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Achievement despite adversity: A qualitative investigation of undrafted National Hockey League
players

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25 Abstract

26 Adversity is viewed as both an inevitable and important experience for elite athletes (Howells et
27 al., 2017). The purpose of this study was to explore elite athletes' perceptions of the experiences
28 and characteristics that helped them to overcome a shared sport-specific adversity. Semi-
29 structured interviews were conducted with 12 professional athletes ($M_{age} = 27.25$; $SD = 3.28$
30 years) who had progressed to careers in the National Hockey League (NHL) despite not being
31 selected in the annual Amateur Entry Draft. Participants discussed their long-term objectives of
32 playing in the NHL, previous experiences with adversity, certain psychological characteristics
33 that facilitated their progression (e.g., competitiveness, passion, confidence), and the significance
34 of social support as key factors that helped them to overcome the initial and subsequent
35 adversities associated with being unselected during the Amateur Entry Draft. Practical
36 implications and proposed avenues for future research are discussed within the context of the
37 study's limitations.

38 *Keywords:* achieving, draft, hardship, professional sport, social support

39 Achievement despite adversity: A qualitative investigation of undrafted National Hockey League
40 players

41 Human achievement and the antecedents to success and failure have long been topics of
42 interest in academia. In fact, Galton (1869) is credited as one of the first to propose that factors
43 beyond innate ability must be considered in relation to individual achievement. Indeed, across a
44 variety of domains (e.g., sport, academics, military), a number of relevant factors are known to
45 contribute to individual achievement, ranging from genetics (e.g., the ACE gene and its
46 regulation of blood pressure with implications for sprinters; Sawczuk, Maciejewska, Ciężczyk,
47 & Eider, 2011), physiology (e.g., musculature in Olympic rowers; Kerr et al., 2007), psychology
48 (e.g., psychological resilience; Fletcher & Sarkar, 2012), to the social environment (e.g., access
49 to opportunities and resources; Côté, Macdonald, Baker, & Abernethy, 2006). Importantly, the
50 degree to which these factors contribute to achievement is dependent upon various
51 environmental demands that an individual may encounter (for a review, see Sarkar & Fletcher,
52 2014). In elite sport, developing expertise requires athletes to dedicate considerable time and
53 effort to training, and demonstrate a willingness to engage in competitive, comparison-laden
54 situations (Durand-Bush & Salmela, 2002; Rees et al., 2016). Accordingly, the ability to engage
55 with challenging and potentially negative events is considered to be a prerequisite to high-level
56 athletic achievement (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2012).

57 Athletes' engagement with negative experiences has garnered increasing attention from
58 sport psychology researchers in recent years (e.g., Howells, Sarkar, & Fletcher, 2017). In part,
59 this trend can be attributed to athletes' acknowledgement that their engagement with negative
60 experiences contributed to their subsequent sporting achievements (e.g., Fletcher & Sarkar,
61 2012; Howells & Fletcher, 2015). For instance, Olympic champions have noted the unlikelihood

62 of their success if it had not been for the difficulties they had encountered and subsequently
63 learned from during their careers (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2012). Similarly, clear examples can be
64 gleaned from autobiographies of elite athletes, whereby they attributed success to their ability to
65 handle negative events they had encountered (Howells & Fletcher, 2015). There is a growing
66 desire from a talent development perspective to understand how controlled experiences with
67 challenging circumstances can be used to develop the characteristics demonstrated by elite
68 athletes (e.g., Collins & MacNamara, 2012). For example, Collins and MacNamara (2012)
69 suggested that the exposure to potentially negative events or experiences would help athletes
70 develop the skills and characteristics required to enable them to engage with the challenges of
71 elite sport.

72 To better understand athletes' engagement with negative experiences, sport researchers
73 have utilized a range of psychological concepts and theories. Interestingly, the application of a
74 variety of approaches combined with growing interest in the topic has led to a lack of clarity
75 regarding certain concepts and constructs within the field (Howells et al., 2017). For example,
76 investigators have used the terms *stressors*, *adversity*, and *trauma* to describe a range of similar
77 negative events or experiences (e.g., injury, poor performance) encountered by athletes (Howells
78 et al., 2017). Conceptually, the term stressor applies to a broad range of negative experiences,
79 with adversity representing a threshold beyond which refers to more severe negative experiences
80 (e.g., Jackson, Firtko, & Edenborough, 2007). Similarly, the term trauma is appropriately used
81 when referring to an individual's physical, psychological, and emotional distress that results
82 from exposure to stressors or adversity (Day & Wadey, 2016). Importantly, regardless of the
83 terminology used in reference to negative events or experiences, an extensive body of literature

84 supports the potential to obtain psychosocial benefits and adaptive outcomes from such events
85 (e.g., Seery, Holman, & Silver, 2010).

86 In addition to athletes' engagement with a variety of stressors and adversities, researchers
87 are also interested in the athlete outcomes stemming from these experiences. For instance, Seery
88 (2011) found that people with a history of experiencing adversity had better mental health and
89 well-being than those who experienced low or high levels of adversity. In addition, positive
90 appraisals of adverse experiences are generally associated with improvements in psychosocial
91 attributes (e.g., motivation, confidence), stronger relationships within one's social support
92 network, and/or changes in life philosophy (Seery, 2011; Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004). Research
93 pertaining to sport specifically has adopted several terms to describe the adaptive outcomes that
94 can result from athletes' negative events or experiences, including stress-related growth (SRG;
95 e.g., Galli & Reel, 2012), adversarial growth (e.g., Howells & Fletcher, 2015), and posttraumatic
96 growth (PTG; e.g., Day & Wadey, 2016). In referring to the range of terms utilized, Howells and
97 colleagues (2017) recommended that researchers interested in the effects of athletes' negative
98 experiences should "carefully reflect on the specific focus, findings, and context of their research
99 and adopt terminology accordingly" (p. 151).

