

Comparative Analysis of Frustration Tolerance and Self-Efficacy among Individual, Combat and Team University Sportspersons

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Abstract

Psychological functioning can influence how athletes respond to blocked goals, pressure, error and repeated competitive demands. This analytical study compares frustration tolerance and generalized self-efficacy among university sportspersons representing individual, combat and team sports. The approved design comprises 300 athletes aged 19–25 years from selected Haryana universities, with 100 participants in each sport category and an equal male–female distribution. Frustration tolerance is assessed through the S. N. Rai frustration-tolerance instrument and self-efficacy through the 10-item General Self-Efficacy Scale of Schwarzer and Jerusalem. Group differences are examined through descriptive statistics, Welch independent-samples t-tests, Cohen's d and supplementary one-way ANOVA. In the model analytical dataset used in the thesis draft, combat sportspersons record the highest mean frustration tolerance (M=71.97) and self-efficacy (M=32.35), team sportspersons occupy an intermediate position (M=68.37 and 31.46), and individual sportspersons record the lowest means (M=64.76 and 29.91). Overall pairwise tests show significant differences for all three

frustration-tolerance comparisons, while self-efficacy differs significantly for individual–team and individual–combat comparisons but not for combat–team. Gender-specific findings are more differentiated, especially among female participants. The pattern indicates that the psychological demands associated with direct opposition, personal responsibility and interdependence may coexist with different profiles of persistence and coping confidence. Practical implications emphasize sport-specific mental-skills preparation, mastery-oriented feedback and structured routines for recovery from error.

Keywords: frustration tolerance; self-efficacy; combat sports; individual sports; team sports; university athletes; sport psychology

1. Introduction

Sport is one of the most organized activities of man and has been a part of human civilization since ancient times. Historically, people have engaged in sport for survival, physical preparation, to pass the time, socialization and achievement. Running, wrestling, throwing, practices for combat, and team games gradually evolved into organized sports with rules and a competitive

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system and participation. Today sport is not just a means of entertainment, but is also regarded as a most significant social institution that is linked to the Education, Health promotion, Professional development, National identity and Human excellence. Participating in sports greatly helps in physical development, strengthening and increasing the endurance, flexibility, coordination and motor skills. Besides the physical aspects, the significance of sports is not just limited to physical fitness; sports also have a role in psychological growth, emotional stability, social relationship and personality development. Regular training and competition help the athlete to acquire the skill of facing challenges, as well as the ability to collaborate, discipline, responsibility, goal orientation and competence. When athletes put themselves in the midst of competition, the developmental impact of sport becomes more pronounced. There is continuous assessment, continuous achievement and competition with other people in competitive sports. The mental and physical strain involved in training is severe, athletes have to be highly motivated, and they need to be able to take on feedback from coaches and face down all the challenges they come across. Sport is a competitive arena that demands athletes to keep their emotions in check, to stay focused and to stay engaged when things are challenging, such as a loss, injury, under-performance or being selected. These experiences help develop qualities of the mind like persistence, resilience, self-discipline and coping ability. But competitive sport can also be mentally demanding if the sport puts pressure on the athlete to perform when they are not. But competitive sport can also be psychologically challenging when athletes are feeling pressurized, put on

pressure and fail. Hence, in sports science and psychology, the psychological mechanisms associated with sports performance has become a critical research focus.

In contemporary competitive sport, physical and technical ability alone does not determine performance. Previous sports preparation methods have concentrated mainly on training physically, technically, and tactically. As the sport industry has become more competitive and sports science has improved, however, both sport scientists and researchers have noticed that mental preparation is also crucial to attaining excellence. Despite having the same physical ability and technical skill, two athletes may have different levels of confidence, emotional regulation, motivation and coping, which could affect their actual performance. It is more likely that an athlete who maintains composure under pressure, rebounds from their errors and trust in their own ability will perform well. Thus, psychological traits have become integral parts of athlete preparation and performance improvement. With the advent of sports psychology, the way that athletic performance is perceived has evolved to a focus on the interaction between the physical capabilities and psychological processes. Sports psychology is the scientific study of thoughts, feelings, behaviours and mental skills that affect involvement and performance in sports. It offers scientific knowledge on topics such as motivation, personality, coping with anxiety, stress management, building confidence, emotional regulation, decision making and mental skills training. The field understands that the successful athlete is not only physically prepared, but mentally prepared as well to

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perform successfully on a consistent basis. Psychological training can enhance the athlete's concentration, self-confidence, goal setting, relaxation and coping skills to support their performance in stressful situations.

