brought to you by **TCORE** provided by St Mary's University Open Research Archive

1

SPORT INJURY-RELATED GROWTH

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	Can Emotional Disclosure Promote Sport Injury-Related Growth?
6	
7	
8	Jade Salim
9	St Mary's University, Twickenham
10	London, United Kingdom
11	
12	&
13	
14	Ross Wadey
15	St Mary's University, Twickenham
16	London, United Kingdom
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Jade Salim, St Mary's
22	University, Waldegrave Road, Twickenham, TW1 4SX. Tel: 0208240400 ext. 4177 Email:
23	jade.salim@stmarys.ac.uk

5

Abstract

This study makes an original and rigorous contribution to the psychology of sport injury literature by examining the efficacy of emotional disclosure to promote sport injury-related growth (SIRG). Participants (N=45) were assigned to one of three groups (i.e., written disclosure [WD], verbal disclosure [VD] or control), 30 of which took part in social validation interviews (>45hrs) and member reflections to evidence methodological rigor. VD group experienced SIRG. There was no significant difference between the WD and control groups. Practical implications are considered at intrapersonal, interpersonal, institutional, and cultural levels. Future research on emotional disclosure should proceed with caution and diversify. Keywords: Trauma, Adversity, Stress, Recovery, Ethics Introduction

50 Building upon growth following adversity research (Colhoun & Tedeschi, 2006; Joseph & Linley, 2008), emerged the concept–Sport Injury-Related Growth (SIRG)–that has 51 significantly extended the psychology of sport injury literature. For some time now, 52 53 researchers in this field have examined the adversity experienced by injured athletes throughout their recovery and provided evidence-based recommendations to alleviate the 54 overall demand placed upon them (Brewer, 2007; Podlog, Dimmock, & Miller, 2011; Wadev 55 & Evans, 2011). By adversity, we mean a relational state between an individual and his or her 56 environment reflective of hardship or suffering that incorporates stressors, cognitions and 57 affect (Fletcher & Sarker, 2013; Howells & Fletcher, 2015). Yet, the concept of SIRG goes 58 beyond this agenda by proposing that adverse experiences can lead to perceived positive 59 changes (Podlog & Eklund, 2009; Salim, Wadey, & Diss, 2015a; Wadey, Clark, & 60 McCullough, 2013). That is, injury-related experiences may propel injured athletes to a 61 higher level of functioning than that which existed prior to the injury (Roy-Davis, Wadey, & 62 Evans, 2017). Positive changes identified in the literature include psychological (e.g., 63 64 increased mental toughness), social (e.g., improved relationships with others), physical (e.g., greater physical strength), and behavioral benefits (e.g., more empathetic towards other 65 injured athletes). Although this line of research is still very much still in its infancy, recent 66 significant strides have been made in the sport and exercise psychology literature from a 67 conceptual, methodological, and theoretical standpoint (Day & Wadey, 2017; Roy-Davis et 68 al., 2017). Yet, how practitioners can foster SIRG when working with injured athletes has 69 received no research attention. 70

The *Theory of Sport Injury-Related Growth* (T-SIRG) was proposed by Roy-Davis et al. (2017) who provided a detailed justification for introducing a new concept and theory. The theory suggests that injured athletes who experience adversity during their recovery and have access to and mobilise certain resources are more likely to experience SIRG. That is, injured

75 athletes are more likely to experience SIRG if they have certain dispositional qualities (e.g., optimistic, creative, proactive), access to physical spaces and equipment (e.g., gymnasium, 76 rehabilitation equipment), previous experiences of adversity to draw upon, emotion- and 77 78 problem-focused coping styles (e.g., meaning-making, emotional venting), a social support network that understands and meets one's needs, and access to narratives that reinforce 79 growth-related experiences. Possessing, embodying, and/or mobilizing these resources in 80 one's free time during recovery is proposed to help nurture SIRG through four specific 81 mechanisms: meta-cognition, positive re-appraisal, positive emotions, and facilitative 82 83 responses. Specifically, injured athletes who were aware of, and have control over, their own thoughts (i.e., meta-cognition) are more likely to positively reappraise how they interpreted 84 their injury and the situation they find themselves in. Rather than interpreting their injury as a 85 86 threat, they are more likely to identify it as a developmental opportunity. From positively reappraising their injury and the circumstances surrounding it, as well as continuing to draw 87 from their resources, the theory proposes they are more likely to experience positive emotions 88 (e.g., hopeful, grateful, interested). These emotions promote facilitative actions (e.g., acting 89 upon the opportunities, engaging in purposeful reflection, reciprocating acts of kindness), 90 which in turn ultimately lead to various dimensions of SIRG (i.e., psychological, social, 91 physical, and behavioral) that are developmental and continuous across the lifespan. 92

Although the T-SIRG awaits future researchers to support, refute, and extend its underlying assumptions, recent research findings support one of its proposed internal resources: personality (Salim et al., 2015a; Salim, Wadey, & Diss, 2015b). Specifically, the personality trait of hardiness. Defined and conceptualized by Kobasa (1979) to reflect three resilient attitudes (i.e., commitment, control, and challenge), which provide the courage and motivation to transform stressful situations from potential disasters into opportunities for growth and development. Using a cross-sectional methodological design due to the

100 exploratory nature of the study, Salim et al. (2015a) identified a positive relationship between hardiness and growth-related experiences. That is, injured athletes who identified themselves 101 at higher in hardiness were more likely to experience growth. Mediational analysis, together 102 with a qualitative follow-up study (Salim et al., 2015b), identified that injured athletes' high 103 in hardiness experienced more growth because they emotionally disclosed throughout their 104 recovery to members of their social support network outside of sport. These transactions led 105 to meta-cognitions, positive reappraisals, regulation of negative emotions, heightened 106 positive emotions, and facilitative responses, which collectively led to growth-related 107 experiences. Findings also revealed that those injured athletes low in hardiness had no 108 emotional outlet, leading to sub-optimal outcomes (e.g., emotional outbursts, re-injury, 109 inferior performance). Reasons for emotional suppression included the climate in sport (i.e., 110 the need to keep up the visage of being 'mentally tough'), personal beliefs about disclosure 111 (e.g., talking will negatively impact team selection), and their social support network not 112 meeting one's emotional needs (e.g., offering informational rather than emotional support). 113 These findings pose a dilemma for injured athletes low in hardiness. On the one hand, 114 these athletes do not want to disclose their emotions to others because of the adverse 115 consequences it may have (e.g., team selection) and that they do not believe members of their 116 support network will be able to meet their needs. Yet, on the other hand by keeping their 117 emotions to themselves it is likely to have a negative effect on their physical and 118 119 psychological recovery following injury and subsequent return to competitive sport. One method of disclosure that may help to address this dilemma that has recently been explored in 120 the context of sport injury is written disclosure. Mankad, Gordon, and Wallman (2009a) 121 examined the effect of written disclosure with a male athlete rehabilitating from an anterior 122 cruciate ligament reconstruction. The intervention required 3x20 minute writing tasks 123 performed over three consecutive days. Findings demonstrated a decrease in strain (i.e., 124

