainers at Division IA universities. *Journal of Athletic Training, 35*(2), 139.
- Hooker, S.A. (2013). Self-blame. In: Gellman, M.D., Turner, J.R. (eds) *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine*. Springer, New York, NY.
- Ingham, A.G. (1975). Organizational subcultures in the work world of sport. In D.W. Ball & J.W. Loy (Eds.) *Sport and Social Order: Contributions to The Sociology of Sport*, Addison-Wesley, Menlo Park, CA.
- Jackson, S.A. (2000). Joy, fun and flow state in sport. In Y.L. Hanin (Ed.), *Emotions in sport* (pp. 135-155). Human Kinetics.
- Jacobs, S. R., & Dodd, D. (2003). Student burnout as a function of personality, social support, and workload. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*(3), 291-303. <https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2003.0028>
- Jiménez-Ortiz, J. L., Islas-Valle, R. M., Jiménez-Ortiz, J. D., Pérez-Lizárraga, E., Hernández-García, M. E., & González-Salazar, F. (2019). Emotional exhaustion, burnout, and perceived stress in dental students. *Journal of International Medical Research, 47*(9), 4251-4259. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0300060519859145>

- Jokela, M., Hanin, Y. L. (1999). Does the individual zones of optimal functioning model discriminate between successful and less successful athletes? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 17(11), 873-887.
- Jones, M. V. (2003). Controlling emotions in sport. *The Sport Psychologist*, 17(4), 471-486. <https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.17.4.471>
- Joormann, J., Yoon, K. L., & Siemer, M. (2010). Cognition and emotion regulation. In A. M. Kring & D. M. Sloan (Eds.), *Emotion regulation and psychopathology: A transdiagnostic approach to etiology and treatment* (pp. 174–203). The Guilford Press.
- Karataş, U.Y. (2020). *Affetmemenin yordayıcıları olarak çocukluk çağı travmaları ve bilişsel duygu düzenlemenin incelenmesi*. (Yüksek lisans tezi, Pamukkale Üniversitesi). <http://acikerisim.pau.edu.tr/xmlui/handle/11499/35105>
- Kaiseler, M., Polman, R., & Nicholls, A. (2009). Mental toughness, stress, stress appraisal, coping and coping effectiveness in sport. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 47(7), 728-733. doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2009.06.012
- Kelecek, S., & Göktürk, E. (2017). Kadın futbolcularda sporcu bağlılığının sporcu tükenmişliğini belirlemedeki rolü. *Başkent Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi-BÜSBİD*, 2(2). <http://busbid.baskent.edu.tr/index.php/busbid/article/view/74>
- Kelecek, S., & Koruç, Z. (2018). Futbolcuların güdüsel yönelim ve spora bağlılık düzeylerinin sporcu tükenmişliğini belirlemedeki rolü. *Başkent Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi-BÜSBİD*, 2(2), 102-116.
- Kelecek, S., Kara, F. M., Çetinkalp, F. Z. K., & AŞÇI, F. H. (2016). “Sporcu tükenmişlik ölçeği” nin türkçe uyarlaması. *Spor Bilimleri Dergisi*, 27(4), 150-161.
- Kenttä, G., & Hassmén, P. (1998). Overtraining and recovery. *Sports Medicine*, 26(1), 1-16.
- Kenttä, G., Hassmén, P., & Raglin, J. S. (2001). Training practices and overtraining syndrome in Swedish age-group athletes. *International Journal of Sports Medicine*, 22(06), 460-465. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-2001-16250>

- Koole, S. L., & Rothermund, K. (2011). "I feel better but I don't know why": The psychology of implicit emotion regulation. *Cognition and Emotion*, 25(3), 389-399. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699931.2010.550505>
- Köroğlu, E. (2005). *Düşünsel duygulanımcı davranış terapisi ilkeleri*. Ankara: HYB Yayınları. Loy (Eds.), *Sport and Social Order: Contributions to the Sociology of Sport*. Addison-Wesley.
- Kraaij, V., & Garnefski, N. (2019). The behavioral emotion regulation questionnaire: development, psychometric properties and relationships with emotional problems and the cognitive emotion regulation questionnaire. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 137, 56-61. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2018.07.036>
- Kring, A. M., & Sloan, D. M. (Eds.). (2009). *Emotion regulation and psychopathology: A transdiagnostic approach to etiology and treatment*. Guilford Press.
- Lane, A. M., Beedie, C. J., Devonport, T. J., & Stanley, D. M. (2011). Instrumental emotion regulation in sport: relationships between beliefs about emotion and emotion regulation strategies used by athletes. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports*, 21(6), e445-e451. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0838.2011.01364.x>
- Lane, A. M., Beedie, C. J., Devonport, T. J., & Stanley, D. M. (2011). Instrumental emotion regulation in sport: relationships between beliefs about emotion and emotion regulation strategies used by athletes. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports*, 21(6), e445-e451. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0838.2011.01364.x>
- Lane, A. M., Beedie, C. J., Jones, M. V., Uphill, M., & Devonport, T. J. (2012). The BASES expert statement on emotion regulation in sport. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 30(11), 1189-1195. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2012.693621>
- Lane, A. M., Beedie, C. J., Jones, M. V., Uphill, M., & Devonport, T. J. (2012). The BASES expert statement on emotion regulation in sport. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 30(11), 1189-1195. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2012.693621>
- Lazarus, R. S. (1966). *Psychological stress and the coping process*. McGraw-Hill.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1966). *Psychological stress and the coping process*. McGraw-Hill.

- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and adaptation*. Oxford University Press.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer publishing company.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping*. Springer Publishing Company.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1986). Cognitive theories of stress and the issue of circularity. In *Dynamics of stress* (pp. 63-80). Springer.
- Lazarus, R.S. (2000a). How emotions influence performance in competitive sports. *The Sport Psychologist*, 14, 229-252.
- Lazarus, R.S. (2000b). Cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. In Y.L. Hanin (Ed.), *Emotions in sport* (pp. 39–63). IL: Human Kinetics.
- LeBlanc, S., Essau, C. A., & Ollendick, T. H. (2017). Emotion regulation: An introduction. In C. A. Essau, S. LeBlanc, & T. H. Ollendick (Eds.), *Emotion regulation and psychopathology in children and adolescents* (pp. 3–17). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/med:psych/9780198765844.003.0001>
- LeDoux, J. E. (1995). Emotion: Clues from the brain. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 46(1), 209-235.
- Leiter MP, Maslach C, Frame K. (2015). Burnout. In: Cautin RL, Lilienfeld SO (Eds). *Encyclopedia of clinical psychology* (pp. 1-7). Wiley.
- Madigan, D. J., Rumbold, J. L., Gerber, M., & Nicholls, A. R. (2020). Coping tendencies and changes in athlete burnout over time. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 48, 101666.
- Martin, R. C., & Dahlen, E. R. (2005). Cognitive emotion regulation in the prediction of depression, anxiety, stress, and anger. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 39(7), 1249-1260. doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2005.06.004
- Martens, R. (1971). Anxiety and motor behavior: A review. *Journal of Motor Behavior*, 3(2), 151-179.

- Martens, R. (1974). Arousal and motor performance. *Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews*, 2(1), 155-188.
- Martens, R. (1977). *Sport competition anxiety test*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Martens, R. (1977). *Sport Competition Anxiety Test*. Human Kinetics Publishers.
- Martens, R. (1977). *Sport Competition Anxiety Test*. Human Kinetics Publishers.
- Maslach, C. (2003). Job burnout: New directions in research and intervention. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 12(5), 189-192. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.01258>
- Maslach, C., & Goldberg, J. (1998). Prevention of burnout: New perspectives. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 7(1), 63-74. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-1849\(98\)80022-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-1849(98)80022-X)
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2(2), 99-113. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030020205>
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2(2), 99-113. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030020205>
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2017). Understanding burnout: New models. In C. L. Cooper & J. C. Quick (Eds.), *The handbook of stress and health: A guide to research and practice* (pp. 36–56). Wiley Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118993811.ch3>
- Maslach, C., & Pines, A. (1977). The burn-out syndrome in the day care setting. *Child Care Quarterly*, 6(2), 100-113.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 397-422. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397>
- Mason, J. W. (1975). A historical view of the stress field. *Journal of Human Stress*, 1(2), 22-36. doi:10.1080/0097840x.1975.9940405
- Matsumoto, D., Frank, M. G., and Hwang, H. S. (Eds.). (2013). *Nonverbal communication: Science and applications: Science and applications*. Sage.

