



## Article

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

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## Abstract

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

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

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

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

38           Within the sport and exercise psychology domain, the importance of concurrently  
39 assessing various recovery and stress factors is presented in Kellmann's (2002) Model of the  
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  
42 perform optimally during competitions. In practice, it means that upon an increase in stressors  
43 throughout the season (e.g., social stress such as pressure from coaches and media), athletes  
44 should counterbalance by engaging in various forms of passive (e.g., sleeping in), active (e.g.,  
45 stretching) and pro-active (e.g., travelling to visit family and friends) recovery activities. When

46 unable to balance recovery demands and stress states (i.e., high stress/low recovery; low  
47 stress/high recovery), athletes are more likely to perform poorly.

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

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

67 Maintaining a healthy recovery-stress balance is paramount in multi-stage competitions,  
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-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 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 performance in a multi-stage cycling competition. Specifically, we aimed at addressing the question: "Does the relationship among several perceived recovery-stress states and performance outcomes change in a multi-stage cycling competition?" More specifically, we sought to 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 cycling competition. Given the exploratory nature of our study, we refrained from proposing 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 and tend to change greatly over time (Kellmann, 2010).

## Methods

### Participants

Institutional ethical approval was obtained prior to the commencement of the study, and in agreement with the Helsinki Declaration. All athletes participating in the Girobio-2012 were 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, and signed an informed consent sheet. Of the 170 cyclists who entered the Girobio-2012, 78 finished the race and agreed to complete the two administrations of the RESTQ-Sport. On average, the cyclists had 11.23 years of cycling experience ( $SD = 5.90$ ) and were approximately 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* ( $n = 38, 48.7\%$ ),  
95 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  
102 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  
111 simple language aimed at facilitating grammatical understanding. Sample items include: "I was  
112 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  
114 stress), internal consistency, and test-retest reliability of the RESTQ-Sport (Davis et al., 2007;

115 Kellmann & Kallus, 2001). Moreover, the questionnaire has high face and predictive validity in  
116 regards to underrecovery and overtraining states in sports (Kellmann & Kallus, 2001).

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

## 128 **Procedures**

129 Data were collected during the Girobio-2012. The race included nine stages of various  
130 lengths and diverse topographies, and covered approximately 1,300 kilometers (for a review see  
131 Lombardi et al., 2013). The stages varied in length and involved flat (Stages 1, 2 and 7), low-  
132 mountain (Stages 3, 4, 5 and 6), and high-mountain (Stages 8 and 9) terrains. Specifically, the  
133 stages ranged from 75.6 km to 193.3 km in length ( $M = 148.82$ ,  $SD = 33.67$ ), and from 642 m to  
134 5190 m in elevation ( $M = 2617.78$ ,  $SD = 1576.93$ ). The first assessment of the athletes' RESTQ-  
135 Sport (Stage 1), as well as the administration of the demographic survey, occurred one day prior  
136 to the first stage of the race. The second assessment (Final Stage) occurred one day prior to the  
137 last stage. Whereas RESTQ-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  
150 are given in Table 2 (Stage 1) and Table 3 (Final Stage). Overall, correlation coefficients among  
151 stress related factors (general and sport specific) were higher than coefficients among stress and  
152 recovery factors. Similarly, coefficients among recovery factors (general and sport specific) were  
153 higher among themselves, than in comparison to scores among recovery and stress related  
154 factors. Specifically, significant correlations among general stress scales ranged from .31 (*Social*  
155 *Stress and Fatigue*) to .70 (*General Stress and Social Stress*) for Stage 1, and from .28 (*Social*  
156 *Stress and Fatigue*) to .69 (*Emotional Stress and Lack of Energy*) for the Final Stage. Correlation  
157 coefficients for sport-specific stress scales were between .39 (*Emotional Exhaustion and Injury*)  
158 and .47 (*Disturbed Breaks and Emotional Exhaustion*) for Stage 1, and between .45 (*Disturbed*  
159 *Breaks and Injury*) to .60 (*Emotional Exhaustion and Injury*) for the Final Stage. Correlation  
160 coefficients among general recovery scales ranged from .33 (*Social Recovery and Physical*



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

### 170 **Regression Analyses**

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

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

184 Specifically, the scales *Success*, *Physical Complaints* and *Personal Accomplishment* were not  
185 included in the analysis for Stage 1, whereas *Physical Complaints* and *Sleep Quality* were not  
186 considered in the analysis for the Final Stage.