125 avoidance and intrusion symptoms) and mood disturbance (e.g., anger and tension), as well as an increase in self-esteem. Using the same intervention protocol, Mankad, Gordon, and 126 Wallman (2009b) and Mankad and Gordon (2010) extended this study by examining a group 127 of injured athletes and a diverse range of dependent variables (i.e., strain, mood disturbance, 128 grief responses, rehabilitation beliefs, and immune functioning). Findings demonstrated no 129 significant difference in rehabilitation beliefs; however, there was a significant decrease in 130 negative affect (i.e., mood disturbance and grief responses) and an increase in positive affect 131 (i.e., vigor and reorganization) and immune functioning (i.e., immune expression), which 132 resonates with some of the proposed mechanisms (e.g., negative and positive affect) within 133 the T-SIRG (Roy-Davis et al., 2017). 134

Although Mankad and colleagues' studies did not include SIRG as a dependent 135 variable, they do provide preliminary evidence for written disclosure as a therapeutic tool in 136 addressing injured athletes' psychological needs. Despite the novelty and merits of these 137 intervention studies however, it is important that future researchers and practitioners are 138 aware of their shortcomings: (a) no control groups were used, thereby making it challenging 139 to assess the efficacy of the intervention; (b) specific populations of injured-athletes who are 140 at risk of emotional suppression were not targeted (e.g., athletes low in hardiness), which may 141 'dilute' the intervention effects; (c) mechanisms underlying the intervention effects were not 142 explored, which is of both theoretical and practical importance; (d) no follow-up assessments 143 144 or social validation of procedures and outcomes were accounted for to enhance methodological rigor; (e) only written disclosure was explored. Indeed, researchers in other 145 disciplines have compared written disclosure with other types of disclosure such as verbal 146 disclosure (e.g., Lyubomirsky, Sousa, & Dickerhoof; 2006, Murray & Segal, 1994); and (f) 147 the interventions were all conducted during the rehabilitation phase of recovery. Future 148 researchers should also aim to explore the efficacy of this intervention during injury onset 149

and return to sport phases, which have both been observed to be stressful (Wadey & Evans,
2011). This study aims to address these shortcomings by including a control group, targeting
a specific population (i.e., low in hardiness), accounting for the underlying mechanisms
purported in the T-SIRG, integrating follow-up and social validation assessments, comparing
written (WD) and verbal disclosure (VD), and examining the efficacy of this intervention at
return to sport phase of recovery.

This study aims to make an original and rigorous contribution to the psychology of 156 sport injury literature by examining the efficacy of a four-week written and verbal disclosure 157 intervention (i.e., x 4 sessions; one session per week) to promote SIRG. Based on previous 158 research (e.g., Mankad & Gordon, 2010; Salim et al., 2015a) and the T-SIRG (Roy-Davis et 159 al., 2017), two hypotheses were proposed. Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant 160 difference between groups for SIRG. The VD and WD Groups will report more SIRG than 161 the control group. As Lyubomirsky et al. (2006) found no significant differences between 162 written and verbal disclosure, no hypotheses are forwarded comparing written and verbal 163 disclosure. Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant difference over time between Sessions 1-164 4 for positive emotions, negative emotions, and cognitive processing. Positive emotions and 165 cognitive processing will increase, whereas negative emotions will decrease. The final aim of 166 the study is to understand the participants' post-intervention appraisal of the acceptability of 167 the intervention procedures (e.g., What did the participants think of the intervention? Were 168 there any negative side effects?) and the importance of any elicited outcomes (e.g., What 169 were the outcomes? Did the participants value them?). 170

171

Method

172 Sample and Participant Selection

173 Criterion, theoretical, and maximum-variation sampling were used to identify
174 participants (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). The criteria were threefold: (a) potential participants

had to have been injured through sport for a minimum of four-weeks. Indeed, this study was 175 only interested in 'sport'-related injuries and previous researchers have used four-weeks as 176 the length of time to define a 'serious' sport injury (Bianco, Malo, & Orlick, 1999); (b) 177 potential participants had to have returned to sport following injury in the past six months. 178 This criterion aligns with the aim of the study, which is to examine the efficacy of the 179 intervention during the return to sport phase of recovery; and (c) potential participants had to 180 be low in hardiness. Theoretical sampling was used to meet this latter criterion, which 181 entailed potential participants completing the Dispositional Resilience Scale to assess their 182 level of hardiness (DRS; Bartone, Ursano, Wright, & Ingraham, 1989). If athletes scored 183 below the 25th percentile (i.e., a score of 47 or below for this study), they were deemed low 184 in hardiness. In total, 214 injured athletes who recently returned to sport were sampled, with 185 186 only 52 deemed low in hardiness. This study is a stand-alone study and not part of a larger study; the questionnaire data has not been published elsewhere. The resultant 52 potential 187 participants were then matched across three groups (i.e., WD, VD and control) using 188 189 maximum variation sampling. The aim was to match the groups as much as possible across several pre-determined characteristics (i.e., sex, sport type, competitive level, type of injury, 190 and severity of injury), which have been shown to impact psychological responses to injury 191 (Brewer, 2007; Wadey & Evans, 2011). When a match was obtained for a participant already 192 assigned to a group, the new participant was assigned to another group. In the case of two 193 matches, the next matched participant was assigned to the remaining group. Participants who 194 could not be matched across the three groups according to the criteria were omitted. This 195 procedure ensured that any changes identified were the result of the intervention rather than 196 demographic differences between groups. 197

198 Participants who were duplicated or could not be matched across the groups were199 omitted (N=5). Two dropped out due to external commitments (i.e., time commitments to

200 sport). The final sample consisted of 15 athletes in each group. All 45 athletes were then invited to participate. All agreed and provided written consent in line with the University's 201 Ethics Committee. Of the 45 athletes, 17 were female and 28 were male, with a mean age of 202 23.2 (SD = 5.22). They represented several individual and team sports, ranging from 203 recreational to international levels of competition, and had previously sustained a variety of 204 injuries (see Tables 4-6). All participants had recovered from their injuries and returned to 205 full training and/or competition at the time of this study. Following the intervention, a 206 purposeful sample of 30 athletes from the original sample participated in follow-up social 207 validation interviews and member reflections. Ten from each of the three intervention groups. 208 Mean age of participants was 23.3 years (SD = 5.2; 16 males, 14 females). Using maximum 209 variation sampling (Sparkes & Smith, 2014), participants were matched across the groups and 210 211 were selected because they represented diverse sports, levels of competition, and types and severities of injuries. 212

213 **Procedure**

Ethical approval was sought and granted from the University's ethics committee. 214 Participants were recruited by approaching sporting Universities and clubs across the United 215 Kingdom. Institutions were contacted by phone and email to discuss the nature of the study 216 and whether they would allow access to potential participants. All Universities and clubs who 217 were contacted agreed that the first Author could approach their athletes. For those athletes 218 who met the selection criteria and provided informed consent, a suitable time to conduct the 219 intervention was discussed. All interventions took place in a University office. Consistent 220 with previous research and standardized instructions from Pennebaker and Beall (1986), the 221 participants then experienced one of the three manipulations. Participants in the WD Group 222 were asked to write about their deepest thoughts and feelings regarding their recent sporting 223 injury. Those in the VD Group were asked to talk about their deepest thoughts and feelings 224

regarding their recent sporting injury into an audio-tape recorder. Finally, those in the control 225 group were asked to write facts about their daily events (Stanton et al., 2002; Ullrich & 226 Lutgendorf, 2002). Participants completed x 4 20-minute sessions, one session per week. 227 Participants completed a measure of growth (Park, Cohen, & Murch, 1996) at the beginning 228 of the first session, the end of the last session, and four weeks post-intervention. Importantly, 229 safeguards were put in place to monitor the well-being of the participants. Following each 230 session, participants were debriefed by the first Author who listened to any concerns and 231 reminded them of organisations they could contact if they were experiencing any distress. 232 233 From the outset of the study and during the intervention they were also reminded that they could stop the session or withdraw from the study at any time. A subset of participants 234 (N=30) was then invited to take part in a social validation interview. Each interview was 235 236 conducted face-to-face (*M* interview duration = 90.5 min.; *SD*=26.4), resulting in over 45 hours of qualitative data. All participants were debriefed. 237

