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Committed Relationships and Enhanced Threat Levels: Perceptions of Coach Behavior, the  
Coach-Athlete Relationship, Stress Appraisals, and Coping among Athletes

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## Abstract

How a coach is perceived to behave by the athlete may have far reaching implications in terms of performance and well-being. The purpose of this study was to assess an *a priori* model that included perceptions of coach behavior, coach-athlete relationship, stress appraisals, and coping. Two-hundred and seventy-four athletes completed relevant measures that assessed each construct. Our results revealed that perceptions of coach behavior were associated with aspects of the coach-athlete relationship and stress appraisals. In particular, closeness was positively associated with challenge appraisals and negatively with threat appraisals. However, commitment was positively associated with threat, indicating that there might be some negative implications of having a highly committed coach-athlete relationship. Further, commitment was also positively associated with disengagement-oriented coping, which has previously been linked to poor performance and negative goal-attainment. Applied practitioners could monitor athlete's perceptions of the coach-athlete relationship, particularly commitment levels, and provide training in appraising stress and coping to those who also score highly on threat and disengagement-oriented coping, but low on task-oriented coping.

*Keywords:* Challenge; Coaching; Primary Appraisals; Stress Management; Secondary Appraisals; Threat

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## Introduction

45           Participating in competitive sport has been associated with athletes reporting a variety  
46 of stressors such as errors, performance, and concerns about the outcome of a competition  
47 [1]. A recent meta-synthesis of the stress and sport literature [2] included a taxonomic  
48 classification of stressors encountered by athletes, which revealed that coach's behavior and  
49 interactions along with a coach's personality were salient stressors for athletes. Indeed,  
50 scholars have also found that a coach's behavior influences how an athlete perceives his or  
51 her relationship with that coach, and that this relationship is associated with an athlete's  
52 happiness [3]. Given that an athlete's perception of his or her relationship is associated with  
53 happiness and that coaches are a source of stress [2], it is plausible to assume that perceptions  
54 of the coach-athlete relationship would also be related to how an athlete evaluates stress and  
55 coping, given that appraisal is thought to determine the emotional responses (i.e., happiness,  
56 anxiety, or anger) and coping [4]. However, little is known about how the coach-athlete  
57 relationship may influence appraisals of stress, and whether the coach-athlete relationship is  
58 related to coping. This is surprising given that research has documented a relationship  
59 between coach behavior and coping [5-6]. In this study we tested an *a priori* model that  
60 included coach behavior, the coach-athlete relationship, stress appraisals, and coping among a  
61 sample of athletes.

## 62 Coach Behavior

63           How a coach behaves can influence whether a player is likely to commit aggressive  
64 behaviors [7], a player's thoughts [8], and the level of anxiety an athlete experiences [9]. It is  
65 therefore important that coaches behave in a way that athletes perceive as being positive or  
66 supportive. Høigaard [10] identified positive coach behaviors among a sample of elite  
67 Norwegian footballers and found that providing positive feedback (e.g., behaviors that  
68 recognize and reward good performances), training and instruction (e.g., coach behaviors that

69 enable an athlete to improve), and democratic behaviors (e.g., allowing team members to  
70 make decisions) were deemed supportive behaviors.

71 Other research has identified supportive and unsupportive coaching behaviors. Using  
72 Côté et al.'s Coaching Behavior Scale for Sport (CBS) [11], Nicolas [5] deemed supportive  
73 coaching behaviors as having emotional/relational and structural/instrumental components.  
74 Conversely, unsupportive coaching was deemed to occur when coaches shouted,  
75 manipulated, threatened, or upset athletes, which is likely to be perceived as the coach  
76 exerting unwanted pressure [11]. Coach behavior has been associated with how athletes  
77 evaluate their relationship with the coach [3]. Indeed, Lafrenière [3] found a positive  
78 relationship between autonomy supportive coach behaviors and the athlete's relationship  
79 quality with the coach. These scholars also found a negative relationship between controlling  
80 coach behaviors and the athlete's relationship with the coach. Although Lafrenière [3] made  
81 an important contribution to the literature regarding how coach behaviors may influence the  
82 athlete's perception of the quality of their relationship with the coach, it could be argued that  
83 the way in which coach behavior was assessed could be more thorough. For example, only  
84 two forms of coach behavior were assessed (i.e., autonomy supportive behaviors and  
85 controlling behaviors), which were measured by only three and six items respectively. The  
86 CBS [11] provides a more detailed assessment of coaching behavior.

### 87 **The Coach-Athlete Relationship**

88 Jowett and Cockerill [12] suggested that the coach-athlete relationship refers to all  
89 situations in which a coach's and athlete's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are inter-related.  
90 The affiliation between the coach and the athlete is dynamic [12], meaning that both the  
91 coach and the athlete can influence the coach-athlete relationship. There are several  
92 conceptualizations of the coach-athlete relationship [13-15], with Jowett's model [13] being  
93 the most widely used and the guiding framework for this current study. Jowett [13]

94 conceptualized the coach-athlete relationship as the 3+1 Cs, which comprises of closeness  
95 (e.g., the extent to which value, support, and care for each other), commitment (e.g., the  
96 coach and athlete's intent to maintain the relationship), complementarity (e.g., how the  
97 behaviors of the coach and athlete correspond to each other), and co-orientation (e.g., the  
98 coach and athlete establishing common views regarding the athlete's progression).

99         The importance of the coach-athlete relationship should not be underestimated, given  
100 that successful coach-athlete relationships can result in superior coaching [16 ], coach and  
101 athlete well-being [17], and better self-concept [18]. Understanding more about the  
102 antecedents of the coach-athlete relationship and constructs that the coach-athlete might  
103 influence is important for the development of coaching practices. One psychological  
104 construct associated with coach-athlete relationship is happiness [3]. Happiness is an emotion  
105 that reflects a person's positive state of their overall psychological well-being [4]. Indeed,  
106 Lazarus [4] stated emotions are generated by appraisals. As such, although Lafrenière and  
107 colleagues [3] did not measure appraisal, their findings indicate that appraisals are related to  
108 the coach-athlete relationship, give that emotions occur as a consequence of appraisals.