100 Within the broader psychology literature, and in reference to the human lifespan,
101 experiencing adversity is considered to be largely inevitable (Bonanno, Galea, Bucciarelli, &
102 Vlahov, 2007). Transition phases during an athlete's career represent inevitable experiences that
103 may be perceived as adversity, with those that are predictable being considered normative
104 transitions. For instance, the transition from amateur to professional sport is unrealistic for most
105 athletes, which gives many individuals the opportunity to plan for an alternative career. This can
106 help mitigate the stress associated with the transition out of competitive sport (Stambulova,

107 Alfermann, Statler, & Côté, 2009). Non-normative transitions, such as being forced out of sport
108 (or an anticipated level of sport) earlier than predicted, pose the greatest likelihood of being
109 perceived as a challenging experience because an athlete may not have fully processed clear
110 alternative objectives and coping strategies (e.g., Raabe, Zakrajsek, Bass, & Readdy, 2018;
111 Torregrosa, Boixadós, Valiente, & Cruz, 2004). This can create high levels of stress for athletes
112 because of the uncertainty about their future careers (Stambulova et al., 2009). Considering that
113 the majority of research on adversity in sport has explored a range of experiences of elite athletes
114 from a variety of sports (for a review see, Howells et al., 2017), contextualizing responses in
115 relation to a consistent, sport-specific adversity could offer an informative perspective pertaining
116 to athletic achievement.

117 Professional ice hockey provides a unique context to examine adversity that results from
118 non-normative transitions. Every June, the National Hockey League (NHL) franchises convene
119 for their annual Amateur Entry Draft (NHL Draft) where each of the 31 franchises take turns
120 selecting the top amateur players (18-20 years of age) from around the world. By selecting a
121 player in the NHL Draft, a franchise is reserving the exclusive negotiating rights to offer those
122 individuals a professional contract. In total, 217 amateur players are selected (31 NHL franchises
123 with seven selections each) in the NHL Draft each year. To put the likelihood of being drafted
124 and playing in the NHL in context, Parcels (2002) investigated the advancement of ~30,000
125 minor hockey players in Ontario, Canada who were born in 1975. Of those ~30,000 players, 48
126 (0.16%) were drafted to the NHL and only 32 (0.1%) participated in at least one NHL game
127 (Parcels, 2002). This understanding emphasizes the need to explore not only the potential
128 adversities (e.g., not being selected in the NHL Draft) that lead to athlete adaptations (i.e.,
129 changes in life philosophies and social support networks; development of psychological

130 attributes; Seery, 2011; Tamminen, Holt, & Neely, 2013), but also the characteristics of
131 individuals who are able to withstand and grow from those incidents (Côté, Baker, & Abernethy,
132 2003).

133 Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore elite athletes' perceptions of the
134 experiences and characteristics that helped them to overcome a shared sport-specific adversity
135 (i.e., not being selected in the NHL Draft) during their path to achieving a long-term objective
136 (i.e., competing in the NHL). More specifically, this investigation sought to explore NHL
137 players' perceptions of the experiences and characteristics that helped them to overcome not
138 being selected in the annual NHL Draft and to eventually compete at the NHL level.

139 **Method**

140 **Qualitative Approach**

141 Our research was informed by a constructivist paradigm, relativist ontology, and
142 transactional and subjective epistemology (e.g., Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Schwandt, 1994). Given
143 that we were interested in the unique experiences of undrafted professional ice hockey players,
144 we understood their realities to be both socially and experientially based, yet expected certain
145 elements to be shared by others in similar situations. Indeed, we viewed the process of data
146 collection to represent the co-creation of knowledge between the participants and the
147 investigator. Each athlete possesses a personal history that informs the meaning that they
148 attribute to these socially constructed interpretations, and as all participants went undrafted to the
149 NHL, we sought to explore their perceptions pertaining to their eventual achievement at that
150 professional level.

151 **The Sample: Undrafted NHL Athletes**

152 The most direct developmental paths to attaining the NHL for North American born

153 amateur athletes are through the Canadian Hockey League (CHL) or the National Collegiate
154 Athletic Association (NCAA). The CHL is an umbrella sport organization that represents the
155 three Tier I (major) junior hockey leagues for amateur players between 15 and 20 years of age.
156 Entry into the CHL often involves drastic life changes for 15 to 16-year-old youth, often
157 requiring a relocation away from social support networks (e.g., moving in with a billet family,
158 transferring to a new high school) to compete for one of the 60 CHL franchises across Canada
159 and the United States. The CHL franchise typically represents an athlete's first exposure to
160 competing against young adults in a competitive schedule similar to that of professional sport
161 (e.g., daily training, extensive travel, large audiences, constant organizational evaluation). These
162 youth become eligible for the NHL Draft at 18 years of age and retain their eligibility until the
163 year of their 21st birthday. Conversely, a second developmental pathway for top amateur hockey
164 players (aged 18 to 24 years) to attain the NHL is through the NCAA, where there are 60 NCAA
165 Men's programs across the United States. Together, the CHL ($n = 78$) and NCAA ($n = 67$)
166 accounted for 66.8% of amateur players selected in the 2018 NHL Draft (National Hockey
167 League, 2018). Of the remaining players selected, 32.3% were from Europe (Sweden = 31,
168 Russia = 15, Finland = 14, Czech Republic = 7, Switzerland = 2, England = 1) and 0.9% ($n = 2$)
169 were from North American teams outside of the CHL and NCAA (National Hockey League,
170 2018).

171 Participant recruitment for the current study was based on the principles of purposive
172 sampling (Palinkas et al., 2015). We sought to recruit a sample of undrafted NHL players who
173 shared the common experience of overcoming the same sport-specific adversity (i.e., not being
174 selected in the NHL Draft) on the path to the achievement of a long-term objective (i.e.,
175 competing at the professional level). In total, 12 undrafted North American born White male

176 athletes ($M_{age} = 27.25$ years; $SD = 3.28$ years) were recruited, representing both the CHL ($n = 7$)
177 and NCAA ($n = 5$) developmental streams. After not being selected in the NHL Draft,
178 participants took between 4 to 9 years ($M = 6.08$ years; $SD = 1.93$ years) until eventually
179 participating in their first NHL game (National Hockey League, 2017). The first among our
180 participants made their NHL debut during the 2007-2008 regular season (National Hockey
181 League, 2017), while $n = 3$ participants were still playing for NHL teams at the beginning of the
182 2018-2019 NHL regular season. Furthermore, their experience at the NHL level ranged from 6 to
183 304 games ($M = 152.67$; $SD = 111.10$). At the time of recruitment, undrafted athletes represented
184 approximately 15.65% (108 out of 690) of the NHL population, and our sample represented
185 11.11% (12 out of 108) of the potential participant pool (National Hockey League, 2017).

