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Athletic Performance and Recovery-Stress Factors in Cycling: An Ever Changing Balance

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Abstract

2	We sought to examine whether the relationship between recovery-stress factors and
3	performance would differ at the beginning (Stage 1) and the end (Final Stage) of a multi-stage
4	cycling competition. Sixty-seven cyclists with a mean age of 21.90 years ($SD = 1.60$) and
5	extensive international experience participated in the study. The cyclists responded to the
6	Recovery-Stress Questionnaire for Athletes (RESTQ-Sport) and rated their performance (1 =
7	<i>extremely poor</i> to $10 = excellent$) in respect to the first and last stage. Two step-down multiple
8	regression models were used to estimate the relationship among recovery (nine factors; e.g.,
9	Physical Recovery, Sleep Quality) and stress factors (10 factors; e.g., Lack of Energy, Physical
10	Complaints), as assessed by the RESTQ and in relation to performance. Model-1 pertained to
11	Stage 1, whereas Model-2 used data from the Final Stage. The final Model-1 revealed that
12	<i>Physical Recovery</i> (β = .46, p = .01), <i>Injury</i> (β =31, p = .01) and <i>General Well-being</i> (β =26,
13	$p = .04$) predicted performance in Stage 1 ($R^2 = .21$). The final Model-2 revealed a different
14	relationship between recovery-stress factors and performance. Specifically, being a <i>climber</i> (β =
15	.28, $p = .01$), <i>Conflicts/Pressure</i> ($\beta = .33$, $p = .01$), and <i>Lack of Energy</i> ($\beta =37$, $p = .01$) were
16	associated with performance at the Final Stage ($R^2 = .19$). Collectively, these results suggest that
17	the relationship among recovery and stress factors changes greatly over a relatively short period
18	of time, and dynamically influences performance in multi-stage competitions.

Key words: Recovery-Stress Balance, Cycling, RESTQ-Sport.

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Athletic Performance and Recovery-Stress Factors in Cycling: An Ever Changing Balance

The ability to balance recovery demands and stress stimuli is essential for the 25 development and maintenance of skilled performance in sports (Kellmann, 2010; Meeusen et al., 26 2013). Chronic underrecovery may lead to non-functional overreaching and, ultimately, to 27 overtraining and burnout (Meeusen et al., 2013). Accordingly, monitoring recovery-stress 28 29 balance is crucial to sport scientists and professionals (Di Fronso, Nakamura, Bortoli, Robazza, & Bertollo, 2013; Kellmann, 2002). Previous studies on recovery-stress balance have been based 30 primarily on pre-post mean comparison designs, thus capturing changes in recovery and stress 31 but failing to assess the relationship among various recovery (e.g., sleep quality, social 32 relaxation) and stress factors (e.g., emotional, social). However, the relationship among bio-33 psycho-social variables and performance outcomes should not be drawn on a one-to-one basis 34 (Cacioppo, Tassinary, & Berntson, 2007), but rather on a one-to-many basis, in the sense that 35 performance is usually influenced by multiple bio-psycho-social factors (Edmonds & 36 37 Tenenbaum, 2012).

Within the sport and exercise psychology domain, the importance of concurrently 38 assessing various recovery and stress factors is presented in Kellmann's (2002) Model of the 39 40 Interrelation between Stress States and Recovery Demands. In theory, Kellmann posits that the 41 interrelation among recovery demands and stress states should be balanced if athletes aim to perform optimally during competitions. In practice, it means that upon an increase in stressors 42 43 throughout the season (e.g., social stress such as pressure from coaches and media), athletes should counterbalance by engaging in various forms of passive (e.g., sleeping in), active (e.g., 44 45 stretching) and pro-active (e.g., travelling to visit family and friends) recovery activities. When unable to balance recovery demands and stress states (i.e., high stress/low recovery; low
stress/high recovery), athletes are more likely to perform poorly.

Kellmann's Model of the Interrelation between Stress States and Recovery Demands has 48 been psychometrically operationalized through the Recovery-Stress Questionnaire for Athletes 49 (RESTQ-Sport; for a review Kellmann & Kallus, 2001). This questionnaire is composed of 50 general stress (e.g., Physical Complaints) and recovery scales (e.g., Physical Recovery), as well 51 as sport specific stress (e.g., Injury) and recovery (e.g., Self-Efficacy) scales. The RESTO-Sport 52 was designed to target athletes', rather than coaches', subjective perception of recovery factors 53 and stress states. This is particularly important because athletes' and coaches' assessment of 54 training load tends to differ (Ardua & Márquez, 2007). Furthermore, the RESTQ-Sport has been 55 used by sport scientists and practitioners, as it allows for the establishment of a multilayered 56 57 recovery-stress profile (Davis, Orzeck, & Keelan, 2007; Di Fronso et al., 2013; Lombardi et al., 2013). 58