- Mauss, I. B., Levenson, R. W., McCarter, L., Wilhelm, F. H., & Gross, J. J. (2005). The tie that binds? Coherence among emotion experience, behavior, and physiology. *Emotion, 5*(2), 175. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1528-3542.5.2.175>
- McCarthy, P.J. (2011). Positive emotions in sport performance: Current status and future directions. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 4*(1), 50-69. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750984X.2011.560955>
- McGrath, J. E. (1970). A conceptual formulation for research on stress. *Social and psychological factors in stress* (ss. 10-21) içinde. New York: Halt, Rinehart & Winston.
- McLoughlin, E., Fletcher, D., Slavich, G. M., Arnold, R., & Moore, L. J. (2021). Cumulative lifetime stress exposure, depression, anxiety, and well-being in elite athletes: A mixed-method study. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 52*, 101823. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2020.101823>
- McRae, K., Ochsner, K. N., Mauss, I. B., Gabrieli, J. J., & Gross, J. J. (2008). Gender differences in emotion regulation: An fMRI study of cognitive reappraisal. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 11*(2), 143-162. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1368430207088035>
- Mellalieu, S. D., Neil, R., Hanton, S., & Fletcher, D. (2009). Competition stress in sport performers: Stressors experienced in the competition environment. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 27*(7), 729-744. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02640410902889834>
- Mesquita, B. (2003). Emotions as dynamic cultural phenomena. In R. Davidson, H. Goldsmith, & K. R. Scherer (Eds.), *The Handbook of the Affective Sciences*. Oxford University Press.
- Moors, A., Ellsworth, P. C., Scherer, K. R., & Frijda, N. H. (2013). Appraisal theories of emotion: State of the art and future development. *Emotion Review, 5*(2), 119-124. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073912468165>
- Mullen, P. R., Blount, A. J., Lambie, G. W., & Chae, N. (2017). School counselors' perceived stress, burnout, and job satisfaction. *Professional School Counseling, 21*(1). <https://doi.org/10.1177/2156759X18782468>

- Munnangi, S., Dupiton, L., Boutin, A., & Angus, L. D. (2018). Burnout, perceived stress, and job satisfaction among trauma nurses at a level I safety-net trauma center. *Journal of Trauma Nursing*, 25(1), 4-13.
- Nicholls, A. R., Taylor, N. J., Carroll, S., & Perry, J. L. (2016). The development of a new sport-specific classification of coping and a meta-analysis of the relationship between different coping strategies and moderators on sporting outcomes. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 1674. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01674>
- Nolen-Hoeksema, S., & Aldao, A. (2011). Gender and age differences in emotion regulation strategies and their relationship to depressive symptoms. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(6), 704-708. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1368430207088035>
- Ntoumanis, N., & Biddle, S. J. (1998). The relationship of coping and its perceived effectiveness to positive and negative affect in sport. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 24(6), 773-788. [doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(97\)00240-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(97)00240-7)
- Olsson, L. F., Grugan, M. C., Martin, J. N., & Madigan, D. J. (2021). Perfectionism and burnout in athletes: The mediating role of perceived stress. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology*, 1(aop), 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jcsp.2021-0030>
- Onat, O., Otrar, M. (2010). Bilişsel duygu düzenleme ölçeğinin Türkçeye uyarlanması: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışmaları. *M.Ü. Atatürk Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 31. 123-143.
- Parrott, W.G. (2001). Emotions in social psychology: Volume Overview. In W.G. Parrott (Ed.), *Emotions in social psychology* (pp.1-19). PA: Psychology Press.
- Phillips A.C. (2013) Perceived Stress. In: Gellman M.D., Turner J.R. (eds) *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1005-9_479
- Pines, A. M. (2004). Adult attachment styles and their relationship to burnout: A preliminary, cross-cultural investigation. *Work & Stress*, 18(1), 66-80. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370310001645025>
- Plutchik, R. (1980). A general psychoevolutionary theory of emotion. In *Theories of emotion* (pp. 3-33). Academic Press.

- Pollock, K. (1988). On the nature of social stress: Production of a modern mythology. *Social Science & Medicine*, 26(3), 381-392. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0277-9536\(88\)90404-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0277-9536(88)90404-2)
- Raanes, E. F., Hrozanova, M., Moen, F. (2019). Identifying unique contributions of the coach–athlete working alliance, psychological resilience and perceived stress on athlete burnout among Norwegian Junior athletes. *Sports*, 7(9), 212. <https://doi.org/10.3390/sports7090212>
- Raedeke, T. D. (1997). Is athlete burnout more than just stress? A sport commitment perspective. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 19(4), 396-417.
- Raedeke, T. D. (1997). Is athlete burnout more than just stress? A sport commitment perspective. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 19(4), 396-417.
- Raedeke, T. D., & Smith, A. L. (2001). Development and preliminary validation of an athlete burnout measure. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 23(4), 281-306.
- Raedeke, T. D., & Smith, A. L. (2001). Development and preliminary validation of an athlete burnout measure. *Journal of sport and exercise psychology*, 23(4), 281-306.
- Raglin, J. S. (1992). Anxiety and sport performance. *Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews*, 20, 243-243.
- Robazza, C. (2006). Emotion in sport: An IZOF perspective. *Literature Reviews in Sport Psychology*, 127-158. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/288943076>
- Rotella, R. J., Hanson, T., & Coop, R. H. (1991). Burnout in youth sports. *The Elementary School Journal*, 91(5), 421-428. <https://doi.org/10.1086/461664>
- Rottenberg, J., & Gross, J. J. (2007). Emotion and emotion regulation: A map for psychotherapy researchers. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 14(4), 323–328. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2850.2007.00093.x>
- Rottenberg, J., Gross, J. (2003). When emotion goes wrong: Realizing the promise of affective science. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 10, 227-232. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clipsy.bpg012>