186 **Procedure**

187 The first author reviewed each NHL team, accumulating a list of undrafted athletes who
188 participated in at least one contest during the previous regular season. After reviewing the athlete
189 profiles for each player listed on the teams' 23-person rosters, those who had not been drafted
190 were further evaluated for eligibility as participants. For inclusion purposes, we targeted North
191 American-born players because those who develop outside of North America typically graduate
192 through academy-oriented programs that are affiliated with various European professional teams,
193 which was viewed as a potential confound with our research aim. Once a comprehensive list of
194 potential participants was compiled, the first author contacted gatekeepers (e.g., hockey
195 operations staff with multiple NHL franchises, sports agencies) to obtain contact information for
196 the athlete representatives (i.e., sport agents).

197 After obtaining institutional ethical approval, athlete representatives were approached and
198 asked to introduce the study to their clients. Once interested athletes contacted the first author to

199 arrange a time to conduct the interview, they were informed of the scope of the project, and were
200 sent a copy of the information letter. Given that participants were located across North America,
201 all interviews were conducted over the phone by the first author. Importantly, whereas there are
202 limitations inherent with telephone interviewing (e.g., inability to identify non-verbal
203 communication, sound quality, participant distractions), they can also facilitate participant
204 comfort and anonymity (e.g., Novick, 2008) and have been demonstrated to provide a similar
205 level of detail as in-person interviews (Cachia & Millward, 2011).

206 **Interview guide.** Interviews were informed by a semi-structured guide (available upon
207 request to the first author). This approach enabled the interviewer to begin by obtaining
208 descriptive information about participants' development as elite hockey players, while providing
209 flexibility to either person involved in the interview to explore the key experiences and
210 characteristics associated with the athletes' development. The interview guide was generally
211 organized chronologically, beginning with questions pertaining to formative sport experiences,
212 followed by inquiries surrounding junior, collegiate, and professional hockey careers. Questions
213 focused on participants' expectations leading up to the NHL Draft (e.g., "Thinking back to your
214 junior career, were there expectations for you to become a professional hockey player?"), their
215 experiences with not being selected (e.g., "How did you react to not being selected in the NHL
216 entry-draft?"), and how they overcame this adversity to pursue their objectives of playing in the
217 NHL (e.g., "What course of action did you take following the NHL Draft?"; "Did you turn to
218 anyone or did anyone in particular to provide support during this time?"). Finally, frequent
219 follow-up probes were utilized to encourage participants to elaborate on, or more clearly
220 articulate, their thoughts (Patton, 2015). Although the interview guide was created prior to data
221 collection, questions and probes were refined as the interview process progressed and

222 contributed to the interviewee's understanding of the athletes' experiences (e.g., Burgess-
223 Limerick & Burgess-Limerick, 1998; Karnilowicz, Lütfiye, & Phillimore, 2014). These
224 refinements were based on the reflective online journal maintained by the first author during and
225 immediately following each interview¹. On average, interviews lasted 37:09 in length (*SD* =
226 5:00) and were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim (yielding 129 single-spaced pages).

227 **Data Analysis**

228 Consistent with our research aim and philosophical underpinning, a thematic analysis
229 (Braun, Clarke, & Weate, 2017) was utilized because it allowed us to structure our analysis in a
230 way that enabled us to best understand the athletes' experiences, and to organize our findings to
231 ensure a rich description when conveying results to readers. Throughout the interview process,
232 the first author maintained an online reflective journal that was reviewed prior to transcribing
233 and re-reading the interviews. This led to an intimate familiarity with the data prior to the
234 preliminary coding process, and also enabled the author to review initial impressions of the data,
235 and to situate himself within the social construction of the data (i.e., interaction between
236 interviewer and interviewee; interviewee's perceived agency in their experience). Transcripts
237 were then uploaded to NVivo software, which was utilized to facilitate the organization of
238 smaller segments of text, or codes, that captured relevant content (Braun et al., 2017). After
239 conducting and transcribing four interviews, the research team met to discuss initial impressions
240 of the data and to identify preliminary codes and themes that would inform further analyses
241 (Braun et al., 2017). As data collection progressed, the first author reviewed new data extracts,
242 checking them against the entire data set and the preliminary themes, before documenting

¹ An online journal format was utilized as it afforded all research team members access to the document despite the geographical distance separating them.

243 objective (e.g., “Did this participant discuss the NHL Draft as an adversity?”) and subjective
244 (e.g., “This participant shared an interesting story relevant to...”) observations in the reflective
245 online journal (Braun et al., 2017). A final meeting with the research team was established to
246 further discuss and refine the specifics (e.g., labels) of each theme, and extracts were selected to
247 relate the themes back to the research question and the literature.

248 **Methodological Rigor**

249 Several methods were employed to ensure methodological rigor in the current study.
250 First, the authors’ use of reflexivity and transparency contributed to the meaningful coherence of
251 our paradigmatic position, stated purpose, and selected methodology (e.g., Tracy, 2010). In
252 particular, the first and third authors have personal experience with ice hockey as athletes,
253 coaches, and managers. Through these experiences, the research team established an
254 understanding of athlete development within ice hockey that informed study design and
255 facilitated recruitment, participant-interviewee rapport, and the interpretation of participant
256 responses. However, we acknowledge that this understanding of ice hockey is based on amateur
257 experience and anecdotal accounts of the plight of professional hockey players, which was
258 discussed as a research team to highlight preconceptions and biases (e.g., Bradbury-Jones, 2007).
259 Similarly, to counteract the geographical distance separating the research team and to encourage
260 ongoing critical dialogue throughout the research process (Smith & McGannon, 2018), frequent
261 video conference meetings were held. The involvement of all members of the research team
262 throughout the process contributed to our reflexivity and the consistency of our approach by
263 affording opportunities to discuss interpretations of the data (e.g., Smith & McGannon, 2018).