Frustration tolerance, self-efficacy and locus of control are among the factors that have come to the fore as psychological factors that affect athletic performance. Frustration tolerance is the capacity to endure frustration, failure and stress without losing purposeful behaviour. Everyone involved in sports has faced adversity in some form, whether it is losing a game, making a mistake, getting injured or getting unexpected results, being able to tolerate frustration becomes a key factor in keeping them motivated and emotionally stable. Self-efficacy is the athlete's confidence in his/her ability to execute necessary behaviors and complete tasks that will result in success. Higher self-efficacy is associated with increased confidence, effort, persistence, and ability to handle challenging situations among athletes. Locus of Control is the sense of who or what is responsible for people's behaviors and results, whether it is their own efforts and actions or their own luck, fate, circumstances, etc. These traits are psychological and are very helpful in understanding the athlete's response to demands of competition. Contemporary evidence supports the practical relevance of efficacy beliefs in sport. A meta-analysis by Lochbaum et al. (2023) reported a positive overall association between pre-event self-efficacy and performance, while Stephen et al. (2022) and Weight et al. (2020) emphasize the interpersonal contribution of coaches to the development and calibration of athletes'

efficacy beliefs. At the same time, research on irrational performance beliefs shows that low frustration tolerance and rigid performance demands can be linked with competitive anxiety and psychological distress (Mansell & Turner, 2022; Tóth et al., 2022). These findings make a joint examination of frustration tolerance and self-efficacy especially relevant in competitive university sport.

The present article therefore asks whether athletes participating in different competitive structures display distinct average levels of frustration tolerance and generalized self-efficacy. The comparison is deliberately organized around individual, combat and team sport categories because these settings differ in responsibility for execution, immediacy of opponent pressure and reliance on coordinated group action. The analysis also examines male and female subsamples to determine whether overall differences remain stable when gender composition is held constant.

2. Conceptual Background and Review of Literature

2.1 Frustration Tolerance in Competitive Sport

Frustration is the psychological reaction to the hindering, postponement or blocking of goal-directed behaviour. Frustration is feeling blocked from satisfying a need or achieving a goal, Rosenzweig. The idea is especially relevant to sport where the result of a competition is never guaranteed and athletes are continually seeking to do

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something they may not be able to due to other participants, errors, injury, selection, physical characteristics, environmental factors or early failure of standards. Frustration, then, should not be considered a rare phenomenon in sport; it is expected as a result of trying to attain a valued outcome when that may not be guaranteed. Anger is a common outcome of frustration as blocked goals can be perceived as threats to achievement and control. Anger can also increase the level of energy and assertiveness that can be useful for a brief period of time in sports, but when anger is uncontrolled, it can make it more difficult to focus, time, think strategically and interact with other people. Aggression can be a direct result of frustration but is not necessarily an automatic one; frustration may result in “aggressive” responding if the athlete is lacking in regulating strategies, or if the athlete believes that the situation was “fair” but not “intended.” This is particularly important in contact/combat sports where the use of force is already an integral part of both, and will always be a part of both. Now the athlete is able to control his emotions, to control his competitiveness and impulsiveness. Frustration tolerance means the ability to tolerate obstacles, delays, failures and/or unpleasant conditions without losing functional, goal-directed behavior. Rai and Gupta in their study synopsis describe it as “tolerable stress” and “the ability to persevere in efforts despite a hostile environment and repeated failure. This is a very fitting definition of sport, since it includes emotional tolerance of discomfort and behavioral persistence. A frustrated athlete is not one who does not ever feel disappointed and angry. However, the athlete may experience those feelings and not allow them

to negatively impact the decision making process or the right action.