- Rude, S.S., Gortner, E.M., Pennebaker, J.W. (2004). Language use of depressed and depression-vulnerable college students. *Cognition and Emotion*, 18(8), 1121-1133. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699930441000030>
- Rumbold, J. L., Fletcher, D., & Daniels, K. (2018). Using a mixed method audit to inform organizational stress management interventions in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 35, 27-38. doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2017.10.010
- Ruiz, M. C., Raglin, J. S., & Hanin, Y. L. (2015). The individual zones of optimal functioning (IZOF) model (1978–2014): Historical overview of its development and use. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 15(1), 41-63. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1612197X.2015.1041545>
- Rumbold, J. L., Fletcher, D., & Daniels, K. (2018). Using a mixed method audit to inform organizational stress management interventions in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 35, 27-38. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2017.10.010>
- Şahin, T., Güçlü M. (2018). Sporcularda psikolojik dayanıklılığın duygu düzenleme becerilerine etkisi: Türkiye korumalı futbol 1. Ligi oyuncuları örneği. *Spormetre*, 16(3), 204-216
- Santomier, J. (1983). The sport-stress connection. *Theory into Practice*, 22(1), 57-63. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405848309543038>
- Sarkar, M., & Fletcher, D. (2014). Psychological resilience in sport performers: a review of stressors and protective factors. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 32(15), 1419-1434. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2014.901551>
- Schaufeli, W. B., Leiter, M. P., & Maslach, C. (2009). Burnout: 35 years of research and practice. *Career Development International*, 14(3), 204-220. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430910966406>
- Schmidt, G. W., & Stein, G. L. (1991). Sport commitment: A model integrating enjoyment, dropout, and burnout. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 13(3), 254-265. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.13.3.254>

- Selye, H. (1951). The general adaptation syndrome and the gastrointestinal diseases of adaptation. *American Journal of Proctology*, 2, 167-184.
- Selye, H. (1976). *Stress without distress*. In: Serban, G. (eds) *Psychopathology of Human Adaptation*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4684-2238-2_9
- Selye, H. (1980). The nature of stress and its relation to cardiovascular disease. In *Hearts and heart-like organs* (pp. 289-332). Academic Press.
- Şenay Güzel, H. (2019). *Stresin psikolojisi*. Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık.
- Shin, H., Park, Y. M., Ying, J. Y., Kim, B., Noh, H., & Lee, S. M. (2014). Relationships between coping strategies and burnout symptoms: A meta-analytic approach. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 45(1), 44–56. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035220>
- Siemer, M., Mauss, I., & Gross, J. J. (2007). Same situation--Different emotions: How appraisals shape our emotions. *Emotion*, 7(3), 592–600. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1528-3542.7.3.592>
- Silva III, J. M. (1990). An analysis of the training stress syndrome in competitive athletics. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 2(1), 5-20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10413209008406417>
- Skinner, E. A., Edge, K., Altman, J., & Sherwood, H. (2003). Searching for the structure of coping: a review and critique of category systems for classifying ways of coping. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(2), 216. doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.129.2.216
- Sloan, D. M., & Kring, A. M. (2007). Measuring changes in emotion during psychotherapy: Conceptual and methodological issues. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 14(4), 307–322. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2850.2007.00092.x>
- Smith, R. E. (1986). Toward a cognitive-affective model of athletic burnout. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 8(1), 36-50. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsp.8.1.36>
- Smith, R. E. (2021). Athletic stress and burnout: Conceptual models and intervention strategies. In *Anxiety in sports* (pp. 183-201). Taylor & Francis.

- Snyder, E. E., & Spreitzer, E. (1979). Lifelong involvement in sport as a leisure pursuit: Aspects of role construction. *Quest*, 31(1), 57-70. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00336297.1979.10519923>
- Spence, J. T., & Spence, K. W. (1966). The motivational components of manifest anxiety: Drive and drive stimuli. In C. D. Spielberger (Ed.), *Anxiety and Behavior* (pp. 3-22). Academic Press.
- Strongman, K. T. (2016). *The psychology of emotion: Theories of emotion in perspective*. (5th ed.) John Wiley & Sons.
- Sürvegil Dalkılıç, O. (2014). *Çalışma hayatında tükenmişlik sendromu – Tükenmişlikle mücadele teknikleri* (2. Basım). Nobel Yayınevi.
- Sürvegil,, O. (2005). Tükenmişlik ve tükenmişliği etkileyen örgütsel faktörler: Akademik personel üzerinde bir uygulama (Yayınlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi), T.C. Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi.
- Swami, M. K., Mathur, D. M., & Pushp, B. K. (2013). Emotional intelligence, perceived stress and burnout among resident doctors: an assessment of the relationship. *The National Medical Journal of India*, 26(4), 210-213.
- Tabei, Y., Fletcher, D., & Goodger, K. (2012). The relationship between organizational stressors and athlete burnout in soccer players. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology*, 6(2), 146-165. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jcsp.6.2.146>
- Taylor, A. H., Daniel, J. V., Leith, L., & Burke, R. J. (1990). Perceived stress, psychological burnout and paths to turnover intentions among sport officials. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 2(1), 84-97. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10413209008406422>
- Taylor, S. E. (2010). Mechanisms linking early life stress to adult health outcomes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 107(19), 8507-8512. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1003890107>
- Tazegül, Ü. (2012). Bireysel sporcuların stresle başa çıkma tarzlarının karşılaştırılması. *Spor ve Performans Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 3(2), 13-22.