264 **Results**

265 Generally, athletes discussed a range of factors that helped them to overcome not being

266 selected in the NHL Draft. Responses were broadly categorized within four overarching themes
267 of (a) long-term objective of playing in the NHL, (b) experienced stressors and adversities, (c)
268 psychological attributes that contributed to success and well-being, and (d) mechanisms that
269 facilitated goal attainment. In addition, as the results are representative of the experiences
270 described by the participants, contextualizing their responses within their specific developmental
271 paths (i.e., CHL vs. NCAA) was an important consideration. Although distinct experiences
272 pertaining to not being drafted became evident during the interview and analysis process, it was
273 also clear that once participants became professional hockey players, their shared label as
274 “undrafted” led to experiences that aligned closely regardless of developmental path. In the
275 following section, quotes are accompanied by a participant number and developmental stream
276 (e.g., P.1.NCAA).

277 **Long-term Objective of Playing in the NHL**

278 Across the sample, participants highlighted their lifelong aspirations of playing in the
279 NHL. In this regard, they spoke to childhood instances of rehearsal (e.g., “We [friends] would be
280 out playing street hockey, imagining we were one of those guys on Hockey Night in Canada”
281 [P.3.CHL]) and disclosure to important social agents (e.g., “I remember in school, every project
282 always had something to do with hockey. If I ever had to write a story, it was about trying to
283 make it to the NHL” [P.1.NCAA]), yet conceded to the uncertainty of actually attaining this
284 objective: “I always talked about it and would think about it, but you never know that it’s going
285 to happen at that time, or in the future” (P.4.NCAA). Importantly, participants discussed how
286 making their expectations public and consistently revisiting them served to direct their focus
287 towards developing the skills that made them an attractive prospect for NHL teams:

288 Usually I'd sit down with my trainer or junior coaches at the beginning of the offseason
289 and set some goals for myself. Not necessarily "I want to get this amount of goals" or
290 "this amount of assists", but I want to get a certain amount of ice time, or I want to
291 improve my defensive game. (P.4.CHL)

292 Interestingly, as participants' careers progressed and they achieved developmental
293 milestones (e.g., being selected for provincial teams), their perceptions of reaching the NHL
294 shifted from an uncertain to a potentially realistic objective:

295 You have this dream from being a little kid. When I was in grade one or two or three,
296 teachers always ask you what you want to do when your older, I would always put down
297 hockey player. So when you grow up and you get closer to that goal, obviously it gets
298 harder, but you realize that it is a possibility. (P.3.CHL)

299 Although it is difficult to determine the extent to which long-term objectives manifested
300 themselves into the belief that achievement was possible, the athletes discussed the significance
301 of external environmental cues such as feedback from coaches or scouts, or selection to more
302 elite levels of play that validated participants' perceptions that their aspirations were achievable.

303 **Experienced Stressors and Adversities**

304 Although the main area of interest in this study was the adversity of not being selected in
305 the NHL Draft, athletes also chose to discuss other sport-related and personal non-athletic
306 stressors and adversities. Specifically, participants cited organizational (e.g., "undrafted" status,
307 intra-team competition), competitive (e.g., injuries, expectations), and personal (e.g., death of a
308 family member, physical disability) stressors and adversities that provided opportunities for
309 social support and experience of facing adversity that contributed to participants' later
310 experience of not being selected in the NHL Draft.

311 With regards to not being selected in the NHL Draft, responses should be contextualized
312 in relation to the athletes' prior developmental stream (i.e., CHL vs. NCAA). For CHL players,
313 the experience of not being drafted was viewed as a significant obstacle to playing in the NHL
314 succinctly summarized by: "Not being drafted was probably the biggest low of my hockey career
315 to date" (P.4.CHL), and "It sucked... You're hoping and really wishing your name is going to be
316 called and then comes that sixth, seventh round, and you realize your name isn't going to be
317 picked and it sets in that you weren't drafted" (P.3.CHL). Interestingly, not being selected was
318 not portrayed as saliently for athletes who had taken the NCAA path. As one athlete explained,
319 the extra developmental time afforded by playing college hockey was deemed beneficial: "If I
320 would have been drafted, I'm not sure it would have worked out. I was late to mature and I think
321 that I definitely needed the extra time to go to college and develop physically and mentally"
322 (P.2.NCAA).

323 Regardless of the contextual differences identified in relation to the developmental
324 streams, a noteworthy finding is that the entire sample perceived that, as undrafted players, they
325 experienced stressors over and above those of their drafted counterparts. For example, decisions
326 regarding promotions/demotions are at the discretion of an organization's management team. By
327 providing more opportunities to drafted players, a management team can enhance perceptions of
328 their ability to select and develop amateur players:

329 One thing that I had to overcome was the feeling that I would never get a shot because I
330 was nobody's guy, nobody cared. I was nobody's draft pick. No General Manager [GM]
331 picked me and was like, "Hey, give this guy a chance. Hey, pick this guy." A lot of GM's
332 bring guys up because they draft them, even though there could be a better free agent. I'm

333 not going to get that opportunity because [the GM] isn't invested in me like the guys who
334 got picked. (P.7.CHL)

335 This continued "status" as undrafted led participants to experience perceptions of
336 inequality, whereby their merit was not solely based on performance, but rather, on their teams'
337 decision to provide one of their drafted athletes with opportunities. This contributed to confusion
338 and frustration for participants as they worked to advance to higher levels of their organizations:
339 "It wears on you when you're telling yourself you can crack the code on why guys are making it
340 and you're not" (P.5.CHL). Even when undrafted players felt they performed well, they were
341 unclear about the expectations that their respective organizations held of them:

342 I had a good camp and finished top five in fitness testing, but they didn't even give me an
343 exhibition game, so I was a bit frustrated. When I got down to the Central League, I
344 found out nothing was guaranteed and I had to try out for that team too. (P.2.NCAA)

345 Notwithstanding the confusion and frustration, participants accepted the reality of
346 professional hockey and set about trying to make the most of their opportunities:

347 It's just all opportunity, being in the right spot at the right time, somebody gets hurt, you
348 take advantage of that. A lot of guys that I've seen over the past 10 years that didn't get a
349 shot, and they were better than some of the guys that did. (P.7.CHL)