The construct is related to emotional stability, cognitive flexibility and behavioural persistence. Control over level of arousal after error. Cognitive flexibility enables the athlete to shift their perspective on the situation, think things through and avoid making hasty judgments and statements to themselves about the situation such as ‘this should not be happening’ or ‘I cannot do this unless it goes well’. The athlete can purposefully train or compete with behavioural persistence. These factors explain why frustration tolerance is related to other constructs like resilience, coping, hardiness, and mental toughness, but also help to explain why they are not synonymous. Resilience is more encompassing and sometimes embraces adaptation under major stressors, coping involves the use of coping skills to deal with demands and mental toughness incorporates a number of performance-related attributes. One of the most important here is frustration tolerance, or the ability to tolerate thwarted aspirations, the discomfort that they cause.

Emotional control is another characteristic. Strong emotion, behavioural boundaries and focus on task can be experienced by high tolerance athletes. Are not as likely to react to frustration with impulsive aggression, rumination, or perceptible disengagement. Being positive does not mean being positive at any cost—it is a selection of coping strategies that will help increase the chances of being positive. These include problem solving, cognitive reappraisal, social support, relaxation, attentional refocusing and/or temporary recovery. Resilience and

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adaptability is seen when athletes revise their expectations when new information is presented and then they persist in taking purposeful actions when disappointed. Recent sport-psychology research on irrational performance beliefs provides a complementary framework for understanding frustration tolerance. Low-frustration-tolerance beliefs represent the view that difficulty, discomfort or failure is unbearable rather than merely undesirable. In athletes, such beliefs can amplify anxiety and make normal performance variability psychologically disruptive. Mansell (2021), Mansell and Turner (2022), and Tóth et al. (2022) collectively suggest that the way athletes interpret stressors is consequential for challenge appraisal, confidence and competitive anxiety. Accordingly, frustration tolerance in the present study is treated as a functional capacity for continued purposeful behavior rather than emotional indifference to results.

2.2 Self-Efficacy and Athletic Functioning

Bandura's social cognitive theory assumes that human functioning is the result of reciprocal interactions between environmental influences, behaviour and personal factors. In this context, self-efficacy is an important self-regulatory belief as it can influence an individual's decision to take action, the effort put in, the length of effort, and how difficulty is perceived. Efficacy is built through experience in sport and not through positive thinking. Bandura suggested four major sources of efficacy information: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states. These sources are

cognitively interpreted, and thus the same event can affect athletes differently according to the interpretation of the event. Verbal persuasion consists of feedback, encouragement, instruction and social messages about ability. Persuasion is less convincing than mastery evidence, but can have an impact on effort and persistence, particularly if it is from a source that is trusted and knowledgeable. Persuading is particular and realistic. These can be comforting at the moment 'you're the best' but phrases such as 'Your preparation shows you can do this routine – keep your release cue' can help to build confidence and link it to something that you can control. Studies examining the efficacy beliefs of collegiate athletes, and the interpersonal nature of feedback support the coach's role in influencing efficacy beliefs.

The feelings of the athletes before and during performance are what is known as physiological and affective states. Feelings of high heart rate, tension in muscles, fatigue, pain or anxiety could be interpreted as a sign of danger and lack of ability, but they can also be a sign of readiness and effort. It is the interpretation that is key. If an athlete believes that high arousal equals out of control, he or she will feel less effective, however, if he or she has information that he or she can control his or her arousal, he or she will feel confident. That's why relaxation training, breathing training, emotional regulation training, and stress-appraisal training are indirectly salutary for self-efficacy as they change the meaning of bodily and emotional signals.

Empirical evidence shows that self-efficacy is related, but not entirely, to subsequent

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athletic performances. Lochbaum et al. conducted a review of research on the relationship between pre-event self-efficacy and post-event performance, and determined that there was generally a positive relationship between the two. Their findings are important, for two reasons: firstly, efficacy is not a motivational slogan but it is correlated with performance in sport related contexts; secondly, efficacy is measurable. In the meantime the association is not compulsory. Performance is affected by ability, opponent quality, tactics, health, environmental factors, and the factors of measurement. Without good efficacy beliefs there is not enough preparation, however a good efficacy belief can increase the chance that if someone is prepared, their capability is expressed. Goal setting and coping also are affected by self-efficacy. A confident athlete will have more strategies that are active and will be able to persevere long enough for the strategy to become successful in achieving a process goal. When failures occur, efficacy can provide some cushion to the catastrophic interpretation of failure because the athlete believes that he or she is still able to execute effective action. This relationship will be conceptualized as 'frustration tolerance' in that when individuals feel they can do something, they may not feel they have a problem, and when they repeatedly have a problem and are unable to tolerate it, this may reduce the individual's sense of efficacy and make the setbacks appear to be proof of helplessness.