### 109 **Appraisal**

110         In order for an athlete to make a judgment about the situation he or she is in with  
111 regards to his or her personal goals, a process known as primary appraisal takes place [4].  
112 Peacock and Wong [19] identified three primary appraisals and three secondary appraisals.  
113 Primary appraisals included threat (i.e., the anticipation of future harms), challenge (i.e., the  
114 anticipation of future gains), and centrality (i.e., the perceived importance of a situation or  
115 event). Secondary appraisal refers to an evaluation of perceptions of control and coping  
116 options available to the athlete [4]. Peacock and Wong [19] identified three different types of  
117 secondary appraisal: controllable-by-self (i.e., the extent to which the athlete can control the  
118 situation), controllable-by-others (i.e., the extent to which people close to the athlete can

119 control the situation), and uncontrollable-by-anyone (i.e., the extent to which no-one can  
120 control the situation)

121 Of particular relevance to the current study, is the recent literature on challenge and  
122 threat states, which are similar to how Lazarus [4] conceptualized these primary appraisals.  
123 Indeed, a study by Moore and colleagues [20] found that those who experienced challenge  
124 states exhibited superior performance, felt less anxious, and engaged in less conscious  
125 processing, in addition to having longer quiet eye durations. These results were echoed by  
126 Turner and colleagues [21] who found that the cricketers exhibiting challenge states  
127 performed better than those who reported threat states. In addition to appraisals of challenge  
128 or threat states influencing performance and anxiety, they have also been theoretically [4] and  
129 empirically associated with coping, along with secondary appraisals [22].

### 130 **Coping**

131 According to Lazarus and Folkman [23], coping refers to all conscious cognitive and  
132 behavioral efforts to manage external or internal demands that a person appraises as taxing  
133 his or her resources. Although coping can be classified into many different dimensions, the  
134 taxonomy proposed by Gaudreau and Blondin [24] is widely used in the sport literature.  
135 Gaudreau and Blondin [24] classified within three higher-order dimensions: task-oriented,  
136 distraction-oriented, and disengagement-oriented coping. The purpose of task-oriented  
137 strategies is to change or master a stressful situation, whereas distraction-oriented coping  
138 direct the athlete's attention onto an unrelated aspect of the sporting task. Finally,  
139 disengagement-oriented coping strategies involve athletes stopping achieving their goals.

### 140 **Summary and Hypotheses**

141 Our hypotheses are presented in Figure 1, with a unbroken line representing a positive  
142 relationship and a broken line inferring a negative relationship. We predicted that there would  
143 be positive paths between supportive coaching behavior and closeness, commitment, and

144 complementarity, but negative paths between unsupportive coaching behaviors and these  
145 three coach-athlete relationship constructs. This is because Lafrenière [3] reported a positive  
146 relationship between autonomy coaching behaviors and athlete perceptions of the coach-  
147 athlete relationship, but a negative path between controlling coach behaviors and the coach-  
148 athlete relationship constructs. We also predicted positive paths between supportive coach  
149 behavior and challenge, and unsupportive coaching behaviors and threat, but negative paths  
150 between supportive coaching behaviors and threat and unsupportive coaching behaviors and  
151 challenge. This hypothesis is based on Lafrenière et al.'s [3] finding that controlling  
152 behaviors were negatively associated with happiness, but autonomous coaching behaviors  
153 were positively associated, although these findings were insignificant. However, given that  
154 challenge appraisals are associated with pleasant emotions and threat appraisals with  
155 unpleasant emotions [25], the athletes who experienced happiness in the Lafrenière [3] study  
156 are more likely to have experienced a challenge rather than a threat appraisal. Due to the lack  
157 of published research, we did not make predictions regarding the paths between the coach-  
158 athlete relationship and centrality.

159       Similarly, we predicted positive paths between closeness, commitment, and  
160 complementarity with challenge appraisals, but negative paths between these three constructs  
161 and threat appraisals based on the notion that these constructs were positively related to the  
162 pleasant emotion happiness. This could imply that the situation is more likely to have been  
163 appraised as a challenge rather than a threat [25]. We also predicted that there would be  
164 positive paths from closeness, commitment, and complementarity to task-oriented coping, but  
165 negative paths from these three constructs to distraction- and disengagement-oriented coping.  
166 This is because both high scores in closeness, commitment, and complementarity are thought  
167 to be associated with athletic excellence [26], as is task-oriented coping [27]. In accordance  
168 with Nicholls [22], we predicted that there would be positive paths between both

169 controllable-by-self and controllable-by-others and task-oriented coping, but that these paths  
170 would be negative to distraction- and disengagement-oriented coping. Further, the paths  
171 between both uncontrollable-by-anyone and stressfulness to distraction- and disengagement-  
172 oriented coping would be negative, where the paths from these secondary appraisal constructs to  
173 task-oriented coping would be negative. Finally, it was hypothesized that there would be a  
174 positive path from challenge appraisals, controllable-by-self, and controllable-by-others to  
175 task-oriented coping and from threat appraisals, uncontrollable-by-anyone, and stressfulness  
176 to distraction- and disengagement-oriented coping. We also predicted negative paths from  
177 threat, uncontrollable-by-anyone, and stressfulness to task-oriented coping and from  
178 challenge, controllable-by-self, and controllable-by-others to both distraction- and  
179 disengagement-oriented coping, based previous findings [22].

## 180 Method

### 181 Participants

182 Two-hundred and seventy-four athletes (male  $n = 200$ , female  $n = 73$ , unspecified  $n =$   
183 1), aged between 16 and 45 years of age ( $M_{\text{age}} = 21.59$ ,  $SD = 4.45$ ) participated in the study.  
184 Participants were from team ( $n = 250$ ) and individual sports ( $n = 24$ ), including both contact  
185 sports ( $n = 216$ ) and non-contact sports ( $n = 58$ ). Our sample consisted of 188 Caucasian, 31  
186 African-Caribbean, 30 Asian, and 25 athletes from other ethnic origins. The athletes in our  
187 sample competed at international ( $n = 81$ ), national ( $n = 54$ ), county ( $n = 38$ ), club ( $n = 36$ ),  
188 and beginner ( $n = 60$ ) levels. Five athletes did not specify their skill level.