Previous research on recovery-stress balance in sports has focused on comparing 59 recovery-stress scores (pre-post designs) across different training periods (e.g., pre-season, in-60 season, post-season). Overall, results suggest that recovery and stress scores fluctuate greatly 61 throughout the competitive season (Brink, Visscher, Coutts, & Lemmink, 2012; Di Fronso et al., 62 2013; Kellmann, Altenburg, Lormes, & Steinacker, 2001). In regards to elite cyclists, 63 underrecovery has been found to be negatively related to performance and perception of effort 64 (Halson et al., 2002). Furthermore, recovery-stress unbalance has been found to have a strong 65 negative effect on Olympic cyclists' performance (Gould & Dieffenbach, 2002). 66 Maintaining a healthy recovery-stress balance is paramount in multi-stage competitions, 67

68 when athletes are exposed to high-stress demands over extensive periods of time (Filho et al.,

2013; Lombardi et al., 2013). In particular, cyclists' performance and perceived bio-psycho-69 70 social states have been found to vary greatly over multi-stage competitions (Filho et al., 2013). Moreover, the different environmental characteristics proper to each competition stage have been 71 72 shown to influence athletes' overall performance capability (Lombardi et al., 2013). In this context, we aimed to explore the relationship between cyclists' bio-psycho-social states and 73 performance in a multi-stage cycling competition. Specifically, we aimed at addressing the 74 question: "Does the relationship among several perceived recovery-stress states and performance 75 outcomes change in a multi-stage cycling competition?" More specifically, we sought to 76 77 examine whether the relationship among recovery-stress factors and performance would differ at the beginning (i.e., stage 1) and end (i.e., final stage) of the Girobio, an international multi-stage 78 cycling competition. Given the exploratory nature of our study, we refrained from proposing 79 80 specific hypotheses. We expected that the final regression models for the first and last stages would differ akin to the overarching theoretical notion that recovery-stress factors are dynamic 81 and tend to change greatly over time (Kellmann, 2010). 82

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Methods

84 **Participants**

Institutional ethical approval was obtained prior to the commencement of the study, and 85 86 in agreement with the Helsinki Declaration. All athletes participating in the Girobio-2012 were 87 briefed on the purposes of the study during the technical meeting preceding the start of the race. Cyclists interested in the study received further information about its objectives and procedures, 88 89 and signed an informed consent sheet. Of the 170 cyclists who entered the Girobio-2012, 78 90 finished the race and agreed to complete the two administrations of the RESTO-Sport. On 91 average, the cyclists had 11.23 years of cycling experience (SD = 5.90) and were approximately 92 22 years of age (M = 21.90, SD = 1.60). The cyclists were from four different countries (i.e.,

93 Italy, Netherlands, Switzerland, and United States) and represented 25 different racing teams.

94 The majority of the cyclists who participated in the study were *puncheurs* (n = 38, 48.7%),

followed by *all-rounders* (n = 13, 16.7%), *climbers* (n = 12, 15.4%) and *sprinters* (n = 3, 3.8%).

96 Twelve cyclists (15.4%) did not report their riding specialty.

97 Measures

98 **Demographic survey.** Demographic information about the athletes' *age*, *nationality*, and 99 *team affiliation* was collected. Athletes were also asked to indicate what *type of cyclists* (*all-*100 *rounder*, *climber*, *puncheur*, or *sprinter*) they considered themselves to be.

101 **RESTQ-Sport** (Kellmann & Kallus, 2001). The RESTQ-Sport was designed to measure

the frequency that athletes experience stress states as well as recovery-related activities and

103 contains 77 items pertaining to 19 scales. Specifically, the RESTQ-Sport consists of (a) seven

104 general stress scales (i.e., General Stress, Emotional Stress, Social Stress, Conflicts/Pressure,

105 Fatigue, Lack of Energy, Physical Complaints), (b) five general recovery scales (i.e., Success,

106 Social Recovery, Physical Recovery, General Well-being, Sleep-Quality), (c) three stress sport-

107 specific scales (i.e., Disturbed Breaks, Emotional Exhaustion, Injury), and (d) four sport-specific

108 recovery scales (i.e., Being in Shape, Personal Accomplishment, Self-Efficacy, Self-Regulation).