If you're talking about combat sports, efficacy has to do with the skill's ability to perform the skill with an opponent that is trying to make the performer fail. There is a need to add to the sense of confidence,

confidence in tactical adaptation, tactical adaptation in emotions, emotions and confidence in being able to work under contact and fatigue. A particular technique may be performed well by a combat athlete during training, but not as effectively in front of an opponent who is performing in an unpredictable manner. Hence, the need of having progressive sparring and mastery in realistic conditions as sources of efficacy is very important. In the context of competitive fight situations, case and applied literature in karate shows that a relationship between confidence, anxiety and cognitive beliefs exists. The distinction between generalized and task-specific efficacy is important. The present study uses a generalized coping-efficacy measure, so group differences should not be interpreted as direct evidence that one category of athlete is technically more confident than another. Evidence from collegiate athletes demonstrates that coaches can strengthen or undermine self-efficacy through feedback and relational practices (Weight et al., 2020), and the congruence of athlete and coach efficacy perceptions can influence relationship quality (Stephen et al., 2022). In team settings, self-efficacy also coexists with relational and collective efficacy processes (Hepler et al., 2021).

2.3 Sport Structure as a Psychological Context

Individual sports place performance evaluation close to the athlete's own execution. Combat sports combine personal responsibility with direct, adaptive opposition, physical discomfort and immediate consequences of tactical choices. Team sports distribute outcome responsibility across multiple players while

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requiring communication, role clarity and coordinated decision making. These differences create plausible pathways through which frustration tolerance and efficacy beliefs may be shaped, expressed or reinforced. They do not imply deterministic personality effects: athletes self-select into sports, coaching environments differ, and within-category variation is substantial. The appropriate interpretation is therefore comparative and contextual rather than causal. Team sport participation is associated with a range of psychological and social outcomes, and systematic-review evidence indicates that team contexts can provide important relational and behavioral resources (Zuckerman et al., 2021). At the same time, studies comparing individual and team athletes have reported mixed results for self-efficacy (Erail & Uzun, 2023), reinforcing the need to examine sport category, construct and subgroup rather than assume one universal hierarchy.

3. Methodology

Participants were required to be between 19 and 25 years of age, to be affiliated with one of the selected Haryana universities, to participate in one of the sports specified in the approved synopsis, and to have reached at least the Inter-University participation level. They also had to be willing to participate and able to complete the three psychological measures under the standardized instructions provided by the researcher. These conditions ensured that the comparison involved active competitive sportspersons rather than recreational participants.

The study is delimited to 300 sportspersons, to five selected universities of Haryana, to

three psychological variables and to nine specified sports. The age range is 19 to 25 years and the competitive threshold is at least Inter-University participation. These boundaries increase manageability and internal comparability but also define the limits of generalization. The findings should therefore be understood as evidence about this selected university-sport context rather than universal psychological profiles of all individual, combat or team athletes.

Three standardized instruments were selected in accordance with the approved synopsis. Each instrument measures one principal psychological variable, allowing the study to retain a direct correspondence between construct, tool and statistical outcome. The use of established instruments also permits the researcher to describe administration and scoring consistently across respondents. The tools are the Frustration Tolerance Scale/Test attributed in the synopsis to S. N. Rai, the General Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Ralf Schwarzer and Matthias Jerusalem, and the Locus of Control Scale developed by N. Hasnain and D. D. Joshi.