- Thompson, R. A. (1991). Emotional regulation and emotional development. *Educational Psychology Review*, 3(4), 269-307.
- Tokay, T. (2001). *Örgütsel stres ve performans ilişkisi*, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul.
- Tomkins, S. S. (1984). Affect theory. *Approaches to Emotion*, 163(163-195), 31-65.
- Tuğsal, T. (2017). *İş-yaşam dengesi, sosyal destek ve sosyo-demografik faktörlerin tükenmişlik üzerindeki etkisi*. (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İşletme, İstanbul.
- Ulukuş, K. S. (2001). *Stres ve iş verimi* (Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi.
- Wagstaff, C.R.D. (2014). Emotion regulation and sport performance. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 36(4), 401-412. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.2013-0257>
- Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (2015). *Foundations of sport and exercise psychology* (6th ed.). Human Kinetics.
- Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (2019). *Foundations of sport and exercise psychology*, (7th Ed.). Human Kinetics.
- Yahya, G. (2021). *Sporcularda akıldışı performans inançları ile tükenmişlik arasındaki ilişkide tutkunluğun aracı rolü* (Yüksek lisans tezi). Marmara Üniversitesi.
- Yılmaz, O. (2006). *Stresin performans üzerine etkisi 40ıncı piyade eğitim alay komutanlığı lider personeli üzerinde bir araştırma*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Isparta.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1984). On the primacy of affect. *American Psychologist*, 39(2), 117–123. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.39.2.117>
- Ziegler, M. G. (2012). Psychological stress and the autonomic nervous system. In *Primer on the Autonomic Nervous System*, 291-293. Academic Press.
- Ziemainz, H., Drescher, A., Schipfer, M., & Stoll, O. (2015). An explorative study of possible demographic variables, sports-related situational variables, and social

variables as predictors of athlete burnout and its core dimensions among German non-elite endurance athletes. *Advances in Physical Education*, 5(01), 60.



CHAPTER 7

7. APPENDICES

7.1. Appendix A: Demographic Information Form

Demografik Bilgi Formu

- Cinsiyetiniz?
- Yaşınız?
- Öğrenim Durumunuz: Lise / Üniversite / Yüksek Lisans / Doktora / Diğer
- Medeni Durumunuz: Bekar / İlişkisi Var / Evli
- Çocuğunuz var mı? Varsa kaç tane çocuğunuz var?
- Hangi spor branşı ile uğraşmaktasınız?
- Takım Spor / Bireysel Spor mu?
- Kaç yıldır bu branşı lisanlı olarak yapmaktasınız?
- Kaç yıldır yarışmalara katılıyorsunuz?
- Milli sporculuk deneyiminiz var mı? Evet: Hayır:
- Yapmakta olduğunuz spordan düzenli olarak kazandığınız bir maddi geliriniz var mı?
- Anne ve/veya babanız profesyonel olarak (lisanslı ve aktif olarak yarışmalara katılan) spor ile uğraşmış mı/ uğraşıyorlar mı?
- Profesyonel olarak (lisanslı ve aktif olarak yarışmalara katılan) spor yapmakta olan kardeşiniz var mı?
- Son altı ayda pandemi süreci dışında spor hayatınızı etkileyecek bir durumla karşılaştınız mı: evet – hayır (evet ise kısaca yazınız / bahsediniz)
- Daha önce spor performansının psikolojik boyutu ile ilgili bireysel görüşme ya da grup etkinliğine katıldınız mı? Evet: Hayır:
-

