UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

ASSESSING STRESS APPRAISALS AND COPING STYLES AMONG GHANA PREMIER LEAGUE COACHES AND PLAYERS

BY

MEDINA SREM-SAI

Thesis submitted to the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation (HPER) of the Faculty of Science and Technology Education, College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Physical Education (Sports Psychology).

DECEMBER 2021

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:..... Date: 05/08/22

Name: Medina Srem-Sai

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:..... Date: 05/08/22

Name: Dr. Elvis John Hagan Jnr.

Co-Supervisor's Signature:..... Date: 05/08/22

Name: Dr. Prosper Narteh Ogum

ABSTRACT

This study's main objective was to ascertain how coaches and players in Ghana's premier league in 2020–2021 perceived their levels of stress and coping skills. The study employed a descriptive cross-sectional survey approach. Using a census, 44 formally registered male coaches ($Mean_{age}$ = 42.30, SD =10.44) and 424 players ($Mean_{age}$ = 22.36, SD = 3.53) from 17 premier league clubs answered a questionnaire consisting of standardised measures on organizational stressor indicators (OSI-SP), stress appraisals (SAM), and coping methods (MCOPE). In order to examine the data, descriptive statistics, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and multivariate multiple regression were all utilized. The findings demonstrated that football coaches and players experienced a wide range of stresses, with player selection serving as both coaches and players' most frequent source of stress (i.e., being selected). Coaches most frequently used the stress assessment approaches controllable-by-self, challenge, and controllable-by-others. The findings also indicated that problem-focused coping strategies were more prevalent among coaches and players. In general, there was a strong correlation between football coaches' and players' coping techniques. For instance, controllable-by-self was connected to problem-focused coping in coaches. Challenge, controllable-by-self, and controllable-by-others assessments had a significant impact on participants' problem-focused coping (active coping). It is advised that team managers, sport psychologists, and sports organizations in premier league clubs acknowledge that coaches and players deal with a variety of stressors and make sure that designed interventions (such as psychological skills training) are included to provide enough psychological support for the identified groups to improve their performance well-being.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I express my heartfelt appreciation to all persons whose efforts helped to bring this thesis to a successful end. First, I owe a debt of gratitude and thanks to Dr. John Elvis Hagan Jnr. (My Principal Supervisor), for his immense support throughout this programme. In fact, Dr. Elvis has been resourceful in many ways in the writing of this thesis. He made constructive suggestions and criticisms, encouraged and inspired me to keep working harder, making me a better researcher and writer. I also thank Dr. Prosper Narteh Ogum (My Co-Supervisor) for his constructive criticisms, knowledge sharing, encouragement, support and guidance. Without his inputs, this dream would not have been achieved. I thank you for your expertise in helping to shape and put this work together. For their exceptional insights, advice, and assistance during my PhD program, I am grateful to each and every professor and staff member at the University of Cape Coast's Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (HPER). Without the support from my family, I would not reach where I am today. My thanks go further to all my participants for accepting to participate in this research.

My sincere thanks and gratitude are extended to my sweet and very supportive husband, Mr. Marsell Kwami Avadu (DOIII) and children, Stanley Brain Libuseh Avadu, Barry Abdul Qadr, Audrey Ateseh Avadu, Ephraim Jeremiah Lefelatey Avadu and Makayla Litesah Avadu for the love, patience, understanding, care, endurance and always there for me. To my siblings, Kudiratu Yekini, Antwiwaa Rafatu Mohammed and Gyimah Mohammed. My Mother, Madam Ansomaa Martha Mariama and my Father, Mr. Yekini Adayi. God richly bless you all.

DEDICATION

To my, Mr. Marsell Kwami Avadu and our beautiful and lovely children,

Stanley, Barry, Audrey, Ephraim and Makayla.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Stress that is experienced at the workplace has generally been classified globally as a 21st Century Health Epidemic due to indication that stress at work is very common and many individuals continuously suffer from stress-related ailments. Physical symptoms like headaches and sleep issues, psychological symptoms like anxiety and depression, and behavioural problems like decreased performance at work, mood swings, absenteeism, low interest in work, and work drop-out can all be signs of these conditions. Ghanaian workers are not exempt from these symptoms (WHO, 2016).

Research has indicated that as employees of sports organisations, professional football coaches and footballers continuously experience stressful encounters at their workplaces (Neil, Hanton & Mellaliue, 2011) and until these people learn to evaluate and deal effectively with stressors, they will continue to experience the negative effects of stress that are linked with negative outcomes like dissatisfaction, undesirable behaviours, poor psychological well-being, underperformance (Fletcher, Hanton, & Wagstaff. 2012; Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, Medbery & Peterson, 1999; Tabei, Fletcher & Goodger, 2012) and unpleasant emotions like frustration as well as worrying (Sēve, Ria, Poizat, Saury, & Durand, 2007). Despite these challenges, stress research in Ghana has primarily focused on health workers, security personnel and other non-sporting populations. Despite previous attempts on stress research in Ghana, scholarly information on stress connected with professional sports in Ghana is virtually non-existent, though may exist. Therefore, an understanding of stress-related experiences of

Ghanaian football premier league coaches and players would be a crucial step towards helping with the designing of appropriate stress management interventions framework for coping effectively with stressful situations. As a result, this chapter covers the study's history, problem statement, goal, importance, delimitations, definitions of terminology, and how the other chapters of this thesis were structured.

Background to the Study

In order to accomplish a similar goal, coaches and athletes in professional sports are subject to extremely high demands. According to research, the demanding atmosphere that top coaches and athletes work in exposes them to a variety of stressful scenarios because of the numerous expectations (stressors) that are made of them. These stressors could negatively affect individuals' emotions, behaviours, performance outcomes and general psychological well-being if these persons are unable to evaluate the stressful situations positively and find their corresponding coping strategies (Arnold, Fletcher, & Daniels, 2016; Fletcher et al., 2012; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Olusoga, Butt, Hays, & Maynard, 2010; Tabei et al., 2012; Thelwell, Weston, Greenlees, & Hutchings, 2008a). Research has also indicated that even, when the coach was under stress, athletes were negatively affected, leading to poor performance outcomes and satisfaction (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003).

When there is a significant gap between physical and/or psychological needs and reaction capacities and there is a risk that the demand won't be met, this is how stress is defined (McGrath, 1920, p. 20). Alternatively, Lazarus (1990) views stress less as a specific component of the association that exists

between persons and their environments, but that pays more attention to the psychological processes that underpin a situation. Some stress researchers (e.g., Lazarus, 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) believe that people's physiological, psychological, and neurological responses to their complex environments interact to produce stress.

Fletcher et al. (2006) said that stress is viewed as "a continual process in which people transact with their environment, analyze the conditions they meet, and strive to cope with things that may develop" based on these assumptions (p. 329). Environmental demands (stressors), people's experiences, how these demands (stressors) are evaluated, and an evaluation of the personal resources (i.e., goals, beliefs, level of competence, self-confidence, self-efficacy, sense of control, effective leadership skills) available to deal with the stressors) are all included in the process of stress (Cooper et al., 2001; Lazarus, 1999). Coping mechanisms for each identified stressor are then used (Lazarus, 1999; 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Events or circumstances that upset a person's sense of equilibrium are referred to as stressors, and they frequently cause responses known as stress responses. When an individual is stressed, his or her sympathetic nervous system which controls movements up and down gets activated, resulting in bodily feeling states that relate to flight or fight like rise in heart rate, muscular tension and the release of adrenaline (Karageorghis, 2011).

Fletcher et al. (2006) described stressors as the "environmental stimuli that individuals encounter" (p. 329). Therefore, research has indicated that stressors that affect how athletes and coaches think, feel, and behave include rivals, audience effects, officiating officials, injury, facilities and equipment,

salaries, high expectations, teammates, training environments, competition environments, weather effects, competition preparation, team selection, contract issues, communication, leadership issues, traveling distances, and team atmosphere (Fletcher & Scott., 2010; Hanton et al., 2005; Kristiansen, Murphy, & Roberts, 2012; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Olusoga et al., 2009; Thelwell et al., 2008).

Many studies have been conducted to far to determine the amount of stress that coaches and players experience (Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Kristiansen et al., 2012; Olusoga et al., 2009; Thelwell, 2012). (e.g., Arnold et al., 2016; Gould et al., 2002; Hanton et al., 2005; Mellalieu et al., 2006; Wagstaff & Fletcher, 2012; Woodman & Hardy, 2001). According to these studies' findings (Giacobbi et al., 2004; Gould et al., 1993; Hanton et al., 2005; Mellalieu et al., 2006; Noblet & Gifford, 2002), players may find their coaches stressful, but vice versa is also true for coaches (Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Kristiansen et al., 2012; Olusoga et al., 2009; Thelwell et al., 2008; Thelwell., 2012; Thelwell et al., 2016).

For example, all athletes interviewed in Kristiansen's (2012) study of US football players suggested that it was the coach who set standards and determined the tone and type of climate that existed among team players. Therefore, these factors—pay inequalities between players, ignorance about colleagues' earnings, too-low or even too-high incomes—increased the pressure on athletes and stressed them out. Additionally, the team's overall morale and performance suffer from unhealthy and fierce competitiveness for team ranking (Kristiansen et al., 2012). Collectively, these sportsmen admitted

that poor team performance may arise from improper management of such circumstances (Kristiansen et al., 2012).

Identifying the organisational and performance stressors among 11 elite coaches (7 men and 4 women), Thelwell et al. (2008) indicated that coaches encountered an approximation of 50% of the stressors they experienced in performance settings through their athletes because of the difficulties pertaining to athletes' control. For example, when a coach gives an instruction to his athletes, a compliance to that particular instruction cannot be under total control of the coach. These interactions sometimes lead to frustration and unpleasant feelings. These tense situations were unavoidable because of the coaches' many duties and worries for their athletes (Frey, 2007; Olusoga et al., 2009).

Furthermore, Kristiansen et al. (2012) opine that some particular stressors were exclusive to some particular groups and that stressors that would be identified might be unique to a particular cultural context (Mckay et al., 2008; Noblet & Gifford, 2002). Therefore, cultural specifics were required in order to better understand how other teams or groups viewed and handled stress (Kristiansen et al., 2012). Thus, considering the cultural space that is occupied by soccer in the United States, Kristiansen et al. (2012) paid a special attention to how soccer players perceived environmental stressors that were unique to the socio-cultural context of US. Importantly, psychological events like stress and emotional experiences could be peculiar to a particular setting rather than being universal across cultures (Dzokoto, 2010; Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

For example, somatisation research from cultural psychology had shown that in diverse societies, the mind and body were associated with expressing a distress (Dzokoto, 2010). It had been demonstrated that these circumstances vary between and within cultures, with non-western civilizations being connected to particular incidences of physical symptoms in emotionally troubled people (Kleinman & Good, 1985; Kirmayer et al., 1998). Hence, studying these affect experiences within the Ghanaian context among premier league coaches and players would be worthwhile. Highlighting the importance of cross-cultural specific research on stress in sports, Noblet and Gifford (2002) reiterated that the cultural fabric of a particular sport should also be considered to better understand the circumstances that might particularly evoke stressful situations in the context of professional sports.

Further evidence indicated that as soon as a person encounters a stressor, there is cognitive appraisal. This is seen as the way individuals evaluate their environment and relate them to their beliefs, personal goals and values (Lazarus, 1966; 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This appraisal process is now understood to be a crucial component that significantly affects the transactional stress process. As a result, stress researchers divided cognitive evaluations into two categories: primary and secondary appraisals. Individuals that use primary appraisal perceive circumstances as either unimportant to their well-being, benign-positive, or stressful. This means that people do not feel stressed when there is no goal at stake or no relevance of a particular situation (primary appraisal; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1999, 2000). A benign-positive appraisal also emerges when a condition is considered to result in positive outcomes and well-being and is coupled with

favourable attitude, such as joy, love and happiness. This may also not lead into stress.

However, if there is a demand from the environment in which a person operates and there is a goal at stake or a significant event, the resources available to satisfy the demand are insufficient (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). If the proper coping techniques are not used, the person may experience negative feelings like worry as a result of this procedure (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus, 1999). As a result, depending on how the individual perceives that particular experience or stressor, stress might be good or bad (Fletcher & Scott, 2010), thus, a person might see a demand as an opportunity, a challenge, or neither of them (McGowan, Gardner, & Fletcher, 2006).

Research further suggests that if a person has more or equal resources than the demands placed on them, they will not feel stressed (i.e., primary appraisal), hence the secondary appraisal will not matter because they can cope better (Lazarus, 1999). However, if demands put on a person are more than the resources available to challenge those demands, the individual may feel stressed (i.e., primary appraisal). Subsequently, the available coping resources are then evaluated (i.e., secondary appraisal) before finally implementing a coping strategy to manage the situation (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Therefore, a stressor may be evaluated as threatening, challenging or harm/loss reliant on individual differences in vulnerability and sensitivity to situations. The individual's interpretations, feelings and reactions to these encounters may differ as well (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus, 1999). For instance, under similar conditions, people may express varied emotional

reactions (feelings), thoughts and behaviours about a particular situation (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus, 1999). While a person may show a depressive symptom as a response, another person may use anger as a response. Alternatively, another person may respond by eliciting feelings of guilt and anxiety. Others may also respond with a feeling of challenge, rather than feel threatened.

Football coaches' actions and cognitive appraisals of difficulty and danger were compared by Dixon et al. (2016). Findings demonstrated that coaches benefited greatly from seeing stresses as challenges. Dixon and partners reiterated that when people perceived that the resources available to them were inadequate in a particular situation, they responded with a maladaptive stress (i.e., threat). Alternately, if adequate resources were perceived to be available, responses then became adaptive (i.e., challenge), facilitating a drive towards an achievement of one's goal.

Additionally, threat appraisals were linked to unfavorable coaching tendencies, whereas challenge appraisals were tied to adaptive coaching behaviors (Dixon et al., 2016). Threat assessments were associated with higher levels of anxiety, subjective stress, and the use of emotion-focused coping to minimize the painful feelings and ideas brought on by a stressful encounter. Threat assessments also employed less problem-focused coping than challenge assessments (Skinner & Brewer, 2002). Dixon et al. (2016) observed that coaches who regarded stresses as a challenge were better able to provide positive feedback and support to athletes because they believed they could handle the demands of the circumstances themselves. Additionally, coaches who appraised stressors as challenging experienced positive emotions that

promoted good coaching behaviours, such as social support and positive feedback for stronger and better relationships with the athletes they coached.

Even though coaches recognised the stress they experienced affected their athletes to some extent, the overwhelming effects of their stress on the athletes negatively affected how they developed and performed psychologically, emotionally and behaviourally (Thelwell et al., 2016). Understanding coaches-players stress responses (i.e., bi-directional impact) in the context of professional soccer practice not only has practical implications for coaches and consultants working with players of various standards under cyclical stressful experiences, but it may also benefit empirical and theoretical research (Mellalieu et al., 2006; Neil et al., 2009).

Moreover, studying these psychological challenges could also offer a practical basis for the timing, structuring and content of strategies for coping aimed to support coaches and players affected by their psychological states due to stressful experiences they encountered. Besides, little was known about the overall stress-related experiences of coach-athlete interactions, subsequent appraisal and associated coping styles or strategies from an integrated perspective. From a sociocultural standpoint, there are likely to be many common values, norms, and social behaviors that underlie patterns of stressful reactions and the following appraisal (Basabe et al., 2000; Mesquita & Markus, 2004). Consequently, coping mechanisms to manage them may differ among cultures (Ekman & Davidson, 1994). Rather, such strategies might be trapped in diverse cultures through learned experiences to manage encountered stressful situations (Hagan, Pollmann & Schack, 2017). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there isn't any geographical evidence that

accounts for stress assessments using any elite sport population in Ghana; however, there may be some.

Thus, the current study examined the stresses encountered by coaches and the players they coached, as well as their perceptions of these stressors, their coping mechanisms, and the interactions between these psychological dimensions. Knowledge about these experiences would assist sport psychologists and other stake holders to design appropriate stress management interventions for coaches and players to promote their psychological well-being and performance outcomes.

Statement of the Problem

Research evidence had indicated that coaching and playing professional football, especially at elite level could be associated with many stressful encounters (Dixon et al., 2016; Kristiansen et al., 2012). When coaches and athletes learn to manage and cope effectively with stressful situations, it is more likely to result in psychological well-being, positive emotions, satisfaction and enhanced performance outcomes (Fletcher & Scott, 2010). However, if these situations are not well managed or coped with, it may lead to loss of jobs or performance decline, lack of psychological well-being as well as dissatisfaction due to excessive pressure on the job (Arnold et al., 2016; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Nicholls et al., 2011) and withdrawal from the particular sport (Frey, 2007). Furthermore, McCann (1997) indicated that when coaches experience strain, it negatively affects the level of confidence of their athletes and vice versa, leading to performance inadequacies, if they are unable to cope well with such strain.

Anecdotal evidence has shown that participating in professional football in Ghana is associated with many stressful situations. For example, a former Ghanaian international, Sam Johnson, in an interview at a media station (Adomonline.com, 2018), stated emphatically that coaching in Ghana is very stressful and that if footballers are not well taken care of, they may refuse to either play their best or listen to instructions from their coaches. This ex-international star further reiterated that clubs which engage the services of coaches fail to provide quality training environments, offer poor remuneration and lack good organisational structures. Other noted concerns include poor officiating, selection interferences, travelling issues, coaches' and players competences as well as communication and leadership issues. Additionally, many professional football coaches lose their jobs when the players they coach consistently underperform and vice versa (Akenteng, 2019; Gould et al., 2002). These high expectations to win and consistent scrutiny on the performance of coaches and footballers by club managers, spectators, sponsors and the media put excessive pressure on them to perform without excuses. For example, a former coach of Accra Hearts of Oak football club by name Offeh Ansah had a heart related attack whilst coaching his team in 2005. This might have been as a result of the demanding nature and pressure under which he was operating. Additionally, while some authors have considered stress as a unitary process, many researchers have ignored the entire stress process (i.e., stressors-cognitive appraisal-coping) which Fletcher et al. (2006) and Lazarus (1999, 2000) suggest would lead to a lack of a clearer understanding of the entire linkages between these constructs and their effects.

Despite the fact that Ghana has a number of research on stress, the majority of them have mostly focused on nurses (Acquaye, 2011), police (Arthur, 2016; Gyamfi, 2014), and other professionals (Azumah, 2014; Nnuro, 2016; Duah, 2016). For instance, Arthur's (2016) study on the occupational stress experienced by Cape Coast police officers discovered that organizational obstacles such as housing issues, work overload, and public criticism caused police personnel more stress than their exposure to physical threats. Similarly, in his study on the effects of occupational stress on job performance among Koforidua Polytechnic staff, Nnuro (2012) identified busyness as a significant cause of stress and turned to social support to deal with the problem. Furthermore, Dorcoo (2016) in his research on how stress affects Nurses at the Tema General hospital found issues, such as roles at work, level of control and interpersonal relationships as their major stressors.

Till date, research in Ghana on stress-related experiences across diverse sporting populations is untapped. Due to lack of empirical evidence in Ghana, little is known about stress related experiences reported by Ghanaian coaches and players as well as their coping styles for self-management or regulation in the premier league.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess stress appraisals and coping styles among Ghana Premier League coaches and players in 2020/2021. In specific, the study:

1. detected the organisational stressors prevalent among football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league;

2. examined the stress appraisal measures adopted by football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league;
3. explored the coping styles adopted by football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league;
4. determined the extent to which age and years of experience contributed to the organisational stressors' indicators among football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league;
5. investigated the associated stress appraisals and coping styles among football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What organisational stressors are prevalent among football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league?
2. What stress appraisal measures are adopted by football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league?
3. What coping strategies are adopted by football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league?
4. To what extent would age and years of experience contribute to organisational stressors indicators among football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league?
5. What is the association between stress appraisals and coping styles among football coaches and players in the Ghana premier league?

Significance of the Study

The study's findings will provide the researcher, other sports psychologists, football club managers, the Ghana Football Association, and

the Ministry of Youth and Sports with an empirical basis for their work. They will also provide information on the stress levels and coping mechanisms experienced by coaches and players in the Ghana Premier League. This would serve as a guide to practitioners to design and implement appropriate stress management training programmes through workshops and seminars. Furthermore, through this study, practical recommendations would be given to all stakeholders in charge of football coaches and players and guide policy formulation and implementation of stress management standards and regular assessments to support the psychological well-being and job performance of soccer coaches and players. Coaches and players would be able to learn the abilities needed to handle stresses and successfully cope with tough situations both inside and outside of competitions using these. In light of the study's findings, more research on the topic of stress in Ghanaian sporting events may be conducted. Last but not least, the discoveries would contribute to the body of research by offering a new perspective on the stress that players and coaches in Ghana's sociocultural context feel.

Delimitations

This study is delimited to Ghanaian football premier league coaches and players in the 2020/2021 season. The study concept was also delimited to stress from a transactional perspective (stressors-cognitive appraisals-coping styles). Additionally, this study used survey tools in the form of questionnaires to collect data, enabling the researcher to generalize the findings about the target group using a sizable sample size.

Limitations

The limits of this study have several problems that will need to be addressed in further research. The findings of the present study, for instance, can only be applied to men who play or coach football in Ghana's 2020–2021 premier league since only males who participated in the study played or coached football throughout the season of just one sport, the 2020–2021 premier league. In addition, there weren't as many coaches as athletes, which would have affected the size of the cells used for data analysis. Because of this, the study's findings might be in jeopardy. Once more, the retroactive nature of the data collection may mean that it does not accurately reflect the pressures that players and coaches actually experienced.

Another drawback of this study is that because respondents had to reply to three instruments simultaneously, certain adjustments had to be made in order to reduce the amount of items in accordance with professional advice and prevent respondents' boredom and aggravation. Since there were too many items for the MCOPE given the characteristics of the sample used for the study, the coaching efficacy element was not tested, and the number of subscales was reduced to seven. The OSI-SP instrument was only used for its intensity component. It's likely that some people just checked the boxes without paying attention to the details because some of the information was unavailable in person.

Moreover, this study could not account for between and within club transfers within the period of the premier league to ascertain whether differences in organizational structures could be a source of stress for coaches and players. The idiographic stressors, assessments, and coping strategies of

coaches and players could not be taken into consideration due to this methodological flaw; as a result, the reported stress-related experiences by the sample may not match or resemble actual stress experienced.

Definition of Terms

Coaches: Refers to professional coaches who coach in the premier league of Ghana (GFA, 2019).

Coping: It is characterized as revolving cognitive-behavioral attempts to address certain external and/or internal impediments that a person believes to be as challenging as or more so than their available resources (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984 p. 141).

Footballers: Refers to professional footballers in the premier league of Ghana (GFA, 2019)

Organizational stressor: These are environmental demands (stimuli) that relate directly and primarily with the organization in which a person operates (Fletcher et al., 2006).

Performance Stressor: It refers to the environmental demands (stimuli) that relate directly and primarily with competition (Fletcher et al., 2006)

Primary appraisal: Stress can be expressed as a constant process in which humans interact with their environments, examining situations in which they find themselves, and attempting to control challenges that may occur (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Secondary appraisal: It is the judgment in relation to what an individual might and can do or an evaluation of coping options available for use in a particular encounter (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Strain: A person's unfavorable behavioural, physical, and psychological responses to stresses are referred to as this condition (Fletcher et al., 2006).

Stress: It describes a continuous process through which people engage with their surroundings, analyze the circumstances they find themselves in, and make an effort to manage any difficulties (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus, 1999).

Stressor: A stressor is a situation, an event or an environmental demand (stimuli) that an individual encounters (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus, 1999).

Organization of the Study

This study was in five chapters. Chapter one which constituted the introductory part of the study, included the background to the study, problem statement, purpose, research questions, significance, delimitations, limitations, definition of terms, and organisation of the study. The chapter two dwelt on literature review, specifically theoretical framework of the study, concept of stress, concept of stress appraisal and coping styles and a chapter summary. Chapter three centered on the methodology. This chapter involved the research design, population, sampling procedure, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, data processing and analysis and chapter summary. Chapter four presented the findings and its discussion in line with the research questions and summary. The final chapter five dwelt on summary of the main findings, conclusions, recommendations, practical implications and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This study's purpose was to evaluate coaches and players in the Ghana Premier League's 2020–2021 season's perceptions of stress and coping mechanisms. This chapter extensively reviewed relevant previous and current studies on stress and critically analysed and synthesised the coach-athlete stress literature across the globe. This chapter was specifically organised as follows;

The Concept of Stress

i. History of Stress
ii. Stimulus Perspective of Stress
iii. Response Perspective of Stress
iv. Weaknesses of the Stimulus and Response Perspectives of Stress
v. Individual Differences
vi. Interactional Perspective of Stress
vii. Transactional Perspective of Stress

Theoretical Frameworks

i. The "Meta-Model of Stress, Emotions and Performance" (Fletcher et al., 2006).
ii. The "Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping" (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).
iii. Coach-Athlete Stressors
iv. Cognitive Appraisals
v. Coping in Sport
vi. Coping Categories and Dimensions

vii. Research on Coach-Athlete Stress

viii. A Chapter Summary

The Concept of Stress

History of Stress

Since the 14th century, the word "stress" has been used to describe things like illnesses, suffering, straits, and danger (Lumsden, 1981). Hooke (cited in Hinkle, 1973, 1977) exploited stress in the physical sciences in an unorganized way from the late 17th century to the early 19th century. Stress is defined as the relationship between an internal force (caused by a load) and the external force. A force from the outside was what was meant by "load." Strain has also been defined as a situation in which an object gets distorted or deformed" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In 19th century, medicine, stress and strain were thought to be the root of ill-health and Cannon (1932) described stress as a homeostatic disturbance caused by hypoglycemia, cold, or a lack of oxygen and despite using the term, "stress", casually, he referred to his subjects as "people under stress" and concluded that measuring stress levels was possible (Robinson, 2018).

Stress has been used by Selye (1936) as a "coordinated set of defenses in the body that opposes any amount of noxious stimulus (in addition to psychological threats), and names this reaction as the General Adaptation Syndrome" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Selye referred to a demand from the environment as a "stressor," although stress is more often understood as a general collection of physiological reactions and processes these demands trigger. Selye (1950, 1951-1956) released an annual report on stress in the early 1950s, and in 1956, he compiled these works into a book titled, "The

Stress of Life." There have been about 6,000 papers on the physiology of stress by 1956. (Appley & Trumbull, 1967). The current upsurge in interest in stress research can be attributed to Selye's invitation to speak at the American Psychological Association in 1955, which spurred a spike in interest in stress research spanning from physiology to psychology and certain behavioral sciences. With suggestions from Hinkle (1977), Wolff, (1953) also contributed greatly to how the stress concept in medicine evolved. This is because, for example, in the 1940s and 1950s, Wolff wrote about sickness and life stress (Wolff, 1953) and considered stress to be a bodily state. He further explained stress as a "state of dynamism inside an organism that is not a burden, load, stimulus, symbol, an assault or the social, external or internal part of the environment". According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), Wolff's emphasis on a state of "dynamism" that involved adapting to demands and Selye's arranged physiological reaction pattern was significant for many reasons. Firstly, the physical sciences referred to stress as a passive or inactive body that is deformed by loads from the environment but biologically, stress was seen as an active process that "fights back". By this, the body took part in efforts of adaptation that was critical in restoring and maintaining balance, a concept that was derived from Claude Bernard (1815-1878), a French physiologist. This concept was based on Claude's ability to discover the liver's sugar-storing functions.

Secondly, as a defensive biological procedure, stress dealt with an exciting analogy to a procedure called "coping' in which an individual fought to manage psychological stress. Thirdly, the dynamic state concept pointed to important aspects of stress processes like costs involved, diseases, resources

for coping and distresses, benefits, victory over adversity and competencies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lastly, in trying to view stress as a state of dynamism, more attention was directed towards linking the organism and its environment, feedback and interplay. There was the acceptance that the dynamism has been helpful in having adequate and complete definition of stress that depended exclusively on what was happening within the organism. Within this period, there was the need for an awareness of happenings related psychological and sociological stress.

Furthermore, "alienation" was a topic that Marx, Weber, and Durkheim all wrote about in depth. According to Durkheim (1893), alienation was a state of anomie that people experienced when they lost or had no adequate standards to guide their efforts toward accomplishing socially defined goals. Seeman (1971) showed five variations of alienation which included isolation, powerlessness, normlessness, meaninglessness, and self-estrangement. Today's sociologists prefer the term strain to stress when discussing social disturbance or disorder tactics, which is comparable to Wolff's view of stress as a disrupted bodily condition in an individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Therefore, panics, riots, increase in mental illness, suicide and crime were all social strain. Thus, putting a phenomenon in a group was more preferred than individualizing a phenomenon at the personal psychological level. In his sociological analysis of shared conduct (riot, panic) as well as the literature on natural tragedy by Smelser (1963), there has frequently been a link between social stress and psychological stress (Baker & Chapman, 1962; Grosser, Wechsler, & Greenblatt, 1964).

Additionally, Mechanic's (1978) study of a student's examinations stress, Lucas's (1969) study that involved a tragedy at a coal mine, Radloff and Helmreich's (1968) research that involved how people worked and lived under water bodies and research of stress experienced in an organisation (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Thai, 1964) have also contributed to the growth of stress research. The uncertainties between psychology and sociology became challenging to draw in these situations. Moreover, there was chaos in the terminology used with stress (or strain) which were in some instances the agent and at other times the response. For many years, stress was understood as a structure for establishing thoughts about psychopathology, on the individual psychological side, especially in Freud's theory of psychodynamic based writers and anxiety was used instead of stress.

Stress was not included in psychological abstracts until 1944. In later Freudian interpretations, conflict-based anxiety served as a sign of threat and produced mechanisms for non-satisfactory stress and defense management that generated symptoms whose features depended on defense types. Symptoms were produced by delaying or blocking intuitive release of satisfaction (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The reinforcement-learning theory of Spence (1956) and Hull (1943), which for several years has been dominant in American psychology, was similar to the Freudian formulation. Anxiety has been considered as a reaction that is typically conditioned leading to pathological ways of reducing anxiety (Dollard & Miller, 1950).

Anxiety has been overly emphasised in psychological thought and studies. Evidence-based research on anxiety increased in the early part of the 1950s after Taylor (1953) published a trait scale for measuring anxiety. This

scale spawned a plethora of studies on the impact of anxiety on memory, learning, skilled performance, perception and the perspective of anxiety as a source of cognitive interference or motivation (Spence & Spence, 1966), with Spielberger (1966) compiling and editing many of these studies into a book. Throughout this time, innumerable publications have continued to arise that show interest in anxiety as if it were stress by using the phrase anxiety in the title rather than stress, or by using both terms there (Spielberger & Sarason, 1975; Spielberger, 1972; 1966, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Another major event that has immensely contributed to research and theory on stress has been World War II and this is indicated in the book that was written by Grinker and Spiegel (1945) on the Second World War with the title, "Men Under Stress," which showcased the psychological application of stress. The concern of the military men was the impact of stress on their functioning in the course of the combat which could have increased the soldiers' susceptibility to death and injury and additionally weaken the potential of a combat group to effectively take action. For example, soldiers got frightened during dangerous periods on missions of bombing and such conditions regularly led to psychotic-like or neurotic-like breakdowns (Grinker & Spiegel, 1945; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

When the Korean War began, several studies focused on stress and its effects on skilled performance and adrenal-cortical hormones while some latter studies were carried out aiming to develop strategies for choosing fewer susceptible war military personnel while others developed strategies that could function better when they were stressed. The Vietnam War spurred more study on battlefield stress and its physiological and psychological impacts (Bourne,

1969), with Selye playing a key role. Additionally, relating to war stresses was the publishing of books on bombing effects on civilian functioning and confidence (Freud & Burlingham, 1943; Janis, 1951), wartime survival (Von Greyerz, 1962), military prisoners' manipulations (Biderman & Zimmer, 1961), and concentration camp (Bettelheim, 1960; Cohen, 1953; Dimsdale, 1980).