The synopsis specifies the Frustration Tolerance Scale developed by S. N. Rai and describes it as a puzzle-based instrument involving four puzzles. Secondary descriptions of the instrument indicate that two of the puzzles are intentionally insoluble and that the participant's persistence is observed through time spent and the number of attempts made. The score is intended to represent the capacity to continue effort in the presence of an obstructed goal. This format is particularly relevant to the construct because it obtains a performance-based response to

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frustration rather than relying entirely on self-description.

The material available to the researcher identifies the total frustration-tolerance score on a 100-point basis in secondary descriptions, with time and attempts contributing to the scoring procedure. A secondary source reports test-retest reliability of .94 and empirical validity of .78. However, because the approved synopsis cites the instrument as Rai while other secondary descriptions refer to earlier editions, the exact manual edition, scoring conversion and normative interpretation should be checked against the physical manual actually used in data collection before final submission. In Chapter IV of this model draft, the frustration-tolerance values are presented on a 0-100 score metric solely to demonstrate the intended analytical structure.

The General Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Ralf Schwarzer and Matthias Jerusalem is a brief ten-item self-report instrument intended to assess a broad sense of perceived competence in dealing with difficult or novel demands. The scale does not ask respondents to evaluate a particular sport skill. Instead, it captures generalized confidence in managing problems, pursuing goals and handling unexpected circumstances. This makes it suitable for comparing sport categories without privileging the technical vocabulary of any single sport.

Each item is answered on a four-point response format: Not at all true = 1, Hardly true = 2, Moderately true = 3 and Exactly true = 4. The responses are summed, producing a total score ranging from 10 to 40, with a higher score indicating greater generalized

self-efficacy. The supplied scale material reports internal reliability coefficients typically ranging from .76 to .90 across applications and notes evidence of construct-related validity through expected associations with optimism, emotion, work satisfaction and negative relations with psychological distress indicators.

A common administration procedure is essential because psychological scores can be affected by differences in instructions, testing environment and respondent understanding. The researcher therefore followed the same sequence of explanation and administration for all eligible participants. Respondents were informed that the study concerned psychological characteristics of sportspersons and that the responses would be used for research purposes. Instructions were provided in clear language and participants were encouraged to seek clarification about procedure without receiving hints that could influence their answers.

Each instrument was scored according to its prescribed key. For the GSE, the ten item values were summed. For the LCS-HJ, positively and negatively keyed items were scored in opposite directions and then summed. For frustration tolerance, the scoring procedure of the instrument was applied to obtain a total score from the puzzle performance. The resulting three total scores formed the continuous dependent variables used in analysis. Classification variables were coded independently so that psychological scores could be summarized by sport category and gender without altering the original scale metrics.

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The first stage of analysis summarizes the data using frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum and selected distributional indices. Sample frequencies verify the intended representation of sport categories, gender and universities. Means provide the central score for each psychological variable, while standard deviations show the degree of within-group variability. Skewness and kurtosis are examined as descriptive indicators of distribution shape, and graphical displays are used to identify broad patterns without substituting visual impressions for statistical tests.

The approved synopsis specifies the t-test as the principal inferential technique. Independent-samples t-tests are therefore used to compare the mean scores of two independent sport groups for each stated hypothesis. The twenty-seven hypotheses consist of three sport-pair comparisons for each of the three variables at three analytical levels: overall, male and female. Because group variances may not always be identical, the analytical draft reports the Welch form of the independent-samples t-test, which is robust to unequal variances while testing the same null hypothesis of equal population means.

The significance level is fixed at .05. A p-value below .05 is interpreted as evidence against the corresponding null hypothesis, while a p-value equal to or above .05 results in retention of the null hypothesis. Statistical significance is interpreted together with the direction of the mean difference and an effect-size estimate. Cohen's d is reported in

the analytical draft to indicate the standardized magnitude of a two-group difference. As a general descriptive guide, absolute d values near .20 are small, near .50 are moderate and near .80 are large; these conventions are used cautiously rather than as rigid thresholds.

The analytical design is cross-sectional and comparative. For every variable, three pairwise contrasts are examined in the complete sample and repeated in the male and female subsamples. Welch's version of the independent-samples t-test is used when variance equality is uncertain. Cohen's d is reported to describe standardized effect magnitude, and a supplementary one-way ANOVA provides an omnibus check across the three sport categories. The primary decision threshold is $p < .05$. Because the design is non-experimental, significant differences are interpreted as associations with sport category rather than evidence that participation in a particular sport caused the measured psychological profile.