### 189 Measures

190 **Coach Behavior.** The 47-item CBS [11] was deployed to assess the athletes'  
191 perceptions of seven of their coach's behaviors. Thirty-nine of the questions were classified  
192 as supportive coaching behaviors, compared to eight of the questions that were classified as  
193 unsupportive behaviors [5]. Participants responded to the stem "How frequently do you

194 experience the following coach behaviors?" A question classified as from the supportive  
195 coaching behaviors was "The coach(es) most responsible for my physical training and  
196 conditioning provides me with structured training sessions" and "the coach(es) most  
197 responsible for my mental preparation provides advice on how to perform under pressure."  
198 Examples of unsupportive coaching behaviors were "my head coach yells at me when angry"  
199 and "my head coach shows favoritism to others." Questions were answered on a 7-point  
200 Likert-type scale, which ranged from 1 = *never* to 7 = *always*. Côté and colleagues [11]  
201 reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of between 0.85 and 0.96 from a sample of 205 athletes.  
202 **Little independent research has been conducted to establish the validity of the CBS. Jurko,**  
203 **and colleagues [28] reported that each scale of the CBS could explain substantial variance**  
204 **through exploratory factor analysis. They did not perform a full confirmatory factor analysis**  
205 **though.**

206 **Coach-Athlete Relationship.** The 11-item Coach Athlete Relationship Questionnaire  
207 (CART-Q) [29] was used to assess the athletes' perceptions of closeness (i.e., the extent to  
208 which the athlete feels close to his or her coach), commitment (i.e., the degree to which  
209 athletes intend to maintain their working relationship with their coach), and complementarity  
210 (i.e., co-operative actions) with their coach. Participants responded to the stem "This  
211 questionnaire aims to measure the quality and content of the coach-athlete relationship.  
212 Please read carefully the statements below and circle the answer that indicates whether you  
213 agree or disagree." An example of question assessing closeness was "I trust my coach,"  
214 whereas "I am committed to coach" was from the commitment scale, and "When I am  
215 coached by my coach, I adopt a friendly stance" represents a question from the  
216 complimentary scale. Participants responded to these questions on a 7-point Likert-type scale,  
217 which ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Jowett and Ntoumanis [29]  
218 **found that all aspects of the coach-athlete relationship significantly predicted relationship**

219 satisfaction, which provided some support for construct validity. The same authors also  
220 reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.86 for closeness, 0.83 for commitment, and 0.78  
221 for complementarity. Similar findings were presented by Yang and Jowett [30], who used  
222 relationship satisfaction as construct validation. Their paper also examined the factorial  
223 properties of the 11-item CART-Q, which provided a stronger model fit than the 13 and 29-  
224 item versions.

225       **Stress Appraisals.** The Stress Appraisal Measure (SAM) [19] measured three  
226 primary appraisals (i.e., challenge, threat, and centrality), three secondary appraisals  
227 (controllable-by-self, controllable-by-others, and uncontrollable-by-anyone), and  
228 stressfulness (i.e., overall feeling of stress). Participants were instructed to “please respond  
229 according to how you view this situation right now.” An example of a question relating to  
230 challenge appraisals was “Is this going to have a positive impact on me?” Conversely, an  
231 example of a question measuring threat was “Will the outcome of this situation be negative?”  
232 The responses on the SAM range from 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *extremely*. Peacock and Wong  
233 [19] reported internal consistencies ranging from .65 to .90. It should be noted that the  
234 Cronbach alpha score of .65 was for threat, which was reported in one of three studies. In the  
235 other two studies within that paper, the Cronbach alphas for threat were .75 and .73. Perry  
236 [31] conducted confirmatory factor analysis and exploratory structural equation modeling on  
237 the SAM and demonstrated sound factorial validity, including measurement invariance.

238       **Coping.** We used the Coping Inventory for Competitive Sport (CICS) [32] to assess  
239 how the athletes were coping before their competition. The CICS has been successfully used  
240 to examine pre-competitive coping and assesses 10 coping subscales categorized within task-,  
241 distraction-, and disengagement-oriented coping [33]. Participants reported how their coping  
242 “corresponds to what you are doing now,” with questions answered on a 5-point scale, which  
243 ranged from 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *very strongly*. Although Gaudreau and Blondin [32] did not

244 report the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the higher-order dimensions, the individual coping  
245 strategies ranged from .67 to .87. Perry [31] presented support for the factorial validity and  
246 measurement invariance.

## 247 Procedure

248 Letters were distributed to coaches and participants, which explained the purpose of  
249 the study and the requirements for those interested in participating, after ethical approval was  
250 obtained from a University Ethics Committee. Participants were asked to complete an assent  
251 form if they wished to participate in the study. Each participant received a questionnaire pack  
252 and the questionnaires were completed in the clubhouse of sports clubs in the presence of a  
253 trained research assistant, and within three hours of a competition starting. As such, each  
254 participant completed the questionnaires in the following order: CBS [11], CART-Q [29],  
255 challenge and threat items of the SAM [19], and the CICS [32].

## 256 Data Analysis

257 Preliminary data analysis screened for outliers, normality, and omega. Omega was  
258 preferred as an assessment of internal consistency because it has fewer assumptions than  
259 alpha, problems associated with inflation of internal consistency are less likely, points  
260 estimates and confidence intervals can be calculated [34]. Bivariate correlations were used to  
261 examine relationships between all variables, using the effect size ( $r$ ) to make a judgment on  
262 their meaning [35]. Zhu [35] suggested using a criteria of 0-0.19 = no correlation, 0.2-0.39 =  
263 low correlation, 0.4-0.59 = moderate correlation, 0.6-0.79 = moderately high correlation, and  
264  $\geq 0.8$  = high correlation.