A key milestone in promoting research and theory on stress was Janis's (1958) study on surgical threat of a client who was receiving treatment in psychoanalysis. The number of books systematically examining the stress theory and scientific procedures increased as a result, and the social underpinnings of stress in the environment also increased. Samples of these include books published by Levine and Scotch (1970) and McGrath (1970). Growing understanding of the fact that stress is inevitable and that, although it has always been a part of life, how a person responds to it affects how well they adapt (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Stress has given way to coping in Psychological Stress and the Coping Process (Lazarus, 1966). Horowitz (1976), Lazarus and Launier (1978), Lazarus & Folkman (1984), Coelho, Hamburg, and Adams (1974), Folkman and Lazarus (1980), Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978), Lazarus and Launier (1978), Lazarus & Folkman (1984), Menninger (1963), Murphy and Moriarty (1976), Murphy and Moriarty (1976), Murphy and Mori (1977).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that five recent progresses further increased people's appreciation of stress and coping research, namely the revival of interest in psychosomatics, individual differences, increase in a life course developmental viewpoint, behaviour therapy development aimed at

treating and preventing diseases or behaviours that promote vulnerability to illnesses and the impact of the environment on humans. For instance, differences in individuals emanated from studies on the way stress affects performance that has been triggered by the Second World War as well as the Korean War. In the 1950's, this challenge, which was of interest to individuals who were not military men and women, caused many laboratory and field experiments (Lazarus, 1966) and the dominant view has been reasonably simple and anxiety or stress has been known to lead to the weakening of skilled performance by either extremely creating a distraction or an interference.

Since a rise in arousal improves task performance up to a certain degree, beyond which there is an increase in disorganization and a decline in performance, psychologists who have been involved in this study frequently cite Yerkes and Dodson (1908), who first proposed the inverted U-theory. As a result, it became clear that there were considerable disparities in how people responded to stress and performance had not been uniformly reduced or improved. For example, Lazarus and Eriksen (1952), observed a clear rise in variance instead of the average decrease or increase in the efficiency of performing under stress that was caused by failure. Stress varied peoples' performances, with some experimental participants performing better while others performed poorly. Many studies revealed that performance could not be predicted by an individual by just referring to a stressful encounter and that to predict the result of a performance, attention was needed to study the psychological procedures that produced the individual differences in how people react. For instance, individuals can vary in optimal arousal level or the

way they evaluate specific circumstances and how they deal with its difficulties.

The increasing awareness of how important person factors like coping and motivation (Lazarus, Deese & Osier, 1952) result into variations in formulating a stress problem and skillful performance. For instance, many researchers (Sarason, 1975, 1972, 1960) started considering the likely interactions of mediating or moderator variables. While defining the problem migrated towards environment and personal factors, temporary outcomes of emotions and performance, studies concerning skilled performance research under stressful situations have been mostly anticipated based on processes that are linked to stress and can also lead to how individuals react differently.

Meanwhile, the original problem, which is how stress affects performance, has not been fully rejected. For example, Schonpflug et al. (1983) and reviews that analysed the current stress research and fatigue in the performance of humans, brought back conversant variables and concepts like the effect of noise on fatigue, pressure of time and effective problem-solving, but twisted anew as concepts like motivation, cognition and coping have been added onto the previous ones with an effective performance. This helps to promote concerns about performance and stress, but in a manner that promotes studying the variances among individuals. Psychosomatic medicine has grown rapidly 50 years ago (Lipowski, 1977), but afterwards experiences drastically reduced until lately. This decline has been the product of poor data base for the simple view that many illnesses like colitis and ulcers have been explained with regards to special kinds of psychodynamic processes. According to Alexander (1950), unsuccessful efforts have been made for the use of

psychodynamic formulations so as to detect "migraine", "ulcer" and "colitis" personalities. For more than 20 years, psychoanalytic concepts in traditional setting have been less responded to with more attention being paid to environmental factors that result in illness. Because of that psychosomatic medicine that is committed an intra-psychic emphasis suffered from confidence.

The revival of present concern has been driven by many changes in outlook that concerns illness and stress. Selye's work, has been a major contributor supporting the opinion that psychological and social issues are essential in the illness and health of men. For example, there has been a shift of psychophysiology and medicine, assumes that sickness is stringently the result of environmental agents like damaging accidents, viruses, bacteria and toward approval of the view that susceptibility to "host resistance" or illness is significant as well. Moreover, studies on the effects of hormones on tissues and stress (Mason, 1975; Mason et al., 1976) have led to susceptibility that people who doubted traditional psychodynamic inventions have accepted. Presently, thinking psychosomatically is inserted in the theory of research and stress and it appears to have a new energy that is improved, partly by this extensive, more complex approach. The resurgence of interest was supported by a number of books on behavioral medicine and psychosomatics, including those by Weiner (1977), Weiss, Herd, and Fox (1979), Norton (1982), and Adler (1981), as well as Cohen and Adler's (1979) books on health psychology and Adler's (1981) book on the relatively new field of stone and psycho-immunology.

The creation of the Health Psychology Division (Division 38) by the American Psychological Association and the publication of journals like The Human Stress Journal, Health Psychology Journal, Journal of Psychosomatic Research, Behavioral Medicine Journal, British Journal of Medical Psychology, Psychological Medicine Journal, and the Health and Social Behavior Journal provide additional evidence of the growing interest in psychological issues in health. Numerous specialized publications publish relevant research, and many general journals (such as The British Journal of Clinical Psychology and the Personality and Social Psychology Journal) have started to publish studies with a health focus.

Recently, behaviour therapy has emerged too as a substitute to traditional psychodynamic cure. Previously, its position was positive, scientific and narrow, based on militantly detached from thoughts of psychoanalysis as well as operant and classical conditioning. Later, it developed into a more flexible and multifaceted cognitive behavioural treatment (Ellis, 1962; Ellis & Grieger, 1977), which saw the interpretation of adaptational encounters by individuals as well as interventions to change thought actions and feelings as critical issues in psychopathology and successful coping. Many cognitive behavioral therapists cited Meichenbaum's (1977) cognitive coping interventions and Meichenbaum and Novaco's (1978) adoption of "stress inoculation" concepts, which teach people how to handle upcoming stressful situations, as the foundation of the connection between psychodynamic and behavioral methods (Lazarus, 1980; Mahoney, 1980; Wachtel, 1980). They began the stress-reduction program as a result of this (Beck, 1976).

A fourth component softening stress interest, adaptation and coping was a significant topic in developmental psychology. Traditionally, developmental psychology has concentrated on adolescence and infancy. There was a rising alarm of adulthood challenges due to how fast people were reaching old age in the 1960s. Erikson's (1963) work brought a shift from Freudian-based psychology on initial stages of life and resolving the oedipal fight in adolescence in order to be aware that key psychological changes also took place during the young adulthood stage and afterwards.

Developmental psychology is a branch of psychology that focuses on change throughout life. Based on a research by Levinson et al. (1978) on midlife crises and transitions, Gail Sheehy's book from 1976 popularized adult transitions. The rising interest in growing adults was also influenced by the words of several authors. Similarly, the social and political consequences of growing adults led to a shift of research capitals in studying difficulties facing aged people and the formation of the National Institute on the elderly.

An important issue that is voiced in new literature related to transitional stress, social change and coping. For example, there is great attention in the midlife crises, empty nest, retirement and widowhood. Simultaneously, there has not been much attention than on infants' and children's emotional development and how children get to understand the individual benefits of social interactions and relationships. Whether focusing on children or adult's development, issues are commonly ordered around adaptation, stress and coping.

People's interest in stress and coping was sparked by behavioural science research that had a strong social and ecological focus, which was a

crucial component. A rigid intrapsychic emphasis, which emphasized factors underlying sickness that were essentially within a person, has started to give way to an environmental focus in psychiatry and clinical psychology. Psychology has evolved in a direction where people become intrigued by the places that people inhabit. The development of ethology as a naturalistic discipline has been advantageous for environmental psychology. Social scientists were aware that they did not comprehend the natural habitats of people after seeing the impact of ethology research.

The physical and social demands of the environment contribute to stress (Stokols, 1977). Environmental constraints and resources that affect coping prospects are both crucial components (Klausner, 1971). As a result of the establishment of a science of the environment, stress research and theory gained new followers and a broader perspective.

More recently, it has been recognised that stress is an unavoidable part of life, and how people deal with it is what distinguishes them. Improvements in behavioural health psychology, clinical intervention, medicine, psychosomatics, and the rising concern in the stressful physical environment and its effects on humans have all had a substantial impact on stress studies and on how individuals react differently to stressful situations. Stress has always been seen as both a stimulus and a response.

Stimulus Perspective of Stress

The stimulus definitions are focused on environmental situations that put excessive demands on people (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) that causes an experience, but not the experience itself. These include illnesses, natural disasters, harmful conditions or loss of job. The assumption of this approach is

that certain circumstances are normatively stressful causing strain. It is assumed that life situations demand equal levels of adjustment for all persons and that an illness will result when a certain common threshold of adjustment is exceeded. This stimulus approach does not consider individual differences in evaluating these life events. Initially, Rahe and Holmes (1967) viewed humans as passive recipients of stress and as subjects who had no influence on the intensity, frequency and degree of stressors experienced (Walinga, 2015). Holmes and Rahe (1967) developed the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) using this technique. It consisted of 42 life events (such as divorce, job loss, marriage, and relocation) and was scored based on the individual's estimated degree of adjustment in dealing with a particular demand.

Response Perspective of Stress

Response definitions have dominated the fields of biology and medicine, and stress is defined as either a physiological reaction pattern Selye (1956) included in his General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) model, or as a generic response of the human body to any form of pressure. The individual in this situation is regarded as reacting with stress or being under stress. According to the response method to study, substantial demands are imposed on the organism, hormonal and neurological reactions. These hormonal and neurologic responses prepare the person to fight or run from potentially perilous situations. According to this model, stress involves three phases: namely exhaustion, resistance, and alarm, hence, if stress is severe or chronic, it could lead to an adaptational illness or death. Later, Selye (1983) suggested that responding to stress could lead to negative or positive consequences because of mental evaluations of the physiological experience or physical

symptoms. This way, Selye (1983) indicated that individuals could experience stress as negative stress (distress) or positive stress (eustress). Therefore, stress as a response has been regarded as a physiological construct. Definitions concerning stimulus and response have a narrow usage, because stimulus is considered stressful only in relation to its response to stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The fact remains that extreme environmental circumstances like losing loved ones, imprisonment, natural tragedies, severe sickness, military combat, torture and nearness of death caused stress for almost everybody. However, these instabilities that occur in almost everybody from dangerous situations must not allow researchers to settle for a one-dimensional idea that stress emanates from the environment. Such severe circumstances are very common, but using them as a model generated scarce theory and applications. Significant challenges occur when the major disparities in individuals' responses to general stressors are ignored (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). While people migrate from severe life situations to minor or ordinary life stressors, differences in response becomes even greater. What is stressful for one individual may not be so for another. Therefore, pretending to accept that there should be an objective means to defining stress as environmental circumstances without considering the characteristics of the individual. Based on the above, it was necessary to consider a relational viewpoint and to recognise the nature of that association so as to understand multifaceted response pattern and its adaptational results.

Weaknesses of the Stimulus and Response Perspectives of Stress

Stimulus and response underpinnings of stress have been criticised in many ways. For example, Lazarus (2006) explained that referring to stress as a response is naive and repetitive. According to him, defining stress as a stimulus and/or response raised two direct concerns. Firstly, what is it that actually makes a specific stressor exceedingly demanding, and secondly, what about the response indicates a specific stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Reacting to a stressful event or stimulus is referred as the stress response, meanwhile, the event or stimulus is regarded stressful for the reason that it leads to a stress response. It is evident that neither the stressor, event, or reaction is described without relation to the other, limiting each of them slightly. Thus, care must be taken when using any of these constructs as meaningful definition of stress because of these inadequacies.

Additionally, it is complex when determining differences between physiological, physical, and psychological stress. A decrease in heart rate, for example, might indicate physiological stress. Meanwhile, this increase in heart rate could be that the particular individual might have been involved in a warm-up activity, yet in a relaxed psychological state. Again, without identifying the stimulus, the behavior cannot be understood as a reaction to psychological stress. Lazarus (2006) indicated that despite similarities that exist in engineering can enhance the understanding of strain and stress, such similarities do not seem to unearth the seeming complexity of the processes of stress among humans. It is not automatic that psychological stress will definitely lead to strain.

The person component looks at whether or not a person first perceives an encounter as a danger before determining whether or not they have the resources to handle those demands. Despite the fact that it may have made sense to define stress as a stimulus or a reaction to environmental stimuli, it has since become clear that both definitions are overly limited, and it is crucial to consider how a person interacts with his or her environment.

Individual Differences

Even though some particular stimulus conditions are considered to be universally and normatively stressful, the variations in responses to possible stimulus events make this argument more multifaceted. While studying physiological stress, Selye (1936) proposed that it is possible to consider anything that is "noxious to tissues" as a source of stress. Nevertheless, this definition needs to be clarified as to what "noxious" means. For instance, a hockey ball cannot be considered noxious until it hits a player's head leading to pain. Considering psychological stress as against physiological stress even worsens the difficulty in understanding what exactly is regarded "noxious". Since neither the source of stress nor the response to it can be described or characterized without reference to the other, saying something is unpleasant because it creates a stress response is circular (Lazarus, 2006). Lazarus (2006, p.54) further proposed that the "kind and extent of stress response" to exceptionally prevailing stressful situations like an Olympic level performance, differ among individuals and therefore, understanding these differences is important (Olusoga, 2011).

Person to person responses to stressful events become even more deceptive when comparing responses to the day-to-day inconveniences

encountered by people and major catastrophic events. In trying to explain this, even though losing a loved one by death could be considered generally stressful, it is still possible that individuals will respond to it differently depending on many situational and personal factors. These considerations make it evident that although one individual may find something to be extremely stressful, another may find it to be completely unstressful. For instance, player B may perceive that relationship as irrelevant and immaterial to achieving their goals and as a consequence suffer very little or no stress, but player A may experience tension as a result of a poor connection with their coach. Prior to World War II, the Inverted-U theory, created by Yerkes and Dodson in 1908, was employed to explain the impact of stress on expert performances. In instance, the Inverted-U theory suggested that, up to a degree, competent performance would increase as worry levels grew. When anxiety rises beyond the optimal level, performance would begin to decrease. Nevertheless, studies conducted during the 2nd World War, emphasized the need to consider individual differences in such instances.

In their review of stress research, Lazarus, Deese and Osler (1952) indicated that the same stressful situation can have a facilitating impact on some performers, yet become debilitative to others. Recently, Fletcher et al. (2006) and Olusoga et al. (2011) have added their voices to the fact that a similarly stressful encounter may not necessarily be a stressor to everyone in the group. Further, they suggested that stress is not always debilitative as was previously viewed, but can be facilitating as well as depending largely on the situation or characteristics of the person involved. It is therefore clear that

defining stress without critically considering the characteristics of the person would not give a true picture of the stressful experiences people encounter.

Interactional Perspective of Stress

This method of gauging stress takes into account how a person's situational and personal aspects interact while they are in a difficult scenario. According to this perspective, the relationship between stimulus and response generally involves cause and effect (Cooper et al., 2001). In situations where interactions do not occur or vary from the predicted relationship factors, such as personal (hardiness, self-efficacy, optimism), situational (perceived controllability) or social (availability of social support network) could account for such variations. The interactional approach in studying stress involves the individual's environment forming two independent variables, coming together to influence or affect the person's cognitive-emotional reactions (i.e., the dependent variable) and at the same time remain unchanged and liberated of each other (Fletcher et al., 2006). The interactional viewpoint of stress has been established in literature by many researchers in sport psychology (Campbell & Jones, 2002; Kelley & Gill, 1993) and job-related settings (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986). Particularly, the job stress research, permitted researchers to understand work stressors and how these stressors affect the health and wellbeing of employees (Cooper & Dewe, 2004).

Meanwhile, how the interactions come about by the relevant factors cannot be explained by the interactional conceptualisation of stress. Certainly, the existence of moderator variables is inadequate to describe the multifaceted association between an individual and individual's environment. There cannot be just one of the Stimulus (cause) and Response since the environment and

the individual are intertwined (effect). The transactional approach to stress emphasizes the dynamic character of the person-environment interaction to get over this constraint. Explicitly, a person's meaning about how they relate to their environment is critical to how they feel stress.

Transactional Perspective of Stress

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) then pushed for a new definition that highlights the association that exists between persons and their environment. The personal features of the individual are accounted for on one side, with the kind of environment on the other. Stress, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), is more focused on the psychological processes that underlie an event than it is as a specific component of the relationship between a person and their environment. This process nature of studying stress has been broadly supported by many stress researchers (Fletcher et al., 2006). According to these researchers, psychological stress cannot be objectively predicted as how people react to stress without referring to their personal indicators or characteristics. Therefore, psychological stress is a relationship that develops between people and their environment that they see as demanding or beyond their capacity and endangering their well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p.19). The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, created by Lazarus and Folkman, states that cognitive assessment and coping are used to determine if a given person-environment link is stressful .The Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping (TTSC), which Lazarus and colleagues created in 1966, serves as the primary tenet of this study.

Theoretical Frameworks

This part of the research discusses the theoretical frameworks that are relevant to the current study. The study was built on the transactional theory of stress and coping.

The Meta-Model of Stress, Emotions and Performance

To demonstrate how stress, emotions, and performances are connected, Fletcher et al. (2006) suggested using the meta model of stress, emotions, and performance. This model proposes a superordinate and integrative viewpoint of the stress process and how it relates with the performance of individuals considering organisational, personal and competition stressors that individuals in highly demanding performance environments experience (Fletcher et al., 2006). This theoretical model's central thesis is that stresses originate in the performer's environment, are mediated by assessments, perceptions, and coping mechanisms, and then cause either good or negative reactions, feeling states, results, and emotional states (Fletcher et al., 2006).

The model is composed of three main phases: The effect of stress (strain), according to the Person-Environment (P-E) Fit hypothesis, manifests as an imbalance between a person and their environment, According to the Emotion-Performance (E-P) Fit, when an emotion and a performance are out of balance, it might lead to bad sentiments, whereas the Coping and Overall Outcome (COO) focus on how individuals handle these responses or reactions. The coping and overall coping (COO) stage postulates that when coping methods are not used effectively or appropriately, a negative outcome would result. The cognitive process of individual coping that leads to total coping outcomes is very important. The meta-model proposes that the continuing

transactions are affected by many personal (perceived control, affect and self-confidence) as well as situational factors (autonomy, feedback and social support) in the organization (Fletcher et al., 2006).

The Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping

Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) views stress not as an explicit pattern of physiological, subjective or behavioural responses, but as a dynamic bi-directional transaction occurs between people and their environments. When the demands surpass their capacity for coping, people under psychological stress relate to their surroundings and view it as important for their wellbeing (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986, p. 1). The environmental demands (stressors) that people experience, how they evaluate these demands (stressors), and an assessment of the personal resources (goals, beliefs, competence level, self-confidence, self-efficacy, sense of being in control, effective leadership skills) available to them in order to deal with the stressors are all part of the stress process mentioned by Lazarus (1999) and Lazarus and Folkman (1984). They also observed the application of particular coping techniques.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) noted that the stress process is significantly influenced by the aspect of assessment.. Appraisal is seen as the way individuals evaluate their environment relative to their individual goals, values and beliefs (Lazarus, 1999) and categorise cognitive appraisals into two namely; primary appraisals and secondary appraisals. With the primary appraisal stage, individuals view situations either as irrelevant to their well-being, benign-positive or as stressful. People do not feel stressed when there is no goal at stake or no importance of or relevance of a particular situation or

event (primary appraisal) (Lazarus, 1999). Additionally, a benign-positive evaluation, which happens when an interaction is perceived to provide favorable results and wellbeing and is linked to pleasurable feelings like pleasure, joy, and love, may also prevent stress from developing.

There is a danger of stress when a goal is at stake or an important event is a demand from the environment in which a person operates and the resources to manage such demands are insufficient. If suitable coping mechanisms are not applied, stress can result in unpleasant feelings like anxiety (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Meanwhile, Fletcher and Scott (2010) indicate that stress can be adaptive and maladaptive and this depends on how the individual appraises that particular event or stressor and that a person can view a demand possibly as an opportunity or a problem or as one or the other or as none of them (Mcgowan et al., 2006).

Folkman (1984). They also saw how specific coping mechanisms were used.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) recognized that the feature of assessment has a substantial impact on the stress process. However, if people realise that demands put on them are more than the resources available to deal with those demands, they may feel stressed (primary appraisal stage). The coping resources at their disposal are next reviewed (secondary appraisal stage) before eventually applying the coping strategy at their disposal (coping stage) to deal with the circumstance (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

A person's ongoing effort to deal with certain internal and/or external pressures that they perceive to be beyond their abilities to bear or an effort to

manage psychological stress is referred to as coping, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984). Additionally, coping is defined as the "behaviors and beliefs which people use to regulate the external and internal demands of situations that they perceive as stressful" by Folkman and Moskowitz (2004). People utilize emotion-focused coping or problem-focused coping throughout this stage of the stress process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Therefore, a stressor could be interpreted as threatening, harm/loss or challenging based on individual differences in vulnerability and sensitivity to situations. The individual's interpretations, feelings and reactions to these encounters may differ as well based on their personal resources (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This theory thus emphasises that stress involves stressors from the environment, how the stressors are evaluated and the coping strategies they use. The relationships and interactions determine whether its effect would be debilitative or otherwise to the individual involved.

Coach-Athlete Stressors

According to studies, professional sports may be quite stressful for players (Cosh & Tully, 2014; Fletcher et al., 2006; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Mellaliue et al., 2009; Thelwell et al., 2008). Stress is defined as "a connection that occurs between an individual and an individual's environment that is judged as vital to the individual's well-being with the individual's resources exceeded" in the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, which Lazarus and Folkman created in 1984. (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985, p. 152). Numerous researchers have found stresses connected to competitive athletics.

Stressors can emanate from both the organisation and the competition environment (Fletcher, Hanton & Mellalieu, 2006). For example, in a study

about coaches' stressors, Thelwell et al. (2008) identify about 182 stressors which emanated from the competition environment (e.g., opponents, athletes' coach-ability, competition preparation, training performance, competition performance, competition schedule, attitude, injuries) specific to athlete experiences. Similarly, coaches own performance stressors involve competition preparation, competition itself, training, expectations, post-competition, officials and opponents (Thelwell et al., 2008). One or more of the organizational pressures that the coaches encountered were the training environment, selection, team dynamics, competitive environment, travel, finances, players, other coaches, communication, and positions (Thelwell et al., 2008).

According to research on athletes' performance stress, elite athletes face challenges related to training, injuries, expectations, opponents, coach issues, and self-presentation, while their organizational stressors may include facilities, spectators, officials, the structure of the competitive season, roles, and other athletes (Mellalieu et al., 2009). Thelwell et al. (2008), Mellalieu et al. (2009), and Kristiansen et al. (2012) critically analyzed the organizational and performance stressors for coaches and athletes and discovered some overlap between the stressors for the two groups (e.g., athletes' preparation, injury concerns, coach issues, opponents, officials, expectations and roles, and others, like leadership, team issues, as well as communication in those many situations).

A longitudinal study on organizational pressures, coping mechanisms, and coping effectiveness with a professional coach used inductive and deductive content analysis (Levy et al., 2009). The results from their study

indicate that stressors, such as leadership issues that involve the athletes, other coaches and organisations, team issues that involve communication, support, team atmosphere and squad concerns, and environmental issues that involve competition environment (preparation for competitive games), training environment (preparation for training sessions), travel (transport problems, long distance travel) and administration issues that involve meeting with management and performance directors. These evidences provide support for the link between coaches and athletes organisational and performance stressors.

Hanton et al. (2005) further reveal that elite performers encounter more stressors related to their organisations than stressors related to performance and argued further those organisational stressors are more likely to vary across elite performers while performance-related stressors could be more comparable across elite performers. According to research, organisational pressures are more likely to affect coaches than performance stressors (Fletcher & Hanton, 2003).

Literature suggested many environmental stressors that athletes experienced in performance situations as a result of their coaches. They include 'relationship with the coach', the coach's competence, negative feedback, a controlling coach, high expectations and lack of social support. Also, athletes experience organisational stressors from coaches, such as selection issues, communication issues, leadership, training environment and roles (Didymus & Fletcher, 2017; Kristiansen et al., 2012; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Noblet & Gifford, 2002; Scanlan et al., 1991; Woodman & Hardy, 2001) (Lazarus, 1999; Nicholls et al., 2016, 2009; Weinberg & Gould, 2015).

For example, in assessing stress experiences among Norwegian Olympic athletes at the 1994 Winter Games in Pensgaard, Ursin (1998) found out that athletes mentioned their coaches as major stressors to them indicating unrealistic expectations, lack of information and personal conflict with the coach as some of the things that stress them. Holt and Hogg (2002) conducted a similar research to identify stressors among female soccer players during a World Cup Finals situation felt that a major source of their stress is their coach's lack of communication and negative feedback while Fletcher and Hanton (2003), and Woodman and Hardy (2001) reveal that elite athletes feel anxious over their coaches expectations and the athletes agreed that when their coaches evaluate them negatively and put pressure on them to perform, they find it very stressful.

Moreover, in examining organisational stressors and coping among U.S professional Soccer players, athletes mentioned that poor coach-athlete interactions are a major stressor to them as individuals and as a team and that the coach is responsible for setting standards and uniting and dealing with individual and team issues and that the performance of the team largely depends on the coach. In a more specific manner, McCann (1997) indicated how easy it was for athletes to identify their coaches who were under stress. When the anxiety of the coach becomes very obvious, it may lead to a reduced confidence among his athletes. Noblet et al. (2003) noted that having control and social support at the workplace can significantly predict psychological well-being and job satisfaction among professional footballers. Similarly, the relationship of the coach plays a vital role in creating a conducive atmosphere in individuals and the team. If players will unite and perform optimally, it

largely depends on how coaches interact with them (Kristiansen et al., 2012). Individuals assess comparable events differently, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), possibly due to their level of susceptibility and sensitivity to the situations. For example, while an individual may respond to a stressor with aggression, another individual may respond with calmness. These situations determine individual differences in relation to challenge or threat appraisals which largely depends on the resources available to that individual.

Many scholars have conducted numerous studies on the stress experiences of athletes and coaches (Arnold et al., 2016; Gould et al., 2002; Hanton et al., 2005; Mellalieu et al., 2006; Wagstaff & Fletcher, 2012; Woodman & Hardy, 2001; Olusoga et al., 2009; Thelwell, 2012; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Kristiansen et al., 2012). However, literature reveals coaches' performance stressors from their athletes, such as athletes training performance, athletes coach ability, athletes' injuries and athletes' competition performance while their organisational stressors from athletes include athletes' roles, Communication, selection issues and team atmosphere (Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Thelwell et. al., 2008). Interestingly, the coach stress literature also reveals several situations where coaches cite their athletes as a major stressor to them. For instance, Thelwell et al. (2008) found out in their research that coaches encounter an approximation of 50% of the stressors they experience in performance environment through their athletes since they (the coaches) find it difficult to control the athletes. Furthermore, Frey (2007), in her study, reveals that a respondent in her study becomes unapproachable to her athletes when she is under stress and the athletes do not discuss any issues with her. Fletcher and Scott (2010), on a follow-up to the above assertion,

argue that such an unapproachable behaviour by a coach can compromise the ability of the coach to instruct her athletes in developing skills and improving performance while their emotions are also likely to be transmitted to a certain extent to their athletes. According to Jowett and Cockerill (2003), this can adversely affect athletes and lead to lower coach satisfaction and poor performance outcomes. It is therefore reasonable to argue that the stress experiences of coaches can affect their athletes and vice versa and that the interactions that occur between coaches and athletes are very instrumental in building a conducive working relationship and atmosphere between coaches and their athletes.

In contrast, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) assert that a person's cognitive assessment of a potentially taxing event will affect the interaction that takes place between personal factors for coaches (self-efficacy and being in control) and athletes (being in control and self-confidence) and situational (the environment, interactions with others) factors. They also state that strain does not arise from the individual or the environment alone but rather from an imbalance with each other (Edwards & Folkman, 1984).

According to Fletcher et al. (2012), research works have focused on how athletes respond to stressors in the organisation. The outcome of such studies generally discovered that athletes do not react apathetically to stressors in the organisation; they react to the stressors with varied behaviours, attitudes and emotions. Fletcher et al. further reiterated that whereas undergoing some organisational stress is unavoidable, it does not automatically imply that psychological and athletic penalties will always be damaging. Following this interesting finding, Fletcher et al. (2012) asked, "What are the cognitive

strategies supporting, and the theoretical associations surrounding, the behavioural and psychological responses of sport performers?" The authors further concluded that "if scholars are to actually get to the 'theoretical heart' of the stress progression in sport, then our diagnostic lens required to have a more abruptly focus on the sports performers' cognitive evaluations of the organisational stressors they come across".

Cognitive Appraisal

Cognitive evaluation is an essential and key idea in the transactional view on stress (Lazarus & Launier, 1978). This notion denotes to how one appraises one's interaction with the social environment. People continually appraise the essence of what is occurring in connection with its consequences for healthy behaviours and what needs to be done consequently. Cognitive evaluation in the context of organizational stressors in sport means assessing the importance of a stressor signal, such as a conflict with management, as well as its personal relevance for well-being. The athletes determine if they have enough personal resources on hand to handle the stressor indicator if the dispute is deemed important (Fletcher et al., 2006).

It has been demonstrated that other situational factors influence the stress evaluation procedure. Examples of these include expectations, opportunities, culture, and restrictions. Objectives and goal hierarchies, world and self-ideals, and personal possessions are examples of individual aspects (Lazarus, 1999). Primary appraisal and secondary appraisal are two forms of appraisal that are both significant, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984). Primary appraisal refers to the type of appraisal made by a person about what is at risk in comparison to goal commitments, beliefs, values and situational

intentions about the world and self, all of which provide significance and meaning to a situation (Lazarus, 1966). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) proposed three types of primary appraisal: irrelevant appraisals, which are conditions that are appraised as neither harmful nor threatening, nor of potential benefit to the person; benign-positive appraisals, that are assessments of potential improvement in the individual's well-being; and stressful appraisals, which are situations that pose a significant threat to the individual's well-being.

Examples of stressful situations include the perception of loss or harm (i.e., that one's values, beliefs, or goal have been damaged), threat (i.e., that one's values, beliefs, or goal have been damaged), or challenge (i.e., that one observes positively a hindrance towards one's values, beliefs, or goals), all of which may happen instantly and simultaneously. Others claim that challenge assessments occur when there is a sense of control and when the issue doesn't require a lot of effort (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Further investigation is necessary when a problem is given significance. It is up to the individual to determine whether or not coping options are available and whether or not they might be utilised. Secondary appraisal describes this abstracting process, which is similar to a resource inventory. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), emotion-focused coping, or making an effort to control one's emotional reaction to the stress, happens when a stressor is negatively assessed (i.e., as damage or a threat) with little choices for changing it.