7.2. Appendix B: Semi-structured Interview Questions

Görüşme Soruları

1. Spor kariyerini düşündüğünde genel olarak stres yaşadığın alanlar nelerdir?
Sondaj soru: çevresel faktörler, antrenör veya takım arkadaşları ile ilişkiler, antrenman programı, kulüp ve antrenör yaklaşımı
2. Yaşadığın bu stres durumları seni ne zamanlar daha fazla etkiliyor? Örn: antrenman, müsabaka öncesi, sonrası vb.
3. Bu bahsettiğin durumlara örnek verebilir misin?
4. En son stres yaşadığın bir müsabaka gününü anlatır mısın?
5. Müsabaka/ yarışma öncesinde ne oldu?
6. Müsabaka/ yarışma sırasında ne oldu, performansın nasıl etkilendi?
7. Müsabaka/ yarışma sonrasında ne oldu?
8. Bu bahsettiğin durumlarda stresi ne ölçüde/ ne şiddette yaşadığından biraz bahseder misin? Örnek verebilir misin?
9. Yaşadığın stresi bir şeye benzetecek olsaydın bu ne olurdu? Örn: Bir kelime, sıfat gibi. Bu şeyi tanımlar mısın?
10. Bahsettiğin stres durumlarında yaşadığın duygularından biraz bahseder misin? Bu durumlara ilişkin neler hissediyorsun?
11. Bahsettiğin stres durumlarında aklından hangi düşünceler geçiyor? Mesela strese maruz kaldığın o an zihninden geçenleri okuyabilecek olsaydık neler görürdük? Örnek verebilir misin?
12. Yaşadığın bu durumlar bir sporcu olarak performansını nasıl etkiliyor? Örnek verebilir misin?
13. Diyelim ki performans öncesinde veya esnasında bu bahsettiklerin gibi bir durum oluştu. Bu durumlarda stres ile baş edebilmek için neler yaparsın? Sondaj soru: Nasıl bir yol izliyorsun? Hangi yöntemleri kullanıyorsun?
14. İlk aklına gelen yöntem ne oluyor?
15. Bu bahsettiğin başa çıkma yöntemlerinden hangisi senin için en faydalı yöntem oluyor ve sana nasıl fayda sağlıyor?
16. Anladığım kadarıyla performansını etkileyen unsurlardan biri de stres. Peki uzun zamandır spor yapan biri olarak yaşadığın bu stres ve stres ile sürekli olarak baş etmeye çalışmak seni nasıl etkiliyor? Sondaj soru: motivasyon kaybı, sakatlık, tükenmişlik
17. Ekleme istediğin başka şeyler var mı?

7.3. Appendix C: Ethical Approval



7.4. Appendix D: Perceived Stress Scale

Algılanan Stres Ölçeği (EK D)

Aşağıdaki sorular son bir ay içindeki düşünceleriniz ve duygularınızla ilgilidir. Her bir soruda sizden bu düşünceyi ya da duyguyu ne sıklıkta yaşadığınızı belirtmeniz istenmektedir. Bazı sorular birbirine benzer gibi görünse de aralarında farklılıklar vardır ve her soruyu ayrı bir soru olarak değerlendirmeniz gerekmektedir. Soruları yanıtlarken son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta bu şekilde düşündüğünüzü ya da hissettiğinizi hesaplamaya çalışmak yerine soruyu okuduktan sonra seçenekler arasında en uygun gördüğünüz tahmini işaretlemeniz daha uygun olacaktır.

0. Hiç
1. Neredeyse hiç
2. Bazen
3. Sıkça
4. Çok sık

	Hiç	Neredeyse hiç	Bazen	Sıkça	Çok sık
1. Geçen ay, beklenmedik bir şeylerin olması nedeniyle ne sıklıkta rahatsızlık duygunuz?	0	1	2	3	4
2. Geçen ay, hayatınızdaki önemli şeyleri kontrol edemediğinizi ne sıklıkta hissettiniz?	0	1	2	3	4
3. Geçen ay, kendinizi ne sıklıkta sınırlı ve stresli hissettiniz?	0	1	2	3	4
4. Geçen ay, kişisel sorunlarınızı ele alma yeteneğinize ne sıklıkta güven duydunuz?	0	1	2	3	4
5. Geçen ay, her şeyin yolunda gittiğini ne sıklıkta hissettiniz?	0	1	2	3	4
6. Geçen ay, ne sıklıkta yapmanız gereken şeylerle başa çıkamadığınızı fark ettiniz?	0	1	2	3	4
7. Geçen ay, hayatınızdaki zorlukları ne sıklıkta kontrol edebildiniz?	0	1	2	3	4
8. Geçen ay, ne sıklıkta her şeyin üstesinden geldiğinizi hissettiniz?	0	1	2	3	4
9. Geçen ay, ne sıklıkta kontrolünüz dışında gelişen olaylar yüzünden öfkelenediniz?	0	1	2	3	4
10. Geçen ay, ne sıklıkta problemlerin üstesinden gelemeceğiniz kadar biriktiğini hissettiniz?	0	1	2	3	4