265 To test how well the hypothesized model (Figure 1) fit our data, were performed a  
266 path analysis in Mplus 7 [36]. A range of indicators of model fit were used to supplement  $\chi^2$ .  
267 Hu and Bentler's recommendations of CFI close to .95, TLI close to .95, SRMR close to .08,  
268 and RMSEA close to .05 were used as guidelines for good model fit, while acknowledging

269 the recommendations by Marsh and colleagues [37], who encouraged researchers to avoid  
270 interpreting these as golden rules. To assess mediation, we used 5,000 bootstrapped samples,  
271 which does not hold assumptions regarding sampling distribution [38] and provides standard  
272 errors and confidence intervals.

## 273 **Results**

274 Data were initially screened for missing data (< 1%) outliers and univariate normality,  
275 which presented no issues with skewness (< 2) or kurtosis (< 7) across all variables. Table 1  
276 presents the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores, and omega point  
277 estimates and confidence intervals. Omega estimates and confidence intervals were  
278 calculated using the MBESS package [39] in R [40] with 1,000 bootstrap samples. Omega  
279 point estimates and intervals supported the internal consistency of all subscales with the  
280 exception of the stressfulness subscale of the stress appraisal measure. Consequently, results  
281 pertaining to this scale were treated with caution.

282 Pearson bivariate correlations were performed to test relationships among coach  
283 behavior, coach-athlete relationship, stress appraisal, and coping strategies. Pearson  
284 correlations were used in favor of the latent factor correlations from structural equation  
285 modeling because the amount of latent variables examined at this stage would have required a  
286 sample size far larger than was available. Bivariate correlations are presented in Table 2. All  
287 aspects of coach behavior correlated positively with the 3Cs of the coach-athlete relationship  
288 with the exception of negative personal rapport, which correlated negatively with all aspects  
289 of the coach-athlete relationship. The positive correlations were largely moderate in size ( $r_s =$   
290  $.29$  to  $.69$ ,  $p < .01$ ), while negative correlations were typically low ( $r_s = -.19$  to  $-.29$ ,  $p < .01$ ).  
291 All positive coach behaviors exhibited a low positive correlation with task-oriented coping  
292 ( $r_s = .17$  to  $.25$ ,  $p < .01$ ), negative personal rapport was positively related to distraction-  
293 oriented coping ( $r = .23$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and disengagement-oriented coping ( $r = .28$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The

294 most significant relationships between coach behavior and stress appraisal were the positive  
295 correlations of all positive coach behaviors with the exception of goal setting and a challenge  
296 appraisal ( $r_s = .16$  to  $.32$ ,  $p < .01$ ). There were also positive correlations between all positive  
297 coach behaviors and control-others appraisal ( $r_s = .18$  to  $.40$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Negative personal  
298 rapport correlated positively with threat ( $r = .33$ ,  $p < .01$ ), uncontrollable ( $r = .24$ ,  $p < .01$ ),  
299 and stressfulness ( $r = .20$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and negatively with control-self ( $r = -.29$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and  
300 control-others ( $r = -.23$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

301         The coach-athlete relationship was significantly associated with stress appraisal.  
302 Specifically, closeness and complementarity were correlated moderately positively with  
303 challenge ( $r = .42$  and  $.55$ ,  $p < .01$ ), control-self ( $r = .45$  and  $.53$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and control-others  
304 ( $r = .44$  and  $.54$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Closeness and complementarity were negatively associated with  
305 threat ( $r = -.24$  and  $-.35$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and uncontrollable ( $r = -.26$  and  $-.44$ ,  $p < .01$ ).  
306 Complementarity presented the strongest relationship of the coach-athlete relationship  
307 variables with coping. Specifically, it was related to task-oriented coping ( $r = .38$ ,  $p < .01$ ).  
308 Relationships between stress appraisal and coping were low to moderate. The strongest  
309 correlations were between task-oriented coping with challenge ( $r = .47$ ,  $p < .01$ ), control-self  
310 ( $r = .44$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and control-others ( $r = .38$ ,  $p < .01$ ), distraction-oriented coping with threat  
311 ( $r = .41$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and stressfulness ( $r = .38$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and disengagement-oriented coping with  
312 threat ( $r = .41$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and stressfulness ( $r = .38$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

313         To guard against departure from multivariate normality, the robust maximum  
314 likelihood estimator (MLR) was used in all model testing. The path model found in Figure 1  
315 represented a reasonable fit to the data but with a significant  $\chi^2$ , low TLI, and high error  
316 (RMSEA):  $\chi^2(17) = 40.86$ ,  $p = .001$ , CFI = .973, TLI = .834, SRMR = .039, RMSEA = .080  
317 [90% CI = .049, .112]. Examination of the path estimates identified several non-significant  
318 paths ( $p > .05$ ). Consequently, these paths were removed from the model. The resultant

319 model presented improved model fit:  $\chi^2(50) = 60.75, p = .142, CFI = .988, TLI = .975,$   
320  $SRMR = .052, RMSEA = .031$  [90% CI = .000, .056]. This model is presented in Figure 2.  
321 This figure does not include direct paths between coach behavior and secondary appraisals  
322 and coping. Nor does it include paths between coach-athlete relationship variables and  
323 coping. There were however some significant direct paths. Specifically, unsupportive coach  
324 behaviors positively predicted centrality ( $\beta = .65, 95\% CI = .50, .80, p < .001$ ), and  
325 stressfulness ( $\beta = .36, 95\% CI = .11, .60, p < .001$ ), but negatively predicted controllable-by-  
326 self ( $\beta = -.35, 95\% CI = -.50, -.20, p < .001$ ). Supportive behaviors presented a significant  
327 positive path with uncontrollable-by-anyone ( $\beta = .22, 95\% CI = .06, .38, p < .001$ ). Of the  
328 coach-athlete relationship variables, commitment presented a significant positive path with  
329 disengagement-oriented coping ( $\beta = .24, 95\% CI = .07, .40, p < .001$ ) and complementarity  
330 negatively predicted both distraction- ( $\beta = -.21, 95\% CI = -.37, -.04, p < .001$ ) and  
331 disengagement-oriented coping ( $\beta = -.36, 95\% CI = -.54, -.17, p < .001$ ).