However, if the situation is deemed to have the potential for ameliorative effects through action, problem-focused coping methods (or those meant to address or modify the underlying stressor) will be adopted (i.e.,

challenge). Lazarus' appraisal-centered transactional theory of stress has remained popular among academics outside of sport psychology (e.g., psychology, industrial, organisational and work). More research has focused on how people see stress at work (Frederikson & Dewe, 1996a; Troup & Dewe, 2002). These studies unmistakably suggest that people's judgments of coping options and, thus, their coping response and result, may be influenced by the organizational environment (Oakland, 1991).

The appraisal-centered transactional theory of stress, developed by Lazarus, is still favored by academics outside of athletic psychology (e.g., psychology, industrial, organisational and work). This research includes a stronger emphasis on how participants see job demands (Frederikson & Dewe, 1996a; Troup & Dewe, 2002). These studies have unequivocally demonstrated that the organizational environment may have an impact on people's perceptions of their coping alternatives, and as a result, their coping response and outcome (Oakland, 1991).

The main assessments of work stressor indicators in relation to their effects on the organization or workgroup, a desire for health, and a concern for workplace safety, with perceived control over stressors appearing as a significant mediating variable in future research, are made by Dewe (1992). Secondary appraisals were classified as evaluation processes in which action might be done, action could occur after deliberation, and the individual had little to no control over the situation. According to recent research by Troup and Dewe (2002), the main assessments of job stress are connected to self-esteem threats, uncomfortable sensations, sentiments of losing respect for someone, and a sense of failure to accomplish a crucial goal. Additionally,

they found that assessments of threat and harm as well as perceived control had negative associations.

It is puzzling that no reputable research has looked at athletes' opinions of coaches and sports trainers in Ghana. This is particularly true in light of the increased occurrence of organizational-related themes in the literature on elite sports (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009; Wagstaff et al., 2012), as well as the present focus on appraisal-related ideas and feelings associated to sport stresses (Nicholls, Levy, Jones, Rangamani & Polman, 2011). According to a research (Anshel & Delany, 2001), environmental stresses have both positive and negative impacts on athletes and cause them to exhibit high levels of risk, moderate levels of harm, and low levels of challenge (Anshel, Jamieson & Raviv, 2001).

According to Campbell and Jones (2002), negative match communication and preparation issues lead to more positive evaluations (i.e., challenge), but poor coach conduct or style, relationship problems, demands, or expenditures lead to more negative assessments (i.e., threat or harm/loss). The evaluative technique and coping mechanisms are closely tied to a person's objectives and relate in a recursive, transactional fashion, according to a longitudinal study by Holt and Dunn (2004) that used diary methodology. In fact, it's critical to keep in mind that Holt and Dunn (2004) stressed the use of longitudinal study designs and mentioned the use of daily recordings as a crucial tool for revealing explicit oscillations in stress processes.

The utilization of the challenge evaluation technique, dedication, and team loyalty were shown to be associated with the high levels of bureaucratic justice on teams that Israeli athletes reported in Ben-Ari, Tsur, and Har-(2006)

Even's study. The idea of assessment patterns influencing the experiences of athletes with stress in their sporting facilities has been highlighted in research on workplace stress. Numerous suggestions have undoubtedly been made in the sport psychology literature for further investigation into the basic stress evaluations related to players' experiences with organizational stress (Fletcher et al., 2012; Fletcher et al., 2006, Levy, Nicholls, Marchant, & Polman, 2009).

Coping in Sport

According to studies in the sport literature, athletes must use a variety of coping mechanisms to deal with the pressures associated with elite-sport events. In the body of sport psychology research that has already been conducted, coping has been described as either a trait approach, which contends that people have reliable coping mechanisms through which they manage a variety of stressors, or as a transactional or process approach, which outlines the coping mechanisms used that are explicit to the stressor and cognitive evaluation strategy thereof (Lazarus, 1999).

Numerous macro-dimensions of coping have been hypothesized. For instance, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) distinguished between problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (i.e., methods for reducing unpleasant emotions or suffering) (i.e., approaches to resolving or lessening the obstacle). There are three different sorts of coping mechanisms, according to other research: task-oriented, disengagement-oriented, and distraction-oriented (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Harding Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001). These coping techniques are different from avoidance coping (removal of cognitive or self-distancing; see, for instance, Anshel (2001) and appraisal-

focused coping) (reexamining the condition to lessen its importance; Cox, 2001; Cosh & Tully, 2014).

According to Nicholls and Polman, players may evaluate a variety of potential stresses, such as psychological pressures, a lack of confidence, anxiety, discomfort, coach stress, athlete stress, and the difficulties of engaging in sport (Gould, Nicholls, Holt & Polman, 2005a; Holt & Hogg, 2002; Nicholls & Polman, 2007; Dale, 2000; Eklund & Jackson, 1993a; Fletcher & Scott, 2010).The capacity of coaches and athletes to effectively function in a range of athletic performances depends on their ability to manage stress (Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Lazarus, 2000a; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). There is agreement in the sport psychology literature that coaches and players of all ages and skill levels should be able to manage organizational and performance pressures in order to make sport pleasurable (Fletcher et al., 2006; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mellalieu et al., 2009).

In the currently published literature, coping is defined and described in a wide variety of ways. The process and attribute perspectives are the ones that are most frequently seen in the literature on sport psychology. According to the characteristic approach, persons are categorized according to their effective coping strategies, which are often evaluated using questionnaires or interviews (Penley, Tomaka, & Wiebe, 2002). The trait approach is predicated on the premise that "people do not approach each coping scenario anew, but rather demonstrate an ideal set of coping techniques that remains largely static across conditions and time," according to Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989). (p. 270). When asking respondents what they often do to manage an issue, the characteristic method is repeated in the question (Aldwin, 1994).

Stress coping is a dynamic and recursive process that incorporates links between a person's internal (i.e., beliefs about values, objectives, and self) and external (i.e., situational) settings, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and Lazarus (1999), the transactional or process approach (Lazarus, 1999). According to this perspective, coping is defined as "continuously shifting behavioral and cognitive attempts to cope with explicit internal and/or external stress demands that are perceived as surpassing or draining the resources of the individual" (Lazarus and Folkman 1984: 141). Primary and secondary assessments were emphasized as essential elements in the stress appraisal and coping relationship by Lazarus in 1986 and Lazarus and Folkman in 1984. (1999). The basic purpose of appraisal is to determine how relevant a scenario or occurrence is in relation to values, goal commitments, self-beliefs, and situational intents.

Most importantly, a commitment goal has been regarded as a life-threatening factor, as the non-existence of goal commitment leads to no adaptational significance at stake in a specified condition to incite a stress response (Lazarus, 1999). There are four possible assessments, for instance, if an encounter is judged important to the person and might endanger their wellbeing. Harm/loss refers to damage that has already occurred, whereas danger refers to potential future damage. People refer to a situation as a challenge when they are excited about the upcoming battle in it (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Secondary appraisal, in particular, is the cognitive evaluation process of the person's available coping mechanisms when loss, pain, or threat is encountered. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), secondary assessment is not true coping, but rather the situation in which the person

evaluates the many options available to them to deal with the stressor before really adopting the coping approach in the coping stage, Nicholls & Polman, 2007).

Coping Categories and Dimensions

Athletes in sports might employ a variety of coping mechanisms to deal with tough situations. Higher-order coping mechanisms have been identified by researchers, who can discriminate between various coping mechanisms based on their intended use and function (Crocker, Kowalski & Graham, 1998). Problem- and emotion-focused coping strategies have historically been the most often used ones. Emotion-focused coping techniques target the emotional suffering brought on by the experience, as opposed to problem-focused coping techniques, which try to alter stressful events or activities (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, some macro-level coping techniques are already in development.

Utilizing behavioral (like distancing oneself from the event) and psychological (like cognitive distance) coping mechanisms might help someone escape a stressful scenario (Krohne, 1993). Approach coping is opposing the stressor and putting up conscious efforts to lessen it (for example, by acting right away, increasing up efforts, and preparing) (Roth & Cohen, 1986). Reappraising an occurrence to lessen its impact and using techniques like reorganizing the circumstances are all examples of appraisal-focused coping (Cox & Ferguson, 1991).

These wide-ranging mechanisms of coping are beneficial due to the fact that they offer a complete account of players' response to stressful situation (Nicholls & Polman, 2007). However, they still retain the complexity

and variety of the numerous subtypes of coping reactions (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Harding Thomsen & Wadsworth, 2001). The higher-order coping characteristics can be described at the micro level using a wide variety of explicit coping subtypes or categories. On the basis of component analysis or theoretical item classifications, these coping categories have been grouped into subtypes of the larger dimensions of coping (Compas et al., 2001). Several coping strategies are included in goal-focused coping, such as information searching, goal setting, and stern confrontation (Nicholls & Polman, 2007). Emotion-focused coping strategies include wishing for the best, asking for emotional support, and relaxing.

Academics have released a number of research on athletes' coping strategies since the early 1990s. Scholars have emphasized coping as a critical component of satisfaction and performance due to the awareness that coping research has the ability to dramatically increase functional practice (Lazarus, 2000a; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to the studies, athletes who utilize less effective stress coping mechanisms may discontinue playing sports (Klint & Weiss, 1986; Smith, 1986), perform worse (Lazarus, 2000a), or be prevented from pursuing professional sports careers (Holt & Dunn, 2004a). Therefore, a greater comprehension of coping processes in sport is essential for sport psychologists, applied practitioners and researchers, coaches, and players. Extensive coping literature analyses will be a fantastic way to show how empirical findings may be applied to different research contexts and populations (Murlow, 1994).

Depending on how coaches and athletes evaluate these stressors in relation to their personal resources (values, beliefs, goals) available to cope with the specific stressor, these stressors can be beneficial or detrimental to their emotions, behaviors, performances, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2016; Fletcher et al., 2006; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Findings from the literature on athletes' and coaches' stress show that while the coach is a source of stress for the athlete (Hanton et al., 2005; Kristiansen et al., 2012; Mellalieu et al., 2009), the athlete is also a source of stress for the coach (Fletcher & Scott, 2012; Levy et al., 2009; Olusoga et al., 2009, 2010; Thelwell e Stress may have a detrimental effect on coaches' psychological resources, limiting their willingness to attend to their athletes' needs and, as a result, undermining the relationship that should exist between the coach and his players. Previous research have demonstrated this (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003).

Further evidence suggests that coaches and their athletes closely work together and mostly form relationships that last longer and are mutually dependent. Therefore, the way coaches and their athletes interact with each other can have a great influence on their effectiveness during training regimes and this relationship can directly or indirectly affect their level of motivation, satisfaction and enjoyment in performing their sport. This can only be accomplished if coaches and athletes have a positive relationship. Meanwhile, it is indicated that a hostile relationship is more likely to result in an unfulfilling and unsatisfying performance (Papaioannou & Hackfort, 2014).

For instance, in Frey's (2007) research, a coach indicates that she becomes unapproachable leading her athletes avoiding her when she experiences stress. Consequently, a positive coach-athlete connection has a favorable effect on the athletes' happiness with their performance (Nicholls et al., 2016).

According to Didymus and Fletcher (2017), elite performers' challenge appraisals are consistently related to performance satisfaction, whereas threat appraisals are usually related to performance dissatisfaction. Similarly, Eklund and Tenenbaum, (2014) explain satisfaction as "a positive cognitive affective position that emanates from a cognitive judgment process that what is being experienced exceeds the standard of the person. Satisfaction among athletes' associates with team cohesion, team motivation, the teaching and learning atmosphere, coach-player compatibility and relationships, and rehabilitation of injury". Furthermore, Reimer and Chelladurai, (1998) reveal that satisfaction of athletes is very complex and can include evaluating many standards that associate with a relationship between coaches and athletes, the organization, the team and the individual.

Despite the standards linked with the team's achievement and the person seem obvious, other exclusive aspects that associate with the team and the athlete exist. Team issues can involve integration of the team, treatment of the athlete by the team and how teammates exhibit ethical behaviours. Standards of individuals involve personal dedication, social contribution to them, and task. Another important factor to the satisfaction of athletes is leadership. The way the coach conducts training sessions and instruction, how he makes use of the athlete during training and competition, how he develops strategy and the way he treats the athletes are all elements of satisfaction

among the athlete population. Several of the features above affect the quality of the coach–athlete relationships. Additionally, there are many features that associate with the sport organization. They include academic support, financial support as well as quality medical support. According to Reimer and Chelladurai (1998), the standards that link with the sport organisation may differ widely based on the competition level and the structure of the organization (e.g., professional sport community groups and educational institutions) and since there are several distinct features that associate with satisfaction of athletes, their level of satisfaction can vary, with them showing satisfaction with some features and showing dissatisfaction with other features (Reimer & Chelladurai, 1998). Therefore, if coaches and athletes learn to positively appraise stressors and effectively cope with these stressors, it will create a healthy coach-athlete relationship and thus increase performance satisfaction and psychological well-being among them.

Summary

In order to accomplish a similar goal, coaches and athletes in professional sports are subject to extremely high demands. According to research, top coaches and athletes function in a complicated environment that exposes them to a variety of stressful scenarios as a result of the multiple expectations (or stresses) that are made of them. If people are unable to positively assess the stressful situations and identify their corresponding coping mechanisms, these stressors can negatively affect people's emotions, behaviors, performance outcomes, and overall psychological well-being (Fletcher et al., 2012; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Gould et al., 2002; Hanton et al.,

2005; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Noblet et al., 2003; Olusoga et (Arnold et al., 2016; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Lazarus, 1999; Olusoga et al., 2010).

Moreover, other researchers also indicate that when the coach is under stress, it can negatively affect his athletes and lead to poor performance outcomes and satisfaction (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). In literature on the psychology of elite sport performance, the significance of examining the transactional nature of sport performers' (athletes and coaches') stress experiences in the setting in which they occur has been emphasized more and more (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009; Wagstaff, Fletcher, & Hanton, 2012). Academics in organizational psychology have closely examined the relationships between employees' health, performance, and general well-being (e.g., Sparks, Faragher, & Cooper, 2001).

Organizational stress, defined as "a continuing transaction between a person and the environmental stresses connected directly and principally with the organization within which he or she is functioning," and competition stress, defined as "a continuing transaction between a person and the environmental stresses connected directly and principally with the competition setting within," have been two major variables of interest in this line of research (Fletcher, Hanton & Mellalieu, 2006, p. 329). Sport psychology researchers have studied elite coaches' and athletes' reactions to and evaluations of these demanding demands for the past ten years or more (Fletcher, Hanton, & Wagstaff, 2012; Fletcher et al., 2003; Hanton, Fletcher & Coughlan, 2005; Woodman & Hardy, 2001). They have also looked at how they handle these stressors (Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of this study was to evaluate coaches and players in the Ghana Premier League's 2020–2021 season's perceptions of stress and coping mechanisms. The research design, study area, population, sampling technique, data collecting tools, data collection procedure, data collection and analysis, and a chapter summary were all discussed in this chapter.

Research Design

The philosophical assumption that underpinned this research was positivism while the research approach used was quantitative

This study employed a descriptive cross-sectional survey approach. Descriptive cross-sectional survey design was deemed suitable for the study because of its advantage in producing good responses from a vast range of individuals in one single study and also provides a meaningful picture of situations and explanations about the views and behaviours of people on data gathered (Kuranchie, 2016). The data generated from questionnaires were organised and presented systematically to arrive at good conclusions (Kuranchie, 2016).

Lastly, this design was concerned with existing situations or relationships, such as determining practices, aptitudes and views, ongoing processes or emerging trends (Best & Khan, 1998). Additionally, this research design comprised collecting data in order to describe the state, magnitude and form of a phenomenon at a specific time (Creswell, 2012). However, the weakness of this design was that it could not examine how a particular variable affected the other.

Study Area

The 2020–2021 Ghana premier league had a total of eighteen clubs, hence this research covered a significant geographic region in Ghana. From the north to the south and from the east to the west, these teams were spread throughout Ghana. Specifically, the premier league clubs included Ashanti Gold Football Club in a town called 'Obuasi' while Asante Kotoko and King Faisal Football Clubs were located in Kumasi in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. In addition, Legon Cities, Inter Allies, Accra Hearts of Oak, Liberty Professionals and Accra Great Olympics Football Clubs were located in Accra, the capital city of Ghana while Aduana Stars, Berekum Chelsea and Bechem United Football clubs were located in towns called Dormaa Ahenkro, Berekum and Bechem in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana respectively. Moreover, Medeama Football Club in Tarkwa and Karela Football Club in Ayinase townships were both in the Western Region of Ghana while the West African Football Academy in Sogakofe town was located in the Volta Region of Ghana. Eleven Wonders in Techiman was in the Bono-East Region of Ghana while Abusua Dwarfs in Cape Coast and Elmina Sharks in Elmina were both located in Central Region of Ghana. Dreams Football Club was also located in a town called Dewu in Eastern Region of Ghana.

Population

This study's population was divided into two groups. All of the coaches for the 2020/2021 Ghana football premier league were in one group. The second group consisted of all players from Ghana's main league in 2020/2021. The estimated size of the population for this study included a minimum of 540 players and 54 coaches making a total of n=594. The whole

population was male, with coaches and players ranging in age from 31 to 70 and 16 to 31, respectively. The years of experience for players ranged from 1 to 15, while the years of experience for coaches ranged from 1 to 17. Majority of coaches and players were employed on contract basis. For a coach to qualify to coach in any of these teams, he or she should have a football License 'A', with 5 or more years of professional experience and records of successful performances. Players were also selected based on their performance records without any strict criteria for selection into the teams.

Sampling Procedure

The sample size for this study consisted of all coaches and players that competed in the Ghana Premier League in 2020–2021. Although a total of 594 participants—540 players and 54 coaches—were initially sampled for the study, legitimate replies came in at 424 from players and 44 from coaches, for a sample size of 468 overall. One club—Asante Kotoko—voluntarily withdrew from the survey. For true representativeness, census was used because the population size was small and would not have been appropriate to be sampled further considering the research design of the study (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). The inclusion of practically all players and coaches in the 2020–2021 premier league teams, which also allowed some assumptions about the target group, had a substantial negative impact on the research's trustworthiness (Creswell, 2012).

Data Collection Instruments

For this study, three distinct standardised instruments were employed to collect data from the Ghana Premier League's 2020/2021 football coaches and players.

Organizational Stressor Indicator for Sport Performers (OSI-SP; Arnold et al., 2013)

A 23-item Organizational Stressor Indicator for Sport Performers (Arnold et al., 2013) was provided to the research participants (coaches and players) to measure the organizational stresses they encountered while competing in the 2020-2021 premier league a month ago. The earliest instructions for the instrument asked participants to be truthful and transparent. Individuals who competed most frequently for one team over the preceding month were asked to complete the OSI-SP with that team in mind. The OSI-SP has five subscales, including 6-items for Goals and Development (example: "my goals"), 9-items for Logistics and Operations (example: "the training or competition venue"), 4-items for Team and Culture (example: "the environment around my team"), 2-items for Coaching (example: "the relationship between my coach and I"), and 2-items for Selection (example: "selection of my team for competition").

Every participant responded to each item's stem, "In the past month, I have experienced a pressure associated with," using only the intensity rating scale, which had five possible answers: 0 for "no demand," 1 for "very low demand," 2 for "low demand," 3 for "moderate demand," 4 for "high demand," and 5 for "very high demand." The scales' intensity dimension (i.e., "how demanding was this pressure?"). This instrument was created and validated by Arnold et al. (2013) over the course of many trials. The intensity dimension's reported internal consistency levels using Cronbach's alpha coefficient values ranged from 0.71 to 0.83.

Stress Appraisal Measure (SAM; Peacock & Wong, 1990)

The Stress Appraisal Measure is a 28-item tool that looks at six aspects of primary and secondary assessments. Challenge (e.g., Will this have a positive effect on me?), Threat (e.g., Does this scenario tax or exceed my coping resources?), and Centrality (e.g., Does this circumstance have substantial repercussions for me?), are the three main evaluations. For secondary appraisals, higher-order dimensions are evaluated, including those that are controllable by others (e.g., Is help available for dealing with this problem?), controllable by oneself (e.g., Will I be able to overcome the problem?), and uncontrollable by anyone (e.g., Is the outcome of this situation uncontrollable by anyone?). People's overall felt stress was determined after related meanings of primary and secondary evaluations were measured.

Every item on the measure was rated on a 5-point Likert type scale which ranged from 1 = "Not at all", 2 = "Slightly", 3 = "Moderately", 4 = "Considerably" to 5 = "Extremely." The Crombach's alpha coefficients values for the SAM were reported by Peacock and Wong (1990) as ranging from .74 to .90. They later found Cronbach's alpha coefficients in another study to range from .64 to .88.

Modified COPE (MCOPE; Crocker & Graham, 1995)

Participants' ability to cope with stressful situations was evaluated using the MCOPE, a 48-item survey questionnaire with 12 sub-scales. The 12 sub-scales include behaviors including planning, active coping, increased effort, suppression of competing activities, humour, seeking social support for emotional reasons, venting emotions, wishful thinking, denial, and behavioral disengagement

In all, 29 items from seven coping sub-scales were employed. Under problem-focused coping, they included planning ("I thought hard about what steps to take to manage this situation"), active coping ("I tried to improve my effort"), seeking social support for instrumental reasons ("I talked to other coaches/players to find out more about my performance"), increasing effort ("I tried to improve the quality of my performance"), and so on.

Three other behaviors were identified as emotion-focused coping for the purposes of this study: self-blame ("I accepted responsibility for what had happened"), seeking emotional support from others ("I talked to someone about how I felt"), and emotion venting ("I felt a lot of upset feelings and I showed those feelings a lot"). Because responding to three (3) separate measures (OSI-SP, SAM, and MCOPE) at the same time might have been too much for both coaches and players to reply to given their level of education and dedication to winning the league, 29 items were chosen out of the 48. They had very little time to engage in other issues that were not directly related to the competitive league. Therefore, giving them too many items to respond to could have discouraged them from consenting to take part in the study. The items would have been too many and hence arouse some levels of boredom among the study participants. On a 5-point rating scale, participants were asked to identify how much they utilized each approach to cope with the stress they experienced while competing (1 = "Not at all," 2 = "Used a little," 3 = "Used somewhat," 4 = "Used lot," and 5 = "Used very much." In their study on organizational stressors, coping, and outcomes in competitive sport, Arnold et al. (2016) found that problem-focused coping had a Crombach's alpha value of.72 and emotion-focused coping had a value of.68. In athletic

populations using both dispositional and situational instructions for coping, the MCOPE has showed acceptable validity evidences of varied scores (Giacobbi &Weinberg, 2000; Hoar et al., 2006; Lidor et al., 2013).

Validity and reliability of the instruments

The directors of the current study provided final recommendations for the adoption of the instruments based on their content and face validity. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 22 software was used to examine the internal reliability of the instrument for contextual applicability using pre-tested data. The internal consistency coefficients of the various instruments were displayed using Cronbach's alpha after aggregating all of the surveys. The alpha coefficient for goals and development was.763, followed by.827 for logistics and operations,.751 for team and culture,.656 for coaching, and.661 for selection. The stress appraisal technique's alpha values for primary appraisal and secondary appraisal were.761 and.858, respectively. The MCOPE also showed estimates of reliability. Scores for problem-focused and emotion-focused coping were 841 and 752, respectively.

Pre-testing of the instruments

Prior to the 2020–2021 season, the instrument was pre–tested on coaches and players from two (2) clubs in the division one football league. There were 66 participants in all, including 6 coaches (3 from each team) and 60 players (30 from each club). This was done to assist in determining if the main sample's features were homogeneous. Thanks to input from the pre-tested data, the researcher was able to assess the reliability and validity of the instrument for the current study.

Data Collection Procedures

Before the researcher started gathering the data, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Cape Coast, the study sponsors, and the ethical clearance board all approved. A letter of introduction was acquired from the University of Cape Coast's Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation (HPER) to assist the researcher in contacting coaches and players in the premier soccer league. Prior to their involvement in the study, all participants were provided with information letters explaining the study's goals, importance, data collection methods, and ethical concerns such confidentiality and the preservation of participants' good names and integrity.

Despite the estimated number for the current study, participants were given the freedom to willingly take part in the study. The researcher developed relationships with the individual clubs and educated them on the study's objective to facilitate data collecting. The participants choose the length of time they would spend responding to the questions without pressured by other equally important commitments. The researcher trained all club secretaries, assistant coaches, coaches and five (5) physical education teachers by giving them a detailed description and education on each item on the study measure to enable them help in administering the questionnaires in their various teams. This was done to assure the accuracy of the data that would be collected. The questionnaires were then sent to the 2020/2021 premier league soccer coaches and athletes who signed informed permission forms to participate in the study to reply to and submit to the researcher based on the agreed-upon period for collection. The face-to-face data gathering method adhered to all COVID-19 safety guidelines. Part of the data was collected from one club to the other at

different times at their home grounds while the rest of the clubs sent their answered questionnaires in ceiled brown envelops by post. The duration for the collection of the entire data was within three (3) months.

Data Processing and Analysis

The variance-covariance matrix homogeneity, outliers, missing data, univariate and multivariate normality, and multicollinearity of the data were visually assessed as well as statistically tested. For both univariate and multivariate normality, Q-Q plots were used to assess if all of the data points were closer to the line. To look for outliers and linearity assumptions, scatter plots were employed. The Box's M test of equality of covariance matrices was used to assess the homogeneity of variance-covariance assumptions, and multicollinearity assumptions were also examined to see how the dependent variables were connected. Several measures were attempted to prevent errors in the real data that would be assessed. A successful screening was followed by an analysis of the screened data using IBM SPSS statistics software version 22.

The research participants' demographic information (age and years of experience) were evaluated using means and standard deviations (coaches and players). The first study question looked at how frequently organizational constraints affected football managers and players in Ghana's top league. Means and standard deviations were used as the measurement instruments for this research issue. The second area of study looked at the methods football coaches and players used to gauge the stress they faced playing in the Ghana Premier League. Means and standard deviations were used as the measurement instruments for this research issue. The third research area for

the study centered on the coping strategies employed by Ghana's top-flight football players and coaches. Means and standard deviations were also used to analyze this study question.

The fourth study question examined the relationships between organizational stressor indicators, age, and years of experience among football managers and players in the Ghana Premier League. To examine this study subject, the five (5) OSI-SP dimensions (Goals and Development, Logistics and Operation, Team and Culture, Coaching and Selection) were used as dependent variables and age and years of experience as independent variables. The association between stress evaluations and coping techniques was demonstrated for coaches and players in Ghana's premier league football in answer to the fifth research question. Multivariate multiple regression was used to analyze this study's question. Challenge, threat, and centrality were the core stress appraisal dimensions employed in this research, and controllable-by-others, controllable-by-self, and uncontrollable-by-anyone were the supplementary appraisal dimensions. Planning, active coping, increased effort as a problem-focused coping approach, seeking social support for emotional reasons, self-blame, venting, and seeking social help for instrumental reasons were the coping subscales that were employed.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to evaluate coaches and players in the Ghana Premier League's 2020–2021 season's perceptions of stress and coping mechanisms. In this chapter, the analyses' findings are given. The chapter starts with the characteristics of the sample's (football coaches and players') demographics before moving on to data analysis on the study's issue. A total of 54 coaches and 540 premier football players were sampled for the study. Out of these selected participants, valid responses received were from 44 coaches and 424 football players. The figures constituted 78.5% and 81.5% response rates for coaches and football players respectively. Thus, the analyses presented are based on data from 44 coaches and 424 football players.

Demographic Information of Football Coaches and Players

During data collection, the respondents' demographic data was requested. These details include the coaches' and players' ages and years of experience. According to the data, the oldest coach was 70 years old and the youngest was 31. The oldest player was 31 years old, while the youngest was 16 years old. While the players' experience ranged from one to fifteen years, the football coaches' experience ranged from one to seventeen. Table 1 provides detailed information on the demographics.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Football Coaches and Players

Demographic Variables	Coaches (n=44) n(%)	Players (n=424) n(%)
Years of experience		
Below 5 years	29(65.9)*	365(86.1)
5-10 years	8(18.2)	57(13.4)
11-15 years	5(11.4)	2(0.50)
16 years and above	2(4.5)	0
Mean ± SD	5.02 ± 4.45	2.69 ± 1.82
Age (Coaches)		
30-35 years	8(18.2)	--
36-40 years	11(25.0)	--
41-45 years	4(9.1)	--
46 and above	21(47.7)	--
Mean ± SD	42.30 ± 10.44	
Age (Players)		
20 years and less	--	154(36.3)
21-25 years	--	186(43.9)
26-30 years	--	78(18.4)
31-35 years	--	6(1.4)
Mean ± SD	--	22.36 ± 3.53

*Percentages in parenthesis

Source: Field Survey (2020)

According to Table 1, the majority of football players (n=365, or 86.1%) and coaches (n=29, or 65.9%) had fewer than five years of experience playing in the main league. Other players (n=8, 18.2%) and coaches (n=57, 13.4%) indicated that they had 5 to 10 years of experience. Although no player had an experience of above 15 years, 2 of the coaches had performed that role for more than 15 years. Comparatively, the coaches (M=5.02, SD=4.4) had more years of experience than the players (M=2.69, SD=1.82).

The data, as presented in Table 1, also revealed that most of the players were between 21 and 25 years (n=186, 43.9%), even though quite a number of them were below 21 years (n=154, 36.3%). A few of the players are above 30 years of age (n=6, 1.4%). For the coaches, a larger proportion of them were 46 years or older (n=21, 47.7%). Some coaches also indicated that they were between the ages of 36-40 (n=11, 25%). Just as expected, the coaches (M=42.30, SD=10.44) were older than the football players (M=22.36, SD=3.53).

Research Question One: What Organizational Stressors are Prevalent among Football Coaches and Players in the Premier League in Ghana?

Examining the amount of stress, organizational stressors, and their frequency among football players and coaches in Ghana's top division was the goal of this study subject. On a scale of 0 to 5, the players and coaches responded to each of the five aspects of stressors (goals and development, logistics and operations, team and culture, coaching and selection) in relation to the stressor indicators (i.e., 0-No demand, 1- Very low demand, 2- Low demand, 3- Moderate demand, 4- High demand, 5- Very high demand). The scale's extreme categories had been combined for ease of comprehension. In other words, the terms "no demand" and "extremely low demand" have been combined to form the term "low demand." High and extremely high demand have also been merged into high demand. According to this classification, a mean score of 2.45 or less indicated low demand, 2.45 to 3.44 indicated moderate demand, and 3.44 or more indicated strong demand. Table 2 displays the specifics of the outcomes.

Table 2: Organizational Stressors among Football Coaches and Players

Indicators	Coaches		Players		t-value	p-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Goals and Development	3.45	.78	2.81	.99	4.99	.000
Logistics and Operations	3.23	.99	2.72	1.03	3.27	.002
Team and Culture	3.47	.85	2.73	1.14	5.28	.000
Coaching	3.10	1.41	2.64	1.48	1.99	.047
Selection	3.55	1.15	2.96	1.48	3.11	.012
Mean of Mean	3.36	.81	2.77	1.02	4.46	.000

Source: Field Survey (2020)

Stress was frequently prominent among elite league players (M=2.77, SD=1.02) and coaches (M=3.36, SD=.81), according to Table 2's data. Coaches experienced moderate levels of stress significantly more than players did. When focused on particular stresses, both players and coaches reported experiencing stress in elements of their employment that were extremely similar. For instance, the coaches experienced high-stress requirements for selection (M=3.55, SD=1.15), team and culture (M=3.47, SD=.85), and aims and progress (M=3.45, SD=.78). Coaching (M=3.10, SD=1.41) and logistics and operations (M=3.23, SD=.99) both indicate modest demands on coaches.