350 In addition to discussing their experiences as undrafted professional hockey players,
351 participants highlighted other organizational stressors that they had encountered. For example,
352 intra-team competition was discussed as an inevitable ongoing stressor:

353 In the NHL, you root for your teammates only to help you, because you're competing
354 against them, really. Whether it be for ice time, money... the team only has so much
355 money for salaries. You want them to do well, but you want them to do well so the team

356 does well, so you do better. You don't really care how they're doing, it's a tough dog eat
357 dog world in the NHL. It's tough, but you have to take care of yourself. (P.3.NCAA)

358 Other stressors and adversities discussed by participants included those directly related to
359 competition (i.e., pre-, during, and post-competition). Across the sample, participants had to
360 manage injuries (e.g., concussions, broken bones) that limited or prevented training and
361 performance. In some instances, participants described playing while injured out of concern that
362 giving up their spot to a replacement would result in them permanently losing their position:

363 I try to come back from injuries as quick as I can. The more time I'm wasting with
364 someone not watching me, the worse off I am... I'd play hurt because any time I took a
365 game off it was somebody else's opportunity to be seen, and it was a missed opportunity
366 for me to be seen, so I tried to play through everything. (P.7.CHL.)

367 Another participant framed his decision to play injured as less of a threat to his career,
368 than to giving someone else on the team the opportunity to take his place:

369 I played with a sports hernia for 2 years. Then last year when I was with Boston in the
370 playoffs, I had a broken foot... It doesn't necessarily mean that I'm very smart about it
371 (playing injured), but at the end of the day, it comes back to someone is always trying to
372 take your spot. Trying to take your ice time. (P.1.CHL.)

373 Finally, participants discussed a variety of personal stressors and adversities, including
374 the death of a family member, physical disabilities, and perceived sacrifice of social
375 opportunities. For one athlete, the death of his father at the age of 15 years complicated the
376 decision to remain at home or relocate to a different city during his junior hockey career:

377 My dad passed away in the summer going into junior... I didn't want to leave my family
378 here, but ultimately, in my head I think my dad wanted me to go and wanted me to pursue

379 hockey, so I decided to leave. (P.2.CHL)

380 Importantly, many athletes who discussed these stressors and adversities (hockey and
381 non-hockey) viewed them as experiences that were leveraged for success during later adverse
382 situations:

383 It was a big eye opener and I'm grateful for not having been drafted. Maybe if I get
384 drafted, I coast in and don't work on the things I needed to because I was drafted. So, I
385 think being undrafted motivated me to continue to improve on all the areas that I needed
386 to improve on. (P.2.CHL)

387 **Psychological Attributes that Contributed to Success and Well-Being**

388 The athletes spoke to a number of psychological attributes that contributed to their ability
389 to succeed following their experiences of not being selected in the NHL Draft. These
390 psychological attributes included competitiveness, confidence, motivation, focus, and passion for
391 hockey. Notably, athletes discussed the relevance of different factors at various points in their
392 careers, and described how some were perceived as stable, whereas others changed or could be
393 refined over time.

394 The athletes described a range of motivational factors across their hockey careers,
395 ranging from being very intrinsic in nature (e.g., enjoyment of play) to more extrinsically based
396 (e.g., competition). It is this competitiveness that participants' felt helped them to overcome not
397 being drafted and to continue to progress in their careers: "I feel like I'm prepared to go to
398 greater lengths to make sacrifices to keep playing and to play against the best, and to live out my
399 dream" (P.1.NCAA). Interestingly, when participants reached professional hockey, they
400 recognized that their opponents also possessed a high level of competitiveness. This required
401 participants to elevate the intensity and consistency in competitiveness that they brought to every

402 game: “I’ll always remember my first pro game. It was within the first couple of shifts of the
403 game that I realized this was men playing to put food on the table for a family” (P.4.CHL).

404 Participants also discussed the importance of having stable and enduring confidence in
405 oneself, regardless of the inevitable fluctuations caused by performance slumps, injuries, or
406 being unselected in the NHL Draft. For example, one goaltender said: “You’d be lying if you
407 said there wasn’t tough times, and you definitely doubt yourself. But, I always thought I could
408 play in the NHL and, you go through tough stretches here and there, but I always believed in
409 myself” (P.6.CHL). In addition, participants revealed specific experiences that they felt enhanced
410 their confidence. For instance, several athletes alluded to their success against NHL-caliber
411 competition in training scenarios when participants were still amateurs: “I got a lot of confidence
412 from playing with them [NHL players] in the summers and seeing that I could play as well as
413 these guys who were already successful in the NHL” (P.2.NCAA).

414 Being a competitive individual and having enduring confidence appeared to be important,
415 yet athletes also discussed the necessity of being able to focus their attention to things that were
416 within their control. “At the end of the day, the cards are all in your hand. You’re the one who
417 can control how hard you work, how much training you do, and your understanding of that stuff
418 evolves over time” (P.1.CHL). Considering the nature of elite sport, frequent distractions vie for
419 athletes’ attention, and participants discussed the necessity to focus on the “right things”. For
420 example, the social environment presented opportunities (e.g., parties, vacations) that required
421 management and self-control because of the potential to detract from athletes’ progress.
422 Beginning in late adolescence, they recognized that the pursuit of sporting excellence requires
423 sacrifice to ensure proper preparation for sport training and performance:

424 When you’re a junior player in high school that’s the biggest thing on your mind. You’re

425 missing out on high school parties, you're missing out on graduation... But at the end of
426 the day, and I heard this from someone, that the parties in the NHL are a lot better than
427 the parties in high school (P.1.CHL).