187 For both stages, demographic variables were entered in the first exploratory model  
188 (Model 1) to control for and assess the influence of *age* and *type of cyclist*. Whereas *age* is a  
189 continuous variable, *type of cyclists* was sub-divided and dummy coded for *all-rounders* (0 = no,  
190 1 = yes), *climbers* (0 = no, 1 = yes), *puncheurs* (0 = no, 1 = yes), and *sprinters* (0 = no, 1 = yes).  
191 Any variable that reached marginal significance was retained in the exploratory Model 2, which  
192 also included all recovery and stress related factors. Subsequently, all significant predictors of  
193 performance, as well as variables with marginal significance,  $.05 \leq p \leq .15$ , were further tested in  
194 Model 3 akin to previous research in the sport literature (Umbach, Palmer, Kuh, & Hannah,  
195 2006). Congruent with guidelines on parsimonious statistical modeling (Cohen et al., 2002),  
196 Final Model 4 contained only significant predictors contributing to explained variance and  
197 overall model fit.

198 **Stage 1.** Model 1 included demographic variables only, precisely *age* and *type of cyclists*.  
199 Model 1 did not reach statistical significance,  $F(5, 69) = 1.93, p = .10$ . However, the dummy  
200 variable *sprinter* ( $\beta = -.23, p = .07$ ) approached significance and was retained and included in  
201 Model 2 along with all recovery and stress factors. Although Model 2 reached statistical  
202 significance,  $F(17, 60) = 1.79, p = .05$ , the variable *sprinter* and the majority of the recovery and  
203 stress factors were not statistically related to performance (see Table 4). In adopting a  
204 conservative approach, we kept all predictors with  $p \leq .15$  in Model 3, due to the fact that the  
205 partial correlation among predictors may change as variables are eliminated from the regression  
206 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  $p \leq .05$ .  
208 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  
212 and 2.0, respectively, further suggesting that multicollinearity was not an issue.

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

## 226 Discussion

227 We examined whether the relationship between recovery-stress factors and performance  
228 would differ at the beginning and end of a multi-stage cycling competition. Initial correlational  
229 analyses suggested that the relationship among recovery and stress factors changed over time.  
230 Overall, the correlation pattern across recovery and stress factors was unique for Stage 1 and the

231 Final Stage. However, the association between *Being in Shape* and *Self-Regulation* was of strong  
232 magnitude ( $r \leq .70$ ) for both Stage 1 and the Final Stage. In fact, the ability to self-regulate is  
233 essential to enable individuals to stay physically and mentally fit (Filho et al., 2013; Robazza,  
234 Pellizzari, & Hanin, 2004). Therefore, future studies should further examine the direction of this  
235 relationship to determine whether self-regulation enables *Being in Shape* or vice-versa. Step-  
236 down multiple regression models further indicated that the relationship among recovery and  
237 stress factors changed greatly from the first to the last stage of the race.

### 238 **Stage 1**

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

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

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

### 257 **Final Stage**

258 For the Final Stage, *climber* was found to be positively related to performance. It is  
259 understandable that climbers perceived performance differently than other types of riders, given  
260 that the final stage was a high-mountain stage, where climbers would likely perform well.

261 Overall, it is noteworthy that different types of cyclists may perceive performance differently and  
262 that these differences are likely related to contextual factors (i.e., type of stage, such as flat, low-  
263 mountain, and high-mountain). In fact, there is empirical evidence across sports that one's role  
264 within a team influences subjective performance ratings (Carron, Eys, & Burke, 2007; Filho,  
265 Gershgoren, Basevitch, & Tenenbaum, 2014). Accordingly, both researchers and practitioners  
266 should consider self-perceived subjective ratings in designing research and operationalizing  
267 periodization cycles in sports.

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

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

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

### 293 **Limitations, Implications and Future Directions**

294         This study is not without limitations. First, we were unable to collect additional  
295 psychological and physiological data, as time with the athletes was limited. Second, the  
296 relatively small sample size might have interfered with the reliability of a few RESTQ-Sport  
297 scales, as previously detailed. We adopted a convenience sample strategy by collecting data in  
298 situ. Ideally, future studies should be based on larger sample sizes defined through a priori power  
299 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 while  
301 including multiple methodological controls.

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

314         In addition to targeting larger samples and implementing multiple psycho-physiological  
315 controls, future studies should consider mid-race assessments that can be statistically integrated  
316 with pre- and post-assessments through longitudinal growth models. Researchers should also  
317 compare top to bottom cyclists' objective performance markers (i.e., time, final rank) in order to  
318 advance the knowledge of recovery and stress factors as predictors of expert performance in  
319 cycling. Moreover, additional studies comparing the bio-psycho-social profile of the different  
320 types of cyclists may advance specific performance psychology guidelines applied to *all-*  
321 *rounders, climbers, puncheurs, and sprinters*. Specifically, scholars could examine whether  
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  
325 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.  
328



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421

1 Table 1

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

Stress / Recovery	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 <sup>†</sup>	8	9	10	11 <sup>†</sup>	12	13	14	15	16	17 <sup>†</sup>	18	19	20
<i>General Stress</i>																						
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	-.02	.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 <sup>†</sup>																						
<i>Sport Specific Stress</i>																						
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*
<i>General Recovery</i>																						
11. Success <sup>†</sup>																						
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
<i>Sport Specific Recovery</i>																						
16. Being in Shape	3.22	1.14																1		.65*	.79*	.17
17. Personal Accomplishment <sup>†</sup>																						
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

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

4 Note. <sup>†</sup>These scales were not considered in the analysis of Stage 1 due to low internal consistency (i.e.,  $\alpha \leq .60$ ).