A similar pattern in the results was seen for the players. Football players' most pressing stress needs were selection (M=2.96, SD=1.48), goals and development (M=2.81, SD=.99), and team and culture (M=2.73, SD=1.14). On all stressor indicators, the athletes displayed moderate levels of stress. This pattern was followed by coaching (M=2.64, SD=1.48), logistics, and operations (M=2.72, SD=1.03).

Research Question Two: What Stress Appraisal Measures are Adopted by Football Coaches and Players in the Premier League in Ghana?

This study aimed to assess the stress management strategies used by Ghana's top-flight football managers and players. The replies were rated on a scale of 1 to 5, and six important evaluation variables were used to determine how participants rated their level of stress: danger, difficulty, focus, controllability by oneself, controllability by others, and uncontrollability by anybody. A higher mean score on a dimension denotes high utilisation of that particular stress appraisal mechanism. Specifically, values less than 2.5 signifies a low level of utilisation, scores between 2.5-3.4 showed a moderate level of utilisation, and values greater than 3.5 depicted high level of utilisation of the stress appraisal strategy. Table 3 displays the specifics of the findings.

Table 3: Stress Appraisal Strategies Used by Football Coaches and Players

Stress Appraisal	Coaches		Players	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Primary appraisal	2.97	.72	2.82	.62
Threat	2.78	.75	2.67	.73
Challenge	3.09	.87	3.02	.79
Centrality	3.05	1.05	2.77	.84
Secondary appraisal	3.02	.50	2.81	.59
Controllable-by-self	3.59	.74	3.12	.81
Controllable-by-others	3.06	.76	2.91	.85
Uncontrollable-by-anyone	2.39	.84	2.39	.82

Source: Field Survey (2020)

Football coaches (M=3.59, SD=.74) and players (M=3.12, SD=.81) both employed the mostly self-controllable stress appraisal mechanism, according to Table 3's findings. Both coaches (M=3.09, SD=.87) and players (M=3.02, SD=.79) used the challenge stress appraisal mechanism in addition to the controllable-by-self stress appraisal approach. The controllable-by-others assessment approach was ranked third among appraisal mechanisms by coaches (M=3.06, SD=.76) and players (M=2.91, SD=.85). Uncontrollable-by-anyone technique was the stress evaluation method that was least frequently used by coaches (M=2.39, SD=.84) and players (M=2.39, SD=.82).

Research Question Three: What Coping Strategies are Adopted by Football Coaches and Players in the Premier League in Ghana?

The purpose of this study was to look at the coping strategies employed by Ghana's top-flight football coaches and players. On a scale of 1 to 5, responses from coaches and players were requested on the different coping mechanisms used. Some of the coping mechanisms were active coping, planning, increasing effort, asking for social aid for practical reasons, venting emotions, asking for social support for emotional reasons, and self-blame. The coping approach was used more frequently the higher the mean score. Specifically, values less than 2.5 signify a low level of utilization, scores between 2.5-3.4 show a moderate level of utilization and values greater than 3.5 depict high level of utilisation of the coping style. Table 4 displays the analysis's specifics.

Table 4: Coping Strategies Adopted by Football Coaches and Players

Coping Strategies	Coaches		Players	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Problem-focused Coping	3.45	.78	3.28	.71
Active coping	3.50	.77	3.21	.90
Planning	3.40	1.05	3.26	.86
Seeking social support for instrumental reasons	3.09	.92	3.11	.85
Increasing effort	3.79	.94	3.54	.96
Emotional-focused coping	2.89	.75	2.80	.69
Seeking social support for emotional reasons	2.89	.929	2.76	.86
Venting emotions	2.86	1.06	2.78	.91
Self-blame	2.93	.89	2.86	.84

Source: Field Survey (2020)

Both the coaches and the athletes apparently employed problem-focused coping techniques, as seen in Table 4. The increased effort method was the most often used coping technique among coaches (M=3.78, SD=0.94) and athletes (M=3.54, SD=0.96). The second most used coping strategy indicated by coaches (*M*=3.50, *SD*=.77) was active coping and players (*M*=3.26, *SD*=.86) was planning. Whereas planning was the third most used coping strategy among the coaches (M=3.40, SD=1.05), players reported using active coping (*M*=3.21, *SD*=.90). Notably, the three most reportedly used coping strategies were increasing efforts, active coping and planning by coaches and players.

Research Question Four: To What Extent Would Age and Years of Experience Contribute to Organizational Stressors among Football Coaches and Players in the Premier League in Ghana?

This study looked into how players and coaches in Ghana's top level of football were affected by their ages and years of experience in terms of organizational stress. This study subject was dealt with using a factorial

MANOVA. Age and experience years were chosen as the two independent variables. The dependent variables were the five subscales of organizational stressor indicators from the OSI-SP questionnaire, covering goals and development, logistics and operations, team and culture, and coaching and selection. The following categorizations were used in order to reach the minimal number of responses in each cell: (1) Coaches' ages were divided into those under 35 and those over 35; (2) Players' ages were changed to those under 25 and those over 25, and (3) Years of Experience for both Coaches and Players were divided into those of 5 Years and Less and those of 5 Years. The following presumptions were examined prior to the analysis: univariate and multivariate normality, outlier identification, multicollinearity, and homogeneity of the variance-covariance matrix (See Figure 1 in appendix A).

Figure 1 presents the Q-Q plots for all the sub-dimensions of organizational stressor indicators. As shown in Figure 1, both univariate and multivariate normality were satisfied. That is, for each of the Q-Q plots, the data points were arguably closer to the line. There was evidence of normality since all the data points appeared to form a straight line, implying that the normality assumption has been satisfied.

Multivariate outliers and linearity

The data were explored to test for linearity assumption and also identify outliers (see Figure 2 in Appendix B). The data, as displayed in Figure 2, showed that there appeared to be some few cases of multivariate normality present in the data. The scatter plot between team and culture factors, logistics and operation variables, and both displays a typical example. The presence of a multivariate outlier was also demonstrated via logistics, operations, and

selection. Further checks were conducted to establish whether these few outliers might affect the results. Data on the 5% trimmed mean yielded an estimate of 2.9 which is approximately closer to the composite mean of 2.87. This pattern showed that these outliers were not sufficient enough to distort the results. There is a linear connection between the variables, as indicated by the scatter plots in Figure 2. The assumption of linearity is thus satisfied by the data.

Multicollinearity assumptions

The multicollinearity assumption was tested to understand the relationship that exists between the dependent variables. For this assumption to be satisfied, the variables should be moderately related. The specifics of the findings are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Multicollinearity Assumption

OSI-SP dimensions	1	2	3	4	5
1. Goals	1				
2. Logistics and Operations	.752**	1			
3. Team and culture	.667**	.701**	1		
4. Coaching	.520**	.585**	.620**	1	
5. Selection	.600**	.605**	.624**	.517**	1
Mean	2.87	2.77	2.80	2.68	3.02
SD	.99	1.04	1.14	1.48	1.46

**correlation significant at p<.001

Table 5 shows the correlation matrix among the sub-dimensions of the organisational stressor indicator variables. The results showed that the least and maximum correlation coefficients were .517 and .752 respectively. The relationships between the variables were not strong nor weak. These

relationships among the variables were all moderate, thus satisfy the multicollinearity assumption.

Homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption

The Box's M-test of equality of covariance matrices was used to investigate the homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption. This particular premise has to be tested separately for coaches and players. Table 6 presents the outcomes.

Table 6: Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Coaches		Players	
Box's M	11.540	Box's M	58.949
F	.620	F	1.143
df1	15	df1	45
df2	1994.37	df2	2195.09
Sig.	.861	Sig.	.239

Source: Field Survey (2020)

For coaches, the homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption was satisfied, $F(15, 1994.37)=11.540$, $p=.861$. This assumption was also not violated for the players' data, $F(45, 2195.09)=59.949$, $p=.239$. Hence, Wilks' Lambda estimates are reported for the coaches and players data respectively.

MANOVA results for coaches on the contribution of age and years of experience on organizational stressors

The MANOVA results for coaches are presented in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 7: Multivariate Results for Coaches on the Contribution of Age and Years of Experience on Organizational Stressors

Effect	Value	F	df 1	df 2	Sig.
Intercepts	.066	102.256[c]	5	36	.000
Experience	.825	1.530[c]	5	36	.205
Age	.915	.666[c]	5	36	.651
Experience*Age	.894	.850[c]	5	36	.524

Dependent Variable: Organizational Stressor Indicators
Source: Field Survey (2020)

The multivariate outcomes of the MANOVA study for coaches are shown in Table 7. The findings demonstrated that age, experience, and the experience-by-age interaction did not substantially affect the stressor indicators among coaches (F(5, 36)= 1.530, p=.205; F(5, 36)=.666c, p=.651; and F(5, 36)=.894; p=.524).

Table 8 also displays the univariate results of the MANOVA analysis. When interpreting the univariate result, a tight alpha (also known as the Bonferroni adjustment) was set to account for Type 1 error. To apply this method, divide the alpha level by the total number of dependent variables. That is, to obtain a corrected alpha level of.01,.05 was divided by 5. The p-values are therefore compared using a.01 alpha value rather than a.05 alpha value.

Table 8: Tests of Between Subject Effects (Univariate Results) for Coaches on the Contribution of Age and Years of Experience on Organizational stressors

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	Goals	279.691	1	279.691	497.945	.000
	Logistics and Operations	244.926	1	244.926	242.533	.000
	Team and culture	276.238	1	276.238	388.989	.000
	Coaching	197.841	1	197.841	98.584	.000
	Selection	285.272	1	285.272	215.970	.000
Experience	Goals	2.019	1	2.019	3.594	.065
	Logistics and Operations	.017	1	.017	.017	.898
	Team and culture	1.092	1	1.092	1.538	.222
	Coaching	1.769	1	1.769	.881	.353
	Selection	.453	1	.453	.343	.562

Table 8: Continued

Age	Goals	.952	1	.952	1.695	.200
	Logistics and Operations	.510	1	.510	.505	.481
	Team and culture	1.377	1	1.377	1.939	.171
	Coaching	3.630	1	3.630	1.809	.186
	Selection	2.082	1	2.082	1.576	.217
Experience * Age	Goals	.129	1	.129	.230	.634
	Logistics and Operations	.863	1	.863	.854	.361
	Team and culture	.124	1	.124	.174	.679
	Coaching	3.212	1	3.212	1.601	.213
	Selection	.258	1	.258	.196	.661
Error	Goals	22.468	40	.562		
	Logistics and Operations	40.395	40	1.010		
	Team and culture	28.406	40	.710		
	Coaching	80.273	40	2.007		
	Selection	52.835	40	1.321		
Total	Goals	547.694	44			
	Logistics and Operations	501.506	44			
	Team and culture	561.563	44			
	Coaching	509.250	44			
	Selection	609.500	44			

Dependent Variable: Organizational Stressor Indicators sub-dimensions
Source: Field Survey (2020)

Table 8's findings suggest that for coaches, the particular aspects of organizational stressor indicators are not substantially influenced by experience, age, or experience by age. There is no proof that a football coach's age or experience affect their reaction to pressures.

MANOVA results for players on the contribution of age and years of experience on organizational stressors

The details of the results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Multivariate Results for Players on the Contribution of Age and Years of Experience on Organizational Stressors

Effect	Value	F	df 1	df 2	Sig.
Intercept	.306	187.461c	5	414	.000
Experience	.994	.502c	5	414	.775
Age	.994	.522c	5	414	.760
Experience * Age	.988	1.046c	5	414	.390

Dependent Variable: Organizational Stressor Indicators

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The multivariate findings of the MANOVA study for players are shown in Table 9. The findings revealed that age [F(5, 414)=.522, p=.760], experience [F(5, 414)=.502, p=.775], and experience-by-age interaction [F(5, 414)=1.046, p=.390] had no significant effects on the players' composite organisational stressor indicators.

The players' univariate MANOVA analysis findings are also included in Table 10 for the players. A similarly strict alpha (i.e., Bonferroni correction) was also applied to compensate for Type 1 error when interpreting the univariate data. A fresh alpha value of.01 was produced using the same prior process.

Table 10: Test of Between-Subject Effects for Players on the Contribution of Age and Years of Experience on Organizational Stressors

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	Goals	842.181	1	842.181	865.381	.000
	Logistics and Operations	796.017	1	796.017	757.879	.000
	Team and culture	763.239	1	763.239	597.653	.000
	Coaching	772.479	1	772.479	356.322	.000
	Selection	895.442	1	895.442	408.665	.000

Table 10: Continued

Experience	Goals	2.300	1	2.300	2.363	.125
	Logistics and Operations	1.487	1	1.487	1.416	.235
	Team and culture	1.946	1	1.946	1.524	.218
	Coaching	2.373	1	2.373	1.094	.296
	Selection	1.833	1	1.833	.836	.361
Age	Goals	.427	1	.427	.439	.508
	Logistics and Operations	.821	1	.821	.781	.377
	Team and culture	2.747	1	2.747	2.151	.143
	Coaching	3.365	1	3.365	1.552	.214
	Selection	.992	1	.992	.453	.501
Experience *Age	Goals	.055	1	.055	.056	.812
	Logistics and Operations	.001	1	.001	.001	.982
	Team and culture	2.995	1	2.995	2.346	.126
	Coaching	.103	1	.103	.048	.827
	Selection	1.564	1	1.564	.714	.399
Error	Goals	406.794	418	.973		
	Logistics and Operations	439.034	418	1.050		
	Team and culture	533.812	418	1.277		
	Coaching	906.191	418	2.168		
	Selection	915.895	418	2.191		
Total	Goals	3750.556	422			
	Logistics and Operations	3575.395	422			
	Team and culture	3702.813	422			
	Coaching	3861.750	422			
	Selection	4641.000	422			

Dependent Variable: Organizational Stressor Indicators sub-dimensions

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The univariate outcomes of the MANOVA analysis are also shown in Table 8. A tight alpha (often referred to as the Bonferroni correction) was applied to take Type 1 error into consideration while interpreting the

univariate result. Divide the alpha level by the total number of dependent variables to use this strategy. There was no proof that a football player's age or experience affected the pressures they faced.

Research Question Five: What is the Association between Stress Appraisals and Coping Styles among Football Coaches and Players in the Premier League in Ghana?

The goal of this study was to find out how football coaches and players in Ghana's top division rated their own stress levels and coping skills. This question's solution made use of multivariate multiple regression. The elements of the stress evaluation include threat, challenge, centrality, controllable by oneself, controllable by others, and uncontrolled by anybody. Active coping, planning, increasing effort, seeking social support for emotional as well as practical reasons, expressing feelings, and self-blame are some of the coping mechanisms.

The data were checked for multivariate normality and outliers before to analysis (see Figure 3 in Appendix C). Each dependent variable's residual plot findings showed that the residuals were regularly distributed. There was also no proof that the data set contained any outliers. There were no extreme data points discovered. These two suppositions have therefore been verified.

Table 11 presents the results on the parameter estimate for the multivariate regression analysis for coaches. Stringent alpha level was set for the multivariate multiple regression analysis to control for Type 1 error. This alpha value is calculated by dividing the significance level (i.e., .05) by the number of independent variables (i.e., 7). A new significance level of .007 (i.e., .05/7) was set and used for the comparison.

Regression results for coaches on the association between stress appraisals and coping styles

Table 11 shows the regression results on the association between stress appraisal and coping styles of coaches.

Table 11: Association between Stress Appraisals and Coping Styles of Coaches

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Active coping	Intercept	.383	.678	.565	.576
	Threat	.466	.220	2.118	.041
	Challenge	-.104	.123	-.845	.403
	Centrality	.058	.141	.415	.681
	Controllable-by-Self	.466	.155	3.008	.005*
	Controllable-by-Others	.095	.130	.726	.472
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	-.001	.142	-.009	.993
Planning	Intercept	-.967	.949	-1.019	.315
	Threat	.592	.308	1.922	.062
	Challenge	-.079	.172	-.462	.647
	Centrality	-.037	.197	-.186	.853
	Controllable-by-Self	.800	.217	3.687	.001*
	Controllable-by-Others	.166	.182	.912	.368
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	-.126	.199	-.632	.531
Seeking social support for instrumental reasons	Intercept	.196	.866	.227	.822
	Threat	.155	.281	.551	.585
	Challenge	-.032	.157	-.202	.841
	Centrality	.267	.180	1.484	.146
	Controllable-by-Self	.368	.198	1.860	.071
	Controllable-by-Others	.014	.167	.082	.935
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	.161	.182	.884	.383
Increasing effort	Intercept	-.020	.840	-.024	.981
	Threat	.454	.273	1.665	.104
	Challenge	-.128	.152	-.839	.407
	Centrality	.137	.175	.782	.439

Table 11: Continued

Table 11: Continued

	Controllable-by-Self	.481	.192	2.506	.017
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	.241	.162	1.493	.144
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	.024	.176	.137	.892
seeking social support for emotional reasons	Intercept	1.512	.961	1.573	.124
	Threat	-.408	.312	-1.307	.199
	Challenge	-.029	.174	-.167	.868
	Centrality	.407	.200	2.038	.049
	Controllable-by-Self	.266	.220	1.209	.234
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	-.085	.185	-.461	.648
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	.281	.202	1.390	.173
Venting emotions	Intercept	.793	1.109	.715	.479
	Threat	-.178	.360	-.494	.624
	Challenge	.066	.201	.329	.744
	Centrality	.268	.231	1.163	.252
	Controllable-by-Self	.518	.253	2.045	.048
	Controllable by Others	-.181	.213	-.848	.402
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	.097	.233	.417	.679
Self-blame	Intercept	1.754	.933	1.879	.068
	Threat	-.507	.303	-1.674	.103
	Challenge	.162	.169	.958	.344
	Centrality	.396	.194	2.041	.048
	Controllable-by-Self	.061	.213	.287	.776
	Controllable-by-Others	-.093	.180	-.520	.606
	Uncontrollable-by-anyone	.395	.196	2.014	.051

Source: Field Survey (2020)

*Significant at p<.007

The results, as shown in Table 11, only controllable-by-self was found to be associated with the coaches active coping, b=.466, t=3.008, p=.005 and planning coping strategies; b=.800, t=3.687, p=.001. The rest of the variables

under the stress appraisal mechanism (i.e., threat, challenge, centrality, controllable by others, uncontrollable by anyone) did not influence any of the coping styles of the football coaches.

Regression results for players on the association between stress appraisals and coping styles

Table 12 presents results on stress appraisal and coping styles of football players.

Table 12: Association between Stress Appraisals and Coping Styles of Football Players

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Active coping	Intercept	1.162	.218	5.321	.000
	Threat	.101	.071	1.428	.154
	Challenge	.208	.060	3.462	.001*
	Centrality	-.011	.059	-.185	.854
	Controllable-by-Self	.291	.058	5.007	.000*
	Controllable-by-Others	.156	.052	2.989	.003*
	Uncontrollable-by-Anyone	-.080	.056	-1.442	.150
Planning	Intercept	1.157	.205	5.643	.000
	Threat	.017	.066	.259	.796
	Challenge	.169	.057	2.993	.003*
	Centrality	.042	.055	.752	.453
	Controllable-by-Self	.287	.055	5.257	.000*
	Controllable-by-Others	.175	.049	3.573	.000*
	Uncontrollable-by-Anyone	.008	.052	.161	.872
Seeking social support for instrumental reasons	Intercept	1.119	.211	5.315	.000
	Threat	.134	.068	1.970	.051
	Challenge	.061	.058	1.051	.294
	Centrality	.046	.057	.812	.417
	Controllable-by-Self	.152	.056	2.722	.007*
	Controllable-by-Others	.142	.050	2.824	.005*
	Uncontrollable-by-Anyone	.176	.054	3.289	.001*

Table 12: Continued

Increasing effort	Intercept	1.640	.233	7.046	.000
	Threat	-.032	.075	-.426	.670
	Challenge	.265	.064	4.125	.000*
	Centrality	-.013	.063	-.207	.836
	Controllable-by-Self	.372	.062	6.014	.000*
	Controllable-by-Others	.072	.056	1.290	.198
	Uncontrollable-by-Anyone	-.064	.059	-1.089	.277
seeking social support for emotional reasons	Intercept	.871	.211	4.129	.000
	Threat	.338	.068	4.944	.000*
	Challenge	.037	.058	.634	.526
	Centrality	-.037	.057	-.644	.520
	Controllable-by-Self	.027	.056	.485	.628
	Controllable-by-Others	.090	.050	1.785	.075
	Uncontrollable-by-Anyone	.264	.054	4.915	.000*
venting emotions	Intercept	.747	.224	3.332	.001
	Threat	.216	.073	2.983	.003*
	Challenge	.006	.062	.101	.920
	Centrality	.038	.060	.622	.534
	Controllable-by-Self	.082	.060	1.374	.170
	Controllable-by-Others	.164	.054	3.065	.002*
	Uncontrollable-by-Anyone	.246	.057	4.312	.000*
Self-blame	Intercept	.877	.205	4.271	.000
	Threat	.272	.066	4.096	.000*
	Challenge	.101	.057	1.778	.076
	Centrality	-.027	.055	-.482	.630
	Controllable-by-Self	.060	.055	1.103	.271
	Controllable-by-Others	.113	.049	2.313	.021
	Uncontrollable-by-Anyone	.213	.052	4.072	.000*

Source: Field Survey (2020)

*Significant at p≤.007

As shown in Table 12, associations were drawn between the specific dimensions of stress appraisal strategies and the coping styles of players.

Among the results, challenge [b=.208, t=3.462, p=.001], controllable-by-self [b=.291, t=5.007, p<.001], and controllable-by-others [b=.156, t=2.989, p=.003] significantly influenced the active coping style of players. Again, challenge [b=.169, t=2.993, p=.003], controllable-by-self [b=.287, t=5.257, p<.001], and controllable-by-others [b=.175, t=3.573, p<.001] were also found to be significantly associated to the planning coping style of players.

The results also revealed that controllable-by-self [b=.152, t=2.722, p=.007], controllable-by-others [b=.142, t=2.824, p=.005], and uncontrollable-by-anyone [b=.176, t=3.289, p=.001] significantly influenced players' coping behaviours on seeking social support for instrumental reasons. Further, challenge [b=.265, t=4.125, p<.001] and controllable-by-self [b=.372, t=6.014, p<.001] significantly influenced players coping behaviours on increasing effort.

Threat [b=.338, t=4.944, p<.001] and uncontrollable-by-anyone [b=.264, t=4.915, p<.001] were significantly related to players' coping behaviours on seeking support for emotional reasons. The results also revealed that threat [b=.216, t=2.983, p<.001], controllable-by-others [b=.164, t=3.065, p=.002] and uncontrollable-by-anyone [b=.246, t=4.312, p<.001] significantly influenced players' coping behaviours on venting emotions. Other results showed that threat [b=.272, t=4.096, p<.001], and uncontrollable-by-anyone [b=.213, t=4.072, p<.001] significantly influenced players' coping behaviours on self-blame.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine stress appraisals and coping styles among premier league coaches and players in Ghana. This section of the

study highlights how the major findings relate to previous studies and associated practical implications based on the research questions.

Organizational stressors prevalence among football coaches and players in the premier league in Ghana

The first study topic looked at the intensity and frequency of organizational stress among football players and coaches in Ghana's top league. This study found that coaches and players in the Ghanaian premier league generally dealt with a lot of stressors, which is consistent with earlier studies on the demanding nature of the sporting environment in which coaches and athletes work (e.g., Arnold & Fletcher, 2012; Arnold et al., 2016; Didymus & Fletcher, 2014; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Fletcher & Didymus, 2017). Coaches felt these moderately intense pressures a lot more than athletes did.

Particularly, high to moderate stress demands were felt by both coaches and players in relation to selection, team and culture, and objectives and growth. The Ghana Premier League's coaches and players reported that the least stressful factors were coaching and logistical and operational stress.

Previous research by Kristiansen (2012), who highlighted that football coaches frequently set criteria and supervise all team activities, lends credence to this conclusion. Fletcher and Scott (2010) pointed out that while coaches strive to improve their own performances, there is a high demand on what they do in relation to significant issues including squad and team selection, players' performance and well-being, organization, and administrative responsibilities (Gould et al., 2002). Similar results were found in Thelwell et al. (2017)'s

study on athletes' perceptions of the stress experienced by their coaches in elite sports environments.

The authors said that coaches who compete at the top level did conduct their tasks in a demanding, complicated, and dynamic environment, putting a great deal of pressure on them to succeed despite all obstacles. When viewed holistically, the general supervisory role frequently assigned to the coaches to guarantee that the team performs to its highest potential during all competitions or matches has a variety of elements, including selection (e.g., who gets selected), team and culture (e.g., work climate), as well as objectives and developmental issues (e.g., the creation of an effective training schedule). However, athletes must execute or execute the methods outlined by their coaches in order to win games or contests.

As a result, coaches are more likely than their athletes to become overworked. Contrarily, even though there may have been other factors at play (such as the level of the players or logistical challenges) that weren't directly tied to the performance of the coaches, coaches are often sacked or relieved of their official duties owing to the overall performance of their teams. In terms of football administration, club owners or the Board of Directors (BODs) frequently establish performance standards that coaches must satisfy in order to be hired. The coaches are under a great deal of strain as a result of these criteria.

Fletcher and Scott (2010) assert that a coach's drive to achieve straight immediately is crucial to maintaining their position. Due to high performance expectations, coaches typically experience increased pressure to succeed and achieve club-set goals (Didymus, 2017). For failing to meet predefined

performance goals imposed by club owners, highly acclaimed football coaches with lengthy coaching histories regularly lose their jobs (Akenteng, 2019; Didymus, 2017; Gould et al., 2002).

Using the selection indication as an example, coaches reported feeling burdened by the process of selecting teams for games, whereas players reported feeling anxious about the process. Due to ambiguous selection criteria and techniques, selecting players for their roles and rotating them throughout games to meet the needs of the league competition to accomplish a successful season may be stressful or challenging for coaches (Didymus, 2017). Similar to this, players experience high levels of stress as a result of the rigors of playing, having to meet technical and/or tactical standards, and having their squads rotate and be placed on occasion (Didymus, 2017; Fletcher et al., 2006).

Additionally, it's likely that having teammates who are just as skilled and play comparable roles as you do and having a bad connection with the coaching staff might make players feel under pressure when it comes to selection. This reasoning is in line with the findings of Mellalieu, Neil, Hanton, and Fletcher's (2009) study, which discovered position security and competitiveness among top athletes training for competition. Although selection was a serious issue and a source of stress for the athletes, these expectations were reliant on the requirement to perform well in order to obtain or keep position and/or selection (Didymus, 2017; Mellalieu et al., 2009). The right team selection must be made by coaches in order for their teams to effectively compete in their games and meet the standards of their opponents at any given moment. Additionally, because to performance-related

expectations, club owners and other stakeholders (such as team followers and the media) constantly monitor the technical, tactical, and managerial choices made by coaches and similar personnel. Therefore, the worry that their coaching position will be eliminated or that their contract will be canceled causes and/or heightens their stress levels (Didymus & Fletcher, 2017; Kristiansen et al., 2012; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Noblet & Gifford, 2002).

Regarding the selection dimension, it seems as though players and coaches have conflicting interests. Players want their coaches to pick them for a game, but coaches equally want the players they have chosen to provide outstanding performances to support or ensure their continued inclusion in the squad. In this situation, it is more important than ever for coaches and players to make the right decisions (in terms of being selected). The selection dilemma also creates a situation in which players' coaches are perceived as potential stressors by players (Giacobbi et al., 2005; Hanton et al., 2005; Gould et al., 1993; Mellalieu et al., 2006; Noblet & Gifford, 2002) and coaches are perceived as potential stressors by coaches (Giacobbi et al., 2004; Gould (Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Kristiansen et al., 2012; Olusoga et al., 2009; Thelwell., 2012; Thelwell et al., 2017). The feelings of players and coaches when individuals they have selected don't consistently put on excellent performances are made clear by this pattern, as well as how players feel when they aren't regularly selected for games.

Coaches are under more pressure than players, despite the fact that both coaches and players experience stress linked to squad selection. This is likely because, as asserted by Thelwell et al., coaches have no direct control over the player's performance after selection (2008). Numerous pressures

experienced by athletes have a relationship to their instructors, according to further, more recent research (e.g., Alsentali & Anshel, 2015; Parent et al., 2014). According to Thelwell et al. (2017)'s study on the perspectives of athletes on their coaches' stress experiences, the coaching environment as well as the players themselves were negatively influenced when their coaches suffered stress. In addition, other researchers (Olusoga et al. 2010) looked at how coaches and athletes experienced stress from the coach's perspective rather than the athletes', and they found that coaches thought their athletes may be the victims of their unfavorable stressful experiences.

The study also found that both athletes and coaches experienced stress as they pursued their professional goals and moved through the ranks. This finding is consistent with numerous studies that demonstrate that society honors those who put up a lot of effort or make sincere attempts to achieve their goals, whereas giving up is viewed as a sign of weakness (Ntoumanis et al., 2014a). In a similar vein, Heckhausen et al. (2010) and others proposed that objectives help people plan their lives and encourage beneficial behaviors that subsequently enhance their well-being. Setting objectives is a powerful strategy for improving performance, according to Staufenbiel et al. (2015)

There is evidence that players may establish objectives such as achieving personal bests in teams, winning a particular event, or triumphing over a certain opponent while coaches may set goals such as continuously winning games to get acclaim. However, these goals can eventually prove impossible to achieve and might put undue stress on the body (Lazarus, 1999; Ntoumanis et al., 2014a). Coaches and players typically create objectives or targets that they must reach at every step of their careers in order to succeed in

finishing tasks and attaining process goals as well as short-term and long-term goals (Senécal, Loughead, & Bloom, 2008). They thus go through various stages of stress.

Coaches and players are anticipated to occasionally improve or achieve their process goals when they train or learn the art of coaching. The benefits of defining objectives against task in the context of sports for both coaches and performers have been verified by existing literature (e.g., Smith, Cohen, & Pickett, 2014; Weinberg, 2010). For instance, coaches commonly set short- and long-term goals in an effort to support the success of their teams (Burgess & Naughton, 2010; Paradis & Martin, 2012). However, the failure of coaches to explicitly establish concrete, quantitative, attainable, realistic, and time-bound goals may pose a substantial burden to them (Nicholls et al., 2016; Weintraub, Cassell, & DePatie, 2021).

Players who seem to have plateaued after multiple practices or haven't achieved their specific goals for upcoming games owing to time restrictions, injuries, or biological limitations may also be benched in games or competitions, unless they can show otherwise. Their continued hard labor is greatly demanded by this circumstance (Ntoumanis et al., 2014a). Indeed, stress may be caused when a person's ambitions become unachievable, therefore realizing one's incapacity to fulfill one's goals can be a possible stressor (Ntoumanis et al., 2014a; Lazarus, 1999).

The culture and attitude of the squad also caused some stress for the coaches and players. . For example, it's probable that some undesirable attitudes that are displayed by some teammates and other officials (such as rivalry between players who play the same position, a loose attitude toward

attendance at training sessions, and tardiness) burden coaches and players (Mellalieu et al., 2009). Players who played the same position in a game during tournament preparation, for example, saw each other as competitors (Mellalieu et al., 2009). According to a participant in Kristiansen and Roberts' research (2012) on position security and rivalry among US professional soccer players, "if two men are vying for the same spot, they are not likely to be best friends." This might result in players trying to win the coach over by frightening, irritating, or making their perceived opponent teammates appear inept.