428 More specific to performance, participants shared that their advancement to higher levels
429 of competition often coincided with the inherent tendency for social comparison (e.g., point
430 totals, teammates' fitness levels), a practice that often had a negative impact because it led to
431 critical self-evaluation in areas that were out of their control. In addition to acknowledging how
432 this could lead to insecurities, participants recognized that being overly distracted by outcomes
433 (e.g., scoring, representing their country in international competition) during their junior and
434 college careers had an adverse impact on their performance, which may have caused teams to
435 avoid selecting them in the NHL Draft. One participant discussed the recruitment efforts of
436 Canadian University coaches during his final year of CHL eligibility (i.e., overage season/year):

437 During my overage season, [Canadian] schools came to talk to me. I just shut them out. I
438 wasn't ready to focus on life after hockey. You just want to finish your overage year
439 strong, and hopefully get a contract offer from the NHL and make the most of it. There
440 were times I thought, "What if I have to go to school next year and the dream is over?"
441 But I put that in the back of my head. It was always my focus to stay positive and not lose
442 focus of my dream. (P.3.CHL)

443 Notably, these athletes emphasized the importance of being able to prioritize and focus
444 on objectives within their control, and how this realization helped to advance their development.

445 Another psychological attribute that participants deemed valuable to improvement and
446 eventual opportunity to play professional hockey was their self-determined motivation. From
447 childhood through to the present day, participants described a desire to dedicate the necessary

448 time and effort to improving themselves in areas relevant to ice hockey. One participant provided
449 the following anecdote:

450 Practice would finish, some of us would head to the gym, and others would be like,
451 “What are you doing? Why are you going in there? We just finished the hard work.”
452 The odd day, you’d feel like not doing it. It could be a lot easier to just head over to
453 Subway and hang out and go home and play video games. Instead, I would dedicate 20-
454 30 minutes to get this workout in, which in the long run made me better. (P.4.CHL)

455 Participants also recognized external sources of motivation that contributed to the
456 direction and intensity of their efforts. For example, one participant described the effect his
457 father’s unexpected death had on him, “Knowing that this is what he wanted me to do, it kind of
458 pushed me forward, made me want to work a lot harder. I wanted to make him proud”
459 (P.2.CHL).

460 The passion for the game of hockey was described as a key attribute to each participants’
461 life and a main contributor to their eventual achievement. Whether it was practice, competition,
462 or informal play, athletes expressed feelings of enjoyment and appreciation for what hockey had
463 contributed to their lives. One athlete said, “It doesn’t matter what’s going on with your life, you
464 always have the sport that you love to play. You can go out there and have fun and forget
465 everything else” (P.2.CHL). Participants viewed passion as an important prerequisite to athlete
466 development. For instance, one athlete summarized a sentiment held by many of the other
467 participants when he stated, “If you don’t have passion for [hockey], you’re not going to enjoy
468 going to the rink every day to get better” (P.3.CHL). This passion seemed to facilitate the
469 training and development that helped each player to eventually reach the NHL.

470 Furthermore, the ability to separate thoughts (i.e., cognitions) and emotions (i.e., affect)

471 related to hockey from their everyday responsibilities (e.g., spending time with family) was also
472 something that participants felt was important:

473 One of the things that helped me was to know that there's more to life than just hockey.
474 Knowing that hockey isn't everything helped me get away from the game, so when I was
475 home with my family, I wasn't thinking about hockey, I was thinking about them. Then,
476 when I got to the rink, my passion was even more so because it's not like my life every
477 day was consumed by hockey. (P.7.CHL)

478 In contrast, other participants had more difficulty finding this balance, with one
479 participant stating: "I have a hard time letting things go, letting things just roll off my back I
480 guess... I think that definitely hurts my enjoyment of life in general" (P.3.NCAA). Overall,
481 passion for the sport appeared to contribute to the necessary dedication, yet certain athletes were
482 better able to control this passion than others.

483 **Mechanisms that Facilitated Goal Attainment**

484 Each participant discussed a point in their careers where they recognized that they would
485 be unable to succeed unless they addressed the weaknesses that were preventing professional
486 organizations from offering them a contract. Specifically, they credited the social support,
487 changes in goal setting strategies, and the adoption of deliberate practice to be of the utmost
488 importance.

489 Participants discussed social support from family members, teammates, coaches, and
490 sports agents, especially during adversity. Parents played a particularly important role in this
491 regard, since they were the most stable and enduring source of social support. For one athlete in
492 particular, not being drafted left him emotionally unable to face his peers because of an
493 overwhelming sense of shame for not having achieved his goal. As was the case for many of the

494 participants, the emotional support he received from his parents helped him to move past the
495 difficult experience and return to the pursuit of his objectives: “My mom asked, ‘What’s wrong?’
496 And I mumbled to her, ‘Well I didn’t get drafted.’... She said, ‘You have to remember this
497 feeling and know that you never want to feel that again’” (P.4.CHL).

498 Appraisal support from credible hockey figures (e.g., coaches, sport agents, scouts) in the
499 form of positive reinforcement regarding athletes’ potential and ability was a key mechanism of
500 goal attainment for participants. For one athlete, a scout from an NHL organization told him that
501 he was on track to play professionally: “That meant the world to me. I couldn’t believe it, I was
502 like, ‘If someone who works in it thinks that, then...’ It wasn’t a random person saying it. It
503 carried weight and I decided to go for it” (P.1.NCAA). Clearly, inspirational feedback from key
504 social agents communicated at impressionable times (e.g., following a disappointment) enhanced
505 athletes’ self-beliefs and redirected their focus.

506 Goal-setting was an important process that directed participants’ focus and training
507 efforts. This was described as an informal and introspective practice prior to participants’
508 experience of being passed over in the NHL Draft. As adolescents, athletes’ goals tended to be
509 outcome based, ego-oriented (e.g., point totals), and driven by social comparison—often leading
510 to performance issues. An adjustment to more task-oriented goals often occurred in conjunction
511 with failure and appraisal support from credible hockey figures:

512 “As things moved on, it was always a goal to be drafted to the NHL, but when that didn’t
513 happen, I turned back to getting better every year. Improving on the things that scouts or
514 external sources told me needed improvement” (P.3.CHL).

515 This ability to accept feedback from key social agents and integrate this information into
516 action was an important step in future professional hockey opportunities.