4. Results

The model sample is balanced across sport category and gender. Each sport category contains 100 athletes, with 50 males and 50 females. The overall descriptive profile shows a consistent ordering for both variables: combat sportspersons have the highest mean, team sportspersons occupy an intermediate position, and individual sportspersons have the lowest mean. The magnitude and statistical reliability of this ordering, however, varies across pairwise and gender-specific comparisons.

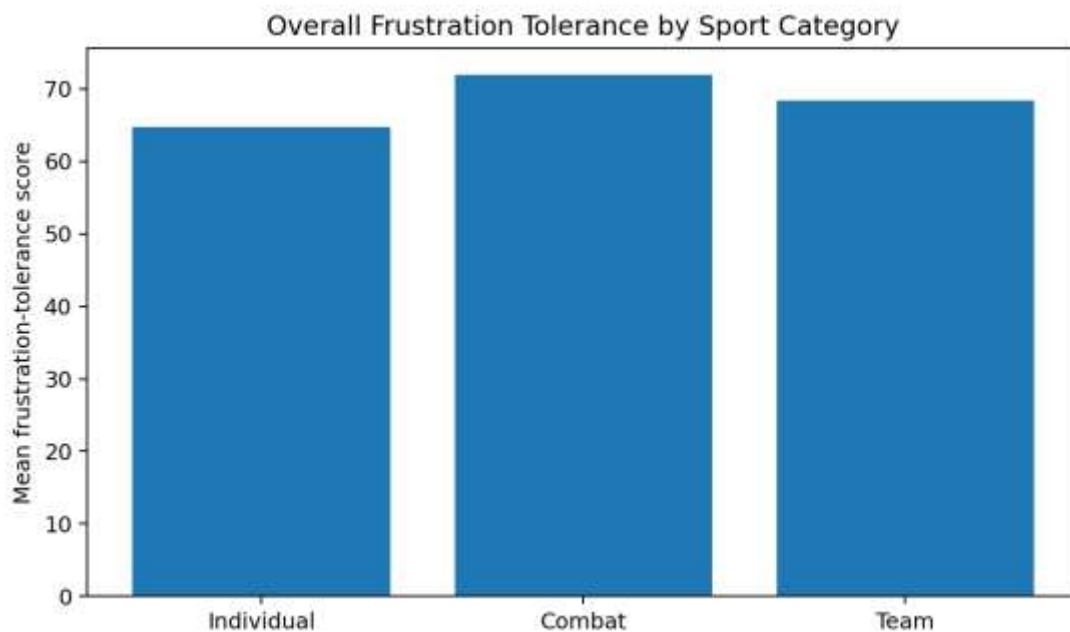
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Table 1. Overall descriptive statistics for frustration tolerance and self-efficacy

Sport category	N	Frustration tolerance M (SD)	Self-efficacy M (SD)
Individual	100	64.76 (8.89)	29.91 (3.77)
Combat	100	71.97 (8.85)	32.35 (4.14)
Team	100	68.37 (8.78)	31.46 (4.19)

Table 2. Overall pairwise comparisons

Variable	Comparison	t	p	Cohen d	Decision
Frustration tolerance	Individual vs Team	-2.893	.004	-0.409	Significant
Frustration tolerance	Individual vs Combat	-5.748	<.001	-0.813	Significant
Frustration tolerance	Combat vs Team	2.884	.004	0.408	Significant
Self-efficacy	Individual vs Team	-2.750	.007	-0.389	Significant
Self-efficacy	Individual vs Combat	-4.358	<.001	-0.616	Significant
Self-efficacy	Combat vs Team	1.513	.132	0.214	Not significant



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Figure 1. Overall mean frustration-tolerance score by sport category.