Didymus (2017) found further evidence to support his findings that in his study involving international and Olympic level coaches' stressors, appraisals, and coping attitudes such as disrespectful behaviors, attending practice while intoxicated, abusing drugs, lying about mistakes, and showing up late or not at all for practice led to tensions and a lack of team cohesion within the group. If precautions are not implemented, it's possible that such attitudes will lead to unfavorable reactions from coaches and players.

Because of their divergent viewpoints, coaches and players must work extra hard to come to an understanding about specific practices or routines that they must follow, which might lead to an unpleasant team environment. According to academics, the environment and culture of the team may affect how players and coaches feel, think, and act (e.g., Hanton et al., 2005; Kristiansen, Murphy, & Roberts, 2012; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Olusoga et al., 2009). Therefore, a toxic team environment will have a detrimental impact on players' and coaches' emotions, thinking processes, and interpersonal

interactions. Both coaches and players may experience stress as a result of this propensity (Fletcher & Scott., 2010).

Coaches and players in the Ghana Premier League may have faced stress at work, according to similar findings from research undertaken in the United States of America (USA), the United Kingdom (UK), Australia, and Europe (Didymus, 2017; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Hanton et al., 2005; Kristiansen et al., 2012; Mellallieu et al., 2009; Thelwell, 2012; Thelwell et al., 2017; Thelwell et al., 2008). For instance, Didymus (2017) found that among the many pressures that coaches experienced were selection, athlete concerns, coaching commitments, expectations, interference, preparation, organizational management, and performance.

Further research by Kristiansen et al. (2012) into organizational stress and associated coping in American professional soccer players revealed that players experienced a number of stressors linked to league and team structure, coach-athlete contact, travel needs, and other aspects. The conclusions may be comparable because of the standardization of the competitive environment in professional leagues and the rising demands they place on coaches and players. That is to say, regardless of the nation, identical soccer settings exist since the practices, philosophies, concepts, and regulations regulating football are universal. Thus, the pressure placed on teams by fans and management to compete well in the league, as well as other factors, such as coaching techniques and systems, raises the amount of stress experienced by both coaches and players (Flores et al., 2012; Kroshus et al., 2015).

Stress appraisal measures adopted by football coaches and players in the premier league in Ghana

Research Question Two evaluated the stress appraisal measures adopted by football coaches and players in the premier league in Ghana. The study revealed that controllable-by-self is the stress appraisal mechanism frequently employed by both the football coaches and players. This revelation suggests that coaches and players in this study felt that they had the ability to manage the organisational stressors they experienced while playing the 2020/2021 league, indicating the relevance and importance of the premier league to the attainment of their goals and well-being.

This finding is similar to previous finding which revealed that if an individual feels that individual has effective mechanisms in place for coping, it is very likely that individual will perceive that individual is in control. However, if the coaches and players believe they lack adequate coping skills, they will conclude that they are powerless over the stressor (Nicholls et al., 2009; Lazarus & Folkman, 1999). Again, Bandura (2001) asserted that persons' belief that they have some amount of control over environmental situations and their own functioning is the most prevalent among all personal factors. This sense of control, according to Frazier et al., (2011), promotes the well-being of the individual.

This present observation may have been influenced by individual differences such as resilience, hardiness, mental toughness, emotional intelligence (Hanton et al., 2012) as well as self-confidence (Anshel et al., 2012; Scorniaenchi & Feltz, 2010) and perceived competence (Blascovich, 2008) of the players and coaches. For instance, emotional intelligence has

been found to have a buffering effect on stress (Lea, Davis, Mahoney & Qualter, 2019; Castro-Sánchez, Zurita-Ortega, Chacón-Cuberos, López-Gutiérrez, & Zafra-Santos, 2018). Indeed, more recently, mental toughness has also been found to provide significant buffering effect on perceived stress of athletes (Crawford, Tripp, Gierc & Scott, 2021). Supporting this idea, Bartone, Johnsen, Eid, Hystad, and Laberg (2017) provided evidence that hardiness suppresses the negative effect of stress experiences.

Aside the individual factors that might have fortified the coaches and players in this study to have high self-control against stressors, situational factors such as social support network and organisational culture might have also influenced their stress appraisal. . For instance, Hanton et al. (2005) stressed that contextual elements (i.e., social support system and organizational culture) are likely to affect the course that a stress pattern follows. This assertion supports Dixon and Turner's (2018) study which found some of the participants expressing their displeasures about how some club owners and managers interfered and insisted on them to conform strictly to these club owners' norms and practices.

They felt intimidated and out of control in this circumstance, which put undue strain on them (Dixon and Turner, 2018). Since their club owners don't interfere with them too much, it is likely that the coaches and players in the current research have some degree of autonomy and freedom to operate, feeling more challenged than intimidated and in charge.

Both the coaches and players also emphasised that they used the challenge stress appraisal mechanism quite often aside the controllable-by-self stress appraisal strategy. Consistent with previous studies (Didymus, 2014;

Nicholls et al., 2009; Nicholls et al., 2011; Nicholls, Perry & Calmeiro, 2014), challenge appraisals have been linked with perceptions of control which also led to the adoption of more positive coping behaviours like problem-focused coping by sport performers while threat appraisals moved in line with lack of control and generally less adaptive coping mechanisms, such as emotion-focused coping.

For instance, Dixon et al. (2016) looked at the relationship between football coaches' coaching behaviors and cognitive assessments of threat and challenge. Findings showed that coaches gained lots of advantages if they evaluated stressors as challenges. Dixon et al. (2016) reiterated that when people perceived that the resources available to them were inadequate in a particular situation, they responded with a maladaptive stress (i.e., threat). Alternately, if adequate resources were perceived to be available, responses then became adaptive (i.e., challenge), facilitating a drive towards an achievement of one's goal. Additionally, challenge appraisals were linked with adaptive coaching behaviours while threat appraisals were linked with unpleasant coaching behaviours (Dixon et al., 2016).

Threat evaluations were consequently linked to high levels of anxiety, subjective stress, and emotion-focused coping, which tried to lessen the adverse feelings and ideas induced by stressful circumstances. Threat assessments also employed fewer problem-focused coping strategies than challenge assessments, which tried to address the challenge that was distressing (Skinner & Brewer, 2002). According to Dixon et al. (2016), coaches who saw stresses as challenges were better able to provide athletes encouraging words and assistance since they believed the athletes could

handle the demands of the circumstances on their own. Additionally, coaches who appraised stressors as challenging experienced positive emotions that promoted good coaching behaviours such as social support and positive feedback for stronger and better relationships with the athletes they coached (Dixon et al., 2016).

Consequently, it is not unexpected that coaches and athletes who at first felt in control of their stresses perceived these circumstances as challenging rather than dangerous. A possible explanation for this is that the coaches and players viewed themselves as having some number of capabilities to manage their stressful encounters probably because they were resilient in managing the stressful situations that confronted them (Seery, 2011). There is also a possibility that social networks and organisational culture may have influenced this finding (Norris, Didymus & Kaiseler, 2017). This observation is similar to a previous study conducted by Didymus (2017). Didymus found that most of the coaches in his study employed the challenge stress appraisal mechanism. For instance, one of the coaches said that she felt quite excited when encountering a stressor in performance settings. The results of this study, however, were at odds with those of Hanton et al. (2012) and Neil et al. (2011), who discovered that employees usually rated organizational stresses negatively (i.e., as threatening and/or detrimental), with little reports of difficulty. Other investigations (Troup & Dewe, 2002; Holt & Dunn, 2004) discovered that athletes' assessments of stresses were connected to threats. For instance, participants' objectives were shown to be challenged by perceived limited professional advancement choices during organizational change and as

being personally deleterious to self-esteem after receiving coach criticism (Holt & Dunn, 2004).

Moreover, both coaches and players indicated that the controllable-by-others was the third most used appraisal mechanism. This implies that coaches and players evaluated that the stress they experienced could be controlled by other people. This finding is likely since there are available avenues (such as social support networks) that players and coaches can rely upon to manage or cope with the stressors that confronted them (Raedeke & Smith, 2004; DeFreese & Smith, 2013; Mitchell, Evans, Rees, & Hardy, 2014). For instance, Mitchell et al. (2014) looked at the significant stress-buffering advantages of social support in relation to injury stressors and psychological reactions in athletes and found that social support had a significant impact on stress-buffering.

The aforementioned literature provided evidence that subsequent to experiencing stress some players and coaches confided in their significant others (e.g., mentors, senior colleagues) who might provide some assistance to them as means of coping with their stressful experiences. It is hardly unexpected that coaches and players ranked the controllable-by-others assessment mechanism as the third most common.

The survey participants claimed that the least used method was the assessment mechanism that is uncontrollable by anybody. According to several researches (Bartone et al., 2017; Crawford et al., 2021; Hanton et al., 2012; Kristiansen et al., 2011; Lea et al., 2018), social networks and support may be able to lessen the negative effects of stress on people. For example, Didymus (2017) showed that a coach sought for expert advice from other

coaches when he was faced with the stressful decision to select the right team for a successful match or competition due to unclear criteria and procedures for selection. Similarly, players who get stressed because they want to do anything possible to get selected for a forthcoming match or competition may be controlled by others (Fletcher et al., 2006). This observation further reveals that the study participants felt that there was mostly someone to resort to for help (i.e., either themselves or others) and so felt some level of controllability.

Therefore, when one receives assistance from others, as well as useful information from others, and has enough time to handle the source of stress, it can provide them some degrees of control (Gan, Anshel, & Kim, 2009). Therefore, it is not surprising that this observation has been made in the current study. The results on the stress appraisal mechanisms of football coaches and players illustrated a good trend since the appraisal strategies used by the participants were positive and ensure positive growth. The transactional theory of stress, which emphasizes the mediation function of evaluation in the link between stressors and coping mechanism, mirrors this trend (Lazarus, 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The GPL players' controllable-by-self coping method in the current study runs counter to prior findings. For instance, Hanton et al. (2012) found that professional athletes tended to view organizational pressures as detrimental or dangerous, with limited perceived control and few coping mechanisms accessible. However, their study sampled only four elite athletes. This finding could potentially explain the discrepancies in the observed results. Importantly, elite and non-elite sport performers have different characteristics, especially when the study context differ (Hanton et al., 2012).

Similarly, Calmeiro et al. (2014) also found that non-elite sport performers largely adopted negative appraisal measures. Although both studies used participants who were non-elite, the continents (i.e., Europe –Africa) where these studies were carried out may have contributed to the differences in the results.

Coping strategies adopted by football coaches and players in the premier league in Ghana

The third research question looked at the coping mechanisms used by football coaches and players in Ghana's top division. According to the findings, both coaches and players adopted coping mechanisms that were problem-focused. The reported finding is consistent with earlier research (e.g., Calmeiro, Tenenbaum, & Eccles, 2014; Didymus & Fletcher, 2017a; Goyen & Anshel, 1998; Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010; Kristiansen et al., 2012). For instance, Goyen and Anshel discovered in their study that male athletes favored problem-focused coping techniques when handling stressors including injury, discomfort, and criticism. The gender of the respondents may be a contributing factor in the findings' observed similarity. That is, this study only focused on male athletes which provide tentative support that males usually prefer to face their stressors with minimal emotional expressions to avoid being labelled as soft or feminine in the face of others from a cross-cultural perspective. For instance, research by Hagan et al. (2017) on the interaction between gender and skill on competitive state anxiety suggested that, like other African cultures, Ghanaian culture expects men to show toughness, resilience, and bravery when confronted with negative emotions like depression, distress, and anxiety. Hence, males who display these emotions

physically and/or openly are viewed as not goal-oriented, cowards, weak and lack the desire to compete and succeed. These cultural attitudes may have contributed to the male football coaches' and players' statements in the current study that they had the power to demonstrate their fortitude, aptitude, and willingness to meet difficulties. Similar to this, Kristiansen et al. (2012) similarly employed US male football teams in their study and discovered that the soccer players' primary coping mechanism was problem-focused coping. According to the goodness-of-fit argument, anytime a stressor that is manageable is encountered, the problem-focused coping technique should be applied (Folkman, 1992).

The reasoning behind this is that a plan intended to directly affect or mitigate the stressor will be most effective since the stressor is controllable. However, individuals should employ emotion-focused coping techniques when they are presented with an uncontrolled stressor since attempts to modify the stressor will fail because it is uncontrollable. Therefore, it is probable that questions of control are crucial to the coping mechanism in sport and that athletes consider many stresses to be at least somewhat within their control.

This noted finding suggests that the coaches and players can cope with the situation by facing or confronting the problem as it persists by directly dealing with the issue as opposed to coping with it emotionally. According to some researchers (e.g., Kerdijk, Van Der Kamp & Polman, 2016; Roncaglia, 2014; Russell, Cottingham, Barry, Lee & Walsh, 2018), emotion-focused coping refers to internal processes based on distraction that are intended to control or alleviate one's emotional response to the stressor. Problem-focused

coping, on the other hand, reflects efforts to cope with stress. In situations when players are under pressure to make the first team, for example, the only way to manage such pressure is to come up with strategies for dealing with the situation head-on rather than letting their emotions (such as crying or feeling upset) get in the way (Fletcher & Arnold, 2017; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Neil et al., 2011).

In situations when players are under pressure to make the first team, for example, the only way to manage such pressure is to come up with strategies for dealing with the situation head-on rather than letting their emotions (such as crying or feeling upset) get in the way (Fletcher & Arnold, 2017; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Neil et al., 2011).This finding suggests that for the stressful situations not to outweigh them, coaches and players try as much as possible to improve or enhance their performance. When this happens, the situation that causes stress to coaches and players might have less impact on their lives, but would rather feel challenged and would subsequently manage perceived stressors effectively. Another explanation is that the coaches and players put in more effort to cope with their anxieties. For instance, coaches would want to spend more time working on the players and themselves in order to achieve their goals in order to minimize technical, tactical, and decision-making errors during tournaments (Akenteng, 2019; Nicholls et al., 2016).

Active coping and planning, respectively, were cited by coaches and players as the second most often employed coping mechanisms. In order to avoid being overwhelmed with too many concerns at once, coaches typically focus on what has to be done one step at a time. This result further implies that

coaches might have taken actions that could directly manage their stressful experiences, rendering the situation less impactful and demanding. This discovery could be the outcome of coaching's growing body of domain-specific knowledge (Calmeiro et al., 2014). In a research by Levy et al. (2009) that looked at the stressors, coping, and coping efficiency of an elite coach, planning was noted as a key coping mechanism adopted by the coach. According to the study, the coach utilized planning in particular to think ahead, organize his time well, and compile data on the players' performance.

One reason why players also employed planning as the second strategy for coping with stress could be that the players have been made to be aware of the importance of planning in managing stressful situations; hence, preferred using planning as a strategy for coping. This conclusion supports what Nicholls et al. (2007) observed in their study on stressors, coping, and coping efficacy, which revealed that national athletes utilized greater planning to deal with stresses they encountered in their environment (Nicholls et al., 2007).

Contributions of age and years of experience to organizational stressors among football coaches and players in the premier league in Ghana

The fourth study question examined how organizational demands on football coaches and players in Ghana's top league were impacted by age and years of experience. Simply put, when it came to organizational demands, there was no interaction between the coaches' and players' ages and years of experience. This discovery is highly unexpected and contradicts long-held beliefs that stress levels and experiences of athletes are strongly influenced by age and years of experience (Hagan et al., 2018). For instance, talent categorization suggests the chance that a highly skilled athlete will have very

little experience due to a quick improvement in their sport performance (Hagan et al., 2018).

Additionally, a competitor's chronological age, which is closely tied to how much competition experience they have, might affect their level of competitive anxiety. As a result, it is probable that older or more experienced sportsmen may suffer linked anxiety symptoms less frequently than less skilled or younger performers (Hagan et al., 2018). For instance, elder endurance athletes showed less substantial cognitive distress than their younger counterparts in Hammermeister and Burton's (1995) study because they set less ego-threating goals when competing. Likewise, more seasoned and older athletes have been found to have slight signs of cognitive state anxiety, according to other researchers (Modrono, 2011; Sanchez-Garcia, 2004).

When taken as a whole, cultural variance could have affected the study's current findings. A person's sense of belonging to a particular ethnic group as well as the emergence of social behaviors and attitudes that are connected to that ethnic group are both examples of ethnic identity, which is defined as a multidimensional construct (concept of self: Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Phinney & Rotheram, 1987). Hence, stress and the demonstration of feelings cannot be seen to be common across other cultural settings (Hagan et al., 2017). Anecdotal evidence indicates that similar to other African cultures, Ghanaian males are obviously supposed to demonstrate resilience, bravery and hardiness toward negative emotional encounters, including distress, anxiety and depression.

The aforementioned events may cause people to feel more nervous, anxious, afraid, and other physiological impacts (Fischer, 2000). Males who publicly express negative emotions are stigmatized in Ghanaian society as lacking ambition, being uncompetitive, and lacking in goal-orientedness. These individuals typically experience remorse, humiliation, and gradual rejection as a result of their reputation as cowards. Cross-cultural studies that use the OSI-SP to compare African athletes to their Western counterparts don't seem to be as common. As a result of an individual's cultural identity, there are a variety of internal processes and social behaviors that future research should take into consideration.

The non-significant difference in the stressor levels of coaches and players with reference to age and years of experience can be explained by two other factors in addition to the cultural factors that may have contributed to the current findings. First, it appears that both coaches and players' sample sizes and within-cell samples are insufficient, which may have an impact on the effectiveness of the statistical approach utilized (Pallant, 2010). Just 44 of the coaches, for instance, took part in the survey. Some of the categories have few sample cells as a result of this sample. Second, such a finding may be explained by the football "football age" phenomena. Football players' attempts to seem youthful by downplaying their actual age is known as the "football age" phenomenon.

For instance, Tosam (2015) contends that players frequently lie about their true age by declaring a younger age, a common practice among many African sportsmen. Although the researcher made an effort to get the players' actual ages, it was unclear whether they gave their actual years or just their

"football ages." For example, a deeper examination of the demographic information reveals that most of the participants were 20 years of age or younger. Some of these athletes claimed to have five years of Premier League experience.

These contradictions may be the cause of the lack of age- and experience-related stress variation seen in the data. Additionally, the majority of players and coaches work under a one- or two-year contract. Only performance-based renewals of these contracts are permitted. Therefore, save in a few situations, it is doubtful that coaches would remain with one squad for an extended period of time (Akenteng, 2019).

Association between stress appraisals and coping styles among football coaches and players in the premier league in Ghana

In research question five, football coaches and players in Ghana's elite league were surveyed about their perceptions of stress and coping mechanisms. Only controllable-by-self was linked to coaches' problem-focused coping (active coping, and planning) skills, according to the research. The rest of the variables under the stress appraisal mechanism (i.e., threat, challenge, centrality, controllable by others, uncontrollable by anyone) did not influence any of the coping styles of the football coaches. Previous studies (e.g., Nicholls et al., 2011; Nicholls et al., 2014; Thelwell et al., 2008; Thelwell, 2012; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 2000) have shown that a person considers the available resources (i.e., sense of being in control, knowledge, skills, and self-confidence) to cope with such a demand when evaluating a situation as relevant or important. The finding implies that when coaches evaluate the stressors, they experience as controlled-by-themselves,

they are more likely to plan and take direct actions toward identified stressors and vice versa, suggesting that when a coping disposition is stable, it will employ a dynamic impact on the process of stress appraisal (Buntrick & Reddy, 1992; p. 1229).

Conway and Terry (1992) studied Australian university students and discovered that problem-focused coping was effective, adaptive, and used in circumstances that were perceived to be under their control while emotion-focused coping was used in circumstances that were more difficult to control, as reflected in Gan et al. (2009). Gan et al. (2009) discovered, with a similar goal, that athletes with an approach coping style—which they equated to problem-focused coping—were less likely to make the appraisals control-by-self and control-by-others than athletes with an avoidance coping style, which was also contrasted as emotion-focused coping. Gan and colleagues came to the conclusion that athletes with a problem-focused coping style were more likely to assess the stressful event as highly manageable than competitors with an emotion-focused coping style since lower scores were correlated with greater degrees of perceived controllability.

The assessment and coping mechanisms of two elite and four non-elite trap shooters during big tournaments were also examined by Calmeiro et al. (2014). According to Calmeiro et al., "both top athletes reported less negative evaluations than all non-elite athletes, with the exception of one, both generally and during important occasions specifically" (p. 1817). Additionally, according to Calmeiro et al. (2014), "both top athletes were more likely to follow a negative evaluation with some sort of coping" (p. 1818). Non-elite

athletes, however, were more likely to move on to the next aim after receiving a poor evaluation without disclosing any kind of coping.

Players are given correlations between the particular aspects of stress evaluation systems and coping mechanisms. Other findings demonstrated that the players' problem-focused coping (i.e., active coping and planning) approach was strongly impacted by challenge, controllable-by-self, and controllable-by-others. The result suggests that players are able to plan and carry out the essential measures that may be utilized to directly control those stresses as they assess the stressors they encounter as a task that they need to conquer.

This result is consistent with that of Nicholls et al. (2011), who employed a path analysis to look into athletes' stress assessments, emotions, coping mechanisms, and performance satisfaction. They discovered that assessments of challenge were linked to perceptions of control and task focus, whereas assessments of threat were linked to perceived lack of control and disengaging from the task (Nicholls et al., 2011). Similar to this, Hoar et al. (2006) found that problem-focused coping will be employed more frequently when perceptions of control grow.

Additionally, players' problem-focused coping behaviors on seeking social assistance for practical reasons were substantially correlated with controllable-by-self, controllable-by-others, and uncontrollable-by-anyone. Additionally, challenge and controllable-by-self significantly influenced players' problem-focused coping behaviours on increasing effort. This study suggests that players who assessed their stresses as ones they could manage independently are more likely to seek out social assistance and put more effort

into stress management. Additionally, when players evaluate stress as a challenge, they usually increase their effort in response in managing stressful events (Kristiansen et al., 2012).

Threat and uncontrollable-by-anyone were found to be significantly associated with players' coping behaviours on seeking support for emotional reasons. The results also revealed that threat, controllable-by-others and uncontrollable-by-anyone significantly influenced players' coping behaviours on venting emotions. Threat and uncontrollable-by-anyone significantly influenced players' coping behaviours on self-blame. These results are consistent with findings by Nicholls et al. (2011) which showed that athletes who appraised their stressors as uncontrollable-by-anyone felt threatened and used more negative emotions, got distracted and adopted more disengagement-oriented coping. This result showed that participants were more likely to seek emotional support to assist them cope with the situation whether they perceived stress as a danger (i.e., as having a bad consequence) or as a scenario that anybody could manage. More so, when players appraised stress as a threat, a situation that could be controlled by others and a situation that could be controlled by others, they often showcased emotional reactions as a way of managing their stressors (Nicholls et al., 2011).

Generally, stress appraisals of football coaches and players were associated with coping strategies they employed when they experienced stressors. That is, how coaches and players appraised the stressors they encountered would show how they coped with them. The transactional model of stress and coping, which emphasizes that stress arises from environmental stressors, how they were assessed, the coping mechanisms employed, and their

interactions would determine whether their effects would be detrimental or beneficial to the individual, reflects this viewpoint (Fletcher et al., 2006; Hanton et al., 2012; Mellaliue et al., 2009).

This suggests that coaches and players who see their pressures as beyond their capacity may utilize emotion-focused coping mechanisms (such as self-blame and emotional venting) that may be dysfunctional or detrimental to their overall wellbeing. Similar to how those who view their stressors as a challenge will use problem-focused coping techniques like active coping and planning (Didymus & Fletcher, 2014; Mellalieu et al., 2009; Nicholls et al., 2012), which entails creating a backup plan, creating a plan, planning for competition, and being realistic about time commitments (Didymus, 2017).

Practical Implications

The findings of this study indicate that football coaches and players operate under a variety of circumstances. The study discovered that selection, team and culture, objectives, and growth were the most typical organizational pressures encountered by football coaches and players throughout the 2020–2021 premier league season. As a result, the study recommended that interventions designed to assist football coaches and players in stressful situations focus on managing these issues. It was evident that when people encountered stresses, they needed to positively assess the situation and utilize efficient coping strategies to deal with such stressors, even while organisational stress had been seen as not only harmful to wellbeing (Fletcher et al., 2006; Fletcher & Scott, 2010).

An individual's performance, mental health, and overall well-being are impacted by failure or inability to appraise and deal with situations

appropriately, which causes psychological, physiological, physical, and behavioral strain (Arnold et al., 2016; Fletcher et al., 2012; Fletcher & Scott, 2010; Olusoga et al., 2010; Tabei et al., 2012; WHO, 2019). This revelation has implications for both academic study and real-world application. Applied practitioners claim that interventions such as the use of a predetermined standard or performance-related metrics that are simple for coaches and players to select while carrying out their duties may help to address or lower their demand. The teams in the Ghanaian premier league should also create a selection process based on subjective and objective evaluations of performance-related metrics to provide these coaches some discretion over important selection decisions.

Club owners should put methods in place to enhance group and team dynamics, such as effective channels and communication skills, standards for addressing disagreements, and ensuring fair and transparent processes within the team. A solid support system for coaches and players, as well as a cohesive team, should be established by club owners through listening to their employees' problems and concerns. Club owners and league administrators should create a goal-setting framework that encourages respect for coaching and player development by employing Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-Bound (SMART) goals in order to address goals and growth as a stressor.

Club owners would also be prudent to assist coaches and players by offering enough and professional facilities and resources (both human and material) that may enable them train successfully to achieve their objectives. Preventative action is required in this situation. By taking part in educational

and professional development seminars, skill development and assessment programs, assertiveness training, time management training, and both informal and formal group talks, coaches and players can profit from these therapies (Cassidy et al., 2006; Frey, 2007).

The study also found that the coaches and players in the GPL reported that the organisational stressors they experienced were controlled by themselves (or they have high self-control). This result demonstrates the significance of self-regulation or self-control in the control of stress. It's critical that coaches and players in the GPL continue to develop specific character attributes, including as emotional intelligence, mental toughness, and resilience (Bartone et al., 2017; Hanton et al., 2012; Lea et al.,2019).

These attributes ought to be trained and developed through appropriate hardy and resilience psychological interventions that focus on commitment, control and challenge (Maddi, 2012). According to Fletcher and Scott (2010), coaches need to acquire traits and skills that will help them to develop psychological resiliency in situations that are demanding. They further indicated that hardiness training improved motivation and commitment among coaches which could also be workable for the playing population (footballers) in this study. Designed interventions should focus on helping both coaches and players gain a sense of control and to view stressors as challenges, but not hindrances. Hence, developing a general sense of autonomy and self-reliance might be seen as appropriate coping strategies for stress management (Lazarus, 2000).

Other findings showed the relevance of significant others, social support network, and organisational culture in coping with organisational

stressors by coaches and players (Norris et al., 2017; Mitchell et al., 2014). It would therefore be beneficial along the stress continuum to promote team bonding through familiar and other social support networks, which are frequently characterized by the existence of team warmth, cohesiveness, structure, emotional support, positive attachment, and a strong relationship with the team (Fletcher et al., 2006; Murphy, 1995).

Teams in the GPL should continuously provide the necessary social support through avenues that may foster strong bonding between coaches, players and significant others (e.g., club supporters, support staff, management members, administrators, other playing or coaching colleagues, friends and family). The social connections would significantly lessen the negative consequences that stress would have on their health.

The finding also revealed that experiencing stress involved series of cognitive appraisals of situations as stressful. Hence, appraising stressors negatively may lead to a maladaptive coping and vice versa. Therefore, it is vital to design interventions that develop specific positive cognitive appraisals of football coaches and players in Ghana. Sport psychologists can help players become more aware of their thoughts, feelings, and behaviours (Giges et al., 2004). They emphasized that by establishing a solid foundation for developing treatments and enacting change, having the right questions and discussion sessions helps extract the fundamental beliefs and needs of individuals who are affected.

Mostly, given that problem-focused coping strategy was reported as employed coping strategy by both coaches and players in the GPL, developing effortful response to stress would be impactful (Kerdijk et al., 2016; Russell et

al., 2018; Roncaglia, 2014). Coaches and players in the GPL should continuously be empowered through education on how to build their capacity in dealing with or focusing their efforts on the stressors as they encounter as opposed to using their emotional reactions as coping strategies. The later strategy (e.g., venting emotions) has been found to be dysfunctional or maladaptive to the performance and well-being in sport psychology literature (Anshel & Anshel, 2015; Fletcher et al., 2006; Fletcher & Scott, 2010). Previous research (Gaudreau et al., 2010; Nicholls et al., 2011) has demonstrated that using task-oriented coping enhances athletic performance but not disengagement or distraction-oriented coping. Additionally, Nicholls et al. (2011) advised practitioners to integrate appraisal training, which includes encouraging players on what they can gain from a stressful situation (such as being selected for a national team, obtaining a professional contract, and/or winning a championship), with thought control, mental imagery, effort expenditure, and logical analysis, to enhance coping.

The employment of mental images, thinking control, effort expenditure, and logical analytical ways of coping with a challenging evaluation can promote pleasant emotions when enduring a stressful scenario, according to Nicholls et al. (2010). Additionally, Turner and Jones (2014) reaffirmed the significance of cognitive appraisals in the stress process of coaches and suggested that practitioners use instructional sets as interventions to improve cognitive appraisals in conjunction with imagery (Williams & Cumming, 2012), reappraisal (Jamieson et al., 2012), and appraisal training. They also stated that awareness of this can help practitioners to effectively manage stress.

The study found that only controllable by self was associated with the coaches' active coping and planning coping strategies. As indicated in the findings, it was speculated that because interference with the coach's decisions by club owners, team managers, league organisers, politicians, media, supporters, friends and even family, was a common practice within the Ghanaian football context, a coach's self-control was mainly influenced by his or her level of active behavioural engagements and reengagements through planning. Hence, failure to develop a well thoughtful planning has the potential to destabilize coaches by putting enormous burden on them.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study's goal was to evaluate coaches and players in the Ghana Premier League's 2020–2021 season's perceptions of stress and coping mechanisms. Aside the research exploring the organisational stressors, stress appraisal mechanisms and coping styles of coaches and players, the extent to which age and years of experience interact between organisational stressors were examined. On the basis of the study's main conclusions, this chapter summarizes, makes conclusions, and offers suggestions.

Summary

The study was grounded in the positivist paradigm; further making use of the descriptive cross-sectional research design. Since seventeen clubs from the 2020–2021 Ghana premier league—out of a total of eighteen teams—took part in the study, it covered a large geographic region in Ghana. All coaches and players in the 2020–2021 Ghana Premier League comprised the study's population. The estimated size of the population included 540 players and 54 coaches making a total of N = 594. The entire sample constituted only males, with ages ranging from 16 to 31 years for players and 31 to 70 years for the coaches respectively. Players' experience varied from 1 to 15 years, while coaches' experience spanned from 1 to 17 years. The study initially sampled 594 individuals, however only 424 (78.5%) and 44 (81.5%) of the legitimate responses were from players and coaches, respectively. The sample as a whole included 468 research participants.

Data were gathered via a questionnaire. The demographic section, OSI-SP scale, SAM scale, and MCOPE inventory were the four key

components of the questionnaire. All COVID-19 protocols were observed before, during and after the data collection. Descriptive statistics, factorial MANOVA and multivariate multiple regression were used to analyse the data.