238 Measures

239 Growth. As there is not a measure of SIRG, the Stress-Related Growth Scale (SRGS; Park et al., 1996) was used to measure growth. SRGS is a 50-item one-dimensional 240 questionnaire designed to assess individuals' perceptions of whether they experience positive 241 outcomes following a stressful event (e.g., "I developed new relationships with helpful 242 others" and "I learned that I was stronger than I thought I was"). To ascertain athletes' 243 perceptions of growth following injury and in line with Salim et al.'s (2015b) protocol, the 244 original stem was modified from "Rate how much you experienced each item below as a 245 result of this year's most stressful event" to "Rate how much you experienced each item 246 below as a result of your recent injury experience". Participants were asked to rate each item 247 from 0 (not at all), 1 (somewhat) or 2 (a great deal). SRGS has good internal consistency, 248 model fit and test-retest reliability (Park et al., 1996). 249

250 Our rationale for using the SRGS was that the conceptualization of stress-related growth is more aligned with SIRG than with other concepts such as post-traumatic growth. 251 To elaborate, Park (2009) described post-traumatic growth as radical and veridical positive 252 253 transformation, which arises following traumatic events from rebuilding shattered assumptions. In contrast, stress-related growth is described as positive changes that are less 254 dramatic or radical than post-traumatic growth, which arise through re-appraising the 255 stressor. In Roy-Davis et al.'s (2017) T-SIRG, they identified that the process through which 256 SIRG occurs is through re-appraising injury rather than rebuilding shattered assumptions. 257 Therefore, we decided to use the SRGS rather than, for example, the Post-Traumatic Growth 258 Inventory (Tedeschi & Colhoun, 1995). 259

Manipulation Check. A manipulation check (Pennebaker, Colder, & Sharp, 1990) 260 261 was used to ensure the participants were conducting the task correctly after each intervention session (i.e., the experimental conditions were disclosing their thoughts and feelings). It 262 contains nine statements (e.g., Overall how much emotion did you disclose in the entries you 263 wrote about?) and one open ended question (i.e., What do you think the experiment was 264 trying to prove?). Consistent with previous research (Murray & Segal, 1994), for those 265 participants completing the verbal condition, the word 'wrote' was changed to 'spoke'. Each 266 participant was asked to indicate the truthfulness of each statement on a 5-point Likert scale 267 anchored from 1 (not at all true) to 5 (completely true). Higher scores demonstrated whether 268 269 the participants adhered to the specific instructions.

Social Validation. Rather than using questionnaires or a structured interview guide
(Kazdin, 1977), a semi-structured interview guide was developed for this study. This
qualitative method of data collection was chosen to understand the participants' perceptions
of the intervention procedures (i.e., positive, negative, and cognitive mechanism words) and
the importance of potential outcomes (i.e., growth-related experiences). The semi-structured

11

275 nature also provided the flexibility to enable the interviewee to talk freely around the predetermined themes, whilst also allowing the interviewer to explore any areas that arose 276 spontaneously (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The guide consisted of five sections. The first 277 two section explained the objective of the study and sought to gain rapport with the 278 participants. The third and fourth sections focused on the acceptability of the intervention 279 protocol (e.g., What did you think of the intervention? Were there any side effects?) and the 280 potential impact of the intervention respectively (e.g., What effect, if any, did the intervention 281 have on you? What do these outcomes mean to you?). The concluding section invited the 282 283 participants to add to anything previously discussed. Neutral non-directional probes (e.g., Can you give me an example? What do you mean?) were used throughout the entire 284 interview process (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). 285

286 Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using SPSS 19.0 and involved four stages. First, the 287 data were screened to check for accuracy and statistical assumptions. Second, means and 288 standard deviations from the manipulation check were examined to see how much emotion 289 was disclosed. Third, a mixed-design (Group x Time) ANOVA was conducted to assess 290 SIRG between groups. Follow-up Bonferroni corrected pairwise comparisons tests were used 291 to isolate mean differences. Fourth, Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC; Pennebaker, 292 Francis, & Booth, 2001) was used to analyse the content of the verbal and written disclosure 293 for each of the four intervention sessions. This software is designed to assess grammatical, 294 linguistic, and psychological features of text documents. Based on T-SIRG (Roy et al., 2017). 295 Salim et al.'s (2015) research findings with injured athletes high and low in hardiness, and 296 our hypotheses, this study was interested in three measures: (a) words indicating that the 297 participant experienced positive emotions, (b) words indicating that the participant 298 experienced negative emotions, and (c) words indicating that the participant engaged in 299

12

300 cognitive processes. Finally, a mixed-design (Group x Time) MANOVA was conducted on

301 the LIWC findings to examine the differences within groups for the intervention sessions.

302 Follow-up ANOVA tests were conducted to isolate mean differences.

The large qualitative dataset was rigorously analysed using thematic analysis (Braun, 303 Clarke, & Weate, 2016). First, the first Author familiarised herself with the data, which 304 involved transcribing the data, repeat reading of the transcripts, and reading the data in an 305 active way (i.e., searching for patterns). Next, initial codes were generated by identifying 306 interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data. Once the data 307 had been coded, data relevant to each code was collated. The next phase considered how 308 these different codes combined to form an overarching theme and involved thinking about the 309 relationship between codes, between themes, and between different levels of themes. The 310 311 themes were then reviewed in relation to the coded extracts, the entire data set, and the overall story they tell about the participants' experiences. Finally, producing the report 312 involved ensuring the write up provided a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive, and 313 interesting account of the data, with vivid, compelling extract examples. Although this 314 description of thematic analysis may appear a linear stepwise process, in practice is was a 315 more recursive and reflexive process of working with the data (Braun et al., 2016). 316

Enhancing the methodological rigour of the qualitative data analysis process, the co-317 author acted as a 'critical friend' throughout (Faulkner & Sparkes, 1999). For example, the 318 first author presented her interpretations of the data on a regular basis to the co-author who 319 provided a theoretical sounding board to encourage reflection upon, and exploration of, 320 alternative explanations and interpretations as they were identified in relation to the data. As 321 part of this process of critical dialogue, the first author was required to make a defendable 322 case that the available data supported her interpretations. In addition, participant reflections 323 on our analytical interpretations were also sought to enhance the study's methodological 324