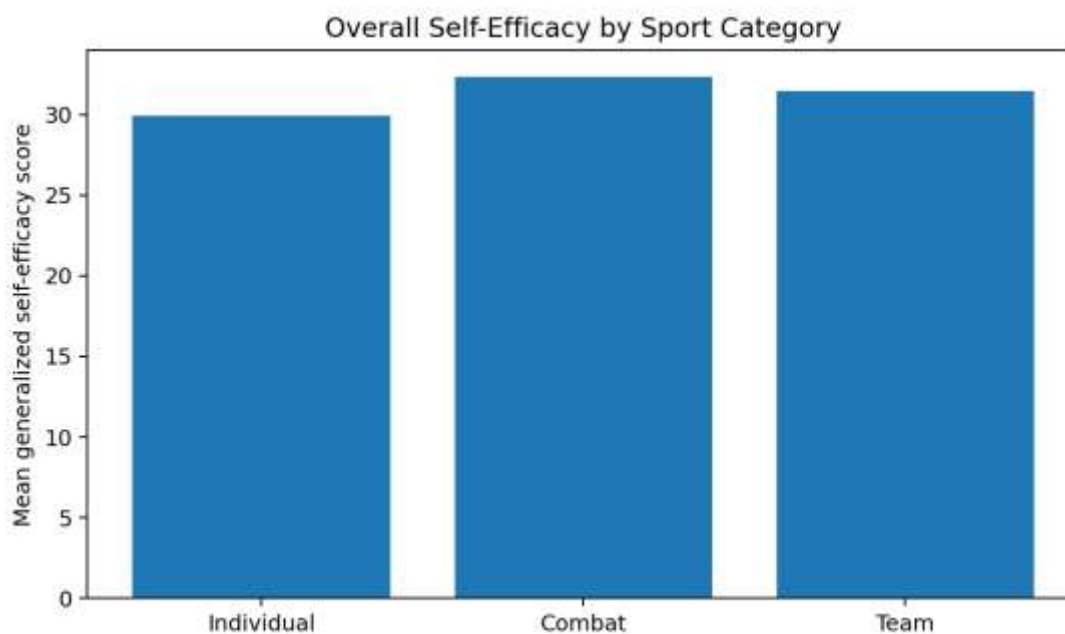


Figure 2. Overall mean generalized self-efficacy score by sport category.

For frustration tolerance, all three overall pairwise differences reach the .05 level. The largest contrast is between individual and combat sportspersons ($|d|=.81$), followed by individual–team and combat–team differences of small-to-moderate magnitude. Among males, the individual–team comparison is not significant ($p=.151$), whereas individual–combat ($p<.001$; $|d|=1.03$) and combat–team ($p<.001$; $d=.76$) are significant. Among females, individual–team ($p=.010$; $|d|=.53$) and individual–combat ($p=.003$; $|d|=.61$) are significant, but combat–team is not ($p=.708$). This produces a differentiated gender pattern rather than a simple replication of the overall ordering.

For self-efficacy, individual sportspersons differ significantly from team sportspersons

($p=.007$) and combat sportspersons ($p<.001$), whereas combat and team sportspersons do not differ significantly overall ($p=.132$). Male comparisons show significant individual–team ($p=.043$) and individual–combat ($p<.001$) differences but a non-significant combat–team contrast ($p=.126$). Among females, only individual–combat reaches significance ($p=.028$); individual–team ($p=.071$) and combat–team ($p=.584$) are not significant. Supplementary one-way ANOVA is significant for overall frustration tolerance ($F=16.631$, $p<.001$) and overall self-efficacy ($F=9.360$, $p<.001$). The female self-efficacy omnibus test is not significant ($F=2.864$, $p=.060$), consistent with the greater overlap observed in pairwise female comparisons.

5. Discussion

The strongest and most stable finding is the separation between combat and individual sportspersons. In the model data, combat athletes score higher on both frustration tolerance and generalized self-efficacy in the complete sample and within male and female subsamples. A plausible contextual interpretation is that combat sports repeatedly require athletes to continue purposeful action after an opponent disrupts a plan. The competitor receives immediate feedback, must regulate emotional reactions and must decide quickly how to respond. Repeated experience of this sequence may coexist with stronger persistence under blocked goals and with confidence in coping with difficult demands. This interpretation remains associational because training history, coaching, selection and prior success were not experimentally controlled.