Key Findings

The following were the key findings of the study:

1. 1. It was discovered that the stress levels experienced by the coaches were much greater than those of the athletes. Consider the selection indicators: while players were concerned with how to be picked into their teams for games, coaches were burdened with how selection should be handled for matches. In the process of achieving their professional goals and moving up levels, both players and coaches encountered stress. The culture and attitude of the squad also caused some stress for the coaches and players.
2. The results showed that the stress appraisal mechanism frequently employed by the football coaches and players was controllable-by-self. Both the coaches and players reiterated that they also used the challenge stress appraisal mechanism quite often aside the controllable-by-self stress appraisal strategy. The third most used appraisal mechanism adopted by both the coaches and players was controllable-by-others appraisal strategy. The least adopted stress appraisal mechanism by both coaches and players was found to be uncontrollable-by-anyone strategy.
3. The research demonstrated that problem-focused coping techniques were adopted by coaches and players alike. The most common coping strategy adopted by the coaches and players was the increasing effort

strategy. The second most used coping strategy indicated by both the coaches and players was active coping and planning. Planning was the third most used coping strategy among the coaches. However, the players reportedly used active coping.

4. Other findings showed that the specific characteristics of organizational stresses for players as evaluated by the OSI-SP were not substantially influenced by experience, age, or experience by age.
5. 5. It was also discovered that players' active coping styles were highly impacted by challenge, controllable-by-self, and controllable-by-others factors. Again, it was discovered that players' planning coping styles were highly influenced by challenge, controllable-by-self, and controllable-by-others. Furthermore, players' coping behaviours about seeking social assistance for practical reasons were highly impacted by players' levels of control over themselves, control over others, and total incontrollability. Similarly, challenge and controllable-by-self significantly influenced players coping behaviours on increasing effort. Threat and uncontrollable-by-anyone were found to have a significant influence on players coping behaviours on seeking social support for emotional reasons. Threat, controllable-by-others, and uncontrollable-by-anyone also significantly influenced players coping behaviours on venting emotions. Players coping behaviours on self-blame were influenced by threat, and uncontrollable-by-anyone.

Conclusions

According to the study's conclusions, football instructors and players who competed in the 2020–2021 GPL season:

1. Underwent comparable pressures related to selection, team and culture, objectives, and growth, but coaches went through these trying times more often than players did.
2. Demonstrated a homogeneity of stress appraisal mechanisms and viewed their stressful experiences more as challenges that they could overcome or manage.
3. When they encountered stressful situations, they reportedly employed more problem-focused coping strategies (raising effort, active coping, and planning) than emotion-focused strategies (seeking social support for emotional reasons, venting feelings, and self-blame).
4. Their levels of stress were unaffected by their ages or years of experience.
5. The type of stress appraisals used directly predicted the type of coping mechanisms used. Thus, coaches and players who used facilitative appraisal mechanisms adopted facilitative coping mechanisms and vice versa.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

According to the study's conclusions, it is advised that:

1. The technical directorate of the GFA should develop a framework for player selection that includes exact standards and procedures that are standard, transparent, and objective. This framework should be

developed in partnership with the coaches of Ghana's top league. By raising understanding of these practices, one may encourage openness, confidence, and trust amongst players and coaches, which would improve the atmosphere and culture of the team and reduce uncertainty and insecurity

Once more, owners of Premier League teams should refrain from interfering directly or indirectly with decisions about performance, particularly those involving personnel. Such choices should be left to the technical staff and coaches, whose jobs may be on the line due to performance-related results. Club owners should also include procedures like effective routes for communication, standards for handling disputes, and attentiveness to the struggles and worries of both coaches and players during informal and official group discussions or club meetings. Ensuring fair and open processes inside the clubs will encourage interpersonal and team interactions, reducing the likelihood of unpleasant situations. Sport psychologists should also assist club owners in creating goal-setting frameworks that respect coaches' and players' right to training and career development through skill development and assessment programs. In the Ghana Premier League, sport psychologists should help team owners, coaches, and players develop difficult but doable short- and long-term goals. Evaluative or appraisal mechanisms are suggested to help monitor goals and developmental priorities set by coaches and players. Sport psychologists should help to inspire coaches and players to develop other alternate and/or strategic ways to achieve progressive development and

performance successes (Carver & Scheier, 2005). Additionally, opportunities should be made for coaches and players to advance their careers through appropriate coursework by offering scholarships and sponsorships for self-development through regional and global partnerships.

2. Sport psychologists should organise regular psychological or mental training workshops on stress management for coaches and players. Of more relevance would be specific interventions (e.g., thought stoppage, cognitive restructuring, imagery, appraisal and reappraisal training through instructional sets) as coping mechanisms to effectively help coaches and players control and appraise organizational stressors as mere as challenges rather than threats (Didymus and Fletcher, 2017; Jamieson et al., 2012; Nicholls et al., 2016; Turner et al., 2014; Williams & Cumming, 2012).
3. Sport psychologists should design and implement a variety of functional coping strategies (e.g., planning, increasing effort and active coping) through workshops and seminars to help football coaches and players deal with the pressures associated with their career before and during competitive seasons (Didymus & Fletcher, 2014).

Suggestions for Further Studies

The present study has implications for further studies. Therefore, future research should consider both genders (females and males) as well as multiple sport disciplines that will take into consideration, more detailed socio-demographic information to ascertain how other factors can also influence the stress process in relation to wider sports population. Secondly, since stress is

dynamic or transactional process, using ecological momentary assessments like the experience sampling method may unearth coaches and players dynamic image of their stressful experiences for appropriate coping intervention using a longitudinal design (Cerin et al., 2001; Hagan et al., 2017). Future studies should take into account using all of the measurement scales on the OSI-SP questionnaire to ensure that there is no threat to internal and external validity as well as to provide more robust findings through cross-cultural validation studies. This is because the frequency and duration dimensions of the OSI-SP questionnaire were excluded from the study (Arnold, Ponnusamy, Zhang, & Gucciardi, 2017; Arnold, Fletcher, & Daniels, 2016; Arnold et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018).

Furthermore, because of the one snapshot and retrospectively self-reported nature of the data collected, there's no evidence to ascertain whether coaches and players were merely reporting their stressors, appraisals and coping mechanisms or these experiences were really encountered. Future research should therefore use an intervention approach to test the effectiveness of these stress-related experiences in real life to guarantee its ecological validity. Since psychological research in elite sport in Ghana is at the nascent stage, future efforts could target other important stress-related factors that were beyond the scope of the research. For instance, other personality traits like conscientiousness (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006), neuroticism (Hemenover, 2001; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006), extroversion (Hemenover, 2001), hardiness (Chan, 2003; Hamilton & James, 2006), and the resources of the environment (such as social support, Kahn et al., 2003) may have an impact on the stress appraisal process (Meeks et al., 2003).

Acquaye, A. (2011). *Job satisfaction, occupational stress and mental health among nurses in the Greater Accra Metropolis*. Master of philosophy thesis submitted to University of Ghana, Legon.

Adler, N. J. (1981). Re-entry: Managing cross-cultural transitions. *Group and Organization Studies, 6*(3), 341-356.

Aguinis, H., Beaty, J. C., Boik, R. J., & Pierce, C. A. (2005). Effect size and power in assessing moderating effects of categorical variables using multiple regression: A 30-year review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90,* 94-107. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.90.1.94.

Akenteng, O. (2019). *Coaches who underperform get sacked.* Ghana Football Association Technical Director, 2019 in an interactive discussion.

Aldwin, C. M. (1994). *Stress, coping and development: An integrative perspective.* New York, NY: Guildford Press.

Alexander, F. (1950). *Psychosomatic medicine.* New York: Norton.

Anshel, M. H., & Sutarso, T. (2007). Relationships between sources of acute stress and athletes' coping style in competitive sport as a function of gender. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *8*(1), 1-24.

Anshel, M. H., & Anderson, D. I. (2002). Coping with acute stress in sport: Linking athletes' coping style, coping strategies, affect, and motor performance. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping, 15,* 193-209. doi: 10.1080/10615800290028486.

Anshel, M. H., & Delany, J. (2001). Sources of acute stress, cognitive appraisals and coping strategies of male and female child athletes. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 24, 329-353.

Anshel, M. H., Jamieson, J., & Raviv, S. (2001). Cognitive appraisal and coping strategies following acute stress among skilled competitive male and female athletes. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 24, 128-145.

Anshel, M. H., Kim, K. W., Kim, B. H., Chang, K. J., & Eom, H. J. (2001). A model for coping with stressful events in sport: Theory, application, and future directions. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 32,* 43-75.

Anshel, M. H. (1996). Coping styles among adolescent competitive athletes. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 1. 36,* 311-324. Doi: 10.1080/00224545.1996.9714010.

Appley, M. H., & Trumbull, R. (1967). *Psychological stress: Issues in research.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Arnold, R., Fletcher, D., & Daniels, K. (2017). Organizational stressors, coping and outcomes in competitive sport. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 35:7,* 694-703, DOI: 10. 1080/02640414.2016.1184299.

Arnold, R., Ponnusamy, V., Zhang, C-Q., & Gucciardi, D. F. (2017). Cross-cultural validity and measurement invariance of the Organizational Stressor Indicator for Sport Performers (OSI-SP) across three countries. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports.* doi: 10.1111/sms.12688.

Arnold, R., Fletcher, D., & Daniels, K. (2016). Demographic differences in sport performers' experiences of organizational stressors. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports, 26,* 348-358. doi: 10.1111/sms.12439.

Arnold, R., Fletcher, D., & Daniels, K. (2013). Development and validation of the Organizational Stressor Indicator for Sport Performers (OSI-SP). *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 35,* 180-196.

Arnold, R., & Fletcher, D. (2012a). Psychometric issues in organizational stressor research: A review and implications for sport psychology. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science, 16,* 81-100. doi: 10.1080/1091367x.2012.639608

Arnold, R., & Fletcher, D. (2012b). A research synthesis and taxonomic classification of the organizational stressors encountered by sport performers. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 34,* 397-429.

Arnold, J., & Randall, R. (2010). *Work psychology: Understanding human behaviour in the workplace* (5th ed). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

Arthur, S. (2016). *Occupational stress among police officers in Cape Coast Metropolis*. MPhil Thesis submitted to University of Cape Coast.

Arthur, C. A., Wagstaff, C. R. D., & Hardy, L. (2016). Leadership in sport organizations. In C. R. D. Wagstaff (Ed.). *An organizational psychology of sport: Key issues and practical applications*. London: Routledge.

Azumah, A. Y. (2014). *Stress and coping strategies among supporting staff at the central administration in the University of Ghana*, MSc. Thesis submitted to University of Ghana.

Baker, G. W., & Chapman, D. W. (Eds.). (1962). *Man and society in disaster*. New York: Basic Books.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman.

Baron, R., & Kenny, D. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 1173-1182. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.51.6.1173.

Bartone, P. T., Johnsen, B. H., Eid, J., Hystad, S. W., & Laberg, J. C. (2017). Hardiness, avoidance coping, and alcohol consumption in war veterans: A moderated□mediation study. *Stress and Health*, *33*(5), 498-507.

Basabe, N., Paez, D., Valencia, J., Rimé, B., Pennebaker, J., Diener, E., et al. (2000). Sociocultural factors predicting subjective experience of emotion: a collective level analysis. *Psicothema, 12*(Suppl.), 55–69.

Beck, A. T. (1976). *Cognitive therapy and the emotional disorders.* New York: International Universities Press.

Ben-Ari, R., Tsur, Y., & Har-ven, D. (2006). Procedural justice, stress appraisal, and athletes' attitudes". *International Journal of Stress Management*, *13*, 23-44.

Best, J. W. & Kahn, J. V. (1998). *Research in education* (8th ed.). Allyn and Bacon.

Bettelheim, B. (1960). *The informed heart.* New York: The Free Press.

Biderman, A. D., & Zimmer, H. (Eds.). (1961). *The manipulation of human behaviour*. New York: Wiley.

Billings, A. G., & Moos, R. H. (1981). The role of coping responses and social resources in attenuating the stress of life events. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 4*, 139-157. Doi: 10.1007/bf00844267.

Bourne, P. G. (Ed.). (1969). *The psychology and physiology of stress: With reference to special studies of the Vietnam war.* New York: Academic Press.

Burgess, D. J., & Naughton, G. A. (2010). Talent development in adolescent team sports: A review. *International Journal of Sports Physiology and Performance*, *5*(1), 103-116.

Byrne, B. M. (2013). *Structural equation modelling with Mplus.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Calmeiro, L., Tenenbaum, G., & Eccles, D. W. (2014). Managing pressure: patterns of appraisals and coping strategies of non-elite and elite athletes during competition. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, *32*(19), 1813-1820.

Campbell-Quick, J., Quick, J. D., & Gavin, J. H. (2000). Measurement. In A. Kadzin (Ed.), *Encyclopaedia of psychology* (pp. 484-487). New York, NY: American Psychological Association.

Cannon, W. B. (1932). *The wisdom of the body.* New York: Norton (2nd ed., 1939).

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (2005). Engagement, disengagement, coping, and catastrophe. In A. J. Elliot & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation* (pp. 527–547). Guilford Publications.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1998). *On the self-regulation of behavior.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 56,* 267-283. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.56.2.267.

Castro-Sánchez, M., Zurita-Ortega, F., Chacón-Cuberos, R., López-Gutiérrez, C. J., & Zafra-Santos, E. (2018). Emotional intelligence, motivational climate and levels of anxiety in athletes from different categories of sports: analysis through structural equations. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *15*(5), 894.

Cerin, E., Szabo, A., & Wiiliams, C. (2001). Is the experience sampling method (ESM) appropriate for studying pre-competitive emotions? *Psychol. Sport Exerc., 2,* 27-45. doi 10.1016/S1469-0292(00)00009-1.

Chan, D. W. (2003). Hardiness and its role in the stress-burnout relationship among prospective Chinese teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19,* 381-395.

Chen, J. T. H., & Lovibond, P. F. (2016). Intolerance of uncertainty is associated with increased threat appraisal and negative affect under ambiguity but not uncertainty. *Behaviour Therapy*, *47*(1), 42-53.

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9,* 233-255. doi:10.1207/ S15328007SEM09025.

Coelho, G. V., Hamburg, D. A., & Adams, J. E. (1974). *Coping and adaptation.* New York: Basic Books Inc.

Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1988). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin, 98,* 310-357. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.98.2.310.

Cohen, E. A. (1953). *Human behavior in the concentration camp*. New York: Norton.

Compas, B. E., Connor-Smith, J. K., Saltzman, H., Harding Thomsen, A., & Wadsworth, M. E. (2001). Coping with stress during childhood and adolescence: Problems, progress, and potential in theory and research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 87 – 127.

Cooper, C. L., & Dewe, P. (2004). *Stress: A brief history*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Cooper, C. L., Dewe, P. J., & O'Driscoll, M. P. (2001). *Organizational stress: A review and critique of theory, research, and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cos, S., & Tully, P. J. (2014). Stressors, coping and support mechanisms for student athletes combining elite sport and tertiary education: Implications for practice. *Sport Psychologist,* 19, 120-133. DOI: 10.1123/tsp.2014-0102.

Cousins, R., MacKay, C. J., Clarke, S. D., Kelly, C., Kelly, P. J. & McCaig, R. (2004). 'Management Standards' work-related stress in the UK: Practical development. *Work and Stress, 18,* 113-136. doi: 10.1080/02678370410001734322.

Cox, T. (1993). *Stress research and stress management: Putting theory to work. HSE Contract Research Report*. Sudbury, UK: HSE Books.

Cox, T. & Ferguson, E. (1991). Individual differences, stress and coping. In C. L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), *Personality and stress: Individual differences in the stress process* (pp. 7– 30). Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Cox, T. (1978). *Stress*. New York, NY: Macmillan.

Crawford, A., Tripp, D. A., Gierc, M., & Scott, S. (2021). The influence of mental toughness and self-regulation on post-season perceptions in varsity athletes. *Journal of American College Health, 4*(8)1-9.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Crocker, P. R. E., Mosewich, A. D., Kowalski, K. C., & Besenski, L. J. (2010). Coping: Research design and analysis issues. In A. R. Nicholls (Ed.), *Coping in sport: Theory, methods and related constructs* (pp. 53-76). New York, NY: Nova Science Publishers.

Crocker, P. R. E., Kowalski, K. C., & Graham, T. R. (1998). Measurement of coping strategies in sport. In J. L. Duda (Ed.), *Advances in sport and exercise psychology measurement* (pp. 149-161). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.

Crocker, P. R. E., & Isaak, K. (1997). Coping during competitions and training sessions: Are youth swimmers consistent? *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 28,* 355-369.

Crocker, P. R. E., & Graham, T. R. (1995). Coping by competitive athletes with performance stress: Gender differences and relationships with affect. *The Sport Psychologist, 9,* 325-338.

Dewe, P. J., O'Driscoll, M. P., & Cooper. C. L. (2010). *Coping with work stress: A review and critique.* UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Dewe, P. J. (1992). Applying the concept of appraisal to work stressors: Some exploratory analysis. *Human Relations, 45,* 143-164.

DeFreese, J. D., & Smith, A. L. (2013). Teammate social support, burnout, and self-determined motivation in collegiate athletes. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *14*(2), 258-265.

Didymus, F. F. (2017). Olympic and international level sports coaches' experiences of stressors, appraisals, and coping. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, *9*(2), 214-232.

Didymus, F. F. & Fletcher, D. (2017). Effects of a cognitive-behavioral intervention on field hockey players' appraisals of organizational stressors. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 30,* 173–185. *https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2017.03.005.*

Didymus, F. F. & Fletcher, D. (2014). Swimmers' experiences of organizational stress: Exploring the role of cognitive appraisal and coping strategies. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology, 8,* 159-183. doi: 10.1123/jcsp.2014-0020.

Didymus, F.F. and Fletcher, D., (2012). Getting to the heart of the matter: a diary study of swimmers' appraisals of organizational stressors. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 30* (13), 1375–1385.

Diener, E. (2009). Subjective well-being. In E. Diener (Ed.), *Social indicators of research series. The science of well-being* (Vol. 37, pp. 11-58). New York, NY: Springer Science and Media.

Diener, E., Lucas, R. E., & Oishi, S. (2005). Subjective well-being. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 63-73). New York, NY: Oxford Press.

Dimsdale, J. E. (Ed.). (1980). *Survivors, victims, and perpetrators: Essays on the Nazi Holocaust.* Washinton, DC: Hemisphere.

Dixon, M. & Turner, M. (2018). Stress appraisals of UK soccer academy coaches: an interpretive phenomenological analysis, Qualitative research in Sport, DOI: 10.1080/2159676X.2018. 1464055.

Dixon, M., Turner, M. J. & Gillman, J. (2017). Examining the relationships between challenge and threat cognitive appraisals and coaching behaviours in football coaches. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 35* (24), 2446-2452.

Dollard, J., & Miller, N. E. (1950). *Personality and psychotherapy*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Dorcoo, K. C. J. (2016). *Determinants of workplace stress in the health sector: a case study of nurses at the Tema general hospital.* Master's thesis submitted to University of Ghana, Legon. URI: *http://197.255.68.203/handle/123456789/21143.*

Duah, M. O. (2016). *Impact of stress on the occurrence of accidents on construction sites in Ghana.* Master of science thesis submitted to Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology.

Durkheim, E. (1893). *The division of labor*. New York: Free Press.

Dzokoto, V. (2010). Different ways of feeling: Emotion and somatic awareness in Ghanaians and Euro-Americans. *J. Soc. Evol. Cult. Psychol., 4*, 68–78. doi: 10.1037/h0099299.

Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (1999). Work and family stress and well-being: An examination of person-environment fit in the work and family domains. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *77*(2), 85-129.

Eklund, R. C., & Tenenbaum, G. (2013). *Encyclopedia of sport and exercise psychology*. Sage Publications.

Ekman, P. & Davidson, R. J. (Eds.). (1994). *The nature of emotion: Fundamental questions*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, A., & Grieger, R. (1977). *Handbook of rational-emotive therapy*. New York: Springer.

Ellis, A. (1962). *Reason and emotion in psychotherapy*. New York: Lyle Stuart.

Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society* (2nd ed.). New York: Norton.

Ferguson, E., Daniels, K., & Jones, D. (2006). Negatively oriented personality and perceived negative job characteristics as predictors of future psychological and physical symptoms: A meta-analytic structural modelling approach. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 60,* 45-52. doi: 10.1016/j.jpsychores.2005.06.076

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Fletcher, D., & Sarkar, M. (2013). Psychological resilience: A review and critique of definitions, concepts, and theory. *European Psychologist, 18,* 12-23. doi: 10.1027/1016-9040/a000124.

Fletcher, D., Hanton, S., & Wagstaff, C. R. D. (2012). Performers' responses to stressors encountered in sport organizations. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 30*, 349-358. doi: 10.1080/02640414.2011.633545.

Fletcher, D., & Scott, M. (2010). Psychological stress in sports coaches: A review of concepts, research, and practice. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 28,* 127-137. doi: 0.1080/02640410903406208.

Fletcher, D., & Wagstaff, C. R. D. (2009). Organizational psychology in elite sport: Its emergence, application and future. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 10*, 427–434. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2009.03.009

Fletcher, D., Hanton, S., & Mellalieu, S. D. (2006). An organizational stress review: Conceptual and theoretical issues in competitive sport. In S. Hanton & S. D. Mellalieu (Eds.), *Literature reviews in sport psychology* (pp. 321-373). Hauppauge, NY: Nova.

Fletcher, D., & Fletcher, J. (2005). A meta-model of stress, emotions and performance: Conceptual foundations, theoretical framework, and research directions. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 23,* 157-158.

Fletcher, D., & Hanton, S. (2003). Sources of organizational stress in elite sports performers. *The Sport Psychologist, 17*, 175–195.

Folkman, S. & Moskowitz, J.T. (2004). Coping: Pitfalls and promise. *Annual Review of Psychology, 55, 745–774.* doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.55.090902.141456.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1988). Coping as a mediator of emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54,* 466-475. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.54.3.466.

Folkman, S., (1984). Personal control and stress and coping processes: A theoretical analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*, 839-852. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.46.4.839.

Folkman, S. & Lazarus, R. S. (1980). An analysis of coping in a middle-aged community sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 21, 219-239.*

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2015). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (9th ed.). New York-NY: McGraw-Hill Education.

Frederikson, L., & Dewe, P. (1996a). The cognitive appraisal of stress: The influence of organizational climate, perceptions of control and feelings associated with stressful work events. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management, 4,* 1-24.

Frese, M., & Zapf, D. (1988). Methodological issues in the study of work stress: Objective versus subjective measurement of work stress and the question of longitudinal studies. In C. Cooper & R. Freud, A. & Burlingham, D. (1943). *War and children.* New York: Medical War Books.

Freud, A., & Burlingham, D. (1943). *War and children.* New York: Medical War Books.

Freud, S. (1920). *A general introduction to psychoanalysis.* New York: Boni & Liveright.

Frey, M. (2007). College coaches' experiences with stress – ''Problem solvers'' have problems, too. *The Sport Psychologist*, 21, 38–59.

Gámez, W., Chmielewski, M., Kotov, R., Ruggero, C., & Watson, D. (2011). Development of a measure of experiential avoidance: The Multidimensional Experiential Avoidance Questionnaire. *Psychological Assessment, 23,* 692-713. doi: 10.1037/a0023242.

Gan, Q., & Anshel, M. H. (2009). Sources of acute stress among Chinese college athletes as a function of gender and skill level. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, *32*(1), 36.

Gan, Q., Anshel, M. H., & Kim, J. K. (2007). Sources and cognitive appraisals of acute stress as predictors of coping style among male and female Chinese athletes. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *7*(1), 68-88.

Gaudreau, P., Blondin, J. P., & Lapierre, A. M. (2002). Athletes' coping during a competition: relationship of coping strategies with positive affect, negative affect, and performance-goal discrepancy. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 3*(2), 125–150.

Ganster, D. C., Mayes, B. T., Sime, W. E., & Tharp, G. D. (1982). Managing occupational stress: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67,* 533-542. doi: 10.1037//0021-9010.67.5.533.

Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E. & Airasian, P. W. (2009). *Educational research: competencies for analysis and applications* (9th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

George, S. (2018). *Coaching in Ghana is very stressful. . Adomonline.com.gh.*

Giacobbi, P. R. Jr., Lynn, T. K., Wetherington, J. M., Jenkins, J., Bodendorf, M., & Langley B. (2004). Stress and coping during the transition to university for first year female athletes. *Journal of Sports Psychology, 18, 1-20.*

Giacobbi, P. R. Jr., and Weinberg, R. S. (2000). An examination of coping in sport: individual trait anxiety differences and situational consistency. *Sport Psychol., 14,* 42–62. doi: 10.1123/tsp.14.1.42.

Gould, D., Greenleaf, C., Guinan, D., & Chung, Y. (2002). A survey of U.S. Olympic coaches: Variables perceived to have influenced athlete performances and coach effectiveness. *The Sport Psychologist, 16*, 229–250.

Gould, D., Guinan, D., Greenleaf, C., Medbery, R., & Peterson, K. (1999). Factors affecting Olympic performance: Perceptions of athletes and coaches from more and less successful teams. *The Sport Psychologist, 13*, 371-394.

Gould, D., Eklund, R. C., & Jackson, S. A. (1993a). Coping strategies used by U.S. Olympic wrestlers. *Res. Q. Exerc. Sport*, 64, 83–93.

Gould, D., Jackson, S. A., & Finch, L. M. (1993b). Sources of stress in national champion figure skaters. *J. Sport Exerc. Psychol. 15*, 134–159.

Grinker, R. R., & Spiegel, J. P. (1945). *Men under stress*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Grosser, G. H., Wechsler, H., & Greenblatt, M. (Eds.) (1964). *The threat of impending disaster*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Gyamfi, G. D. (2014). Influence of job stress on job satisfaction: Empirical evidence from Ghana police service. *International Business Research, 7*(9), DOI: 105539/ibr.v7n9p108.

Hagan, J. E., Pollmann, D., & Schack, T. (2018). Selective antecedents of competitive state anxiety dimensions during high stakes in elite competition. *American Journal of Sports Science, 6(3),* 88-97. doi: 10.11648/j.ajss.20180603.14.

Hagan, J. E., Pollmann, D., & Schack, T. (2017). Interaction between gender and skill on competitive state anxiety using the time-to-event paradigm: What roles do intensity, direction and frequency dimensions play? *Front. Psychol,* 8; 692. Doi 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00692.

Hagan, J. E. Jr., Pollmann, D., & Schack, T. (2017b). Exploring temporal patterning of psychological skills usage during the week leading up to competition: lessons for developing intervention programmes. Plos one 12:e0181814. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0181814.

Hamilton, D. R., & James, K. (2006). *Hardiness, appraisal and coping; A qualitative study of high and low hardy managers.* The Cranfield School of Management Working Paper Series.

Hann, N. (1977). *Coping and defending*: Process of self-environment organization. New York: Academic Press.

Hanton, S., Wagstaff, C., & Fletcher, D. (2012). Cognitive appraisals of stressors encountered in sport organizations. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 10,* 276-289. doi: 10.1080/1612197x.2012.682376.

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,* 1129–1141. doi:10.1080/02640410500 131480.

Hemenover, S. H. (2001). Self-reported processing bias and naturally occurring mood: Mediators between personality and stress appraisals. Society for *Personality and Social Psychology, 27* (4), 387-394.

Hinkle, L. E., Jr. (1977). The concept of "stress" in the biological and social sciences. In Z. J. Lipowski, D. R. Lipsitt, & P. C. Whybrow (Eds.), *Psychosomatic medicine: Current trends and clinical implications.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Hinkle, L. E., Jr. (1973). The concept of "stress" in the biological and social sciences. *Science, Medicine & Man, 1, 31-48.*

Hoar, S. D., Kowalski, K. C., Gaudreau, P., & Crocker, P. R. (2006). "A review of coping in sport. In S. Hanton & S. D. M (Eds), Literature *Reviews in Sport Psychology* (New York, NY: Nova Science), 47–90.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations. Software of the mind.* London: McGraw-Hill.

Holmes, T. H., & Rahe, R. H. (1967). The social readjustment rating scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 11, 213-218.*

Holt, N. L., & Dunn, J. G. H. (2004). Longitudinal idiographic analyses of appraisal and coping responses in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 5*, 213–222.

Holt, N. L., & Hogg, J. M. (2002). Perceptions of stress and coping during preparation for the 1999 women's soccer world cup finals. *Sport Psychol, 16*, 251–271. doi: 10.1123/tsp.16.3.251.

Horowitz, M. J. (1976). *Stress response syndromes.* New York: Jason Aronson.

Hull, C. L. (1943). *Principles of behavior.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Jaccard, J., Turrisi, R., & Wan, C. K. (1990). *Interaction effects in multiple regression.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Jamieson, J. P., Peters, B. J., Greenwood, E. J.& Altose, A. J. (2016). Reappraising stress arousal improves performance and reduces evaluation anxiety in classroom exam situations. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 7(6), 579-587.

Jamieson, J. P., Mendes, W. B. & Nock, M. K. (2013). Improving acute stress responses: The power of reappraisal. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 22*(1), 51-56. doi:1177/0963721412461500.

Jamieson, J. P., Nock, M. K. & Mendes, W. B. (2012). Mind over matter: Reappraising arousal improves cardiovascular and cognitive responses to stress. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 141*(3), 417. doi:10.1177/1754073917693085.

Jannis, I. L. (1958). *Psychological Stress: Psychoanalytic and behavioural studies of surgical patients*. New York: Wiley.

Jannis, I. L. (1951). *Air war and emotional stress*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Jowett, S., & Cockerill, I. M. (2003). Olympic medallists' perspective of the athlete–coach relationship. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 4*, 313–331. doi:10.1016/S1469-0292(02)00011-0.

Kuranchie, A. (2016). *Research made easy*. Kumasi, Ghana: Bookwaorm Publications.

Kahn, J. H., Hessling, R. M. & Russell, D. W. (2003). Social support, health, and well-being among the elderly: What is the role of negative affectivity? *Personality and Individual Differences*, *35*, 5-17.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D. & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity*. New York: Wiley.

Karageorghis, C. & Terry, P. (2011). *Inside sport psychology*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Kaufmann, G. M., & Beehr, T. A. (1986). Interactions between job stressors and social support: Some counterintuitive results. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 522.

Kelley, B. C., & Gill, D. L. (1993). An examination of personal/situational variables, stress appraisal, and burnout in collegiate teacher-coaches. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 64, 94–102.

Kerdijk, C., Van Der Kamp, J., & Polman, R. (2016). The influence of the social environment context in stress and coping in sport. *Frontiers in psychology*, *7*, 875.

Kirmayer, L. J., Dao, T. H. T., & Smith, A. (1998). "Somatization and psychologization: understanding cultural idioms of distress," in *Clinical Methods in Transcultural Psychiatry*, ed. S. Okpaku (Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press, Inc.), 233–265.

Kinicki, A. J., Prussia, G. E., & McKee-Ryan, F. M. (2000). A panel study of coping with involuntary job loss. *Academy of Management Journal, 43,* 90-100. doi: 10.2307/1556388.

Kitayama, S., & Masuda, T. (1995). Reappraising cognitive appraisal from a cultural perspective. *Psychological Inquiry, 6,* 217-223.

Kitayama, S., Marcus, H. R., & Matsumoto, H. (1995). Culture, self, and emotion: A cultural perspective on "self-conscious" emotions. In J. P. Tangney & K. W. Fischer (Eds.), *Self-conscious emotions: The psychology of shame, guilt, embarrassment, and pride* (pp. 439-464). New York: Guilford.