325 rigour (Smith & McGannon, 2017), which took place on average six months following the social validation interviews. This involved sharing and dialoguing with the participants about 326 the study's findings and providing opportunities for additional data and insight. To elaborate, 327 328 this process involved discussing with our participants their experiences of the processes and 'outcomes' of the intervention, which helped to further co-construct and crystalize the 329 identified themes. For example, our discussions of the 'outcomes' ensured we understood 330 their growth-related experiences from their perspective. Rather than using existing 331 definitions, taxonomies or inventories in a deductive fashion, we remained open to novel 332 forms and representations of growth-related experiences (Day & Wadey, 2017). In addition, 333 the participants also expressed whether their perceptions of the intervention had changed 334 since the social validation interview. For example, some participants expressed during the 335 336 interview that the intervention was difficult for them in that it involved reliving a painful time in their lives. Yet, during the member reflections, it was expressed that the intervention had 337 also been therapeutic for them over time. By generating more nuanced insights and additional 338 data, which ultimately led to more well-rounded themes, the process of member reflections 339 had a critical role in enhancing the rigor of this study. 340

341

Results

342 **Preliminary Analyses**

Consistent with other disclosure interventions (Lyubomirsky, Sousa, & Dickerhoof; 2006, Murray & Segal, 1994), three preliminary analyses were conducted: (a) difference between groups for growth-related experiences at Time 1 (i.e., pre-intervention), (b) manipulation check, and (c) word count. Growth scores between groups at Time 1 revealed no significant difference: VD group and WD group (p = .87), WD group and control group (p= .53), and VD group and control group (p = .43). Regarding the manipulation check, a significant difference between the experiment groups and control group for emotional 350 disclosure and its meaningfulness was identified (ps. < .05). That is, both the WD and VD groups disclosed more emotions and their entries were more meaningful than the control 351 group. There was no significant difference between the WD and VD groups (p > .05). 352 Consistent with Pennebaker et al. (1990) who developed the manipulation check, these 353 findings show that the experimental manipulation was effective, with both experimental 354 groups expressing more emotions than the control group. Means (SD) are displayed in Table 355 1. Finally, the VD group (M = 4700.13 [SD = 1431.03]) disclosed three times as many words 356 than the WD group (M = 1376.86 [SD = 600.52]). The control group disclosed the least 357 358 amount of words (*M* = 1005.12 [*SD* = 501.32].

359 Hypothesis 1: Growth

Findings revealed a significant Group x Time interaction (Wilks' Lambda = .34, F [4, 360 82] = 14.51, p = .00, $\eta_p^2 = .41$). Post hoc test indicated a significant interaction effect at Time 361 2 (post-intervention) and Time 3 (4-week follow-up) between groups. That is, the participants 362 in the VD condition reported more growth than those in the WD and control groups at Time 2 363 and Time 3 (ps < .05). Findings also revealed a significant main effect between groups (F 364 [1,42] = 3.38, p = .04, $\eta_p^2 = .14$). Bonferroni pairwise comparisons indicated a significant 365 difference between the VD Group and control group (p = .04). From exploring the mean 366 values, the VD Group reported more growth than the control group. No significant difference 367 was found between the VD group and WD group or WD Group and control group (ps. > .05). 368 369 All means (SD) are displayed in Table 2.

370 H

Hypothesis 2: Linguistic Inquiry

Findings revealed a significant Group x Time interaction (Wilks' Lambda = .76, *F* (4, 82) = 2.95, p = .025, $\eta_p^2 = .12$). Post hoc test indicated a significant interaction effect for positive, negative and cognitive mechanism words for all four sessions. This interaction was due to the condition differences. That is, between the VD and WD groups during the final

16

disclosure session. Findings also revealed a significant main effect for time (Wilks' Lambda = .60, F [3, 40] = 8.76, p = .00, $\eta_p^2 = .40$). Bonferroni pairwise comparisons revealed no significant difference between Sessions 1 and 2 (p = .30), Sessions 2 and 3 (p = .40), or Sessions 3 and 4 (p = 1.00). However, a significant difference was found between Sessions 1 and 4 (p = .02). From exploring the mean values, there was a significant increase in positive emotions and cognitive mechanism words over the four weeks and a decrease in negative words for both the WD and VD groups. All means (SD) are displayed in Table 3.

382 Social Validation

383 Verbal disclosure. Participants' experiences of the processes of the VD intervention were grouped into four themes (i.e., *Retraumatisation*, *Therapeutic Experience*, *One-Way* 384 Conversation, and Putting the Puzzle Together), whereas the outcomes reflected three themes 385 of SIRG: Seeing Myself in a Different Light, Seeing Others in a Different Light, and Stop, 386 Reflect, Act. Regarding processes, the first theme was Retraumatisation. Participants reported 387 from the outset that the intervention was a difficult and challenging experience for them in 388 that it led to reliving an upsetting period in their lives, resulting in negative affect (e.g., anger, 389 frustration, guilt, feelings of depression, restlessness). One athlete recalled "Talking about 390 being injured made me feel angry because it takes you back to that moment again. I could *feel* 391 that same *frustration* from when I was off for so long. It was a horrible experience. It's like 392 opening the door to the past." These negative emotions lingered with the participants during 393 and after the first two sessions. One participant expressed, "I remember coming out of the 394 first session, and the negative feelings staying with me. They, they, came home with me that 395 evening. I couldn't shake them off. I kept replaying the injury over again in my head. It 396 wasn't a pleasant experience for me." Yet, these negative emotions were reported to dissipate 397 in later sessions as the participants worked through their experiences, leading to what they 398

described as a *Therapeutic Experience* that lowered negative affect and heightened positiveaffect. One participant expressed:

It was nice to talk in the later sessions. It was cathartic. Better out than in, I guess. I don't know, it was just nice to take the time to understand, well, *me*. It was like therapy. I clearly had a lot of shit going on in my head about my injury, and it was nice to unleash it. To let it all out. It felt good to do it. It felt nice to offload. To get everything out of my head. I'd do it again. I'd recommend it to others.

Another theme identified was having a One-Way Conversation. Participants reported 406 407 that talking into a Dictaphone was a strange experience; strange in the sense that no one was replying to them and no one was physically present in the room. For example, one athlete 408 409 recalled, "For the first minute it seemed, well, weird. Weird to be talking to myself, because I 410 had never done anything like that before, you know, talking out loud by myself." Yet on the other hand, they also reported that over time it soon became an effortless process for them. 411 One participant expressed, "Initially, it felt really weird to be talking to myself out loud. But, 412 413 as the sessions went on, I started to feel more comfortable talking. It felt quite natural to talk. To talk to myself." Participants also reported having a one-way conversation was pleasurable. 414 Indeed, no one was interrupting them, no one was telling them how they should think and 415 feel, no one was pretending to listen, and no one was following up with their own examples. 416 In addition, they reported that they could be honest with themselves: "It was nice because no 417 418 one was judging me. I was just being honest with myself. Saying how I really felt." Yet, while having a one-way conversation was deemed pleasurable, they also reported that one of 419 the main challenges for them was *Putting the Puzzle Together*. Participants' recalled that their 420 thoughts were initially jumbled and unorganized, but over the four sessions they were soon 421 able to put their experiences into a story-like format. One participant recalled: 422

In my head, it seemed like a jumbled, incoherent mess! Funny enough though, over the four sessions, I think it started to come out in a more structured way; almost like a story. As each session went on, it became more and more structured and I think it ended up as a story from the start of my injury all the way through to my return. It was like putting a puzzle together.