7.5. Appendix E: Cognitive Emotion Regulation Scale

OLAYLARLA NASIL BAŞA ÇIKARSINIZ? Herkes zaman zaman tatlı acı olaylarla karşılaşmakta ve kendine özgü tepkiler vermektedir. Aşağıdaki sorular, olumsuz durumlarla karşılaştığınızda genelde neler düşündüğünüzü belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır.	Hemen Hemen Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık Sık	Hemen Hemen Her Zaman
1. Genelde kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Olanları kabul etmek zorunda olduğumu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Yaşadıklarım hakkında neler hissettiğimi sık sık düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Yaşadıklarımı düşünmekten ziyade daha iyi şeyler düşünmeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Elimden gelenin en iyisinin ne olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
6. İçinde bulunduğum durumdan bir şeyler öğrenebileceğimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Herşey daha da kötü olabilirdi diye düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Yaşadıklarımın, diğerlerinin yaşadıklarından çok daha kötü olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Olaylarda diğerlerinin suçlu olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Olaylardan sorumlu olan kişinin ben olduğumu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Durumu (olanları) kabullenmek zorunda olduğumu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Yaşadıklarım hakkında ne düşündüğüme ve ne hissettiğime takılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Yaşadığım olumlu olaylarla ilgili yapacak bir şeyimin olmadığını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Durumla en iyi şekilde nasıl başa çıkabileceğimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Olaylardan sonra daha güçlü bir kişi haline geldiğimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Diğerlerinin daha kötü olaylarla karşılaştıklarını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Sürekli olarak, yaşadıklarımın ne denli kötü şeyler olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Olanlardan diğerlerinin sorumlu olduğunu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Bu olayda yaptığım hataları düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Olayla ilgili olarak birşeyleri değiştiremeyeceğimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Yaşadıklarımın dolaylı hissettiklerimin sebebini anlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Olanlardan ziyade iyi şeyler düşünmeyi yeğlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Durumu nasıl değiştirebileceğimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Kötü olayların iyi yönlerinin de olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5

25. Son yaşadığımın, diğer yaşadıklarım kadar kötü olmadığını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Başıma gelenlerin, bir kişinin başına gelebilecek en kötü şeyler olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Bu sorunda, diğerlerinin yaptıkları hataları düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Asıl sorunun benden kaynaklandığını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Olumsuz durumlarla yaşamayı öğrenmek zorunda olduğumu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Olayın bende uyandırdığı hisleri derinlemesine irdelerim.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Yaşadığım güzel olayları düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Yapabileceğim en iyi planın ne olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Sorunun olumlu yanlarını bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Hayatta daha kötü şeylerin de olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Devamlı olarak, sorunun ne denli kötü olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Sebebin, temelde diğerlerinden kaynaklandığını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5

7.6. Appendix F: Athlete Burnout Questionnaire

SPORCU TÜKENMİŞLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Yapmakta olduğunuz spor branşı hakkındaki hislerinizi göz önünde bulundurarak, aşağıdaki ifadelere ait yanıt niteliğindeki derecelendirmelerden size uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Hiçbir Zaman	Ara Sıra	Bazen	Sık Sık	Her Zaman
Antrenman yapmaktan dolayı kendimi o kadar yorgun hissediyorum ki, başka şeyleri yapmak için enerji bulmakta zorlanıyorum					
Sporda harcadığım çabayı başka şeyler yapmaya harcasam daha iyi olurdu					
Spor yapmaktan dolayı kendimi aşırı yorgun hissediyorum					
Sporda çok şeyi başaramıyorum					
Sportif performansımı eskisi kadar çok önemsemiyorum					
Sporda yeteneğim kadar performans göstermiyorum					
Kendimi spor anlamında (bitmiş) tükenmiş hissediyorum					
Eskisi kadar sporun içinde değilim					
9. Spordan dolayı kendimi fiziksel olarak bitkin hissediyorum					
10. Sporun zihinsel ve fiziksel gerekliliklerinden dolayı tükendim					
11. Ne yaparsam yapayım olması gereken performansı göstermiyorum gibi geliyor					
12. Sporda kendimi başarılı hissediyorum					
13. Spora karşı olumsuz hislerim var					

7.7. Appendix G: Informed Consent Form / Study 1

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

LÜTFEN BU DÖKÜMANI DİKKATLİCE OKUMAK İÇİN ZAMAN AYIRINIZ

Sizi Psikolog Beyza Nur Kılıç ve Doç. Dr. Hüdayar Cihan tarafından yürütülen “Sporcularda Stres Faktörleri ve Bilişsel Duygu Düzenleme Stratejilerinin Tükenmişlik Üzerindeki Etkisinin Karma Desen ile İncelenmesi” başlıklı **araştırmaya** davet ediyoruz. Bu araştırmaya katılıp katılmama kararını vermeden önce, araştırmanın neden ve nasıl yapılacağını bilmeniz gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle bu formun okunup anlaşılması büyük önem taşımaktadır. Eğer anlayamadığımız ve sizin için açık olmayan şeyler varsa, ya da daha fazla bilgi isterseniz bize sorunuz.

Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen **gönüllülük** esasına dayanmaktadır. Sporcu çalışmaya **katılmama** veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmadan **çıkma** hakkında sahiptir. **Çalışmayı yanıtlamanız, sporcunun araştırmaya katılımı için onam verdiğiniz** biçiminde yorumlanacaktır. Size verilen **formlardaki** soruları yanıtlarken kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmayın. Bu formlardan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacaktır.

1. Araştırmayla İlgili Bilgiler:

- Araştırmanın Amacı: Sporcuların stres faktörlerini, bu faktörlerin etkisini ve başa çıkma stratejilerini incelemek.
- Araştırmanın İçeriği: Online ortamda araştırmacı ile 30-40 dakika sürecek olan araştırma amacına yönelik görüşme yapmak
- Araştırmanın Nedeni: Tez çalışması
- Araştırmanın Yapılacağı Yer(ler): Online Platform (Zoom)

2. Çalışmaya Katılım Onayı:

Yukarıda yer alan ve araştırmadan önce katılımcıya/gönüllüye verilmesi gereken bilgileri okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, gönüllü olarak üzerime düşen sorumlulukları tamamen anladım. **Çalışma hakkında yazılı ve sözlü açıklama aşağıda adı belirtilen araştırmacı tarafından yapıldı, soru sorma ve tartışma imkanı buldum ve tatmin edici yanıtlar aldım. Bana, çalışmanın muhtemel riskleri ve faydaları sözlü olarak da anlatıldı.** Bu çalışmayı istediğim zaman ve herhangi bir neden belirtmek zorunda kalmadan bırakabileceğimi ve bıraktığım takdirde herhangi bir olumsuzluk ile karşılaşmayacağımı anladım.

Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının (Kendi el yazısı ile)

Adı-Soyadı:.....

İmzası:

7.8. Appendix H: Informed Consent Form / Study 2

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

LÜTFEN BU DÖKÜMANI DİKKATLİCE OKUMAK İÇİN ZAMAN AYIRINIZ

Sizi Psikolog Beyza Nur Kılıç ve Doç. Dr. Hüdayar Cihan tarafından yürütülen “Sporcularda Stres Faktörleri ve Bilişsel Duygu Düzenleme Stratejilerinin Tükenmişlik Üzerindeki Etkisinin Karma Desen ile İncelenmesi” başlıklı **araştırmaya** davet ediyoruz. Bu araştırmaya katılıp katılmama kararını vermeden önce, araştırmanın neden ve nasıl yapılacağını bilmeniz gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle bu formun okunup anlaşılması büyük önem taşımaktadır. Eğer anlayamadığımız ve sizin için açık olmayan şeyler varsa, ya da daha fazla bilgi isterseniz bize sorunuz.

Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen **gönüllülük** esasına dayanmaktadır. Sporcu çalışmaya **katılmama** veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmadan **çıkma** hakkında sahiptir. **Çalışmayı yanıtlamanız, sporcunun araştırmaya katılımı için onam verdiğiniz** biçiminde yorumlanacaktır. Size verilen **formlardaki** soruları yanıtlarken kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmayın. Bu formlardan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacaktır.

3. Araştırmayla İlgili Bilgiler:

- e. Araştırmanın Amacı: Sporcuların stres faktörlerini, bu faktörlerin etkisini ve başa çıkma stratejilerini incelemek.
- f. Araştırmanın İçeriği: Araştırmacı tarafından verilen soruların cevaplandırılması
- g. Araştırmanın Nedeni: Tez çalışması
- h. Araştırmaya Katılması Beklenen Katılımcı/Gönüllü Sayısı: 100
- i. Araştırmanın Yapılacağı Yer(ler): Spor Kulüpleri, Online Platform

4. Çalışmaya Katılım Onayı:

Yukarıda yer alan ve araştırmadan önce katılımcıya/gönüllüye verilmesi gereken bilgileri okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, gönüllü olarak üzerime düşen sorumlulukları tamamen anladım. **Çalışma hakkında yazılı ve sözlü açıklama aşağıda adı belirtilen araştırmacı tarafından yapıldı, soru sorma ve tartışma imkanı buldum ve tatmin edici yanıtlar aldım. Bana, çalışmanın muhtemel riskleri ve faydaları sözlü olarak da anlatıldı.** Bu çalışmayı istediğim zaman ve herhangi bir neden belirtmek zorunda kalmadan bırakabileceğimi ve bıraktığım takdirde herhangi bir olumsuzluk ile karşılaşmayacağımı anladım.

Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının (Kendi el yazısı ile)

Adı-Soyadı:.....

İmzası:

7.9. Appendix I: Curriculum Vitae