5

6

1 Table 2

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

3

Stress / Recovery	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 <sup>†</sup>	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15 <sup>†</sup>	16	17	18	19	20
<i>General Stress</i>																						
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	1.48	0.95						1		.37*	.50*	.28*	.35*	-.05	-.04	-.16		.07	.08	.14	.03	-.17
7. Physical Complaints <sup>†</sup>																						
<i>Sport Specific Stress</i>																						
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
<i>General Recovery</i>																						
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 <sup>†</sup>																						
<i>Sport Specific Recovery</i>																						
16. Being in Shape	2.57	1.18																1	.58*	.73*	.75*	.11
17. Personal Accomplishment	2.46	1.16																	1	.64*	.71*	.15
18. Self-Efficacy	2.52	1.14																		1	.74*	-.09
19. Self-Regulation	2.70	1.20																			1	.14
20. Performance	6.42	1.60																				1

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

5 Note. <sup>†</sup>These scales were not considered in the analysis of the Final Stage due to low internal consistency (i.e.,  $\alpha \leq .60$ ).

## 1 Table 3

2 *Regression Analysis of Stress and Recovery Factors on Cycling Performance, Stage 1*

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4 (Final)		
	B	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	B	B	<i>p</i>	B	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	B	$\beta$	<i>p</i>
<i>Demographics</i>												
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						
<i>General Stress</i>												
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 <sup>†</sup>												
<i>Sport-Specific Stress</i>												
Disturbed Breaks				-.11	-.04	.76						
Emot. Exhaustion				-.58	-.25	.18						
Injury				-1.23	-.42	.01	-1.10	-.37	.01	-.89	-.31	.01
<i>General Recovery</i>												
Success <sup>†</sup>												
Social Recovery				.06	.04	.79						
Phys. Recovery				.82	.33	.06	1.24	.51	.01	1.07	.44	.01
Gen. Well-being				-.89	-.44	.03	-.58	-.29	.03	-.52	-.26	.04
Sleep Quality				.20	.08	.58						
<i>Sport-Specific Recovery</i>												
Being in Shape				.54	.27	.22						
Person. Accompl. <sup>†</sup>												
Self-Efficacy				-.17	-.08	.66						
Self-Regulation				.30	.15	.52						
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		.12			.34*			.24**			.21**	

3 \**p* < .05; \*\**p* < .014 Note. <sup>†</sup>These scales were not considered in the analysis of Stage 1 due to low internal consistency values.

5



## 1 Table 4

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

3

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4 (Final)		
	B	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	B	B	<i>p</i>	B	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	B	$\beta$	<i>p</i>
<i>Demographics</i>												
Age	.03	.04	.76									
All-rounder	.14	.03	.83									
Climber	1.16	.38	.01	1.0	.23	.09	1.16	.26	.01	1.22	.28	.01
Puncheur	.37	.11	.49									
Sprinter	-1.52	-.15	.21									
<i>General Stress</i>												
General Stress				.21	.17	.38						
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						
Lack of Energy				-.50	-.30	.14	-.62	-.37	.01	-.62	-.37	.01
Phys. Complaints <sup>†</sup>												
<i>Sport-Specific Stress</i>												
Disturbed Breaks				-.05	-.05	.75						
Emot. Exhaustion				-.11	-.08	.66						
Injury				-.20	-.15	.38						
<i>General Recovery</i>												
Success				.03	.02	.91						
Social Recovery				-.08	-.07	.74						
Phy. Recovery				-.05	-.03	.85						
Gen. Well-being				.27	.20	.36						
Sleep Quality <sup>†</sup>												
<i>Sport Specific Recovery</i>												
Being in Shape				.17	.12	.56						
Person. Accompl.				.33	.24	.21						
Self-Efficacy				-.55	-.39	.08	-.15	-.10	.34			
Self-Regulation				.05	.04	.87						
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		.15			.31			.20**			.19**	

4 \**p* < .05; \*\**p* < .015 Note. <sup>†</sup>These scales were not considered in the analysis of the Final-Stage due to low internal consistency values.