Regarding intervention outcomes, participants reported three areas of SIRG. The first 428 was Seeing Myself in a Different Light. The participants reported learning a great deal about 429 themselves (i.e., heightened self-awareness). This included how selfish they were and that 430 431 they need to be more caring, how their actions have consequences on themselves and others, how they took their health for granted and they need to be more compassionate to their 432 bodies, how they need to be less pessimistic and more optimistic or more pessimistic and less 433 434 optimistic, how they were more resilient than they give themselves credit for, and the importance of emotional-disclosure. One athlete recalled: 435

I never thought it would change me, but I have learnt so much about myself from
doing this task. I wouldn't have call myself a resilient or strong person. I always
thought I was weak ... I don't handle pressure very well. I don't deal with adversity
as well as I would like to. I'm often not able to speak out about how I'm really
feeling. But, I've realised that despite feeling rubbish, I still overcame my injury. So, I
must be stronger than I thought.

Participants also reported *Seeing Others in a Different Light*. This theme encompassed
strengthened and weakened relationships with others, heightened awareness of their support
network, understanding the importance of reciprocal relationships, realisation of who they
can and cannot rely on in times of need, and a greater insight into the support exchanges
between members of their support network. Indeed, participants reported that many of their

support network did not meet their needs. On the other hand, they also acknowledged howthey had affected these support exchanges:

I learnt my friends and family didn't really help me much when I was injured. But,
this task also made me realize that I didn't tell them what I was really thinking and
feeling, because I didn't think they would understand what I was going through. I
guess I'm partly to blame here, as I didn't give them the chance to understand because
I was so angry. Relationships are messy.

The final theme is *Stop*, *Reflect*, *Act*. The theme reflected how the participants 454 changed behaviors because of the intervention in terms being more empathetic to other 455 injured athletes, changing training regimes to integrate rehabilitation exercises to prevent 456 injury, and eating more healthily. One athlete reported, "I now understand the importance of 457 warming up and cooling down properly. Talking forced me to think about why I got injured. I 458 never warmed up or cooled down properly. I have definitely taken this on board now." 459 Regarding eating more healthily, one participant said, "I took my health for granted. I ate so 460 unhealthily when I was injured. I've realised that I need to change this. I need to look after 461 me, my body. Now, I only put good stuff on my plate, which makes me feel better about me." 462

Written disclosure. Participants' experiences of the processes of the intervention 463 were grouped into five themes (i.e., Retraumatisation, Therapeutic Experience, A Structured 464 Approach, Struggling to Keep Up with My Thoughts, and Seeing is Believing), whereas the 465 outcomes reflected two themes: *Still Putting the Pieces of the Puzzle Together* and *Seeing* 466 *Myself in a Different Light*. Like the VD group, participants found WD to be both 467 retraumatising and therapeutic. Two participants reported, "I got dropped from the squad 468 because of my injury. I've never really discussed how I felt with anyone or written anything 469 down. It was tough reliving and putting my emotions down on paper" and "I enjoyed writing. 470 I don't write enough. It was nice to chronical my experiences. It was therapeutic in a way." 471

However, a novel theme for WD was *A Structured Approach*. This theme reflects how the
participants found the intervention challenging, because they felt their writing had to be
structured, with a clear beginning and end. Although they were instructed not to worry about
spelling, grammar, and sentence structure, they reported feeling conscious that their entries
made sense and progressed chronologically. One athlete recalled:

I overthought about what I should and shouldn't write. I felt it needed to be
structured, like a story. In the first session, I tried to write my whole story. In later
sessions, I tried to go back and forth to re-address things. In ended up a bit of a mess,
with bits of my story all over the place.

Despite wanting to take a structured approach, the participants found this difficult to do in practice; they reported *Struggling to Keep Up with My Thoughts*. This theme reflected what the participants described as their thoughts moving faster than their ability to write. They reported their thoughts as jumping around, darting in different directions as new insights emerged and as their reflections widened and narrowed. This incongruence between their thoughts and ability to write them down fast enough led to them forgetting certain things they wanted to write. One participant mentioned:

488 Once I got into the flow of writing I found that I had too much I wanted to write down 489 but I could only think and write about one thing at a time. I had so many thoughts 490 running through my mind and often when I was writing, there were things I wanted to 491 say but forgot once I finished the point I was making. In all of the sessions, I ran out 492 of time before I could finish what I wanted to say.

The final theme, *Seeing is Believing*, represented that the interventions allowed them to see their thoughts and feelings in a written format, which validated them and made them real. Until the intervention, they had not stopped and reflected on their experience and they

were surprised by what they were writing, their thoughts and feelings, theirs and otherpeople's actions, and what their injury clearly meant to them. One athlete recalled:

I never realized how I felt about my injury until I wrote it all down and saw it on the
paper, you know what they say, *seeing is believing*. I didn't believe that my injury
affected my life in such a way until I wrote it down. It explains a lot of my behavior
because I was so upset about my injury.

502 Regarding outcomes from the intervention, two outcomes were identified: *Still*

503 *Putting the Pieces of the Puzzle Together* and *Seeing Myself in a Different Light*. The

504 participants felt they had not yet reached closure. That their stories had chapters missing.

505 That they had unanswered questions. That they had yet to dot-the-i's and cross the t's. All in

all, they still felt they were working through their injury experience. One athlete recalled:

507 My story was like a jumbled puzzle and I spent each session trying to write it down 508 and put it together. I never managed to write everything I wanted because the time 509 would run out. I managed to tell parts of my story, but it was probably incoherent in 510 places and I still have no idea about what really happened when I got injured.

The second theme, *Seeing Myself in a Different Light*, reflected what the participants had learned about themselves during the intervention and reflected SIRG, which contradicts and extends the quantitative findings. They had learnt how to train more effectively, how they manage adversity, how they should not take their health for granted, and how they should be more optimistic and less critical of themselves. One athlete reported:

516 This task has made me realize I'm negative about everything in my life, and always 517 think the worst-case scenario, rather than thinking about how I can make things better. 518 The more I talked the more I realized this. I now know I need to change this and try to 519 be more positive because my negativity just makes me feel rubbish.

21

520	Control Group. Participants' experiences of the processes and outcomes of being in
521	the control group reflected two themes: Too Much Time and Better Time Management.
522	Regarding the former, the participants felt they had far too much time. That is, they did not
523	need 20 minutes to write down what they had done during the day. One participant reported:
524	I wrote everything I could in as much detail as possible but I still found myself
525	completing the daily diary pretty quickly. I then had to go back to the beginning and
526	write it all again. There is only so much detail you can write about your day! And I
527	didn't really understand why we were doing it.

Yet, while the participants at times found the task a tedious and pointless endeavor in the earlier sessions, they soon started to realize that they were overburdened, investing too much time in areas of their life they do not value, and not maximizing their time during the day. For example, some realized how little time they spend with family and friends, whereas others identified that they had blocks of time when they were not doing anything. One participant expressed:

The diary has made me aware of what I do in a day and that I need to get better with my time management. I think I will start to write a list of things I need to do, that way I know when I have got things done. I think I am less likely to waste my day on tasks that do not even need to be done.