109 Each scale contains four items, measured using a Likert-type scale with anchors 0 (never) and 6

110 (*always*). All items were preceded by the stem "in the past 3 days/nights...", and worded in

simple language aimed at facilitating grammatical understanding. Sample items include: "I was

angry with someone" (*Social Stress*), and "I had a good time with my friends" (*Social Recovery*).

113 Previous psychometric assessments have supported the factorial structure (i.e., recovery and

stress), internal consistency, and test-retest reliability of the RESTQ-Sport (Davis et al., 2007;

Performance. Subjective performance represented the dependent variable in the step-117 down regression analysis adopted in this study. After the completion of the first and final stage, 118 the athletes were asked to report their perceived performance on a Likert scale ranging from 1 119 (extremely poor) to 10 (excellent). It is important to note that subjective reports may better 120 represent athletes' performance experiences in some sports (Chelladurai, 2007). Purely objective 121 scores do not account for myriad situational factors, such as outstanding performance from peers 122 and opponents, bad weather, and stage conditions (e.g., flat, low-mountain, and high-mountain). 123 In the present study, final ranking was negatively correlated with subjective performance for 124 both Stage 1 (Spearman's r = -.33) and Stage 2 (Spearman's r = -.39), corroborating the notion 125 126 that objective and subjective performance are not positively related constructs, and dependent on individuals' role within a team. 127

128 **Procedures**

129 Data were collected during the Girobio-2012. The race included nine stages of various lengths and diverse topographies, and covered approximately 1,300 kilometers (for a review see 130 Lombardi et al., 2013). The stages varied in length and involved flat (Stages 1, 2 and 7), low-131 mountain (Stages 3, 4, 5 and 6), and high-mountain (Stages 8 and 9) terrains. Specifically, the 132 stages ranged from 75.6 km to 193.3 km in length (M = 148.82, SD = 33.67), and from 642 m to 133 5190 m in elevation (M = 2617.78, SD = 1576.93). The first assessment of the athletes' RESTQ-134 Sport (Stage 1), as well as the administration of the demographic survey, occurred one day prior 135 to the first stage of the race. The second assessment (Final Stage) occurred one day prior to the 136 137 last stage. Whereas RESTO-Sport data was collected prior to the race, performance data was

138	collected immediately following the first and last stage in congruence with the notion that
139	athletes' subjective reports tend to be more reliable when reported closely after performance
140	(Tenenbaum, Lloyd, Pretty, & Hanin, 2002). During all data collections the cyclists were
141	instructed to be serious and truthful in their responses. Two trained scholars administered the
142	questionnaires in a quiet environment. Coaches and journalists were not allowed in the room
143	during the data collection to ensure the comfort and privacy of the participants. The interval
144	between stages was 10 days. This time frame was deemed appropriate as the RESTQ-Sport is a
145	state-oriented measure aimed at capturing recovery and stress states over a period of
146	approximately three days or nights (see Kellmann & Kallus, 2001).
147	Results
148	Descriptive and Correlational Analyses
149	Means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients for all recovery and stress factors
113	fromis, sumaira de futions, una correlation coefficients for un recovery una sitess fuctors
150	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among
150	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among
150 151	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and
150 151 152	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and recovery factors. Similarly, coefficients among recovery factors (general and sport specific) were
150 151 152 153	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and recovery factors. Similarly, coefficients among recovery factors (general and sport specific) were higher among themselves, than in comparison to scores among recovery and stress related
150 151 152 153 154	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and recovery factors. Similarly, coefficients among recovery factors (general and sport specific) were higher among themselves, than in comparison to scores among recovery and stress related factors. Specifically, significant correlations among general stress scales ranged from .31 (<i>Social</i>
150 151 152 153 154 155	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and recovery factors. Similarly, coefficients among recovery factors (general and sport specific) were higher among themselves, than in comparison to scores among recovery and stress related factors. Specifically, significant correlations among general stress scales ranged from .31 (<i>Social</i> <i>Stress</i> and <i>Fatigue</i>) to .70 (<i>General Stress</i> and <i>Social Stress</i>) for Stage 1, and from .28 (<i>Social</i>
150 151 152 153 154 155 156	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and recovery factors. Similarly, coefficients among recovery factors (general and sport specific) were higher among themselves, than in comparison to scores among recovery and stress related factors. Specifically, significant correlations among general stress scales ranged from .31 (<i>Social</i> <i>Stress</i> and <i>Fatigue</i>) to .70 (<i>General Stress</i> and <i>Social Stress</i>) for Stage 1, and from .28 (<i>Social</i> <i>Stress</i> and <i>Fatigue</i>) to .69 (<i>Emotional Stress</i> and <i>Lack of Energy</i>) for the Final Stage. Correlation
150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157	are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and recovery factors. Similarly, coefficients among recovery factors (general and sport specific) were higher among themselves, than in comparison to scores among recovery and stress related factors. Specifically, significant correlations among general stress scales ranged from .31 (<i>Social</i> <i>Stress</i> and <i>Fatigue</i>) to .70 (<i>General Stress</i> and <i>Social Stress</i>) for Stage 1, and from .28 (<i>Social</i> <i>Stress</i> and <i>Fatigue</i>) to .69 (<i>Emotional Stress</i> and <i>Lack of Energy</i>) for the Final Stage. Correlation coefficients for sport-specific stress scales were between .39 (<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i> and <i>Injury</i>)