332 To examine mediation, 5,000 bootstrap replications were conducted and indirect and  
333 direct effects analyzed. This method presents 95% confidence intervals for each estimate. The  
334 absence of a zero in the confidence intervals indicates a significant effect. The results of the  
335 mediation analysis between the coach-athlete relationship variables and coping are presented  
336 in Table 3. Stress appraisal did not mediate the relationship between any coach-athlete  
337 relationship variable and coping strategies. Further analysis of indirect effects was conducted  
338 to determine if the coach-athlete relationship mediated the relationship between coach  
339 behavior and coping. The relationship between positive coach behaviors and task-oriented  
340 coping was positively mediated by closeness ( $\gamma = .12$  [95% CI = .00, .35]). The effect from  
341 negative coach behavior on disengagement-oriented coping was mediated by  
342 complementarity ( $\gamma = .26$  [95% CI = .15, .38]). We then examined the indirect effects  
343 between coach behavior and coping, mediated by stress appraisal. The indirect effect on

344 disengagement-oriented coping mediated by threat appraisal from positive coaching behavior  
345 ( $\gamma = .08$  [95% CI = .01, .15]) and negative coaching behavior ( $\gamma = .19$  [95% CI = .09, .30])  
346 were significant. Finally, the mediating effects of the coach-athlete relationship on the  
347 relationship between coach behavior and stress appraisal were assessed. Results indicated no  
348 significant indirect effects.

### 349 **Discussion**

350 The aim of this paper was to assess the relationships between perceived coach  
351 behavior, athlete's perceptions of closeness, commitment, and complementarity, along with  
352 stress appraisals and coping. Overall, some of the hypothesized paths were supported,  
353 indicating that some of these constructs are related, but there were also some significant  
354 findings that were not expected. These included the relationship between commitment and  
355 threat appraisals, along with commitment and coping (e.g., task- and disengagement-oriented  
356 coping).

357 There were positive paths from supportive coaching behaviors to closeness,  
358 commitment, and complementarity. This compliments the work of Lafrenière and colleagues  
359 [3]. Only one of the negative paths that we predicted from unsupportive coaching behaviors  
360 to the three coach-athlete relationship scales was significant, which was the path to  
361 complementarity. This finding is only in partial agreement with Lafrenière [3] who found a  
362 negative relationship between controlling forms of coach behaviors and athlete perceptions of  
363 the coach-athlete relationship. The insignificant paths between unsupportive perceptions of  
364 coach behavior with both closeness and commitment would imply that athletes still feel a  
365 bond with their coach and plan to continue working with the coach despite feeling the coach  
366 is unsupportive. In certain circumstances, especially team sports, athletes have little or no say  
367 on who their coach is and could only end the coach-athlete relationship by swapping teams.  
368 As such, the athletes might have felt committed to their coach, because they had little choice

369 regarding working with a new coach. It should be noted that the vast majority of the athletes  
370 in the present sample were from team sports, so it could be interesting to compare the effects  
371 of unsupportive coach behaviors among team versus individual sport athletes.

372 Although the paths from neither supportive nor unsupportive coach behaviors to  
373 challenge appraisals were significant, the paths were significant to threat appraisals, and in  
374 the expected direction. This finding illustrates the impact that unsupportive coaching  
375 behavior can have on athlete's perception of a situation. Coaches should consider the impact  
376 of their behavior and the detrimental consequences of such unsupportive behavior. Threat is  
377 associated with undesirable consequences such as increased anxiety [19] and decreased  
378 performance [20]. The finding that there was a significant path between unsupportive  
379 coaching behaviors and threat could imply that coaches can generate perceptions of threat  
380 among their athletes, although given that this is a cross-sectional study, research is required to  
381 verify this. We also found a negative path between supportive coaching behaviors and  
382 perceptions of threat, implying that there is a negative association between these constructs.  
383 Although it appears that coach behavior might not generate challenge appraisals among  
384 athletes, it could be that it reduces that occurrence of threat appraisals.

385 Other than closeness, the hypothesized paths between the coach-athlete relationship  
386 and appraisals were not supported. These findings, however, illustrate the importance of the  
387 athlete's perception of closeness to coach, because it was positively associated with  
388 challenge, but negatively with threat. However, commitment and complementarity were not  
389 associated with challenge, and commitment was negatively associated with threat. That is,  
390 when the athlete was committed to working with his or her coach, threat levels were higher.  
391 This findings illustrates that there might be negative consequences of being in a highly  
392 committed coach-athlete relationship, which has previously not been considered before.  
393 When athletes are in a highly committed relationship with their coach, they might be more

394 concerned about letting their coach down and therefore experience higher levels of threat.  
395 Although not focusing on the coach-athlete relationship, Nicholls [41] reported that young  
396 golfers experienced threat in regards to letting their parents down by not performing well.  
397 Furthermore, there was also a positive path from commitment to disengagement-oriented  
398 coping and a negative path to task-oriented coping which were unexpected. Task-oriented  
399 coping has been positively associated with goal attainment [42], superior performance [27,  
400 43], and higher coping effectiveness [44], whereas disengagement-oriented coping is  
401 negatively associated with such constructs. These findings also illustrate the possible negative  
402 associations of a highly committed coach-athlete relationship. It should also be noted,  
403 however, that commitment was positively associated with controllable-by-self, indicating that  
404 a committed coach-athlete relationship instills a belief that the athlete can manage stressful  
405 situations on their own. Additional research is therefore warranted to explore both the  
406 positive and negative consequences of having a highly committed coach-athlete relationship.

407       Only some of our hypothesized paths between appraisal and coping were supported.  
408 The path between challenge and task-oriented coping was positive and the path between  
409 challenge and disengagement-oriented coping was negative. Further, the path between threat  
410 and disengagement-oriented coping was positive, which are all in agreement with Nicholls  
411 [22], who also found only some of the hypothesized paths were significant. The notion that  
412 challenge is associated with adaptive forms of coping, such as task-oriented coping, but is  
413 less associated with athletes using more distraction- or disengagement-oriented coping, was  
414 partially supported. Similarly, although threat appraisals are associated with athletes using  
415 more disengagement-oriented coping, it is not associated with athletes using less task-  
416 oriented coping strategies.