538

Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine the efficacy of a four-week emotional disclosure intervention to promote SIRG with injured athletes low in hardiness during their return to competitive sport. This study makes an original and rigorous contribution to the literature on SIRG in several important ways. First, this study is novel in that it is the first study in the sport and exercise psychology literature to examine the efficacy of an intervention to promote growth-related experiences. Whilst researchers have extended the literature conceptually,

545 methodologically, and theoretically (Day & Wadey, 2017; Howells & Fletcher, 2015; Roy et al., 2017), how to promote SIRG has received no research attention. Second, this study 546 significantly extends previous research on written disclosure with injured athletes in terms of 547 its methodological rigor (Mankad et al., 2009a; Mankad et al., 2009b; Mankad & Gordon, 548 2010). Heeding recommendations from the psychology of sport injury (Cupal, 1998; Evans & 549 Hardy, 2002) and emotional disclosure (Frattaroli, 2006) literature, this study uses a rigorous 550 methodology that incorporates a control group, follow-up assessment, manipulation check, 551 and social validation of procedures and outcomes. Finally, this study has also accounted for a 552 sub-group of athletes that have received limited research attention (i.e., injured athletes low in 553 hardiness). The sport and exercise psychology literature has lots of excellent examples of 554 research conducted with athletes who identify themselves as resilient or mentally tough (e.g., 555 Connaughton, Wadey, Hanton, & Jones, 2008; Fletcher & Mustafa, 2012; Gucciardi, 2017; 556 Hardy, Bell, & Beattie, 2013). Yet, athletes who lack resilience or mental toughness have 557 received less empirical attention (Uphill & Hemmings, 2017). 558 As hypothesized (Hypothesis 1), findings support the efficacy of VD to promote 559 growth in athletes' low in hardiness. The VD group reported significantly more growth than 560 both the WD and control groups, which was identified to represent three themes: Seeing 561 Myself in a Different Light, Seeing Others in a Different Light, and Stop, Reflect, Act. This 562 finding supports the T-SIRG (Roy et al., 2017) and research by Salim et al. (2015a,b) that 563 suggest or provide evidence that injured athletes who disclose their emotions are more likely 564 to experience SIRG. In contrast to our hypotheses, WD was not found to significantly 565 promote SIRG. This conflicts with research in other disciplines that have demonstrated the 566 efficacy of expressive writing to promote growth following adversity in diverse populations, 567

including cancer patients, bereaved individuals, and rheumatoid arthritis patients (e.g.,

569 Danoff-Burg, Agee, Romanoff, Kremer, & Strosberg, 2006; Lichtenthal & Cruess, 2010;

24

570 Low, Stanton, Bower, & Gyllenhammer, 2010; Smyth, Hockemeyer, & Tulloch, 2008). Several reasons may explain this finding. First, the intervention did not have enough sessions. 571 Despite following recommendations in the literature (Pennebaker & Beall, 1986), one of the 572 themes identified from the social validation interviews was that the participants were Still 573 Putting the Pieces of the Puzzle Together. Future researchers, therefore, should consider the 574 number of sessions and the duration between them (Frattaroli, 2006), as well as alternative 575 methods of disclosure (e.g., video logs), to add to our knowledge of the optimal conditions 576 under which disclosure should take place. A second reason why WD did not significantly 577 promote growth is the nature of the intervention itself. The VD groups were found to disclose 578 three times as many words than the WD group. Considering the T-SIRG suggests that the 579 cognitive and emotional processes of working through injury is a challenging endeavor (Roy 580 581 et al., 2017), this is perhaps not surprising that the VD group had moved further along the pathway to SIRG than the WD group. Finally, a measure of stress-related growth was used 582 rather than SIRG; therefore, the measure used might not have adequately accounted for the 583 nuanced differences between the concepts. Future researchers need to develop a measure of 584 SIRG to ensure the coherence of terminology and the associate use of a measurement tool 585 (Howells, Sarker, & Fletcher, 2017). However, this will be a challenging endeavor as SIRG 586 manifests itself within, and is perceived by, injured athletes differently. For example, one 587 athlete might view strengthened relationships with others as SIRG, whereas another might 588 report weakened relationships as an indicator of SIRG (Day & Wadey, 2017). 589 As hypothesized (Hypothesis 2), negative emotions decreased and positive emotions 590 and cognitive words increased over time for both the VD and WD groups. This finding 591 resonates with the identified themes from the social validation interviews that identified the 592 role of negative emotions (i.e., Retraumatisation) and positive emotions and cognitions (e.g., 593 *Therapeutic Benefits* and *Putting the Pieces of the Puzzle Together*). Further, these findings 594

595 align with the T-SIRG (Roy et al., 2017) that suggests that the adverse experiences following injury need to be rationalized and positively reappraised throughout recovery. 596 which in turn will generate positive emotions, facilitative actions, and ultimately SIRG. Yet, 597 598 while the present findings do support these theoretical proposals, the T-SIRG also stipulates that the relationship between these phenomena is far more complex. For example, Roy et al. 599 (2017) reported, "... negative demands and responses not only trigger the development of 600 SIRG, but also co-occur with the processes and experiences of SIRG" (p. 41). Indeed, the 601 process to SIRG is not linear and SIRG itself is not a static phenomenon; rather they both are 602 very much reflective of the ebb and flow of recovery from injury (Wadey & Evans, 2011). 603 This might be explained by drawing on a limitation of our study. That is, the method of data 604 605 collection used (i.e., questionnaire) and the study's methodological pre-post design, might not have been able to account for such complexity. Future researchers, therefore, should seek to 606 use alternative methods (e.g., diaries, observation, informal interviews) and methodologies 607 (e.g., ideographic rather than nomothetic such as action research and case studies) to generate 608 609 a more critical and nuanced understanding the complexities of SIRG. Importantly, these methodologies should also be longitudinal to account for the temporal nature of growth 610

611 (Helegson, Reynolds, & Tomich, 2006).

Underpinned by the Multilevel Model of Sport Injury (Wadey, Day, Cavallerio, & 612 Martinelli, 2018), the study's implications for applied practice are now considered across 613 several levels. At an intrapersonal level, injured athletes' beliefs of emotional disclosure need 614 to be challenged. Salim et al. (2015a) identified that athletes low in hardiness believe that 615 emotional disclosure burdens others, does not affect recovery, and can have negative 616 repercussions (e.g., team-selection). These beliefs should be prioritized as targets for change. 617 Other examples at this level include hardiness training (Maddi, 1987). Taking an 618 interpersonal perspective, findings suggest that the support received by injured athletes does 619

620 not often meet their needs. Therefore, support providers should receive adequate training. This can include teammates, physiotherapists, and family members. An excellent example of 621 how this could be done with parents, for example, is provided by Thrower, Harwood, and 622 Spray (2017). At a broader institutional level, sports organizations and clubs should reflect on 623 their resources, practices, and policies (Wadey et al., 2018). Questions worth considering 624 include: What physical spaces exist that are conducive to emotional disclosure? If an injured 625 athlete needed to disclose, what is the current protocol? What relationships with external 626 agencies exist that can facilitate disclosure? Excellent examples of how this could be 627 explored within a sports organization are provided by Parent (2011) and Cavallerio, Wadey, 628 and Wagstaff (2016). Finally, it is important to consider the cultural context: What are the 629 collective beliefs, norms, traditions, and values? What cultural narrative resources prevail? 630 631 For example, sporting cultures have been identified to revere positivity, which govern what stories can be told and what stories are silenced (Mankad et al., 2009a). As recommended by 632 Brown, Gilbourne, and Claydon (2009), all injured athletes need to be afforded the space and 633 opportunity to share their stories, which should be met with support, understanding, and 634 empathy (Wadey & Evans, 2011). 635