161 Recovery) to .58 (Physical Recovery and General Well-being) for Stage 1, and from .39 (Success 162 and Social Recovery) to .68 (Social Recovery and General Well-being) for the Final Stage. Lastly, correlation coefficients for sport-specific stress scales were between .65 (Being in Shape 163 164 and Self-Efficacy) and .71 (Being in Shape and Self-Regulation) for Stage 1, and .58 (Being in Shape and Personal Accomplishment) to .75 (Being in Shape and Self-Regulation) for the Final 165 Stage. Altogether, these findings indicate that the relationship among recovery and stress factors 166 is subject to change over time. To examine how such a relationship could have a varying degree 167 of influence on performance from Stage 1 to the Final Stage, we performed a series of step-down 168 169 multiple regression analyses.

170 **Regression Analyses**

We adopted a step-down regression analysis, which is considered a robust procedure as it combines theory and data driven approaches (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2002). Foremost, this analytical approach is consistent with the importance of exploring the dynamic balance involving recovery and stress factors, in respect to performance in sports (Filho et al., 2013; Kellmann, 2010; Meeusen et al., 2013; Shrier & Hallé, 2011).

All assumptions were checked prior to running the regression analysis. Residuals were 176 randomly dispersed around the independent variables. The outcome variables were relatively 177 normally distributed with skewness and kurtosis values of -.29 and -.47 for Stage 1, and .64 and 178 .33 for the Final Stage. As presented in Tables 2 and 3, correlation among variables was below 179 the cutoff point of .80 (r = -.69 to .46), suggesting that multicollinearity was not a major concern. 180 Estimates of internal consistency were also computed for each scale in regards to Stage 1 and the 181 Final Stage. Scales with poor internal consistency (i.e., $\alpha \le .60$) were not entered in the 182 183 regression models to prevent biases due to large measurement error (Cohen et al., 2002).

For both stages, demographic variables were entered in the first exploratory model 187 (Model 1) to control for and assess the influence of *age* and *type of cyclist*. Whereas *age* is a 188 continuous variable, type of cyclists was sub-divided and dummy coded for all-rounders ($0 = n_0$, 189 190 1 = yes, climbers (0 = no, 1 = yes), puncheurs (0 = no, 1 = yes), and sprinters (0 = no, 1 = yes). Any variable that reached marginal significance was retained in the exploratory Model 2, which 191 also included all recovery and stress related factors. Subsequently, all significant predictors of 192 performance, as well as variables with marginal significance, $.05 \le p \ge .15$, were further tested in 193 Model 3 akin to previous research in the sport literature (Umbach, Palmer, Kuh, & Hannah, 194 195 2006). Congruent with guidelines on parsimonious statistical modeling (Cohen et al., 2002), Final Model 4 contained only significant predictors contributing to explained variance and 196 overall model fit. 197 198 Stage 1. Model 1 included demographic variables only, precisely age and type of cyclists. Model 1 did not reach statistical significance, F(5, 69) = 1.93, p = .10. However, the dummy 199 variable *sprinter* ($\beta = -.23$, p = .07) approached significance and was retained and included in 200 Model 2 along with all recovery and stress factors. Although Model 2 reached statistical 201 significance, F(17, 60) = 1.79, p = .05, the variable *sprinter* and the majority of the recovery and 202 stress factors were not statistically related to performance (see Table 4). In adopting a 203 conservative approach, we kept all predictors with $p \le .15$ in Model 3, due to the fact that the 204 partial correlation among predictors may change as variables are eliminated from the regression 205

model (Cohen et al., 2002). Although Model 3 was statistically significant, F(5, 72) = 4.66, p =

207 .01, *Conflicts/Pressure*, and *Fatigue* were still not found to predict performance for $p \le .05$.