#### 417 **Limitations**

418 This study explored perceptions of coach behavior and the association of such  
419 perceptions with the coach-athlete relationship and stress appraisals. However, it is possible  
420 that the athlete's perceptions of such coach behaviors may be biased, so future research could  
421 assess actual coach behaviors in relation to perceptions of the coach-athlete relationship and  
422 stress appraisals. Furthermore, we employed a cross-sectional design, and the constructs we  
423 assessed are all recursive and dynamic processes [11, 19, 29, 32]. As such, we were unable to  
424 so assess how these relationships unfolded over time, which would make for an interesting  
425 and useful piece of research. **While we have acknowledged the known validity of the**  
426 **measures used, this is largely related to the factorial validity. There is little testing of**  
427 **construct and criterion validity on the self-report measures used in this study. In particular,**  
428 **the coach behavior scale would benefit from such scrutiny.**

#### 429 **Recommendations**

430 The findings from this study illustrate that perceptions of coach behavior are  
431 associated with how an athlete perceives his or her relationship with the coach and the  
432 appraisal of situations. It is therefore paramount that coaches consider their behavior and  
433 maximize their level of supportive behavior, whilst minimizing unsupportive coaching  
434 behaviors. This may appear an obvious recommendation, but our data suggests that coaches  
435 were being perceived to behave in an unsupportive manner among some athletes, which  
436 suggests that this type of behavior is evident among coaches. Although it may seem  
437 appealing to want to maximize all aspects of the coach-athlete relationship, this is one of the  
438 first studies to suggest that there might be some undesirable consequences of such an  
439 approach, particularly in relation to commitment. Although it is important that both the coach  
440 and the athlete are committed to the relationship, coaches could speak to their athletes and  
441 provide re-assurances about factors that might cause threat (e.g., the outcome of  
442 competitions) in highly committed coach-athlete relationships.

**443 Conclusions**

444 We found support for a number of paths assessed in this study, indicating that coach  
445 behaviors are associated with the coach-athlete relationship and appraisals. Further, aspects  
446 of an athlete's perception of the coach-athlete relationship are related to appraisals and  
447 coping. Although supportive coaching behaviors were not positively associated with  
448 challenge appraisals, they were negatively associated with threat, and unsupportive coaching  
449 behaviors were positively associated with threat appraisals. As such, coaches might be able to  
450 reduce threat levels among their athletes by monitoring their behavior and eliminating  
451 unsupportive coaching behaviors. Finally, this is one of the first studies to suggest that a  
452 strong coach-athlete relationship might have some undesirable consequences, given that  
453 commitment was positively associated with threat.

454

455

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575 coping effectiveness among athletes. International Journal of Stress Management,

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577

578

579 Table 1

580 *Descriptive Statistics, Univariate Normality Estimates, Internal Consistency*

Variable	M	SD	Min	Max	Skew	Kurt	Omega [95% CI]
<i>Coach Behavior</i>							
Physical Training	5.08	1.34	1.00	7.00	-.79	.15	.90 [.88, .92]
Technical Skills	5.39	1.19	1.50	7.00	-.67	-.04	.94 [.92, .95]
Mental Preparation	4.54	1.51	1.00	7.00	-.40	-.51	.95 [.93, .96]
Goal Setting	4.22	1.59	1.00	7.00	-.26	-.65	.96 [.95, .97]
Competition Strategies	5.31	1.19	1.43	7.00	-.77	.27	.92 [.90, .94]
Personal Rapport	5.01	1.36	1.33	7.00	-.54	-.32	.89 [.87, .92]
Negative Personal Rapport	2.42	1.28	1.00	7.00	1.58	2.42	.89 [.85, .92]
<i>Coach-Athlete Relationship</i>							
Closeness	5.74	1.23	1.00	7.00	-1.29	1.41	.92 [.90, .94]
Commitment	5.14	1.29	1.00	7.00	-.96	.66	.84 [.81, .88]
Complementarity	5.37	1.23	1.00	7.00	-.82	.57	.76 [.69, .81]
<i>Stress Appraisal</i>							
Threat	2.26	.81	1.00	4.25	.24	-1.01	.60 [.52, .65]
Challenge	3.48	.86	1.50	5.00	-.18	-.74	.78 [.72, .81]
Centrality	2.95	.83	1.00	5.00	-.18	.04	.68 [.57, .73]
Control – Self	3.86	.79	1.50	5.00	-.42	-.39	.78 [.73, .83]
Control – Others	3.41	.94	1.00	5.00	-.06	-.73	.79 [.72, .83]
Uncontrollable	2.18	1.04	1.00	4.75	.59	-.75	.84 [.80, .87]
Stressfulness	2.59	.63	1.00	4.25	.04	-.11	.23 [not pos]
<i>Coping Strategies</i>							
<i>Task-Oriented Coping</i>							
Mental Imagery	3.57	.77	1.50	5.00	-.30	-.46	.65 [.57, .71]
Effort Expenditure	3.97	.86	1.00	5.00	-1.08	1.38	.70 [.61, .77]
Thought Control	3.45	.80	1.00	5.00	-.37	.17	.62 [.54, .70]
Seeking Support	2.89	.84	1.00	5.00	.22	-.46	.71 [.65, .76]
Relaxation	3.13	.87	1.00	5.00	.04	-.48	.77 [.71, .82]
Logical Analysis	3.33	1.00	1.00	5.00	-.86	.21	.80 [.74, .84]
<i>Distraction-Oriented Coping</i>							
Distancing	2.59	.90	1.00	4.75	.49	-.23	.74 [.68, .80]
Mental Distraction	2.35	.93	1.00	5.00	.58	-.03	.80 [.75, .85]
<i>Disengagement-Oriented Coping</i>							
Venting Unpleasant Emotions	2.70	.89	1.00	5.00	.17	-.60	.76 [.70, .80]
Resignation/Disengagement	1.74	.87	1.00	4.00	1.10	.06	.82 [.78, .86]

581 *Note.* Coach behavior and stress appraisal are measured on 7-point scales; stress appraisal and  
582 coping strategies are measured on 5-point scales. Omega confidence intervals could not be  
583 calculated for the stressfulness subscale, as the matrix was not-positive-definite.