636

Conclusion

This study is original in that it is the first study to provide rigorous support for the 637 efficacy of VD to promote SIRG. Yet, while this study is rigorous and its findings are of 638 639 practical significance, it is recommend that future researchers proceed with caution. One finding from the social validation interviews is that injured athletes can experience 640 retraumatisation. That is, talking or writing about injury can be an upsetting experience and 641 such retraumatisation may constitutes abuse on the part of the researcher (Andersen & 642 Ivarsson, 2016). While research is often fundamentally an exploitative process, future 643 researchers should put appropriate safeguards in place to ensure the well-being of their 644

645	participants is not compromised. Future researchers should seek to extend this study by
646	diversifying. Drawing from other disciplines of research on growth following adversity,
647	researchers have examined art therapy (Singer et al., 2012), narrative exposure therapy
648	(Hijazi, Lumley, Ziadni, Haddad, Rapport, & Arnetz, 2014), and poetry (Tegner, Fox,
649	Philipp, & Thorne, 2009). These interventions, amongst others, represent exciting and
650	unfamiliar terrains for the psychology of sport injury literature.
651	References
652	Andersen, M. B., & Ivarsson, A. (2016). A methodology of living kindness: How
653	interpersonal neurobiology, compassion and transference can inform researcher-
654	participant encounters and storytelling. Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and
655	Health, 8, 1-20. DOI: 10.1080/2159676X.2015.1056827
656	Bartone, P. T., Ursano, R. J., Wright, K. M., & Ingraham, L. H. (1989). The impact of a
657	military air disaster on the health of assistance workers. The Journal of Nervous and
658	Mental Disease, 177, 317-328. Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com.
659	Bianco, T., Malo, S., & Orlick, T. (1999). Sport injury and illness: Elite skiers describe their
660	experiences. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 70, 157-169. DOI:
661	10.1080/02701367.1999.10608033.
662	Braun, V., Clarke, V., & Weate, P. (2016). Using thematic analysis in sport and exercise
663	research. In B. Smith & A. Sparkes (Eds.), Routledge handbook of qualitative
664	research methods in sport and exercise (pp. 191–205). London: Routledge.
665	Brewer, B. W. (2007). Psychology of sport injury rehabilitation. In G. Tenenbaum & R. C.
666	Eklund (Eds.), Handbook of sport psychology (pp. 404- 424). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
667	Brown, G., Gilbourne, D., & Clayson, J. (2009). When a career ends: A short story. Reflexive
668	Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives, 10, 491-500. DOI:
669	10.1080/14623940903138340

- 670 Cavallerio, F., Wadey, R., & Wagstaff, C. R. D. (2016). Understanding overuse injuries in
- 671 rhythmic gynastics: A 12-month ethnographic study. *Psychology of Sport and*
- 672 *Exercise*, 25, 100-109. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2016.05.002
- 673 Calhoun, L. G., & Tedeschi, R. G. (2006). *The handbook of posttraumatic growth: Research*674 *and practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- 675 Cupal, D. D. (1998). Psychological interventions in sport injury prevention and rehabilitation.
- *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 10,* 103-123. Retrieved from
- 677 http://search.ebscohost.com.
- 678 Connaughton, D., Wadey, R., Hanton, S., & Jones, G. (2008). The development and
- maintenance of mental toughness: Perceptions of elite performers. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 26, 83-95. DOI: 10.1080/02640410701310958
- Danoff-Burg, S., Agee, J., Romanoff, N., Kremer, J., & Strosberg, J. (2006). Benefit finding
 and expressive writing in adults with lupus or rheumatoid arthritis. *Psychology and*

683 *Health*, 21, 651-665. DOI: 10.1080/14768320500456996

- Day, M., & Wadey, R. (2017). Researching growth following adversity in sport and exercise:
- 685 Methodological implications and future recommendations. *Qualitative Research in*
- 686 *Sport, Exercise, and Health.* . Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com.
- Evans, L., & Hardy, L. (2002). Injury rehabilitation: A goal-setting intervention study.
- *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, *73*, 310-319. Retrieved from
- 689 http://search.ebscohost.com.
- 690 Faulkner, G., & Sparkes, A. (1999). Exercise as therapy for schizophrenia: An ethnographic
- 691 study. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 21, 52-69. Retrieved from
- 692 <u>http://search.ebscohost.com</u>

- 693 Fletcher, D., & Sarker, M. (2012). A grounded theory of psychological resilience in Olympic
- 694 champions. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *13*, 669-678. DOI:

695 10.1016/j.psychsport.2012.04.007

- Fletcher, D., & Sarkar, M. (2013). Psychological resilience: A review and critique of
- definitions, concepts, and theory. *European Psychologist*, *18*. doi:10.1027/1016-870
 9040/a000124
- 699 Frattaroli, J. (2006). Experimental disclosure and its moderators: A meta-analysis.

700 *Psychological Bulletin*, *132*, 823–65. DOI: <u>10.1037/0033-2909.132.6.823</u>

Gucciardi, D.F. (2017). Mental toughness: Progress and prospects. *Current Opinion in*

702 *Psychology*, *16*, 17-23. DOI:10.1016/j.copsyc.2017.03.010

- Hardy, L., Bell, J., & Beattie, S. (2014). A neuropsychological model of mentally tough
 behavior. *Journal of Personality*, 82, 69-81. DOI:10.1111/jopy.12034
- Helgeson, V. S., Reynolds, K. A., & Tomich, P. L. (2006). A meta–analytic review of benefit
 finding and growth. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *74*, 797–816.
- 707 DOI: 10.1037/0022-006X.74.5.797
- Hijazi, A., Lumley, M., Ziadni, M., Haddad, L., Rapport, L., & Arnetz, B. (2014). Brief
- narrative exposure therapy for posttraumatic stress in Iraqi refugees: A preliminary
- randomized clinical trial. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 27, 314-322. DOI:
- 711 10.1002/jts.21922
- Howells, K., & Fletcher, D. (2015). Sink or swim : Adversity- and growth-related
- experiences in Olympic swimming champions. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, *16*,
 37–48. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2014.08.004
- Howells, K., Sarkar, M., & Fletcher, D. (2017). Can athletes benefit from difficulty? A
- systematic review of growth following adversity in competitive sport. *Progress in*
- 717 Brain Research. DOI: 10.1016/bs.pbr.2017.06.002

- Joseph, S., & Linley, P. A. (2008). *Trauma, recovery, and growth: Positive psychological perspectives on posttraumatic stress*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Kazdin, A. E. (1977). Assessing the clinical or applied importance of behavior change
 through social validation. *Behavior Modification*, *1*, 427-452. Retrieved from
 http://search.ebscohost.com.
- Kobasa, S. C. (1979). Stressful life events, personality, and health: an inquiry into hardiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *37*,1-11. DOI: 10.1037/00223514.37.1.1.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkman, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Lichtenthal, W., & Cruess, D. (2010). Effects of directed written disclosure on grief and
 distress symptoms among bereaved individuals. *Death Studies*, *34*, 475-499. DOI:
 10.1080/07481187.2010.483332.
- C., Stanton, A., Bower, J., & Gyllenhammer, L. (2010). A randomized controlled trail
- of emotionally expressive writing for women with metastatic breast cancer. *Health*
- 733 *Psychology*, 29(4), 460-466. DOI:10.1037/ a0020153
- 734 Lyubomirsky, S., Sousa, L., & Dickerhoof, R. (2006). The costs and benefits of writing,
- talking, and thinking about life's triumphs and defeats. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *90*, 692-708. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.90.4.692
- 737 Maddi, S. R. (1987). Hardiness training at Illinois bell telephone. In J. Opatz (Ed.), *Health*
- 738 *promotion evaluation* (pp. 101-115). Stevens Points, WI: National Wellness Institute.
- 739 Mankad, A., & Gordon, S. (2010). Psycho-linguistic changes in athletes" response to injury
- after written emotional disclosure. *Journal of Sport Rehabilitation 19*, 328-342.
- 741 Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com.