Accordingly, we retained only significant predictors in Model 4, F(3, 74) = 6.43, p = .01.

209 Specifically, *Physical Recovery* ($\beta = .44$, p = .01), *Injury* ($\beta = -.31$, p = .01), and *General Well*-

210 *being* ($\beta = -.26$, p = .04), were found to significantly predict 21% of the variance in subjective

211 performance for Stage 1 (see Table 4). Tolerance and variance inflation values were below 1.0

and 2.0, respectively, further suggesting that multicollinearity was not an issue.

Final Stage. We adopted the same rationale for regressing demographic variables and 213 recovery-stress factors onto performance scores. Although Model 1 reached statistical 214 significance, F(5, 69) = 2.43, p = .04, only the dummy variable *climber* was statistically related 215 to performance. Accordingly, in Model 2 we retained *climber* while adding all recovery and 216 stress factors to the regression equation. Model 2 did not converge to a reliable solution, F(18, 100)217 218 59) = 1.48, p = .13. In Model 3 we maintained all predictors that had approached significance (i.e., $p \le .15$) in Model 2. Specifically, Model 3 included *climber*, *Conflicts/Pressure*, *Lack of* 219 *Energy* and *Self-Efficacy*. Although Model 3 was statistically significant, F(4, 73) = 4.63, p =220 221 .01, Self-Efficacy failed to reach significant results and was excluded from the Final Model 4, F (3, 74) = 5.87, p = .01. Only climber ($\beta = .28, p = .01$), Conflicts/Pressure ($\beta = .33, p = .01$), and 222 *Lack of Energy* ($\beta = -.37$, p = .01) were found to predict performance for the Final Stage. The 223 total explained variance was 19% (see Table 4). Tolerance and variance inflation values were .64 224 and 1.57, respectively, and thus multicollinearity was not an issue. 225

226

Discussion

We examined whether the relationship between recovery-stress factors and performance would differ at the beginning and end of a multi-stage cycling competition. Initial correlational analyses suggested that the relationship among recovery and stress factors changed over time. Overall, the correlation pattern across recovery and stress factors was unique for Stage 1 and the Final Stage. However, the association between *Being in Shape* and *Self-Regulation* was of strong magnitude ($r \le .70$) for both Stage 1 and the Final Stage. In fact, the ability to self-regulate is essential to enable individuals to stay physically and mentally fit (Filho et al., 2013; Robazza, Pellizzari, & Hanin, 2004). Therefore, future studies should further examine the direction of this relationship to determine whether self-regulation enables *Being in Shape* or vice-versa. Stepdown multiple regression models further indicated that the relationship among recovery and stress factors changed greatly from the first to the last stage of the race.

238 Stage 1

For Stage 1, *Physical Recovery* (β = .44) was the most important predictor of performance, followed by *Injury* (β = -.31) and *General Well-being* (β = -.26). To this extent, it is well-established that athletes should be (and feel) physically recovered in the competitive phase of the periodization cycle; this being the reason why tapering occurs prior to major competitions (Di Fronso et al., 2013; Gould & Dieffenbach, 2002; Kellmann, 2010). It has also been empirically established that athletes without injuries usually outperform their opponents (Meeusen et al., 2013; Shrier & Hallé, 2011).

The negative relationship between *General Well-being* and performance, a seemly 246 counterintuitive relationship, may be a result of the four items of this scale ("I was in good 247 spirits"; "I was in a good mood"; "I felt happy"; and "I felt content") measuring affective states 248 rather than general bio-psycho-social health status. In this regard, extant research on the 249 Individual Zones of Optimal Functioning framework suggests that athletes are able to perform 250 optimally even under unpleasant affective states (Hanin, 2007). From an applied standpoint, this 251 finding reinforces the notion that sport practitioners should help athletes to identify their 252 253 idiosyncratic affective profile, as pleasant emotions are not always linked to optimal

performance. In fact, recent research in sport psychology suggests that athletes should have
multi-action plans in order to cope with unpleasant states while sustaining exertion in endurance
cycling (Comani et al., 2014).