517 For many of the participants in the current study, the transition from ego-oriented to task-
518 oriented goal-setting coincided with the adoption of deliberate practice habits. Athletes discussed
519 how, as they matured, they realized that elite level skill and hockey knowledge were not innate
520 characteristics. Rather, practice habits specific to improving weaknesses were viewed as a
521 necessity to reaching the NHL: "My first few goalie camps... That's where I figured out what
522 real practice habits were... deliberate practice, attention to detail, you know, making sure you are
523 trying to get better every single practice" (P.6.CHL). Self-regulating practice habits and learning
524 to identify and address specific weaknesses were deemed to have helped participants advance to
525 higher levels within the sport and break into professional hockey:

526 I think as you move up the ranks you realize what your strengths and your weaknesses
527 are, so you're able to focus more on your weaknesses, which in my case has always been
528 my skating. So, you find out who can help you with your skating, you know, who the
529 good skating coaches are out there and how they can help you. You realize that you can't
530 just be complacent with where you are. You have to develop your weaknesses and I try to
531 focus on that. (P.3.CHL)

532 Discussion

533 The purpose of this study was to explore elite athletes' perceptions of the experiences and
534 characteristics that helped them to overcome a common sport-specific adversity (i.e., not being
535 selected in the NHL Draft) toward their paths to achieving a long-term objective (i.e., competing
536 in the NHL). Professional ice hockey players discussed their experiences with this adversity and
537 other stressors throughout their careers, and the general themes identified throughout the
538 interviews involved their (1) long-term objectives of playing in the NHL, (2) experienced
539 stressors and adversities, (3) psychological attributes that contributed to success and well-being,

540 and (4) mechanisms that facilitated goal attainment. The following includes a discussion
541 pertaining to the key findings of the current study, and discourse related to limitations and future
542 research directions.

543 Previous investigations of elite athletes' engagement with adversity indicate that the
544 source, frequency, intensity, and duration of such experiences can be variable (Sarkar &
545 Fletcher, 2014). The present study involved interviews with undrafted NHL players because not
546 being selected in the NHL Draft is considered to be an (sport-related) adversity. Objectively, this
547 perception is supported by the fact that undrafted players comprised a modest 15.65% (108 of
548 690 NHL) of the NHL population at the time of recruitment (National Hockey League, 2017).
549 From a more subjective socially constructed perspective, the NHL Draft represents the selection
550 of athletes deemed to be suitable for the highest levels of competition. As such, not being
551 selected reflects professional organizations' opinions of an athlete's ability at 18 years of age,
552 and their capacity for future development. Participants' reflections pertaining to whether not
553 being selected in the NHL Draft itself was an adversity is largely influenced by the context
554 within which they were embedded, since clear differences in relation to developmental streams
555 were identified in the current sample (i.e., CHL, NCAA). Athletes who competed in the CHL
556 viewed going undrafted as a negative experience because it represented a missed critical
557 milestone. Comparatively, athletes who competed in the NCAA felt less strongly about being
558 unselected because the prospect of becoming a professional did not become realistic until the end
559 of their collegiate careers (i.e., 22-24 years of age). However, an important finding from the
560 current interviews extends past the NHL Draft per se, and relates to the "label" that followed
561 athletes from both developmental streams in perpetuity for the duration of their careers. In

562 addition to the uncertainty and less direct route to the NHL, participants also discussed unique
563 hockey-related stressors that were attributed to their status as undrafted players.

564 Unfairness and inequality were issues that seemed to be consistently experienced,
565 whereby athletes spoke to the tendency for their drafted teammates to be given more
566 opportunities to advance within their organization, largely attributing this as a means for
567 management to corroborate their draft and athlete development strategies (i.e., an experienced
568 organizational stressor). Positional competition is common in elite team sports that rely on intra-
569 team cooperation (e.g., basketball, ice hockey) and where two or more athletes compete for
570 playing time (Harenberg, Riemer, Karreman, & Dorsch, 2016). Participants' evaluation that
571 drafted players received more opportunities appears to be a perception of positional competition
572 that is likely influenced by individual factors such as competitiveness and goal-setting
573 (Harenberg et al., 2016). Similarly, these athletes also felt their position on a team was
574 threatened when, for example, they were injured (i.e., an experienced competitive stressor), since
575 job security or their position on the team seemed to be quite precarious. These experiences in and
576 of themselves would likely not meet the threshold-dependent criteria often associated with
577 adversity (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000), yet researchers have argued that the cumulative negative
578 effect of ongoing day-to-day stressors should also be considered in this area of work (Howells et
579 al., 2017). Clearly, these undrafted athletes felt that they were at a disadvantage even once they
580 had attained the highest level of competition, and this was largely attributed to a lack of control
581 that they felt within the organization (e.g., Hanton, Wagstaff, & Fletcher, 2012).

582 Another key finding worthy of discussion involves the identification of social support as
583 a critical mechanism for athletic success. Hidi and Renninger (2006) proposed social support to
584 be integral to the development of interest through the introduction of an activity, providing tasks

585 and environments that challenge and create opportunities, and by serving as role models. It is
586 also suggested that advanced phases of interest development are associated with more ambitious
587 goals (Hidi & Renninger, 2006), and this was certainly evident in participants' sharing of their
588 vision of playing in the NHL with key social agents (e.g., friends, parents, teachers) in structured
589 (e.g., school assignments) and unstructured activities (e.g., deliberate play; Côté, 1999). The act
590 of imagining future personal or professional status is referred to in the literature as "possible
591 selves", and is thought to positively affect motivation and behavior in the pursuit of long-term
592 objectives (Bateman & Barry, 2012). Although the longitudinal influence of long-term objectives
593 is not yet clear (Bateman & Barry, 2012), participants' acknowledgement of their goal of
594 reaching the NHL during the different phases of their careers indicates that it was an influential
595 factor in their eventual achievement. By encouraging youth to develop long-term personal
596 objectives, we may be influencing their confidence and motivation to pursue their interests. Key
597 social agents (i.e., parents, coaches) are invaluable resources in the development of "possible
598 selves" by providing challenging environments that reinforce healthy expectations.