The combat–team pattern is different. The two groups separate on overall frustration tolerance but not on generalized self-efficacy. This result is psychologically coherent because team sports also provide repeated mastery experiences, role-based feedback, social support and opportunities to solve difficult problems collectively. Generalized coping confidence may therefore be supported in both interactive sport contexts even when the source and immediacy of frustration differ. The literature on relational and collective efficacy further suggests that athletes in teams may draw confidence information from coordinated practice and the perceived competence of teammates in addition to personal mastery (Hepler et al., 2021).

The gender-specific findings caution against treating overall means as universal. Male combat athletes show especially large frustration-tolerance and self-efficacy advantages over individual athletes, while female combat and team athletes overlap more strongly. These differences could reflect sport composition, competitive histories, training exposure, coaching climates or sampling variation. They should not be converted into stereotypes about male or female athletes. Instead, they demonstrate the value of subgroup analysis when psychological support programmes are being designed.

Self-efficacy findings are consistent with the broader evidence that efficacy is relevant but not mechanically tied to performance or sport type. Lochbaum et al. (2023) found a positive average association between pre-event efficacy and performance but also substantial heterogeneity. Similarly, the present results include both significant and non-significant sport-category contrasts. The implication is that confidence should be calibrated and task-relevant rather than treated as a single trait that one category of athlete simply “has more of.” Coaches can contribute through credible feedback, progressive mastery experiences and communication that links confidence to observable preparation (Stephen et al., 2022; Weight et al., 2020).

The frustration-tolerance findings also align with research on athletes’ irrational beliefs. Competitive anxiety is more likely to become disruptive when athletes interpret errors or discomfort through rigid demands, catastrophizing or beliefs that difficult states are intolerable (Mansell & Turner, 2022; Tóth et al., 2022). Training that normalizes

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error, uses process goals and rehearses rapid attentional resets may therefore support adaptive tolerance without encouraging athletes to accept unsafe or abusive conditions. The goal is not emotional suppression; it is maintaining functional action while recognizing when persistence, tactical change, recovery or support is appropriate.

6. Practical Implications

University coaches can integrate brief psychological routines into ordinary practice rather than treating mental preparation as a separate activity. Frustration-management drills can deliberately introduce controllable errors, score deficits or task constraints and then reinforce an effective reset response. Self-efficacy can be strengthened through graded mastery tasks, specific feedback, modeling and review of successful coping episodes. Combat athletes may benefit from rapid post-error reset routines; individual athletes may benefit from methods that prevent a single personal error from becoming global self-evaluation; and team athletes may benefit from combining individual coping routines with communication and collective efficacy work.

Psychological scores should be used developmentally, not as stand-alone selection criteria. Group means do not describe every athlete, and the practical purpose of assessment is to identify support needs, monitor change and guide coaching conversations. Collaboration among physical-education departments, coaches and qualified sport-psychology professionals can help ensure that interpretation remains ethical and context-sensitive.

7. Limitations and Future Research

The present manuscript is limited first by the status of the numerical data: the thesis draft identifies the dataset as simulated for analytical demonstration. Empirical publication therefore requires the final field dataset and a fresh reproducible analysis. Beyond that data-status limitation, the approved design is cross-sectional and purposive, so causal conclusions are not warranted. Sport category is broad and contains different disciplines; generalized self-efficacy does not measure confidence in a specific sport skill; and unmeasured variables such as years of experience, competitive level, coaching style, injury history and training volume may contribute to group differences. Future work should use verified field data, multilevel sampling, sport-specific efficacy measures, longitudinal designs and intervention studies that test whether structured frustration-management and efficacy-building programmes produce measurable change.

8. Conclusion

Within the model analytical structure, frustration tolerance and generalized self-efficacy differ across individual, combat and team sportspersons, but the pattern is construct- and gender-specific. Combat sportspersons show the clearest separation from individual sportspersons, while combat and team athletes overlap substantially on generalized self-efficacy. The findings support a contextual approach to sport psychology: psychological preparation

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should be linked to the demands athletes repeatedly face rather than based on a single hierarchy of sport types. The manuscript provides a complete analytical framework that can be finalized for empirical publication once the model statistics are replaced or verified using the actual participant-level dataset.

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