257 Final Stage

For the Final Stage, *climber* was found to be positively related to performance. It is 258 understandable that climbers perceived performance differently than other types of riders, given 259 that the final stage was a high-mountain stage, where climbers would likely perform well. 260 Overall, it is noteworthy that different types of cyclists may perceive performance differently and 261 that these differences are likely related to contextual factors (i.e., type of stage, such as flat, low-262 mountain, and high-mountain). In fact, there is empirical evidence across sports that one's role 263 within a team influences subjective performance ratings (Carron, Eys, & Burke, 2007; Filho, 264 265 Gershgoren, Basevitch, & Tenenbaum, 2014). Accordingly, both researchers and practitioners should consider self-perceived subjective ratings in designing research and operationalizing 266 periodization cycles in sports. 267

For the Final Stage, *Lack of Energy* and *Conflicts/Pressure* were found to be negatively 268 and positively related to performance, respectively. Thus, the ability to mobilize all available 269 mental and physical energy resources is crucial for optimal performance at the end of the race. 270 Mental skills regimens, in particular relaxation routines and attention control training (see Orlick, 271 2008), may help athletes replenish energy prior to the final stage, and save energy during the race 272 by focusing on certain cues. The positive relationship between Conflicts/Pressure and 273 performance has ample support in both classic and contemporary sport psychology literature 274 (Eklund & Tenenbaum, 2013; Jones, Swain, & Hardy, 1993). Sport psychologists have long 275 argued that pressure to perform ("fight or flight") may be facilitative rather than debilitative to 276

athletic performance, particularly among elite athletes participating in high-stakes competition
(Fletcher & Hanton, 2001; Swain & Jones, 1996). Cyclists that made it to the last stage may have
adopted a positive frame of mind, choosing to embrace the pressure and stay committed to the
race (mindfulness-acceptance approach; see Gardner & Moore, 2004), rather than abandoning
the stage.

Generally, findings from this study suggest that the linkage between recovery-stress 282 factors and performance is dynamic in nature, an ever-changing balance. These findings 283 corroborate the notion that athletes' performance in multi-stage competitions are partially 284 dependent on their self-perceived bio-psycho-social states (Di Fronso et al., 2013; Filho et al., 285 2013). During multi-stage competitions athletes are exposed to different challenges (e.g., 286 different terrains and temperatures) that influence their ability to consistently obtain peak 287 288 performance while maintaining a healthy recovery-stress balance. Thus, coaches and sport practitioners should closely monitor how changes in athletes' bio-psycho-social profile influence 289 performance in multi-stage competitions. Athletes with little competitive experience and 290 291 minimal coping skills may benefit greatly from receiving specific feedback about how to balance recovery and stress during extensive multi-stage competitions. 292

293 Limitations, Implications and Future Directions

This study is not without limitations. First, we were unable to collect additional psychological and physiological data, as time with the athletes was limited. Second, the relatively small sample size might have interfered with the reliability of a few RESTQ-Sport scales, as previously detailed. We adopted a convenience sample strategy by collecting data in situ. Ideally, future studies should be based on larger sample sizes defined through a priori power analysis. Notwithstanding, the complexity of a field study with elite cyclists during an extended, 300 multi-stage competition made it difficult to collect data for a larger number of athletes while301 including multiple methodological controls.

Despite these limitations, our study advanced research in sport and exercise psychology 302 by looking at the relationship of recovery-stress factors rather than focusing primarily on mean 303 comparison. From a theoretical standpoint, our findings reinforce the notion that performance is 304 influenced by myriad recovery-stress factors that are not stable, but rather change dynamically 305 over relatively short periods of time (Kellmann, 2002, 2010; Kellmann & Kallus, 2001). It is 306 particularly noteworthy that general recovery factors explained most of the variance of 307 performance in the First Stage, whereas general stress factors were more relevant in the Final 308 Stage. From an applied standpoint, these findings highlight the importance of considering the 309 interaction of recovery-stress factors when developing periodization programs in sports. It is 310 311 important to ensure that athletes are fully recovered prior to competition in agreement with the overarching notion of training periodization. Moreover, coping skills might be particularly 312 important in multi-day competitions, especially during the final stages. 313

In addition to targeting larger samples and implementing multiple psycho-physiological 314 controls, future studies should consider mid-race assessments that can be statistically integrated 315 with pre- and post-assessments through longitudinal growth models. Researchers should also 316 compare top to bottom cyclists' objective performance markers (i.e., time, final rank) in order to 317 advance the knowledge of recovery and stress factors as predictors of expert performance in 318 cycling. Moreover, additional studies comparing the bio-psycho-social profile of the different 319 types of cyclists may advance specific performance psychology guidelines applied to all-320 rounders, climbers, puncheurs, and sprinters. Specifically, scholars could examine whether 321 322 different types of cyclists favor different recovery strategies (i.e., active, passive, pro-active).

- 323 The inclusion of other psychological measures, such as rating of perceived exertion, and
- 324 physiological assessments may help to form a more complete understanding of recovery-stress
- balance in endurance sports. Finally, investigating the relationship of recovery-stress factors with
- 326 group-related constructs (e.g., cohesion in cycling teams) and objective performance may
- 327 advance our knowledge on the profile of high-performing teams in endurance sports.