- Mankad, A., Gordon, S., & Wallman, K. E. (2009a). Perceptions of emotional climate among
 injured athletes. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology*, *3*, 1-14. Retrieved from
 http://search.ebscohost.com.
- Mankad, A, Gordon, S., & K. E. Wallman, K. E. (2009b) Psycholinguistic analysis of
 emotional disclosure: A case study in sport injury. *Journal of Clinical Sports*
- 747 *Psychology*, *3*, 182–196. Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com.
- Murray, E. J., & Segal, D. L. (1994). Emotional processing in vocal and written expression of
 feelings about traumatic experiences. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, *7*, 189–206. DOI:
- 750 10.1521/jscp.1994.13.2.189
- Parent, S. (2011). Disclosure of sexual abuse in sports organisations: A case study. Journal of
 Child Sexual Abuse, 20, 322-337. DOI: 10.1080/10538712.2011.573459
- Park, C. L. (2009). Overview of theoretical perspectives. In C. L. Park, S. Lechner, M. H.
- Antoni, & A. Stanton (Eds.), *Positive life change in the context of medical illness: Can the experience of serious illness lead to transformation?*
- Park, C. L., Cohen, L. H., & Murch, R. L. (1996). Assessment and prediction of stress-related
 growth. *Journal of Personality*, *64*, 71–105. Retrieved from
- 758 http://search.ebscohost.com.
- Pennebaker, J. W., & Beall, S. K. (1986). Confronting a traumatic event: Toward an
- vunderstanding of inhibition and disease. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 95, 274-
- 761 281. DOI: <u>10.1037/0021-843X.95.3.274</u>
- 762 Pennebaker, J. W., Colder, M., & Sharp, L. K. (1990). Accelerating the coping process.
- Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 58, 528–537. Retrieved from
 http://search.ebscohost.com.
- Pennebaker, J. W., Francis, M. E., & Booth, R. J. (2001). *Linguistic inquiry and word count: LIWC*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Podlog, L., Dimmock, J., & Miller, J. (2011). A review of return to sport concerns following
injury rehabilitation: Practitioner strategies for enhancing recovery outcomes.

769 *Physical Therapy in Sport, 12*, 43-48. DOI: 10.1016/j.ptsp

- Podlog, L., & Eklund, R. C. (2009). High level athletes' perceptions of success in returning to
 sport following injury. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *10*, 535-544. DOI:
- 772 10.1016/j.psychsport
- Uphill, M. A., & Hemmings, B. (2016). Vulnerability: ripples from reflections on mental
 toughness. *The Sport Psychologist*. DOI:10.1123/tsp.2016-0034
- 775 Roy-Davis, K., Wadey, R., & Evans, L. (2016). A grounded theory of sport injury-related
- growth, *Sport, Exercise, and Performance Psychology*, *6*, 35–52. DOI:
- 777 10.1037/spy000080
- Salim, J., Wadey, R., & Diss, C. (2015a). Examining the relationship between hardiness and
 perceived stress-related growth in a sport injury context. *Psychology of Sport and*

780 *Exercise*, 19, 10–17. DOI: 10.1080/10413200.2015.1086448

- Salim, J., Wadey, R., & Diss, C. (2015b) Examining hardiness, coping and stress-related
- growth following sport injury, *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 00: 1–16. DOI:
- 783 10.1080/10413200.2015.1086448
- Singer, S., Gotze, H., Buttstadt, M., Ziegler, C., Richter, R., Brown, A., Geue, K. (2012). A

non-randomised trial of an art therapy intervention for patients with haematological

- malignancies to support post-traumatic growth. *Journal of Health Psychology*, 18,
- 787 939-949. DOI:10.1177/1359105312458332
- Smith, B., & McGannon K. (2017). Developing rigor in qualitative research: Problems and
- 789 opportunities within sport and exercise psychology. *International Review of Sport and*
- 790 *Exercise Psychology*. DOI:10.1080/1750984X.2017.1317357

Smyth, J., Hockemeyer, J., & Tulloch, H. (2008). Expressive writing and post-traumatic
stress disorder: Effects on trauma symptoms, mood states, and cortisol reactivity.

793 British Journal of Health Psychology, 13, 85-93. DOI:10.1348/135910707X250866

- 794 Sparkes, A., & Smith, B. (2014). *Qualitative research methods in sport, exercise and health:*
- 795 *From process to product*. London: Routledge.
- 796 Stanton, A. L., & Danoff-Burg, S. (2002). Emotional expression, expressive writing, and
- cancer. In S. J. Lepore & J. M. Smyth (Eds.), *The writing cure: How expressive*
- 798 *writing promotes health and emotional well-being* (pp. 31-51). Washington, DC:
- 799 American Psychological Association.
- Tedeschi, R., & Calhoun, L. (1995). *Trauma and transformation: Growing in the aftermath of suffering*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Tegner, I., Fox, J., Philipp, R., & Thorne, P. (2009). Evaluating the use of poetry to improve
 well-being and emotional resilience in cancer patients. *Journal of Poetry Therapy*, 22,
- 804 121-131. DOI:10.1080/08893670903198383
- 805 Thrower, S. N., Harwood, C. G., & Spray, C. M. (2017). Educating and supporting tennis
- 806 parents: An action research study. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise, and*
- 807 *Health*. DOI:10.1080/2159676X.2017.1341947
- Ullrich, P. A., & Lutgendorf, S. L. (2002). Journaling about stressful events: Effects of
 cognitive processing and emotional expression. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, 24,
- 810 244-250. Retrived from http://search.ebscohost.com
- 811 Uphill, M. A. and Hemmings, B. (2016) *Vulnerability: ripples from reflections on mental*
- 812 *toughness.* The Sport Psychologist, 1, 1-24. http://dx.doi.org/10.1123/tsp.2016-0034
- 813 Wadey, R., Clark, S., Podlog, L., & McCullough, D. (2013). Coaches' perceptions of athletes'
- stress-related growth following sport injury. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 14,
- 815 125-135. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2012.08.004.

- 816 Wadey, R., Day, M., Cavallerio, F., & Martinelli, L. (2018). The multilevel model of sport
- 817 injury: Can coaches impact and be impacted by injury? In R. Thelwell & M. Dicks
- 818 (Eds.), *Professional Advances in Sports Coaching: Research and Practice*. Routledge.
- 819 Wadey, R., & Evans, L. (2011). Working with injured athletes: Research and practice. In S.
- 820 Hanton & S. D. Mellalieu (Eds.), *Professional practice in sport psychology: A review*
- 821 (pp. 107-132). London: Routledge.