599 Participants also discussed the multidimensional nature of social support, in that
600 informational, instrumental, appraisal, and emotional support were all identified (e.g., parents,
601 teammates, coaches; Langford, Bowsher, Maloney, & Lillis, 1997; Shumaker & Brownwell,
602 1984). Previous research has shown that adverse experiences can facilitate the development and
603 enhancement of athletes' social support (Calhoun, Cann, & Tedeschi, 2010; Seery, 2011), which
604 was consistent with our findings. For example, appraisal support (e.g., communication relevant
605 to individuals' self-appraisal; Langford et al., 1997) from key social agents at impressionable
606 times (e.g., following the NHL Draft) was a consistent occurrence among athletes that enhanced
607 self-confidence and motivation, and directed their training to focus on the weaknesses that

608 facilitated their improvement. Overall, our findings support previous research indicating that
609 social support is important for the buffering of – and positive adaptations to – adverse
610 experiences (e.g., Fletcher & Sarkar, 2012; Sarkar & Fletcher, 2014; Seery, 2011).

611 **Limitations and Future Research**

612 The findings of this study should be considered in light of certain limitations.
613 Considering the use of retrospective interviews, information obtained from participants was
614 susceptible to egocentric biases, by which participants may have overestimated their personal
615 influence on their experience, undervaluing the contributions of other factors and entities
616 (Benson, Eys, Surya, Dawson, & Schneider, 2013). As a closely related issue, there are several
617 challenges with recruiting professional athletes (e.g., contact through “gate keepers” and formal
618 channels, demanding travel schedules), and this resulted in only being able to conduct a single
619 interview with each participant. Yet, it is worth noting that we were able to recruit 11.11% (12 of
620 108 undrafted NHL players) of undrafted players who competed in at least one NHL game
621 during a given regular season. Nevertheless, research in this area would benefit from longitudinal
622 designs whereby temporal changes in athletes’ perceptions and resources could be explored.
623 Specifically, interviews with or behavioural observation of athletes leading up to, during, and
624 immediately following a selection process in both older (i.e., NHL Draft) and younger
625 adolescence (i.e., CHL Priority Selection Drafts) would contribute to our understanding of the
626 mechanisms by which different factors influence athletes’ engagement with such adversities.
627 Furthermore, future research utilizing interview methods to investigate adverse experiences
628 would benefit from the use of real-time videoconferencing opposed to phone interviews, as the
629 former could better capture non-verbal communication elicited from participants and further
630 contribute to the co-construction of knowledge (e.g., Trondsen, Bolle, Stensland, & Tjora, 2014).

631 Participants were also recruited for this study because of their demonstrated ability to
632 overcome adversity, but their experiences at the NHL level varied from 6 to 304 competitions.
633 Considering the likelihood that the experience of an established athlete would differ from
634 someone competing to prove their value to a professional organization early in their career, it
635 would be interesting to contextualize the value of adversity at varying stages of a professional
636 career. In addition, it would be helpful to understand the perspectives of different team support
637 staff (e.g., scouts, managers) when evaluating and developing prospects. Considering the amount
638 of funding and research (i.e., scouting, background checks) that goes into drafting a player, it
639 would be beneficial to test and understand the proxy measures that contribute to these decisions.

640 **Practical Implications**

641 A number of practical implications can be proposed based on this study's findings.
642 Participants described not being selected in the NHL Draft as an adversity due to the resulting
643 improbability of reaching the NHL (CHL participants), which also led to feelings of inequality
644 and insecurity during their subsequent professional careers (CHL and NCAA participants).
645 Considering how these athletes discussed these periods as highly impressionable times, sport
646 psychology or performance consultants should be attuned to the inevitable and stressful periods
647 that their clients will encounter during their careers. Many sports include selection processes
648 such as they NHL, so being prepared to help athletes engage with such experiences is critical.
649 For instance, encouraging athletes to engage in dialogue with key social agents (e.g., peers,
650 family) could facilitate their experiences of emotional and appraisal support, and could represent
651 an opportunity to discuss and reinforce actionable task-oriented objectives. From an
652 organization's perspective, it is certainly reasonable for professional organizations to base
653 personnel decisions (in part) on the financial investment they have made to their drafted players.

654 However, they could nevertheless dispel the feelings of inequality experienced by undrafted
655 players in several ways. Organizations could be transparent about their prioritization of drafted
656 players, which would help undrafted players focus on their development (Wagstaff, Gilmore, &
657 Thelwell, 2016) rather than trying to understand how personnel decisions are made. Amateur
658 hockey organizations (e.g., CHL) could also help prevent perceptions of inability at the time of
659 being unselected by recognizing alumni who have reached the NHL despite not being selected in
660 the Annual Draft.

661 Another practical implication of this research is that organizations, parents, and other
662 hockey-credible figures should encourage aspiring players to move from a social comparison and
663 outcome-oriented focus to a more task-oriented approach by helping athletes understand the
664 areas of weakness that are prohibiting their advancement to professional hockey. Based on the
665 present findings, athletes who understood where they needed improvements seemed to have
666 engaged with the challenging experiences more adaptively (e.g., deliberate practice focused on
667 improving weaknesses, training with elite level athletes during the offseason). Parents also
668 represent important agents during a child's engagement with adversity. The athletes from this
669 sample noted that the emotional support they had received from parents during specific
670 adversities helped motivate them to cope with and overcome the challenges they faced. This
671 point reinforces parents' roles in helping young athletes to manage demands associated with
672 sport participation (Harwood & Knight, 2014).

673 **Conclusion**

674 Experiences with adversity are common for athletes aspiring to reach the highest levels of
675 sport (Howells et al, 2017), and are often variable (e.g., duration, intensity) and derived from
676 numerous sources (e.g., personal lives, sport organizations). Within the current sample, the

677 ability to succeed throughout an unconventional path to attaining the NHL appears to have been
678 influenced by athletes' long-term objectives, their psychological attributes, and certain
679 mechanisms that facilitated their goal attainment. When young athletes are encouraged to pursue
680 their sport of interest, they develop a broad conceptualization of their future-self (i.e., possible
681 selves; Bateman & Barry, 2012) that is refined through experiences and social support (e.g.,
682 heeding critical feedback from professional hockey organizations). It is also important to note
683 that social support at impressionable times led to changes in athletes' goal-setting and training
684 practices (i.e., adoption of more deliberate practice), which led to improvements in areas of
685 weakness, and eventually to the opportunity to play professionally. In recognizing important
686 contributions of these factors over varying periods of athletes' careers, future research
687 investigating athletes' experiences prior to, during, and following adversity may be useful in
688 exploring how these factors can best be leveraged by athletes.

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