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Descriptive and Correlational Matrix of Stress and Recovery Factors, Girobio Stage 1

Stress / Recovery	М	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [†]	8	9	10	11^{\dagger}	12	13	14	15	16	17^{\dagger}	18	19	20
General Stress																						
1. General Stress	0.89	0.92	1	$.60^{*}$.62*	.55*	$.49^{*}$.57*		.45*	.69*	.21		22	28*	42*	26*	23*		14	17	11
2. Emotional Stress	1.17	0.94		1	$.70^{*}$	$.40^{*}$.41*	.62*		.32*	.54*	.29*		24*	17	45*	39*	10		08	-0.2	.02
3. Social Stress	1.10	1.10			1	.34*	.31*	.63*		.36*	$.58^{*}$.13		09	16	35*	28*	13		.07	09	02
4. Conflicts/Pressure	2.07	1.11				1	.41*	.42*		.42*	$.30^{*}$.24*		06	01	17	25*	.06		06	.04	14
5. Fatigue	1.44	0.96					1	.36*		.44*	.57*	$.50^{*}$		04	25*	20	43*	12		09	.03	12
6. Lack of Energy	1.09	0.80						1		.37*	.55*	.36*		11	-19	36*	26*	12		05	10	08
7. Physical Complaints [†]																						
Sport Specific Stress																						
8. Disturbed Breaks	1.27	0.92								1	.47*	$.40^{*}$		02	09	24*	28*	19		08	16	23*
9. Emotional																						
Exhaustion	1.22	0.97									1	.39*		09	24*	25*	31*	13		03	03	22*
10. Injury	1.84	0.78										1		.15	.01	.01	19	.19		.15	.25*	28*
General Recovery																						
11. Success [†]																						
12. Social Recovery	3.55	1.26												1	.33*	.49*	.11	$.28^{*}$.10	.32*	03
13. Physical Recovery	3.03	0.93													1	$.58^{*}$.46*	$.68^{*}$.61*	.64*	.27*
14. General Well-being	3.54	1.12														1	.44*	$.68^{*}$.61*	.64*	01
15. Sleep Quality	3.94	0.89															1	.39*		.35*	.24*	.17
Sport Specific Recovery																						
16. Being in Shape	3.22	1.14																1		.65*	.79*	.17
17. Personal																						
Accomplishment [†]																						
18. Self-Efficacy	2.86	1.07																		1	.73*	.18
19. Self-Regulation	3.10	1.12																			1	.16
20. Performance	5.82	2.27																			-	1
$*n < 05 \cdot **n < 01$		-																				

*p < .05; **p < .01Note. [†]These scales were not considered in the analysis of Stage 1 due to low internal consistency (i.e., $\alpha \le .60$).

2 Descriptive and Correlational Matrix of Stress and Recovery Factors, Final Stage

3

Stress / Recovery	М	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [†]	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15 [†]	16	17	18	19	20
General Stress																						
1. General Stress	1.82	1.29	1	.63*	.45*	$.56^{*}$	$.49^{*}$	$.60^{*}$.47*	$.68^{*}$.47*	.12	17	18	41*		15	.06	.00	07	-06
2. Emotional Stress	1.76	1.19		1	.65*	$.60^{*}$.38*	.69*		.42*	.53*	.34*	.24*	12	06	34*		02	.12	.09	.04	06
3. Social Stress	1.88	1.47			1	.42*	$.28^{*}$	$.67^{*}$.22	.44*	$.24^{*}$.23*	.01	.01	11		.06	.07	.11	.04	14
4. Conflicts/Pressure	2.12	1.09				1	.41*	$.60^{*}$.37*	$.49^{*}$.34*	$.48^{*}$.25*	.11	07		.19	$.27^{*}$.25*	$.26^{*}$.14
5. Fatigue	2.90	1.46					1	$.30^{*}$.61*	.55*	.64*	$.28^{*}$.13	08	02		.02	.31*	$.28^{*}$.21	08
 6. Lack of Energy 7. Physical Complaints[†] 	1.48	0.95						1		.37*	.50*	.28*	.35*	05	04	16		.07	.08	.14	.03	17
Sport Specific Stress																						
8. Disturbed Breaks	2.41	1.40								1	.46*	.45*	.20	.12	04	11		.04	$.28^{*}$	$.28^{*}$.20	11
9. Emotional Exhaustion	1.98	1.18									1	$.60^{*}$.11	07	20	22		.01	.01	.05	07	14
10. Injury	2.64	1.23										1	.16	.20	07	.06		05	.22	.19	.11	17
General Recovery																						
11. Success	2.17	1.13											1	.39*	.54*	.43*		.59*	.56*	.67*	.62*	.10
12. Social Recovery	3.18	1.35												1	$.48^{*}$	$.68^{*}$.53*	.62*	.49*	.56*	.15
13. Physical Recovery	2.42	0.93													1	$.58^{*}$.66*	.44*	$.56^{*}$.61*	.09
14. General Well-being	2.91	1.20														1		.59*	.43*	.41*	.52*	.15
15. Sleep Quality [†]																						
Sport Specific Recovery																						
16. Being in Shape 17. Personal	2.57	1.18																1	.58*	.73*	.75*	.11
Accomplishment	2.46	1.16																	1	.64*	.71*	.15
18. Self-Efficacy	2.40	1.14																	1	1	.74*	09
19. Self-Regulation	2.70	1.20																		1	., 4	.14
20. Performance	6.42	1.60																			1	1
1 * . 05 ** . 01																						

4 **p* < .05; ***p* < .01

5 Note. [†]These scales were not considered in the analysis of the Final Stage due to low internal consistency (i.e., $\alpha \le .60$).

Variables	N	Iodel 1		Ν	Iodel 2		Ν	Aodel 3		Mo	Model 4 (Final)			
variables	В	β	р	В	В	р	В	β	р	В	β	р		
Demographics														
Age	.13	.10	.43											
All-rounder	-1.19	19	.19											
Climber	1.03	.17	.26											
Puncheur	18	04	.82											
Sprinter	-3.21	23	.07	.22	.02	.88								
General Stress														
General Stress				.14	.06	.77								
Emotional Stress				.29	.12	.52								
Social Stress				05	02	.89								
Conflicts/Pressure				53	26	.10	36	18	.12					
Fatigue				.70	.30	.06	.49	.21	.12					
Lack of Energy				.30	.10	.52								
Phys. Complaints [†]														
Sport-Specific Stress														
Disturbed Breaks				11	04	.76								
Emot. Exhaustion				58	25	.18								
Injury				-1.23	42	.01	-1.10	37	.01	89	31	.(
General Recovery														
Success [†]														
Social Recovery				.06	.04	.79								
Phys. Recovery				.82	.33	.06	1.24	.51	.01	1.07	.44	.(
Gen. Well-being				89	44	.03	58	29	.03	52	26	.(
Sleep Quality				.20	.08	.58								
Sport-Specific Recovery														
Being in Shape				.54	.27	.22								
Person. Accomp. [†]														
Self-Efficacy				17	08	.66								
Self-Regulation				.30	.15	.52								
R^2		.12			.34*			.24**			.21**			

3 **p* < .05; ***p* < .01

4 Note. [†]These scales were not considered in the analysis of Stage 1 due to low internal consistency values.

3

2 Regression Analysis of Recovery and Stress Factors on Cycling Performance, Final Stage

Model 1 Model 2 Model 3 Model 4 (Final) Variables В β р В В р В β В β pр **Demographics** Age .03 .04 .76 All-rounder .03 .83 .14 Climber .38 1.16 .01 1.0 .23 .09 1.16 .26 .01 1.22 .28 .01 Puncheur .37 .49 .11 Sprinter -1.52 -.15 .21 General Stress General Stress .21 .38 .17 **Emotional Stress** .02 .01 .94 Social Stress -.09 -.08 .61 Conflicts/Pressure .48 .33 .09 .53 .36 .01 .48 .33 .01 Fatigue .07 .06 .72 .01 Lack of Energy -.50 -.30 .14 -.37 .01 -.62 -.37 -.62 Phys. Complaints[†] Sport-Specific Stress **Disturbed Breaks** -.05 -.05 .75 Emot. Exhaustion -.11 -.08 .66 -.20 -.15 .38 Injury General Recovery Success .03 .02 .91 Social Recovery -.08 -.07 .74 Phy. Recovery -.05 -0.3 .85 Gen. Well-being .27 .20 .36 Sleep Quality[†] Sport Specific Recovery Being in Shape .17 .12 .56 Person. Accomp. .33 .24 .21 Self-Efficacy -.55 -.39 .08 .34 -.15 -.10 Self-Regulation .05 .04 .87 .19** R^2 .15 .31 .20**

4 p < .05; p < .01

5 Note. [†]These scales were not considered in the analysis of the Final-Stage due to low internal consistency values.