Karageorghis, C. & Terry, P. (2011). *Inside sport psychology*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Kaufmann, G. M., & Beehr, T. A. (1986). Interactions between job stressors and social support: Some counterintuitive results. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 522.

Kelley, B. C., & Gill, D. L. (1993). An examination of personal/situational variables, stress appraisal, and burnout in collegiate teacher-coaches. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 64, 94–102.

Kerdijk, C., Van Der Kamp, J., & Polman, R. (2016). The influence of the social environment context in stress and coping in sport. *Frontiers in psychology*, *7*, 875.

Kirmayer, L. J., Dao, T. H. T., & Smith, A. (1998). "Somatization and psychologization: understanding cultural idioms of distress," in *Clinical Methods in Transcultural Psychiatry*, ed. S. Okpaku (Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press, Inc.), 233–265.

Kinicki, A. J., Prussia, G. E., & McKee-Ryan, F. M. (2000). A panel study of coping with involuntary job loss. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 90-100. doi: 10.2307/1556388.

Kitayama, S., & Masuda, T. (1995). Reappraising cognitive appraisal from a cultural perspective. *Psychological Inquiry, 6*, 217-223.

Kitayama, S., Marcus, H. R., & Matsumoto, H. (1995). Culture, self, and emotion: A cultural perspective on "self-conscious" emotions. In J. P. Tangney & K. W. Fischer (Eds.), *Self-conscious emotions: The psychology of shame, guilt, embarrassment, and pride* (pp. 439-464). New York: Guilford.

Kitayama, S., & Marcus, H. R. (Eds.). (1994). Emotion and culture: Empirical studies of mutual influence. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Klausner, S. Z. (1971). *On man and his environment*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kleinman, A., & Good, B. (eds.). (1985). *Culture, and Depression (Studies) in the Anthropology and Cross-Cultural Psychiatry of Affect and Disorder*, *16*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Klint, K. A., & Weiss, M. R. (1986). Dropping in and dropping out: Participation motives of current and former youth athletes. *Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Sciences, 11*, 106-114.

Kristiansen, E., Murphy, D., & Roberts, G. C. (2012). Organizational stress and coping in U.S. professional soccer. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 24,* 207-223. doi: 10.1080/10413200.2011.614319.

Kristiansen, E., Hanstad, D. V., & Roberts, G. C. (2011). Coping with the media at the Vancouver Winter Olympics: "We all make a living out of this". *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *23*(4), 443-458.

Kristiansen, E., & Roberts, G. C. (2010). Young elite athletes and social support: Coping with competitive and organizational stress in "Olympic" competition. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports, 20*, 686-695.

Krohne, H. W. (1993). Vigillance and cognitive avoidance as concepts in coping research. In H. W. Krohne (Ed.), *Attention and avoidance*: *Strategies in coping with aversiveness* (pp19-50). Saettle, WA: Hogrefe and Huber.

Krohne, H. W. (1986). Coping with stress: Dispositions, strategies, and the problem of measurement. In M. H. Appley & Trumbull, R. (Eds.), *Dynamics of stress* (pp. 209-234). New York: Plenum Press.

Lazarus, R. S. (2006). *Stress and emotion: A new synthesis.* New York: Springer.

Lazarus, R. S. (2000). How emotions influence performance in competitive sports. *Sport Psychol, 14*, 229–252. doi: 10.1123/tsp.14.3.229.

Lazarus, R. S. (1993). Coping theory and research: Past, present, and future. *Psychosomatic Medicine, 55,* 234-247. doi: 10.1097/00006842-199305000-00002.

Lazarus, R. S., (1990). Theory-based stress measurement. *Psychological Inquiry: An International Journal for the Advancement of Psychological Theory, 1,* 3-13.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal and coping.* New York, NY: Springer.

Lazarus, R. S., & Launier, R. (1978). Stress-related transactions between person and environment. In L. A. Pervin & M. Lewis (Eds.), *Perspectives in interactional psychology* (pp. 287-327). New York, NY: Plenum.

Lazarus, R. S. & Launier, R. (1978). Stress-related transactions between person and environment. In L. A. Pervin & M. Lewis (Eds.), *Perspectives in interactional psychology* (pp. 287-327). New York, NY: Plenum.

Lazarus, R. S. (1966). *Psychological stress and the coping process.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lazarus, R. S., Deese, J., & Osler, S. F. (1952). The effects of psychological stress upon performance. *Psychological Bulletin, 49, 293-317.*

Lazarus, R. S., & Erikson, C. W. (1952). Effects of failure stress upon skilled performance. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 43, 100-105.*

Lea, R. G., Davis, S. K., Mahoney, B., & Qualter, P. (2019). Does emotional intelligence buffer the effects of acute stress? A systematic review. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10,* 810.

Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. A. & Mckee, B. (1978). *Seasons of a man's life.* New York: Knopf.

Levy, A., Nicholls, A., Marchant, D., Polman, R., Fletcher, D., & Hanin, Y. (2009). Organizational stressors, coping and coping effectiveness: A longitudinal study with an elite coach. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching, 4,* 31-45.

Lidor, R., Arnon, M., Maayan, Z., Gershon, T., & Cote, J. (2012). Relative age effect and birthplace effect in Division 1 female ballgame players-the relevance of sport-specific factors. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 12*(1). DOI: 10. 1080/1612197X.2012.756232.

Lipowski, Z. J. (1977). Psychosomatic medicine in the seventies: An overview. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 134, 233-244.*

Liu, Y., Kumar, M., Katul, G. G., & Porporato, A. (2018). Reduced resilience as a potential early warning signal of forest mortality. *Ecological Society of America Annual Meeting, August 5-10, 2018, New Orleans, Louisiana.*

Lucas, R. A. (1969). *Men in crises.* New York: Basic Books.

Lumsden, D. P. (1981). Is the concept of "stress" of any use anymore? In D. Randall (Ed.), *Contributions to primary prevention in mental health: Working papers.* Toronto: Toronto National Office of the Canadian Mental Health Association.

Lundqvist, C. (2011). Well-being in competitive sports – The feel good factor? A review of conceptual considerations of well-being. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 4*, 109-127. doi: 10.1080/1750984x.2011.584067

MacKay, C. J., Cousins, R., Kelly, P. J., Lee, S., & McKaig, R. H. (2004). 'Management Standards' and work-related stress in the UK: Policy background and science. *Work and Stress, 18,* 91-112. doi: 10.1080/02678370410001727474.

Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). The coach-athlete relationship: A motivational model. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 21,* 883-904. Doi: 10.1080/0264041031000140374.

Mckay, J., Niven, A. G., Lavallee, D., & White, A (2008). Sources of strain among elite UK track athletes. *Sport Psychologist*, 22, 143-163.

McCann, S. (1997). Overcoaching and undercoating: What pressure can do to coaches. *Olympic Coach, 7*, 12.

McGrath, J. E. (1970). *Social and psychological factors in stress*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

McGowan, J., Gardner, D., & Fletcher, R. (2006). Positive and negative affective outcomes of occupational stress, *New Zealand Journal of Sport Psychology, 35*(2), 92-98.

Maier, K. J., Waldstein, S. R., & Synowski, S. J. (2003). Relation of cognitive appraisal to cardiovascular reactivity, affect, and task engagement. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine, 26,* 32-41. doi: 10.1207/s15324796abm2601_05.

Males, J. R., & Kerr, J. H. (1996). Stress, emotion, and performance in elite slalom canoeists. *The Sport Psychologist, 10,* 17-36.

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychol. Rev., 98*, 224–253. doi: 10.1037/0033-295X.98.2.224.

Mason, J. W. (1975b). A historical view of the stress field: Part I. *Journal of Human Stress, 1, 6-12*

Mechanic, D. (1978). *Medical sociology* (2nd ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Meehan, H. L., Bull, S. J., Wood, D. M., & James, D. V. B. (2004). The overtraining syndrome: A multi-contextual assessment. *The Sport Psychologist, 18,* 154-171.

Meeks, S., Woodruff-Borden, J., & Depp, C. A. (2003). Structural differentiation of self-reported depression and anxiety in late life. *Anxiety Disorders, 17,* 627- 646.

Meichenbaum, D., & Novaco, R. (1978). Stress inoculation: A preventative approach. In C. D. Spielberger & I. G. Sarason (Eds.), *Stress and anxiety* (Vol. 5). New York: Halstead.

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.

Mellalieu, S. D., Hanton, S., & Fletcher, D. (2006). A competitive anxiety review: Recent directions in sport psychology research. In S. Hanton & S. D. Mellalieu (Eds.), *Literature reviews in sport psychology (pp.11-56).* New York, NY: Nova Science.

Menninger, K. (1963). *The vital balance: The life process in mental health and illness*. New York: Viking.

Mesquita, B., & Markus, H. R. (2004). Culture and emotion: Models of agency as sources of cultural variation in emotion. In N. H. Frijida, S. R. Manstead, & A. Fisher (Eds.), *Feelings and emotions: The Amsterdam symposium. Amsterdam*: Cambridge University Press. doi: 10.1017/CBO9780511806582.020.

Mitchell, I., Evans, L., Rees, T., & Hardy, L. (2014). Stressors, social support, and tests of the buffering hypothesis: Effects on psychological responses of injured athletes. *British Journal of Health Psychology, 19*(3), 486-508.

Monat, A., & Lazarus, R. S. (1977). *Stress and coping: An anthology*. New York: Colombia University Press.

Moore, L. J., Vine, S. J., Wilson, M. R., & Freeman, P. (2012). The effect of challenge and threat states on performance: An examination of potential mechanisms. *Psychophysiology, 49*(10), 1417-1425.

Moos, R. H. (Ed.). (1977). *Coping with physical illness.* New York: Plenum.

Murlow, C. C. (1994). Systematic reviews: Rationale for systematic reviews. *British Medical Journal, 309,* 597-599.

Murphy, L. B., & Moriarty, A. E. (1976). *Vulnerability, coping and growth: From infancy to adolescence*. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Navya, P., & Sandhya, G. (2014). Occupational stress, cognition and affect among university employees: A correlational study. *International Journal of Psychology and Psychiatry, 2,* 57-64. doi: 10.5958/j.2320-6233.2.1.008.

Neil, R., Hanton, S., Mellalieu, S. D., & Fletcher, D. (2011). Competition stress and emotions in sport performers: The role of further appraisals. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *12*(4), 460-470.

Neil, R., Hanton, S., & Mellalieu, S. D. (2009). The contribution of qualitative inquiry towards understanding competitive anxiety and competition stress. *Q. Res. Sport Exerc., 1*, 191–205. doi: 10.1080/19398440902909058.

Neil, R., Fletcher, D., Hanton, S., & Mellallieu, S. D. (2007). (Re)conceptualizing competition stress in sport performers. *Sport and Exercise Psychology Review*, *3*(2), 23-31.

Nicholls, A. R., Levy, A. R., Carson, F., Thompson, M. A., & Perry, J. L. (2016). The applicability of self-regulation theories in sport: Goal adjustment capacities, stress appraisals, coping, and well-being among athletes. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *27*, 47-55.

Nicholls, A.R., Perry, J. L., Jones, L., Morley, D., & Carson, F. (2013). Dispositional coping, coping effectiveness, and cognitive social maturity among adolescent athletes. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 35,* 229–238.

Nicholls, A. R., Polman, R. C. J. & Levy, A. R. (2012a). A path analysis of stress appraisals, emotions, coping, and performance satisfaction among athletes. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 13*, 263–270. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2011.12.003.

Nicholls, A. R., Polman, R. C. J., Levy, A. R. & Hulleman, J. (2012b). An explanation for the fallacy of facilitative anxiety: Stress, coping, emotions, and subjective performance among athletes. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 43*, 273–293.

Nicholls, A.R., Levy, A.R., Jones, L., Rengamani, M. & Polman, R.C.J. (2011). An exploration of the two-factor achievement goals, stress appraisals, emotions, and coping 445 schematization of relational meaning and emotions among professional rugby union players. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 9*, 78–91. doi:10.1080/16 12197X.2011.563128.

Nicholls, A. R., Polman, R. C. J., Morley, D., & Taylor, N. (2009). Coping and coping effectiveness in relation to a competitive sport event: Pubertal status, chronological age, and gender among adolescent athletes. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 31*, 299–317

Nicholls, A. R., & Polman, R. C. J. (2007). Coping in sport: A systematic review. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 25*, 11-31. doi: 10.1080/02640410600630654.

Nnuro, E. K. (2016). *Occupational stress and its effects on job performance: A case of Koforidua polytechnic*. A common wealth executive master's degree submitted to Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology.

Noblet, A., Rodwell, J. & McWilliams, J. (2003). Predictors of the strain experienced by professional Australian footballers. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 15,* 184-193. doi: 10.1080/10413200305394.

Noblet, A. J., & Gifford, S. M. (2002). The sources of stress experienced by professional Australian footballers. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 14,* 1–13. doi:10.1080/10413200209339007.

Norris, L. A., Didymus, F. F., & Kaiseler, M. (2017). Stressors, coping, and well-being among sports coaches: A systematic review. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 33,* 93-112.

Norton, J. G. (1982). *Introduction to medical psychology*. New York: The Free Press.

Ntoumanis, N., Mouratidis, A., Ng, J. Y. Y., & Viladrich, C. (2015). Advances in quantitative analyses and their implications in sport and exercise psychology research. In S. Mellalieu & S. Hanton (Eds.). *Contemporary advances in sport psychology: A review* (pp. 226-257). New York, NY: Routledge.

Ntoumanis, N., Biddle, S. J. H., & Haddock, G. (1999). The mediating role of coping strategies on the relationship between achievement motivation and affect in sport. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping, 12,* 299-327. doi: 10.1080/10615809908250480.

Ntoumanis, N., & Biddle, S. J. H. (1998). The relationship of coping and its perceived effectiveness to positive and negative affect in sport. *Personality and Individual Differences, 24,* 773-788. doi: 10.1016/s0191-8869(97)00240-7.

Oakland, S. (1991). *Stress, coping behaviour and health: A study of headmasters.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation submitted to University of Bradford.

Olusoga, et al. (2012). Coaching under pressure: A study of Olympic coaches. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 30* (3), 229–239.

Olusoga, P. (2011). *Stress and coping: A study of elite sports coaches.* Doctoral thesis submitted to Sheffield Hallam University (United Kingdom), http://shura.shu.ac.uk/20773/.

Olusoga, P., Butt, J., Maynard, I., & Hays, K. (2010). Stress and coping: A study of world class coaches. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology,* 22, 274–293. doi:10.1080/10413201003760968.

Olusoga, P., Butt, J., Hays, K., & Maynard, I. (2009). Stress in elite sports coaching: Identifying stressors. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 21,* 442–459. doi:10.1080/10413200903222921.

Ostell, A. (1991). Coping, problem solving and stress: A framework for intervention strategies. *British Journal of Medical Psychology, 64*(1), 11-24.

Parker, J. D. A., & Endler, N. S. (1996). Coping and defense: A historical overview. In M. Zeidner & N. S. Endler (Eds.), *Handbook of coping: Theory, research, applications* (pp. 3-23). Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Payne (Eds.), *Causes, coping and consequences of stress at work* (pp. 375–411). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Papaioannou, A., & Hackfort, D. (2014). *Routledge companion to sport and exercise psychology: Global perspectives and fundamental concepts.* Routledge. New York: Routledge.

Paradis, K. F., & Martin, L. J. (2012). Team building in sport: Linking theory and research to practical application. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action*, *3*(3), 159-170.

Peacock, E. J. & Wong, P. T. P. (1990). The stress appraisal measure (SAM): A multidimensional approach to cognitive appraisal. *Stress Medicine, 6,* 227–236. doi:10.1002/ smi.2460060308.

Pearlin, L. I., & Schooler, C. (1978). The structure of coping. *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour, 19*, 2-21.

Penley, J. A., Tomaka, J., & Wiebe, J. S. (2002). The association of coping to physical and psychological health related outcomes: A meta-analytical review. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 25*, 551 – 603.

Pensgaard, A. M., Roberts, G. C., & Ursin, H. (1999). Motivational factors and coping strategies of Norwegian Paralympic and Olympic winter sport athletes. *Adapted Research Activity Quarterly, 16,* 238 – 250.

Perrewe, P. L., & Zellars, K. L. (1999). An examination of attributions and emotions in the transactional approach to the organizational stress process. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20,* 739-752. doi: 10.1002/(sici)1099-1379(199909).

Radloff, F., & Helmreich, R. (1968). *Groups under stress: Psychological research in SEALAB II.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Raedeke, T. D., & Smith, A. L. (2004). Coping resources and athlete burnout: An examination of stress mediated and moderation hypotheses. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *26*(4), 525-541.

Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2006). Perceptions of organizational change: A stress and coping perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(5), 1154- 1162.

Rees, T., & Hardy, L. (2004). Matching social support with stressors: Effects on factors underlying performance in tennis. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 5,* 319-337. doi: 10.1016/s1469-0292(03)00018-9.

Robinson, A. M. (2018). Let's talk about stress: History of stress research. *Review of General Psychology*, *22*(3), 334-342.

Roncaglia, I. (2014). Coping styles: A better understanding of stress and anxiety in individuals with autism spectrum conditions through sport and exercise models. *Psychological Thought*, *7*(2), 134-143.

Roth, S. & Cohen, L. J. (1986). Approach, avoidance, and coping with stress. *American Psychologist, 41,* 813-819. doi: 10.1037/0003-066x.41.7.813.

Rumbold, J. L., Fletcher, D., & Daniels, K. (2012). A systematic review of stress management interventions with sport performers. *Sport, Exercise, and Performance Psychology, 1,* 173-193. doi: 10.1037/a0026628.

Russell, A. M., Cottingham, M., Barry, A., Lee, D., & Walsh, D. (2018). Students transitioning to college and out of competitive sport: Athletic identity, coping, and stress. *Journal of Applied Sport Management*, *10*(4), 4.

Sarason, I. G. (1975). Test Anxiety, attention and the cognitive problem of anxiety. In C. D. Spielberger & I. G. Sarason (Eds.), *Stress and anxiety* (Vol. 1) Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

Sarason, I. G. (1972). Experimental approaches to test anxiety: Attention and the uses of information. In C. D. Spielberger (Ed.). *Anxiety: Current trends in theory and research* (Vol. 2). New York: Academic Press.

Sarason, I. G. (1960). Empirical findings and theoretical problems in the use of anxiety scales. *Psychological Bulletin, 57, 403-415.*

Scanlan, T. K., Stein, G. L., & Ravizza, K. (1991). An in-depth study of former elite figure skaters: III. Sources of stress. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 1*, 102–120.

Schonpflug, W. (1983). Coping efficiency and situational demands. In G. R. J. Hockey (Ed.), *Stress and fatigue in human performance*. New York: Wiley.

Sève, C., Ria, L., Poizat, G., Saury, J., & Durand, M. (2007). Performance-induced emotions experienced during high-stakes table tennis matches. *Psychol. Sport Exerc*, *8*, 25–46. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2006.01.004.

Selye, H. (1974). *Stress without distress*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

Selye, H. (1956). *The stress of life*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Semmer, N. (1996). Individual differences, work stress and health. In M. Schabracq, J. Winnubst, & C. Cooper (Eds.), *Handbook of work and health psychology* (pp. 51-86). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Senécal, J., Loughead, T. M., & Bloom, G. A. (2008). A season-long team-building intervention: Examining the effect of team goal setting on cohesion. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 30*(2), 186-199.

Sheehy, G. (1976). The mentor connection: The secret link in the successful woman's life. *New York Magazine, 37*, 33-39.

Skinner, N., & Brewer, N. (2002). The dynamics of threat and challenge appraisals prior to stressful achievement events. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83,* 678-692. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.83.3.678.

Smelser, N. J. (1963). *Theory of collective behaviour.* New York: The Free Press.

Smith, N. L., Cohen, A., & Pickett, A. C. (2014). Exploring the motivations and outcomes of long-term international sport-for-development volunteering for American Millennials. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 19*(3-4), 299-316.

Smith, R. E., Smoll, F. L. & Ptacek, J. T. (1990). Conjunctive moderator variables in vulnerability and resiliency research: Life stress, social support, coping skills and adolescent sport injuries. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 58,* 360-370. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.58.2.360.

Smith, R. E. (1986). Toward a cognitive-affective model of athletic burnout. *The Sport Psychologist, 8*, 36–50.

Spector, P. E., Zapf, D., Chen, P. Y., & Frese, M. (2000). Why negative affectivity should not be controlled in job stress research: Don't throw out the baby with the bath water. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21,* 79-95. doi: 10.1002/(sici)1099-1379(200002).

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.* New York: Academic Press, 1966.

Spence, K. W. (1956). *Behavior theory and conditioning.* New York: Yale University Press.

Spielberger, C. D. (1972*). Anxiety: Current trends in theory in theory and research* (Vols. 1 and 2). New York: Academic Press.

Spielberger, C. D. (1966). *Anxiety and behavior.* New York: Academic Press.

Stokols, D. (Ed.). (1977). *Perspectives on environment and behavior: Theory, research and applications.* New York: Plenum.

Sullivan, S. E., & Bhagat, R. S. (1992). Organizational stress, job satisfaction and job performance: Where do we go from here? *Journal of Management, 18,* 353-374. doi: 10.1177/014920639201800207.

Sutherland, V. J., & Cooper, C. L. (2000). *Strategic stress management: An organizational approach.* Hampshire, UK: Palgrave.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics.* London, UK: Allyn and Bacon.

Tabei, Y., Fletcher, D., & Goodger, K. (2012). The relationship between organizational stressors and athlete burnout in soccer players. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology, 6,* 146-165.

Taha, S. A., Matheson, K., & Anisman, H. (2014). H1N1 was not all that scary: Uncertainty and stressor appraisals predict anxiety related to a coming viral threat. *Stress and Health, 30*(2), 149–157.

Taylor, J. A. (1983). A personality scale of manifest anxiety. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 48*, 285-29.

Thelwell, R. C., Wagstaff, C. R. D., Chapman, M., & Kentta, G. (2016). Examining coaches' perceptions of how their stress influences the coach–athlete relationship, *Journal of Sports Sciences 35*(19). DOI: 10.1080/02640414.2016.1241422.

Thelwell, R. C. (2016). Exploring athletes' perceptions of coach stress in elite sport environments. *Journal of Sports Sciences.* doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2016.1154979.

Thelwell, R. C. (2012). Coping with stress as a sport coach: Putting theory into practice. *Managing Stress: From Theory to Application,* 77-100.

Thelwell, R. C., Weston, N. J. V., Greenlees, I. A., & Hutchings, N. V. (2008b). Stressors in elite sport: A coach perspective. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 26*, 905–918.

Thorsteinsson, E. B., Brown, R. F., & Richards, C. (2014). The relationship between work stress, psychological stress and staff health and work outcomes in office workers. *Psychology, 5,* 1301-1311. doi: 10.4236/psych.2014.510141.

Troup, C. & Dewe, P. (2002). Exploring the nature of control and its role in the appraisal of workplace stress. *An International Journal of Work, Health & Organization, 16*(4), DOI: 10.1080/0267837021000056913.

Turner, D. T., Gaag, M., Karyotaki, E., & Cuijpers, P. (2014). Psychological interventions for psychosis: A meta-analysis of comparative outcome studies. *The American Journal of Psychiatry, 171(5)*, 523-38. DOI: 10.1176/appi.ajp.2013.13081159.

Vaillant, G. E. (1977). *Adaptation to life*. Boston: Little, Boston.

Von Greyerz, W. (1962). *Psychology of survival*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Wagstaff, C. R. D., Fletcher, D., & Hanton, S. (2012b). Positive organizational psychology in sport: An ethnography of organizational functioning in a national sport organization. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *24*, 26-47.

Walinga, J. (2015). *Stress, health and coping. Pressbooks.* https://opentextbc.ca/introductiontopsychology/chapter/chapter-15-health-stress-and-coping/

Watson, D. (1988). Intra-individual and inter-individual analyses of positive and negative affect: Their relation to health complaints, perceived stress, and daily activities. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 1020-1030. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.54.6.1020.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*, 1063-1070. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.54.6.1063.

Weimer, W. B. (1980). Psychotherapy and philosophy of science. In M. J. Mahoney (Ed.), *Psychotherapy process: Current issues and future directions*. New York: Plenum.

Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (2019). *Foundations of sport and exercise psychology* (7th ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Weinberg, R. (2010). Making goals effective: A primer for coaches. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action, 1*(2), 57-65.

Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (2007). *Foundations of sport and exercise psychology* (4th ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics. Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (2003). Foundations of sport and exercise psychology (3rd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (1999). Foundations of sport and exercise psychology (2nd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Weiner, H. (1977). *Psychobiology and human disease*. New York: Elsevier.

Weintraub, J., Cassell, D., & DePatie, T. P. (2021). Nudging flow through 'SMART' goal setting to decrease stress, increase engagement, and increase performance at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 94*(2), 230-258.

Weiss, D. S., Wilner, N. & Horowitz, M. J. (in press). The stress response rating scale: A clinicians' measure. *British Journal of Psychology. 9*(8) 10-15.

Weiss, J. H. (1977). The current state of the concept of a psychosomatic disorder. In 2. J. Lipowski, D. R. Lipsitt, & P. C. Whybrow (Eds.), *Psychosomatic medicine: Current trends and clinical applications.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Weston, N. J. V., Thelwell, R. C., Bond, S., & Hutchings, N. V. (2009). Stress and coping in single-handed round-the-world ocean sailing. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 21*, 460-474. doi: 10.1080/10413200903232607.

Williams, S. E., & Cumming, J. (2012). Measuring athlete imagery ability: The sport imagery ability questionnaire. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 33*(3), 416-440. DOI: 10.1123/jsep.33.3.416.

Wolff, C. T., Friedman, S. B., Hofer, M. A., & Mason, J. W. (1964). Relationship between psychological defenses and mean urinary 17-hydroxycorticosteroid excretion rates, Parts I and II. *Psychosomatic Medicine', 26,* 576-609.

Woodman, T., & Hardy, L. (2001). Stress and anxiety. In R. N. Singer, H. A. Hausenblas & C. M. Janelle (Eds.), Handbook *of sport psychology* (pp.290-318) New York, NY: Wiley.

Wolff, H. G. (1953). *Stress and disease.* Springfield, IL: Thomas.

World Health Organisation. (2016). *Stress: The health epidemic of the 21st century. http://scitechconnect.elsevier.com/stress-health-epidemic-21st-century/.*

Wrosch, C., Amir, E. & Miller, G. E. (2011). Goal adjustment capacities, coping, and subjective well-being: The sample case of caregiving for a family member with mental illness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*, 934e946. http:// dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0022873.

Wrosch, C., & Miller, G. E. (2009). Depressive symptoms can be useful: Self-regulatory and emotional benefits of dysphoric mood in adolescence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 96*, 1181e1190. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/ a0015172.

Wrosch, C., Miller, G. E., Scheier, M. F., & Pontet, S. B. (2007). Giving up on unattainable goals: Benefits for health? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *33*, 251e265. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0146167206294905.

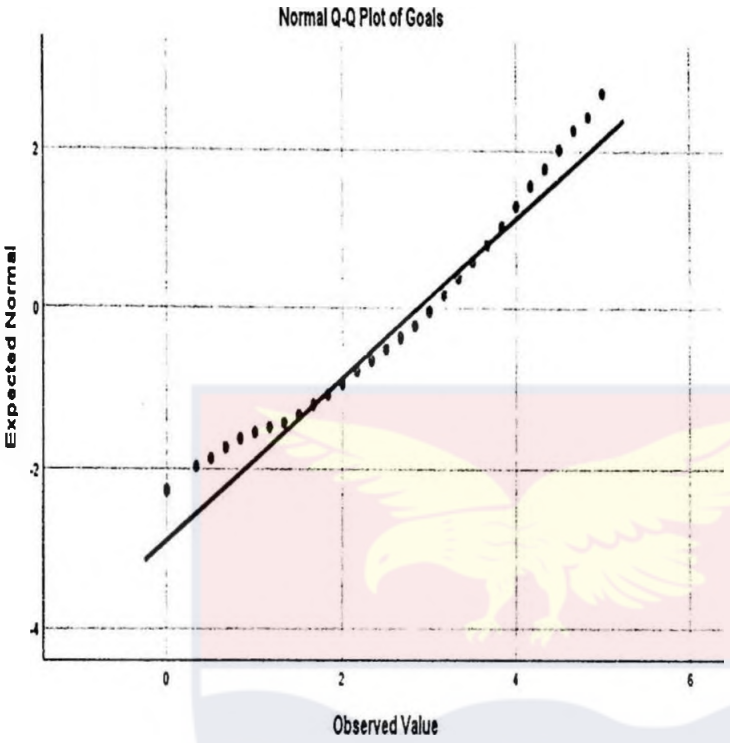
Yerkes, R. M., & Dodson, J. D. (1908). The relation of strength of stimulus to rapidity of habit-formation. *Journal of Comparative Neurology and Psychology, 18,* 459-482.

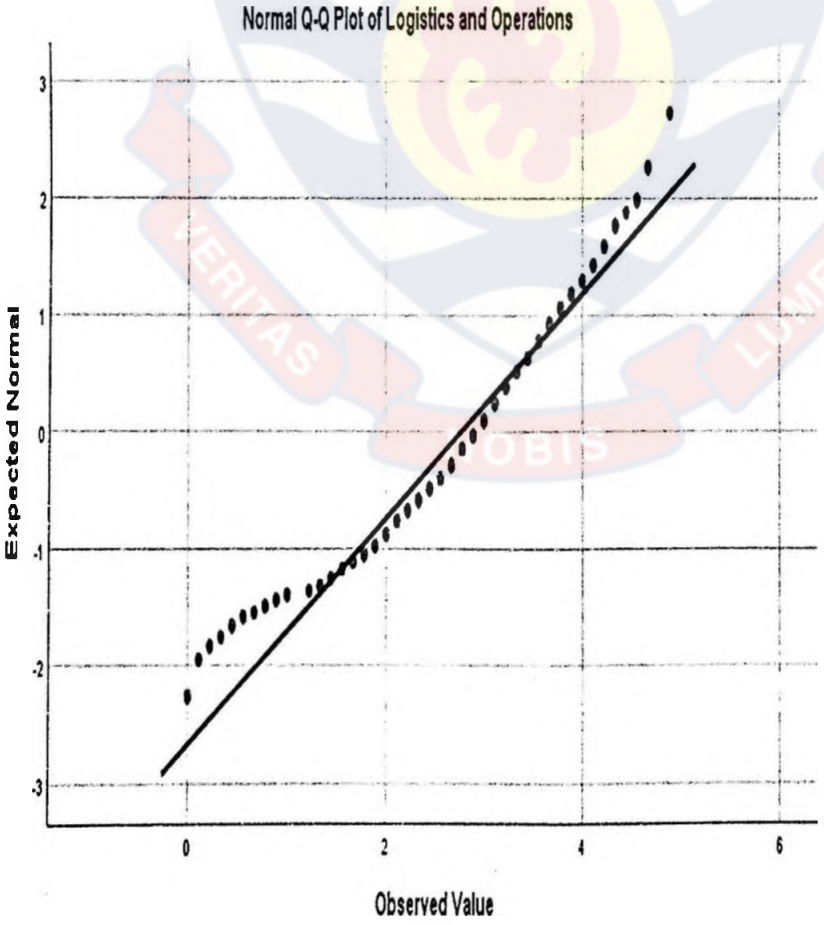
Young, A. (1980). The discourse on stress and the reproduction of conventional knowledge. *Social Sciences and Medicine, 148,* 133-146.