Table 2

*Bivariate Correlations for Coach Behavior, Coach-Athlete Relationship, Stress Appraisal, and Coping*

	<i>Coach-Athlete Relationship</i>			Task	<i>Coping</i>			<i>Stress Appraisal</i>					
	Close	Comm	Compl		Distract	Diseng	Threat	Chall	Central	ContSelf	ContOth	Uncont	Stress
<i>Coach Behavior</i>													
Physical Training	.50**	.52**	.39**	.17**	.05	-.06	.03	.27**	.27**	.19**	.35**	.02	.13*
Technical Skills	.64**	.64**	.55**	.20**	-.12	-.20**	-.03	.29**	.10	.28**	.40**	-.09	.07
Mental Prep	.49**	.55**	.40**	.19**	-.04	-.07	.01	.16**	.09	.16**	.29**	.00	.03
Goal Setting	.45**	.56**	.29**	.17**	.11	.03	.12*	.06	.23**	.06	.18**	.20**	.17**
Comp Strategies	.59**	.62**	.49**	.20**	-.12	-.17**	-.05	.30**	.11	.27**	.38**	-.08	.04
Personal Rapport	.67**	.69**	.59**	.25**	-.12	-.17**	-.15*	.32**	.08	.36**	.38**	-.21**	.06
Negative Rapport	-.29**	-.19**	-.25**	-.00	.23**	.28**	.33**	-.19	.09	-.29**	-.23**	.24**	.20**
<i>Stress Appraisal</i>													
	<i>Coach-Athlete Relationship</i>			<i>Coping</i>									
Threat	-.24**	-.01	-.35**	-.12*	.41**	.41**	Task	.28**	.19**	.38**			
Challenge	.42**	.22**	.55**	.47**	-.04	-.22**	Distraction	-.08	-.05	-.04			
Centrality	.10	.18**	.04	.27**	.25**	.10	Disengagement	-.20**	-.12	-.20**			
Control – Self	.45**	.26**	.53**	.44**	-.12	-.30**							
Control – Others	.44**	.28**	.54**	.38**	-.03	-.18**							
Uncontrollable	-.26**	.05	-.44**	-.23**	.29**	.38**							
Stressfulness	-.01	.10	-.07	.18**	.38**	.28**							

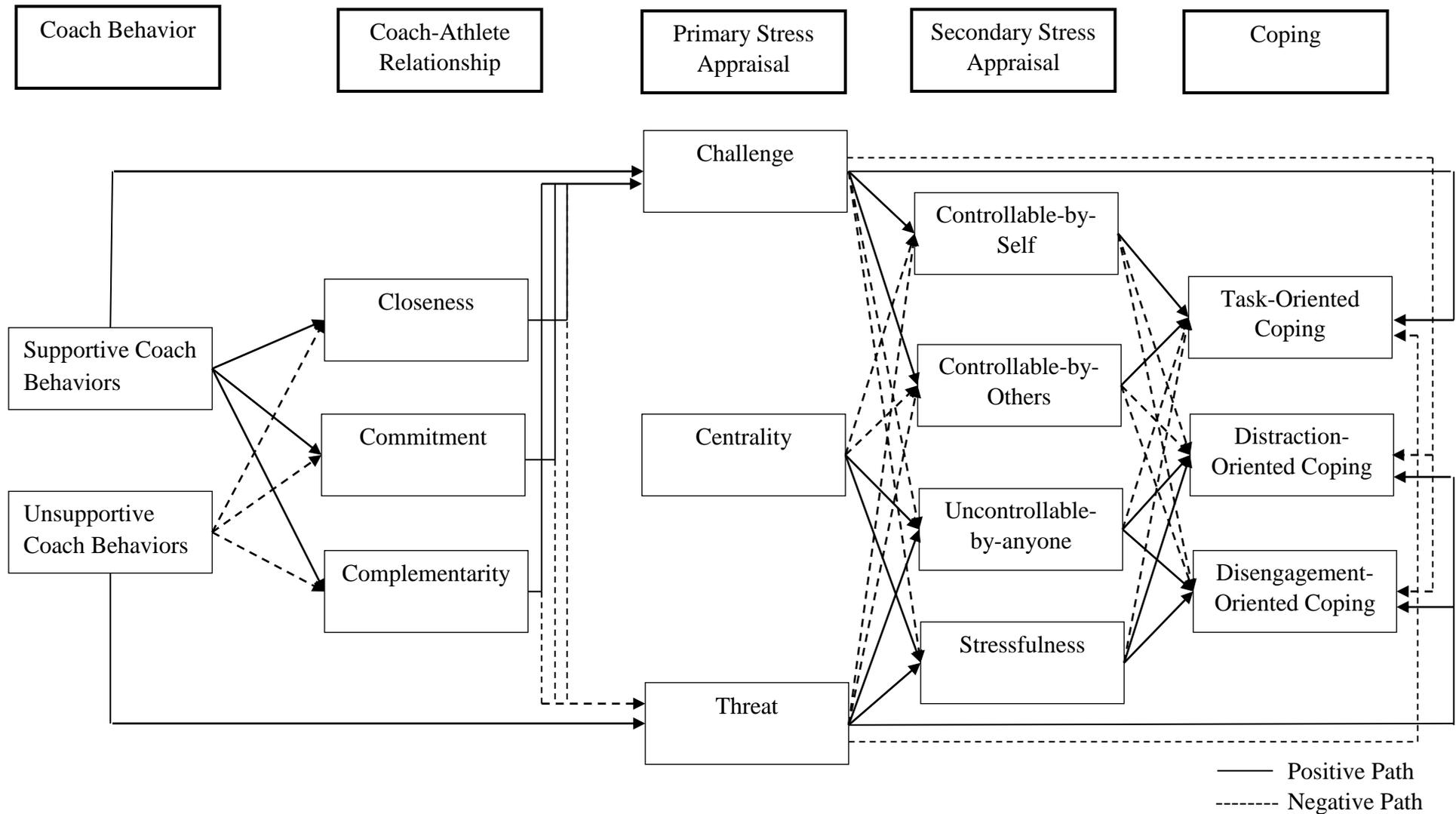
\*Statistically significant at  $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .

Table 3

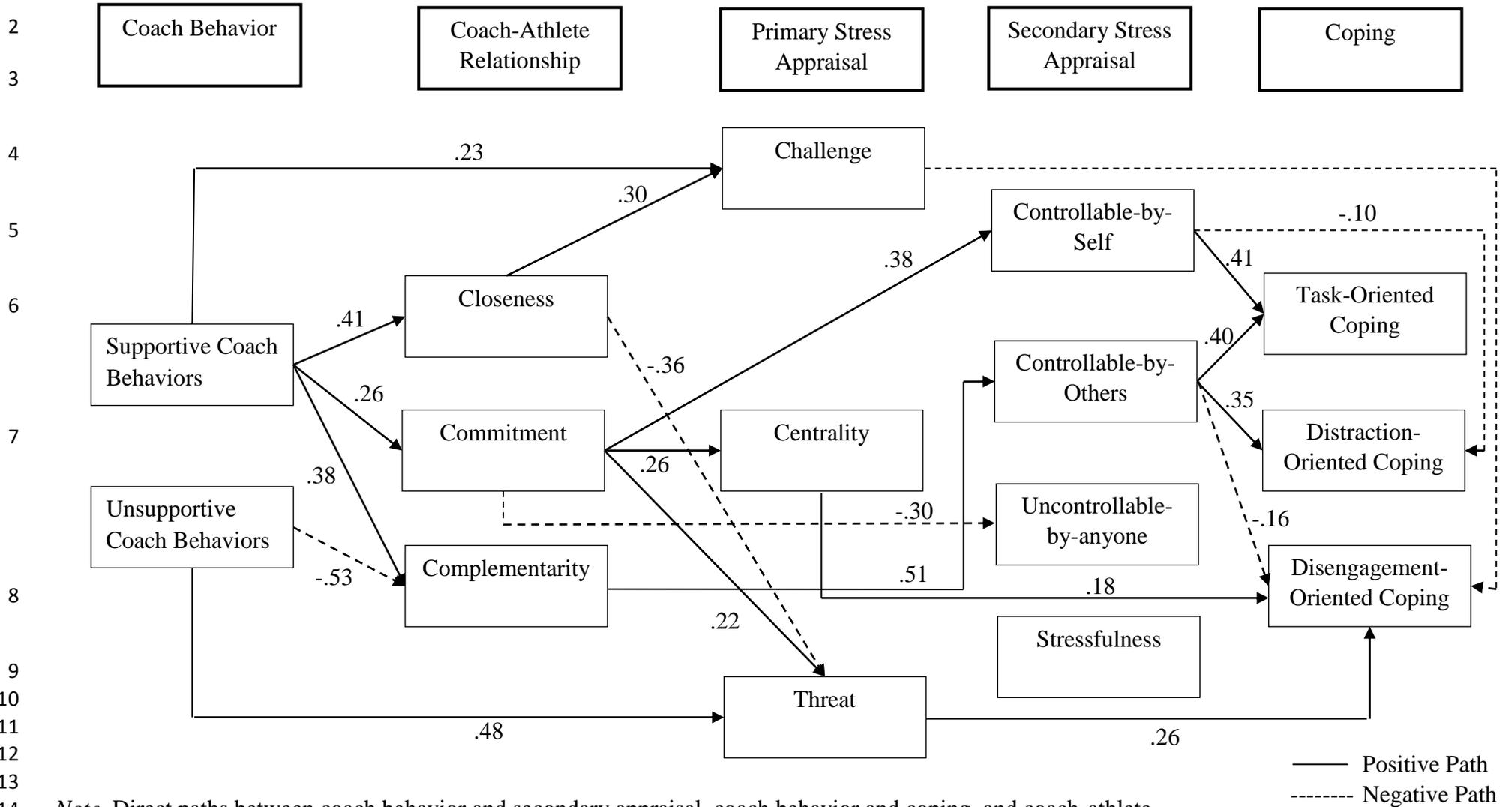
*Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Coach-Athlete Relationship Variables on Coping in the Original Path Model*

	Direct	Via Challenge	Via Threat	Total Effect
Closeness → Task-oriented coping	.42 [.11, .72]	.05 [-.04, .13]	-.02 [-.11, .06]	.44 [.10, .79]
Commitment → Task-oriented coping	-.32 [-.53, -.10]	-.01 [-.07, .06]	.01 [-.04, .07]	-.31 [-.55, -.07]
Complementarity → Task-oriented coping	-.06 [-.37, .26]	.04 [-.07, .14]	-.01 [-.07, .04]	-.03 [-.35, .28]
Closeness → Distraction-oriented coping	.20 [-.23, .63]	.02 [-.05, .08]	-.05 [-.16, .07]	.17 [-.23, .56]
Commitment → Distraction-oriented coping	-.22 [-.52, -.08]	-.00 [-.03, .03]	.03 [-.05, .11]	-.19 [-.48, .10]
Complementarity → Distraction-oriented coping	-.28 [-.56, -.01]	.01 [-.06, .08]	-.03 [-.10, .04]	-.29 [-.55, -.04]
Closeness → Disengagement-oriented coping	.14 [-.11, .38]	-.03 [-.08, .03]	-.11 [-.23, .02]	.01 [-.22, .23]
Commitment → Disengagement-oriented coping	.24 [.01, .47]	.00 [-.03, .04]	.07 [-.03, .17]	.31 [.10, .52]
Complementarity → Disengagement-oriented coping	-.50 [-.69, -.32]	-.02 [-.08, .04]	-.06 [-.18, .05]	-.59 [-.75, -.42]

Figure 1 Hypothesized Path Model for Coach Behavior, Coach-Athlete Relationship, Stress Appraisal, and Coping



1 Figure 2 Revised Path Model Showing Only Significant ( $p < .05$ ) Paths



14 Note. Direct paths between coach behavior and secondary appraisal, coach behavior and coping, and coach-athlete  
 15 relationship and coping have been omitted for clarity