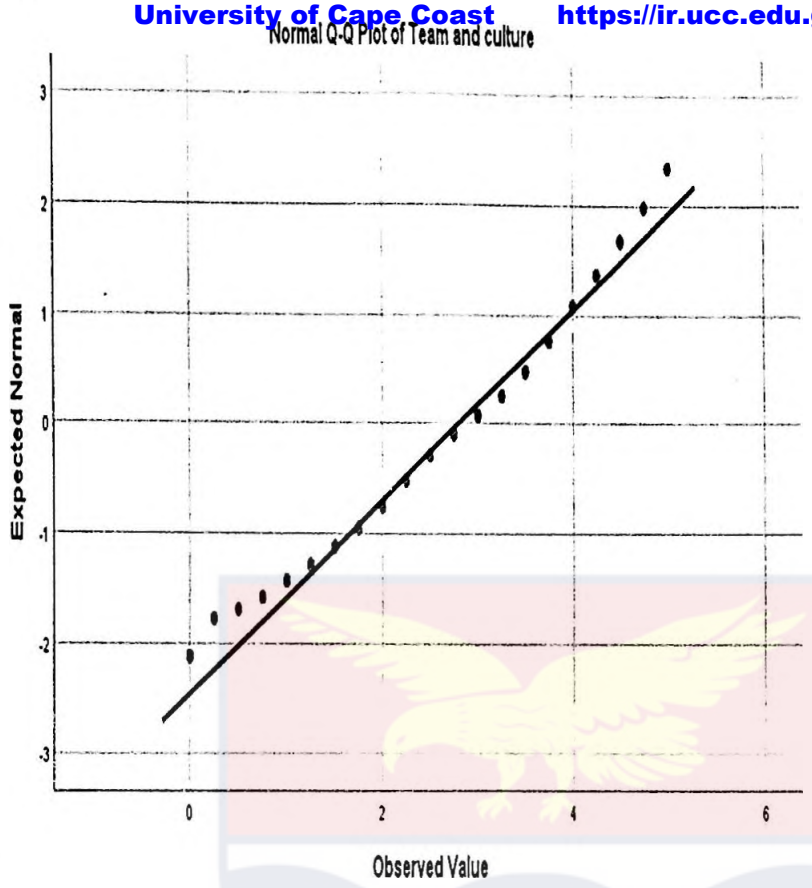
APPENDICES

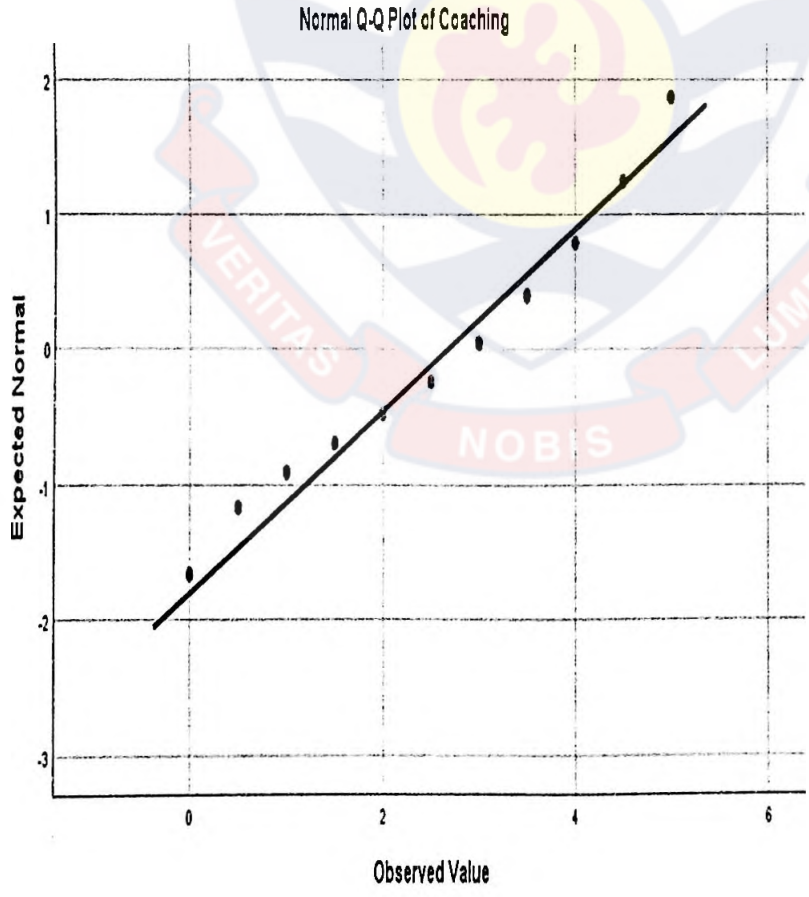
APPENDIX A

UNIVARIATE AND MULTIVARIATE NORMALITY









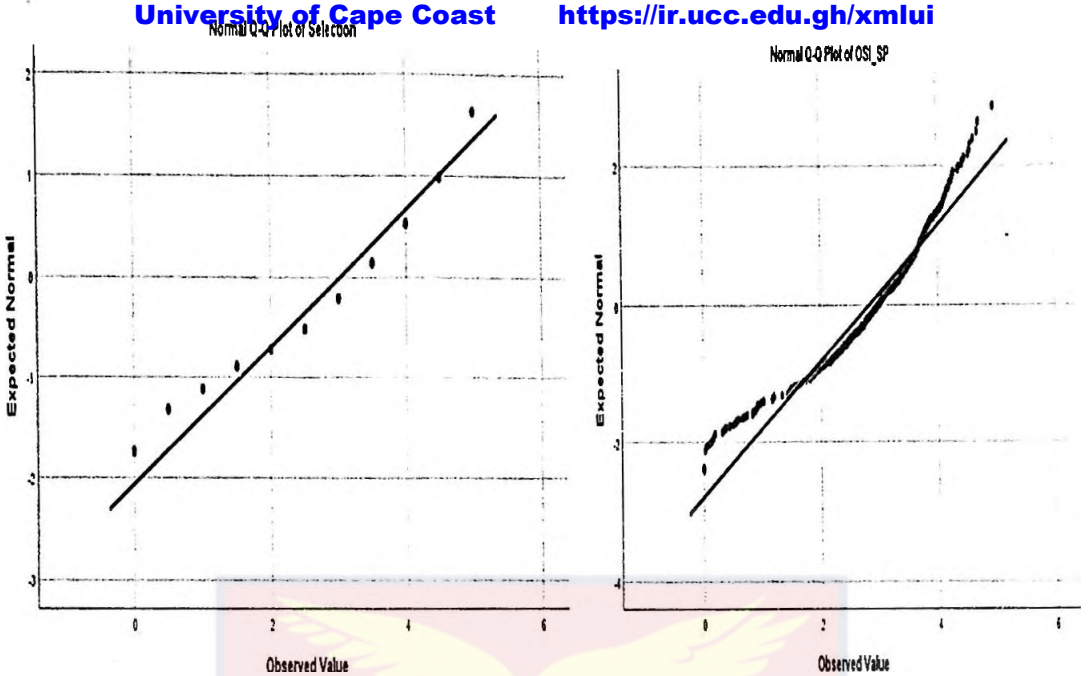


Figure 1: **Multivariate and Univariate Normality**

APPENDIX B

MULTIVARIATE OUTLIERS AND LINEARITY

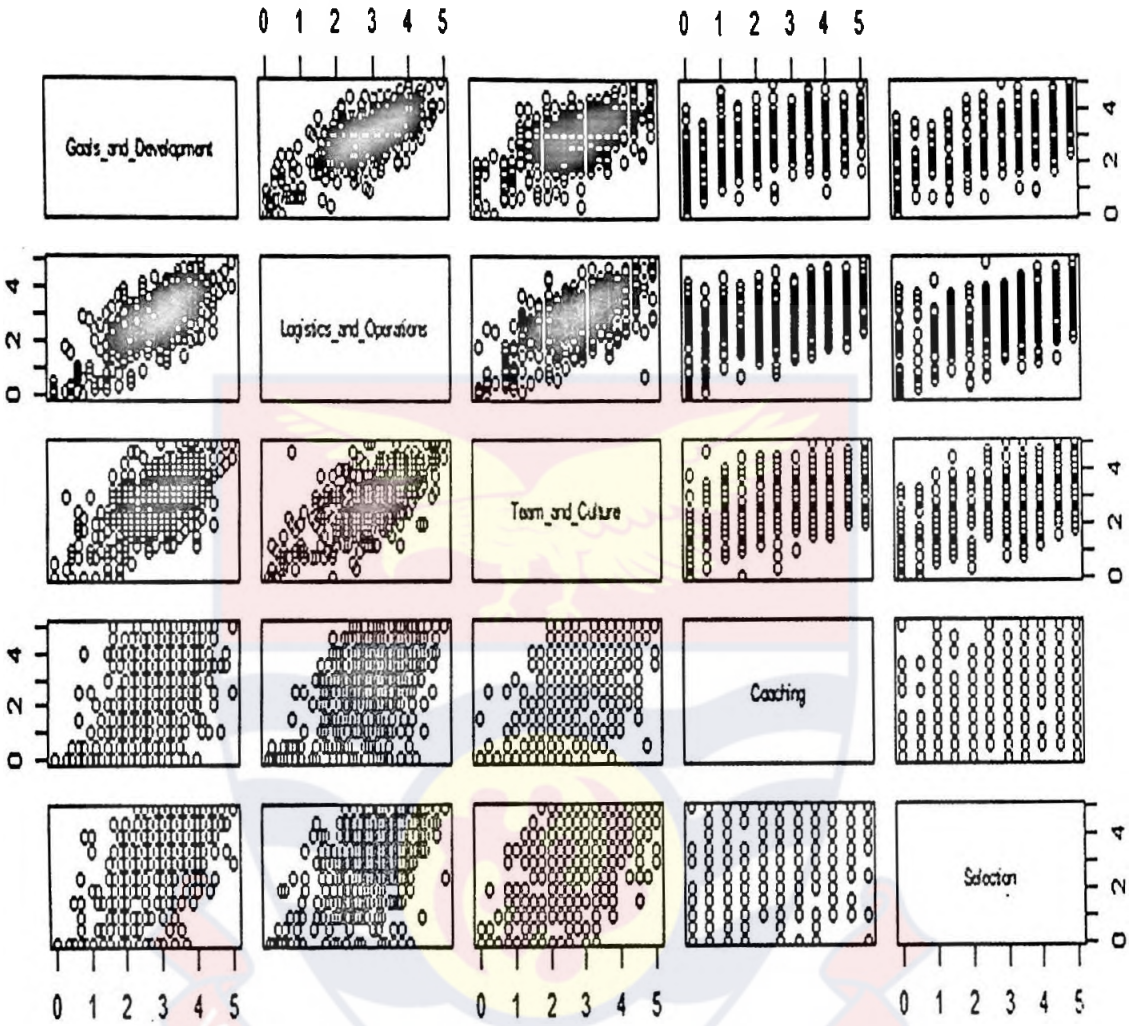
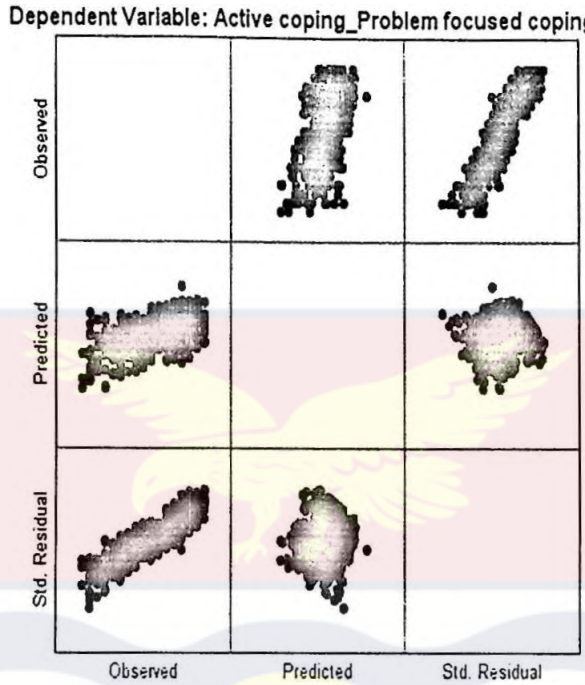


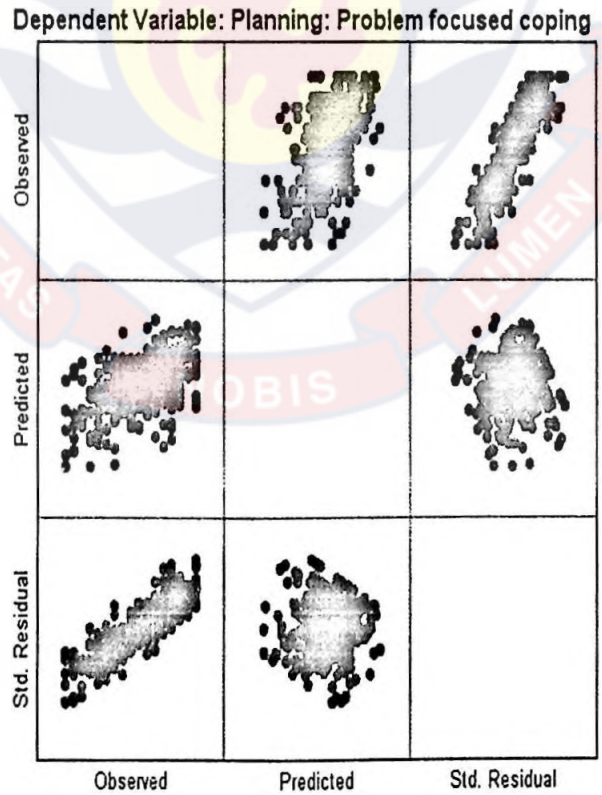
Figure 2: Multivariate Outliers and Linearity

APPENDIX C

RESIDUAL PLOTS

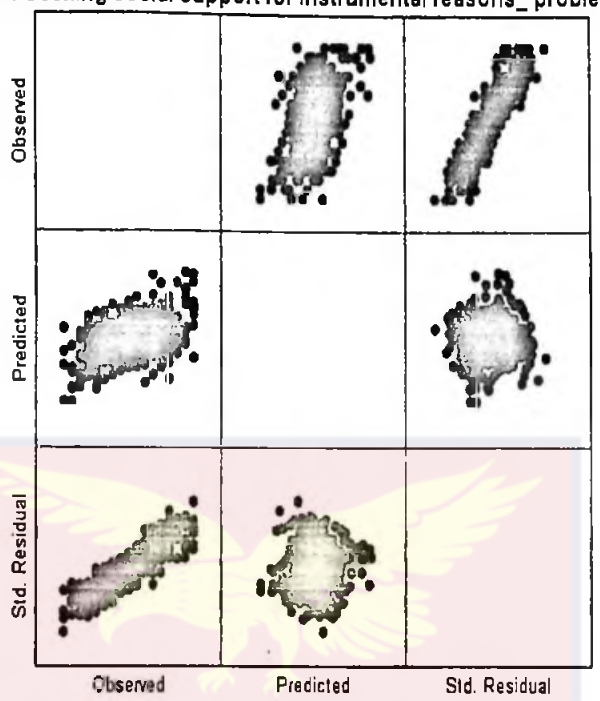


Model: Intercept + Threat_SAM + Chall_SAM + Centra_SAM + Con_Self_SSAM + Con_Other_SSAM + Uncon_anyone_SSAM

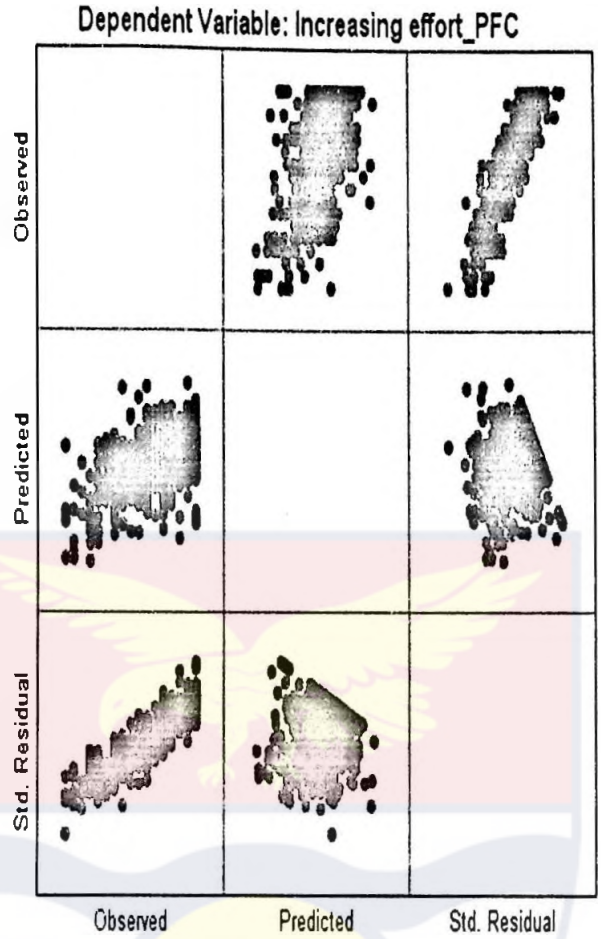


Model: Intercept + Threat_SAM + Chall_SAM + Centra_SAM + Con_Self_SSAM + Con_Other_SSAM + Uncon_anyone_SSAM

Dependent Variable: Seeking social support for instrumental reasons_ problem focused coping

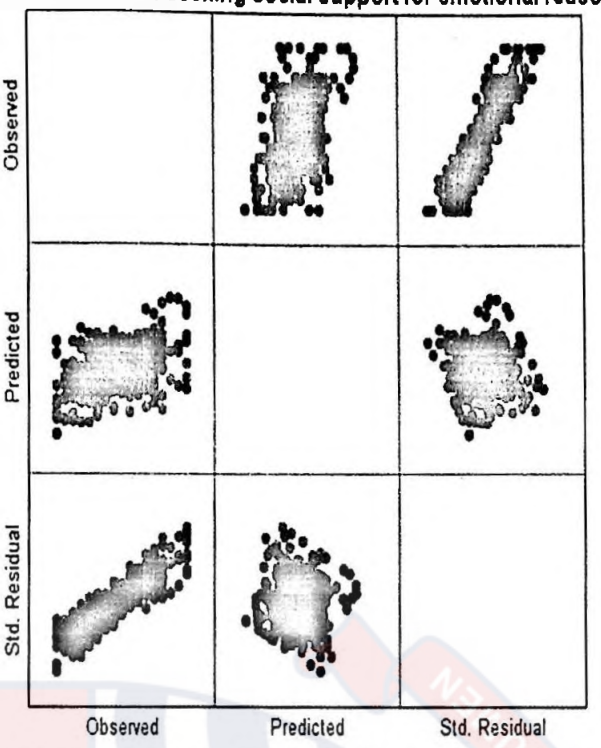


Model: Intercept + Threat_SAM + Chall_SAM + Centra_SAM + Con_Self_SSAM + Con_Other_SSAM + Uncon_anyone_SSAM



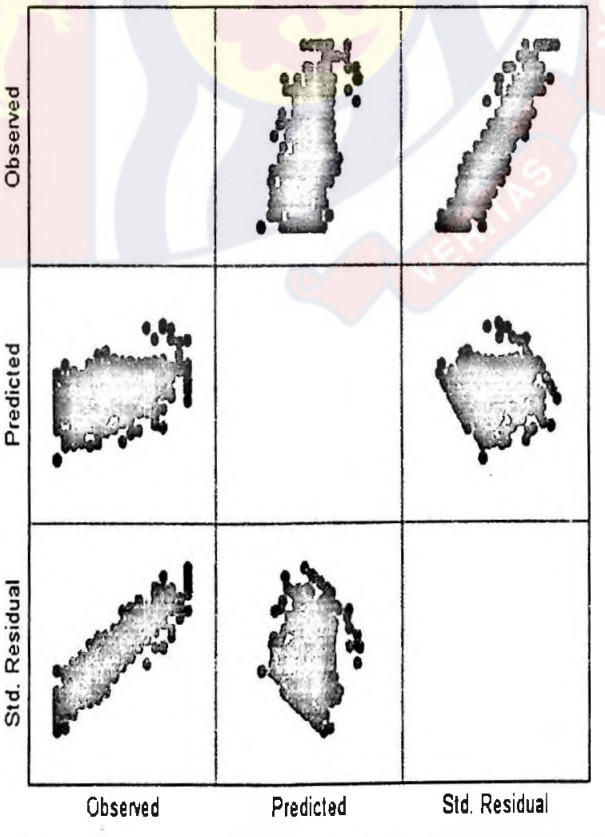
Model: Intercept + Threat_SAM + Chall_SAM + Centra_SAM + Con_Self_SSAM + Con_Other_SSAM + Uncon_anyone_SSAM

Dependent Variable: seeking social support for emotional reasons

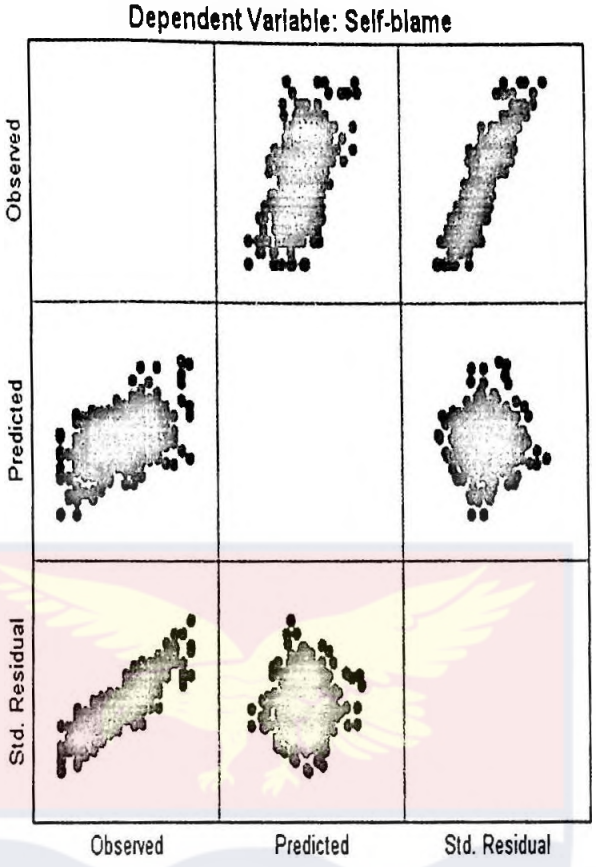


Model: Intercept + Threat_SAM + Chall_SAM + Centra_SAM + Con_Self_SSAM + Con_Other_SSAM + Uncon_anyone_SSAM

Dependent Variable: venting emotions



Model: Intercept + Threat_SAM + Chall_SAM + Centra_SAM + Con_Self_SSAM + Con_Other_SSAM + Uncon_anyone_SSAM



Model: Intercept + Threat_SAM + Chall_SAM + Centra_SAM + Con_Self_SSAM + Con_Other_SSAM + Uncon_anyone_SSAM

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION (HPER)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FOOTBALL COACHES AND PLAYERS IN THE 2019/2020 GHANA PREMIER LEAGUE

Dear Coach/Player

I am Medina Srem-Sai, a PhD (Physical Education) student at the Department of HPER, UCC. I am contacting you to participate in this academic research study titled: "Stress appraisals and coping styles among Ghana Premier league coaches and players" This Research aims to examine stressors, stress appraisals and coping styles among the 2019/2020 Ghana soccer premier league coaches and players.

This study requires that you complete a 79-item questionnaire. This may take 45minutes of your time. Your response will be analyzed and generalized.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to even stop answering the items should you find it necessary. Apart from your time, you are assured this study possesses no harm to you, your profession or family as all information provided will be kept confidential.

No information that will identify you is required.

If you fully understand your duties and agree to take part in this research, please sign in the space below

Signature……..

Date……

For any information contact my Supervisors Dr John Elvis Hagan Jnr. (0500058449) or Dr Prosper Narteh Ogum (0243514178).

You may also contact me (Medina) on 0208539518/0548497133 or medinasai81@gmail.com

Thank you for your participation.

SECTION A

Demographic information:

Age at last birthday…….

Name of Club……

Number of years playing at the premier level……

SECTION B

Organizational Stressor Indicator for Sport Performers (OSI-SP: Arnold et al., 2013)

15 minutes

Instructions: Each of the following questions describes the pressures that you have experienced as part of your participation in the 2020//2021 premier league in the past month.

Pressure is:

Those events, situations, or conditions that place a demand on you.

For each question, place a tick (√) to indicate how demanding this pressure was for you ("Intensity" column). The **scales** are; **0. No demand 1. Very low demand 2. Low demand 3. Moderate demand 4. High demand 5. Very high demand**

The questions contained within it will take about fifteen (15) minutes to complete. You are assured of confidentiality of your responses.

Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions because every sport performer is different and their environments are often changing.

In the past month, I have experienced pressure (s) associated with

1. The responsibilities that I have on my team 0 1 2 3 4 5
2. The relationship between my coach/player and I. 0 1 2 3 4 5
3. The regulations in my sport 0 1 2 3 4 5
4. My coach's/players personality 0 1 2 3 4 5
5. The accommodation used for training or competitions 0 1 2 3 4 5
6. The training or competition venue 0 1 2 3 4 5
7. The organization that governs and controls my sport 0 1 2 3 4 5
8. The atmosphere surrounding my team 0 1 2 3 4 5
9. How my team is selected 0 1 2 3 4 5
10. My teammates/other officials' attitudes 0 1 2 3 4 5
11. The spectators that watch me perform 0 1 2 3 4 5

12. The food that I eat 0 1 2 3 4 5
13. The shared beliefs of my teammates/other officials 0 1 2 3 4 5
14. What gets said or written about me in the media 0 1 2 3 4 5
15. Selection of my team for competition 0 1 2 3 4 5
16. My training schedule 0 1 2 3 4 5
17. The organization of the competitions that I perform in 0 1 2 3 4 5
18. Injuries 0 1 2 3 4 5
19. The funding allocations in my sport 0 1 2 3 4 5
20. The development of my sporting career 0 1 2 3 4 5
21. The technology used in my sport 0 1 2 3 4 5
22. Travelling to or from training or competitions 0 1 2 3 4 5
23. My goals 0 1 2 3 4 5

SECTION C

Stress Appraisal Measure (SAM; Edward J. Peacock & Paul T. P. Wong, 1989)

15 minutes

Instructions: This questionnaire is concerned with your thoughts about various aspects of the situations identified previously. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond according to how you view this situation right NOW. Please answer ALL questions. For each statement there are five alternative answers. Answer each question by CIRCLING the appropriate number corresponding to the following scale. 1. **Not at All 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Considerably 5. Extremely.**

1. Is this a totally hopeless situation? 1 2 3 4 5
2. Does this situation create tension in me? 1 2 3 4 5
3. Is the outcome of this situation uncontrollable by anyone? 1 2 3 4 5
4. Is there someone or some agency I can turn to for help if I need it? 1 2 3 4 5
5. Does this situation make me feel anxious? 1 2 3 4 5
6. Does this situation have important consequences for me? 1 2 3 4 5
7 Is this going to have a positive impact on me? 1 2 3 4 5
8 How eager am I to tackle this problem? 1 2 3 4 5
9 How much will I be affected by the outcome of this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
10 To what extent can I become a stronger person because of this problem? 1 2 3 4 5
11 Will the outcome of this situation be negative? 1 2 3 4 5
12 Do I have the ability to do well in this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
13 Does this situation have serious implications for me? 1 2 3 4 5
14 Do I have what it takes to do well in this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
15 Is there help available to me for dealing with this problem? 1 2 3 4 5
16 Does this situation tax or exceed my coping resources? 1 2 3 4 5
17 Are there sufficient resources available to help me in dealing with this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
18 Is it beyond anyone's power to do anything about this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
19 To what extent am I excited thinking about the outcome of this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
20 How threatening is this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
21 Is the problem unresolvable by anyone? 1 2 3 4 5
22 Will I be able to overcome the problem? 1 2 3 4 5
23 Is there anyone who can help me to manage this problem? 1 2 3 4 5
24 To what extent do I perceive this situation as stressful? 1 2 3 4 5
25 Do I have the skills necessary to achieve a successful outcome to this situation? 1 2 3 4 5
26 To what extent does this event require coping efforts on my part? 1 2 3 4 5
27 Does this situation have long-term consequences for me? 1 2 3 4 5
28 Is this going to have a negative impact on me? 1 2 3 4 5

SECTION C

Modified COPE (MCOPE; Crocker and Graham, 1995)

15 minutes

Instructions: This questionnaire is concerned with what you did in order to cope or deal with stressful situations in your coaching/playing role. Please take a minute to think again about how you felt during the last competition that you coached in/played in, specifically, the stressful situations that you encountered as a coach/player and what you did to handle the situation.

Below are series of statements. Please indicate (by circling the appropriate number) how much you used each strategy to handle the stressful situations you are thinking of (Scale 1: 1= Used very little/not at all, 2= Used a little, 3= Used Somewhat, 4= Used Much, and 5= Used very much). Please be informed that coaches as well as players vary in the sort of things they do to cope with or handle stressful situations, so please be aware that there are no right or wrong answers and answer as honestly as you can.

1. I asked other coaches/players what they did or would do 1 2 3 4 5
2. I talked to someone about how I felt 1 2 3 4 5
3. I blamed myself for the situation 1 2 3 4 5
4. I made a plan of action 1 2 3 4 5
5. I dealt only with my coaching/playing performance difficulties even if I had to forget other things 1 2 3 4 5
6. I felt a lot of upset feelings and I showed those feelings a lot 1 2 3 4 5
7. I tried to increase the quality of my performance 1 2 3 4 5
8. I tried really hard to do something about my performance 1 2 3 4 5

9. I talked to other coaches/players to find out more about my performance 1 2 3 4 5

10. I got support and understanding from someone 1 2 3 4 5

11. I thought hard about what steps to take to manage this situation 1 2 3 4 5

12. I got upset and let my feelings out 1 2 3 4 5

13. I put more effort into my coaching/playing performance 1 2 3 4 5

14. I did what had to be done, one step at a time 1 2 3 4 5

15. I tried to get help from someone about what to do 1 2 3 4 5

16. I talked about my feelings with someone 1 2 3 4 5

17. I decided I was at fault for my performance 1 2 3 4 5

18. I lost my cool and got upset 1 2 3 4 5

19. I tried to improve my effort 1 2 3 4 5

20. I took direct action to overcome the performance challenge 1 2 3 4 5

21. I talked to someone who could do something about my performance 1 2 3 4 5

22. I tried to get help from my coach/teammates to deal with my feelings 1 2 3 4 5

23. I took responsibility for what had happened 1 2 3 4 5

24. I tried to think about a plan about what to do 1 2 3 4 5

25. I let negative feelings out 1 2 3 4 5

26. I worked harder 1 2 3 4 5

27. I tried different things to improve 1 2 3 4 5

28. I told myself "this performance isn't real" 1 2 3 4 5

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX E

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT
TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309/ 0244207814
E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh
C/O Directorate of Research, Innovation and Consultancy

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/794
YOUR REF:
OMB NO: 0990-0279
IORG #: IORG0009096

28TH AUGUST, 2020

Ms. Medina Srem-Sai
Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation
University of Cape Coast

Dear Ms. Srem-Sai,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CES/2020/42)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for the implementation of your research protocol **Stress Appraisals and Coping Styles among Ghana Premier League Coaches and Players.** This approval is valid from 28th August, 2020 to 27th August, 2021. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD
UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST