

Alexithymia and the anxiolytic effect of endurance running

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6	Alexithymia and the Anxiolytic Effect of Endurance Running.
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33	Abstract
34	Individuals high in alexithymia use high-risk sport to regulate their anxiety. Given the
35	conceptual similarities between arduous high-risk sports and extreme endurance running, we
36	investigated the relationship between alexithymia and the anxiolytic effects of endurance
37	running. We measured marathon and ultramarathon runners ($n = 35$) on alexithymia, and pre-
38	and post-race anxiety. Bootstrapped regression analyses using MEMORE revealed that
39	alexithymia moderated the relationship between pre- and post-race anxiety such that there
40	was a significant anxiety reduction for individuals high in alexithymia only. In conclusion,
41	extreme endurance running provides an emotion regulation function for individuals high in
42	alexithymia. The modest sample size points to the need for replication and further
43	exploration.
44	
45	Keywords: emotion regulation, anxiety, ultramarathon, affect, coping.
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Alexithymia and the anxiolytic effect of endurance running.

58 Emotion regulation refers to the management of one's emotions including initiating 59 and regulating the type, intensity, and duration of emotion (Gross & Thompson, 2007), 60 responses to emotional situations and the instigation of emotions to alter behaviors (Gross & 61 Muñoz, 1995). Emotion regulation can occur either consciously, through employing strategies to control emotions, or through unconscious processes. It is necessary to be able to 62 regulate emotions when faced with intense, distressing, or disruptive emotions such as anger, 63 sadness, or anxiety (Williams et al., 2009). An inability to regulate emotions effectively has 64 been suggested as a key feature in a range of psychological disorders including generalized 65 anxiety disorder (Mennin et al., 2002) and borderline personality disorder (Lieb et al., 2004). 66 Poor emotion regulation can lead to maladaptive coping strategies that are attempts to 67 68 regulate emotion synthetically in the absence of more adaptive regulation strategies. These 69 attempts include substance abuse (Weiss et al., 2012), self-harm (Gratz, 2003), and aggressive behavior toward others (Bushman et al., 2001; Jakupcak et al., 2002). 70 Alexithymia is a personality trait that reflects an inability to identify or describe one's 71 72 own emotions, leading to difficulties expressing, understanding, or regulating emotions, and 73 difficulties with interpersonal relations (Bagby et al., 1994a). Alexithymia and the subsequent 74 difficulties with emotion regulation has been suggested as a transdiagnostic mechanism for 75 many psychological disorders (Sloan et al., 2017) and the maladaptive coping strategies 76 associated with them, such as self-harm (Hasking & Claes, 2020). Alexithymia has been commonly associated with anxiety disorders (De Berardis et al., 2008; Honkalampi et al., 77 2018) and elevated anxiety (Karukivi et al., 2014), likely due to the alexithymic difficulty in 78 79 regulating and resolving negative emotions that arise from stressful aspects of life. This 80 unresolved negative affect then persists, which causes intense feelings of unregulated anxiety

(Lumley, 2000). The emotional dysfunction itself has been suggested to cause further anxiety
that the individual cannot then regulate (Honkalampi et al., 2018).

83 With the associated elevated anxiety and difficulty regulating emotions, it is 84 unsurprising that alexithymia has been strongly linked with the use of maladaptive emotion 85 regulation strategies, such as self-harm (Norman et al., 2020). The mechanism underlying self-harm is thought to be the externalization and simplification of intense emotion, through 86 87 the experience of a readily identifiable and controllable feeling, in this case pain (Chapman et 88 al., 2006; Kirkcaldy et al., 2007). The act of self-harm provides individuals who suffer from 89 emotional dysregulation a means to express and to understand their emotions, especially 90 anxiety (Gratz, 2003).

Equally, research has shown that individuals high in alexithymia can glean emotion
regulation benefits via other, more adaptive, means. Specifically, researchers have found that
high-risk sports (Bonnet et al., 2017; Panno et al., 2019; Woodman et al., 2010) offer a
particularly fertile emotion regulation framework for individuals high in alexithymia
(Woodman et al., 2009).

96 Fenichel's (1939) work on the counter-phobic attitude provides the groundwork for a 97 potential explanation as to why individuals may receive an anxiolytic benefit from high-risk sports. Fenichel proposed that while some individuals may deliberately (and quite 98 99 determinedly) avoid anxiety-provoking situations that may cause them fear or discomfort, 100 others present with a counter-phobic attitude where they purposefully engage with such situations. Specifically, individuals who experience an unidentifiable generalized anxiety will 101 102 seek to externalize that feeling to better understand it, hence they seek out situations that 103 provide an easily identifiable source of anxiety. Fenichel proposed high-risk sport as an 104 environment that offers the opportunity to identify and experience a more externally derived 105 anxiety. When participants then control or overcome that anxiety by participating in the sport, they achieve a perceived agency over their emotions that they do not experience in everyday
life. Researchers have since built on this, suggesting that the mechanism that underlies the
anxiolytic benefit of the high-risk sport environment for alexithymic individuals is that they
experience a readily identifiable and intense emotion, namely fear (Barlow et al., 2015;
Castanier et al., 2011). The regulation of that fear provides individuals with a sense of agency
over their own emotion regulation, which they can then transfer to their everyday
intrapersonal and interpersonal life (Barlow et al., 2013).

According to this anxiety regulation framework, Woodman and colleagues (2008) 113 measured state anxiety before, immediately after, and 70-90 minutes after completing a 114 skydive. They found that only alexithymic individuals experienced a significant pre- to post-115 116 jump reduction in anxiety, with non-alexithymic individuals experiencing no such fluctuations in anxiety (see also Woodman et al., 2009). Of note, the alexithymic group 117 118 experienced a significant rise in anxiety 90 minutes post-skydive, although it remained 119 significantly lower than their pre-jump anxiety. The authors theorized that the reduction in 120 anxiety for the alexithymic group was brief because the underlying source of the anxiety had 121 not been addressed (see Fenichel, 1939). This short-term emotion regulation benefit may lead 122 to alexithymic individuals frequently needing to repeat the high-risk activity to glean the 123 emotion regulation benefits.

This repetitive need to regulate emotions via high-risk sport could help to explain the reported links between alexithymia and exercise addiction. Exercise addiction can be classed as a pattern of habitual and excessive exercise that increases the risk of experiencing physical harm or injury (Allegre et al., 2007). Manfredi and Gambarini (2015) found that 100% of exercise-addicted participants (n = 12) were alexithymic. Despite the clear limitation of the small sample size, this finding is further supported in the sparse literature assessing this topic. For example, Bossard and Miller (2009) assessed the prevalence of alexithymia and exercise dependence in an adult sample and found that 40% of those with exercise addiction were alexithymic. Furthermore, in a large sample of university students (n = 600), latent profile analysis suggested two subtypes of exercise addiction, both strongly related to aspects of alexithymia (Van Landeghem et al., 2019). These findings support the idea that alexithymic individuals may derive greater psychological benefits from extreme forms of exercise than those who have less difficulty regulating their emotions.

137 Certain types of high-risk sport appear to provide greater opportunity for emotion regulation than others. For example, Barlow and colleagues (2013) examined the motives of 138 individuals who participated in skydiving or mountaineering and found that emotion 139 140 regulation and agency were a greater motive for mountaineers than they were for skydivers, 141 and that these benefits were, for a period, transferable into everyday life. This finding 142 suggests that the emotion regulation benefits of high-risk sports may be especially prevalent 143 in challenging activities that require prior organization and prolonged participation, as opposed to shorter adrenaline-based activities (see also Woodman et al., 2010). In line with 144 the counter-phobic theory (Fenichel. 1939), this benefit may stem from these environments 145 146 offering an easily identifiable source of anxiety that participants then need to control for a 147 longer period, requiring greater agency over their emotions than shorter activities. This 148 prolonged mastery over externally derived anxiety is thought to provide a sense of emotional 149 agency that transfers briefly into everyday life (Barlow et al., 2013; Woodman et al., 2010). 150 Collectively, these findings suggest that individuals high in alexithymia may use extreme forms of exercise to regulate their emotions, specifically their anxiety. In short, for 151 152 individuals high in alexithymia, extreme forms of exercise may be a primary emotion regulation strategy. In this study, we aim to extend this area of research into the world of 153 154 extreme endurance running.

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155 Extreme endurance running shares characteristics with the high-risk sport domain, 156 most notably, with the types of high-risk sport that have been shown to provide an agentic emotion regulation function (Barlow et al., 2013; Woodman et al., 2010). Indeed, endurance 157 events are prolonged arduous physical challenges that require prior training and organization 158 159 to complete. For example, in a qualitative phenomenological study of the motivation for 160 marathon running, Rupprecht and Matkin (2012) found that the struggle and pain of marathon 161 running were central to motivating runners through each marathon. The runners highlighted that they felt very strong emotions, which they could only derive from marathon running, and 162 that this feeling was 'addictive'. This finding points to an emotion regulation function of 163 164 endurance running that mirrors that found in the high-risk sport domain (e.g., Barlow et al., 2015). Specifically, endurance runners are deliberately and consistently seeking an anxiety-165 166 inducing environment that involves a significant amount of pain and struggle, but where they 167 also experience clear and strong emotions. The assertion that this feeling is 'addictive' suggests that such runners are gaining psychological benefits that outweigh any discomfort 168 169 that they might experience. These findings help to crystalize the suggestion that one might 170 view endurance running as a mechanism for emotional regulation, especially for those who 171 lack other means of regulating their emotions (i.e., who are high in alexithymia). 172 The aim of this study was to investigate the anxiolytic effect of endurance running, and the role of alexithymia therein. Specifically, we aimed to provide initial support for 173 endurance running as a potential emotion regulation strategy for individuals high in 174 175 alexithymia and open the way for more in-depth research into this topic. This study will 176 increase the understanding of the motivation for endurance running for those with difficulties in regulating their emotions. If endurance running can fulfil an emotion regulation function, it 177

178 may help to reduce the likelihood of more maladaptive strategies, such as self-harm and

179 substance abuse.

180 Hypotheses

We hypothesize that alexithymia will moderate the relationship between pre- and post-race anxiety, such that alexithymia will attenuate the relationship between pre-race anxiety and post-race anxiety. Specifically, we will see a considerably greater anxiolytic effect for those endurance runners who are relatively high in alexithymia than for those low in alexithymia.

186

Method

187 **Participants**

To meet the inclusion criteria for this study, we required participants to be over the 188 189 age of 18 years and to have completed the full distance of the marathon or ultramarathon 190 event. Thirty-five runners (16 men, 19 women) aged between 29 and 63 years ($M_{age} = 46.14$ 191 years, SD = 8.17) provided pre- and post-race data. The participants' running experience 192 ranged from one year to 38 years (M = 9.3 years, SD = 9.4). Four of the events were 193 marathon distance and 31 were ultramarathons (nine under 75km, 14 between 76km and 194 100km, and eight over 100km). We recruited participants through Facebook groups and 195 events for marathon and ultramarathon runners. We promoted the study by posting an advert 196 with a link to the information sheet on the social media platforms and through word of mouth. 197

198 Measures

State Anxiety Inventory (SAI; Spielberger et al., 1983). As we were interested in how anxious participants were at a given moment, we used the 20-item SAI, which was designed to measure the intensity of anxiety as an emotional response at a given time. We used this measure (rather than a competition-specific anxiety measure), as we were interested specifically in the global everyday anxiety that the participants were feeling pre- and postrace (not their competition-specific anxiety). All items (e.g., *I am worried*) are scored on a 205 four-point Likert scale, labelled for how the participant feels right now (i.e., not at all, 206 somewhat, moderately so, very much so). Cronbach's alpha in this sample was .92. 207 Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20; Bagby et al., 1994a, b) was the measure of 208 alexithymia. This measure contains three sub-scales across 20 items: difficulty identifying 209 one's feelings (DIF, seven items; e.g., I am often confused about what emotion I am feeling), difficulty describing one's feelings (DDF, five items; e.g., It is difficult for me to find the 210 211 right words for my feelings) and externally orientated thinking (EOT, eight items; e.g., I 212 prefer to let things happen rather than to understand why they turned out that way). The items are rated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). 213 214 TAS-20 data are best analyzed as a continuous variable (Bagby et al., 1994a) with scores 215 ranging from 20 to 100. Cronbach's alpha for the TAS-20 in this sample was .87. 216 Design 217 The study was a quasi-experimental repeated-measures design with data collected pre-218 race and post-race. We collected data via two online questionnaires created in Qualtrics 219 (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). 220 Procedure

This study received institutional ethical approval from Bangor University's School of Sport, Health and Exercise Sciences Ethics Committee. Before starting the first questionnaire, participants completed an information sheet and an informed consent form. Participants provided consent via a forced-response check box without which they were unable to proceed to the study questionnaires.

Participants completed the first questionnaire (demographics, the TAS-20, and the SAI) the day before the running event. The questionnaire concluded with a request for participants' email address to allow us to send them the second questionnaire and instructions regarding the timing of this. 230 We asked participants to complete the second questionnaire two days after the event 231 to establish post-race state anxiety (SAI). We deemed two days to be sufficiently far from the 232 race to allow any immediate post-race affect (e.g., relief) to subside and sufficiently close to the race to detect anxiety changes with minimal contamination from other life events. To 233 234 ensure that the participants met the inclusion criteria, the questionnaire commenced with a short section detailing the date and distance of the event (marathon, 50-75km, 76-100km and 235 236 101km+), and whether they completed the full distance. The study concluded with a message 237 thanking the participants for their time.

238 Analyses

239 We conducted a priori power analysis using G*Power3 (Faul et al., 2007) for testing 240 the within-subjects factor of a repeated measures model with a medium effect size (d = .25) and an alpha level of .05. The result showed that a total sample of 31 participants would be 241 242 required to achieve a power of .80. Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS (IBM, Armonk, NY) and MEMORE (Montoya, 2019), an SPSS macro designed to estimate 243 244 moderation in two-instance repeated measures models. MEMORE implements the regression 245 procedures initially described by Judd et al. (2001) for testing interactions in moderation models. This procedure involves first regressing the predictor variable (\hat{Y}_1), and then the 246 outcome variable (\hat{Y}_2), on the moderator. To determine if \hat{Y}_1 differs from \hat{Y}_2 , the difference (Y_d 247 248 $= Y_1 - Y_2$) is then regressed on the moderator. A slope that differs from zero signifies a significant moderation (see Judd et al., 2001). Further to this, MEMORE provides 249 250 bootstrapped confidence intervals and allows probing of the interaction using the Johnson-251 Neyman procedure.

Using MEMORE, we explored the hypothesized within-subjects moderation of alexithymia on pre-race to post-race anxiety. This method allowed us to probe the alexithymia × anxiety interaction while maintaining both variables as continuous, rather than dichotomizing (or similar) participants into high and low groups, as would be required by

ANOVA. Another benefit of utilizing this method for the present sample is that it is not

bound by the large sample assumptions typically underlying estimation procedures in

258 multilevel modelling (Judd et al., 2001).

259

Results

260 **Preliminary analyses**

261 Table 1 displays the means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations between the variables. TAS-20 scores in this sample ranged from 30 to 73. ANOVA confirmed that 262 there was no significant difference between distances for alexithymia, F(3,31) = 1.36, p =263 .27. A 4 (distance group) × 2 (pre-race and post-race anxiety) mixed-model ANOVA 264 revealed a significant main effect for time; anxiety reduced from pre- to post-race, F(3,31) =265 6.36, p = .02. There was no significant main effect for distance, F(3,31) = 1.93, p = .15, and 266 267 no interaction, F(3,31) = 2.09, p = .12. The difference in anxiety was thus not dependent on the distance of the race. 268

269 Main analyses

The MEMORE (Montoya, 2019) results provided support for the hypothesis that alexithymia moderates the relationship between pre- and post-race anxiety (see Table 2). Specifically, as hypothesized, the results revealed that individuals high in alexithymia experienced a significantly greater reduction in anxiety from pre- to post-race than individuals low in alexithymia (see Figure 1).

As is common in research on alexithymia (e.g., Woodman et al., 2010; see also Woodman et al., 2019), we supplemented the total TAS-20 score analysis with three additional moderated regression analyses, replacing the TAS-20 total score with each of the three TAS-20 factors in turn as the moderator (see Table 3). The *Difficulty Identifying Feelings* (DIF) factor and the *Difficulty Describing Feelings* (DDF) factor both significantly moderated the relationship between pre- and post-race anxiety, such that individuals who
scored highly on DIF and DDF attained a greater anxiety reduction post-race than those with
low scores on these factors. Conversely, the *Externally Orientated Thinking* (EOT) factor did
not significantly moderate the relationship between pre-race and post-race anxiety.

284

Discussion

We aimed to explore the anxiolytic effect of endurance running for individuals with limited capacity for emotion regulation (i.e., high in alexithymia). Consistent with our hypothesis, alexithymia had a moderating effect on the relationship between pre-race and post-race anxiety. Specifically, we found that there was a considerably greater anxiety reduction for those high in alexithymia. The main features of alexithymia drove this finding, namely *Difficulty Identifying Feelings* and *Difficulty Describing Feelings* (cf. Woodman et al., 2010).

292 This finding is consistent with Woodman and colleagues' (2008, 2009) findings in 293 which only skydivers who were high in alexithymia experienced an emotion regulation 294 benefit from skydiving, namely through a reduction in anxiety. The results thus support the 295 suggestion that endurance running may also be a means of emotion regulation for individuals 296 high in alexithymia. Given that runners high in alexithymia likely feel agentic in this 297 emotional benefit process (see Bandura, 1997; Woodman et al., 2010), it is likely that they 298 will transfer this benefit back into their everyday intrapersonal and interpersonal life after the 299 race. Indeed, it appears that the control that runners exert, so as not to yield to pain and thus 300 stop running (Rupprecht & Matkin, 2012), gives them a sense of agency that they can transfer to other areas in which they might be struggling to maintain control (Lupton & Tulloch, 301 302 2003). Such a cyclical process of increased alexithymia-derived anxiety before the race to 303 post-race reductions in anxiety could go some way to explaining why alexithymia is related 304 to extreme forms of exercise, including addiction (cf. Manfredi & Gambarini, 2015).

305 Nonetheless, although the runners may perceive endurance running as an effective anxiolytic 306 process, it is unlikely to be lastingly effective given that the underlying anxiety has not been addressed (see also Barlow et al., 2013). Indeed, Woodman and colleagues (2008) found that 307 alexithymic women's anxiety decreased immediately following a skydive but rose 308 309 significantly 70-90 minutes post-jump. Mountaineers and transatlantic rowers have described 310 feeling better able to cope with emotionally charged relationships following an expedition 311 and maintaining this ability for a short time after participating (Woodman et al., 2010). 312 Future research may wish to address the possibility of coping skills gained during endurance running events being transferred into everyday life, as has been observed in the high-risk 313 sport domain (Holmborn et al., 2017; Woodman et al., 2010). Further to this, the question of 314 315 how long this transfer may last is integral to understanding the effectiveness of endurance running as a coping strategy and may offer some insight into the addictive nature of exercise 316 317 for alexithymic individuals (Manfredi & Gambarini, 2015).

This study found no significant impact of race distance on alexithymia, pre-race 318 319 anxiety, or post-race anxiety. This may appear counterintuitive because one might reasonably 320 expect that the longer and more arduous races might provide a more intense emotional 321 experience and thus, a greater opportunity for emotion regulation. However, it is also likely 322 that individuals will each have their unique distance range in which to glean an emotion 323 regulation benefit. In other words, *challenge* is subjective; the relative difficulty of the race will depend on individuals' current fitness levels and the maximum distance that they can 324 physically and mentally achieve. Such an individualized interpretation of the data would 325 concur with findings from the exercise addiction literature in which it has been found that 326 327 healthy participation in exercise can develop into an addiction as the benefits of participation 328 become more difficult to achieve with increased tolerance (Freimuth et al., 2011; Hausenblas 329 et al., 2017). Specifically, participants would first find benefit from relatively short runs but

as their tolerance (i.e., fitness) increases, they would have to increase the distance to
experience the same level of intensity and to continue to feel the emotional benefit. The
impact of race distance on the emotion regulation benefits of endurance running should be
evaluated further in future research. Similarly, assessing the individuals' perspective of how
difficult the race was for them and how satisfied they were with their performance may offer
more insight on this issue.

336 While endurance running may not share the same level of risk as some addictions, participants may push themselves to the point of injury and then continue despite such an 337 injury (Lichtenstein et al., 2017). Interestingly, when Hoffman and Krouse (2018) posed the 338 question to a sample of ultrarunners (n = 1349), "If you were to learn, with absolute 339 340 certainty, that ultramarathon running is bad for your health, would you stop your ultramarathon training and participation?", 74.1% answered "no". The authors concluded that 341 342 despite ultrarunners exhibiting a high health orientation, a large portion of them would not stop running if continuing would endanger their health, as the psychological benefits were 343 344 deemed too important to risk losing. This conclusion is supported by our findings, as they 345 demonstrate that alexithymic individuals are gaining significant anxiolytic benefits from 346 ultrarunning. Furthermore, with research linking alexithymia and exercise addiction 347 (Manfredi & Gambarini, 2015; Van Landeghem et al., 2019), future research would do well to investigate the balance between the emotion regulation benefits of endurance running and 348 349 the risk of injury through excessive running. This risk of injury may become particularly evident as the distance and frequency of participation required to gain an emotion regulation 350 351 benefit increase, which leads to the question of the point at which pursuing these benefits 352 might do more harm than good.

This initial investigation focused solely on alexithymia, and the inherent difficulties regulating emotion , as the moderating factor for anxiety reduction through extreme 355 endurance running. Further research is needed to identify if alexithymia is the key moderator 356 of this relationship or whether other factors may play a part in the emotion regulation 357 function of endurance running. For example, trait anxiety (an individual's propensity to feel 358 anxious generally, rather than at a specific time) has been strongly and positively correlated 359 with alexithymia (Honkalampi et al., 2018), although these are conceptually different traits. 360 Alexithymia is thought to have a somewhat causational relationship with both state and trait 361 anxiety (Karukivi et al., 2014). However, the research on how alexithymia and trait anxiety 362 interact is limited. We believe that the combination of individuals' degree of alexithymia and their propensity to feel anxiety (i.e., trait anxiety) may provide a clearer picture of the 363 personality type that seeks to regulate their emotions through an external source. One might 364 hypothesize, for example, that the alexithymic anxiolytic benefits of endurance running will 365 366 be more pronounced for those also high in trait anxiety.

367 Future research would do well to begin exploring the potential mechanisms that underpin the emotion regulation function of extreme endurance running for individuals high 368 369 in alexithymia. Ultrarunners have described experiencing high levels of anxiety (Philippe et 370 al., 2016) and strong emotions (Rupprecht & Matkin, 2012) during races. Building on 371 Fenichel's (1939) counter-phobic theory, it is possible that the experience of an external and easily identifiable source of anxiety, and overcoming this anxiety, helps participants to feel 372 373 greater agency in their emotions (see Barlow et al., 2013; Woodman et al., 2010). Similarly, 374 pain has been identified as an inherent aspect of running extreme distances (Kirkby, 1996; Philippe et al., 2016; Rupprecht & Matkin, 2012). The experience of pain in this explicit and 375 readily identifiable form may help alexithymic endurance runners to externalize the negative 376 377 affect that they experience but cannot normally identify, describe, or regulate. Such a process 378 is similar to the affect regulation model of self-harm (Gratz, 2003; Klonsky, 2007, 2009). It is 379 noteworthy that endurance runners (Hanold, 2010; Rupprecht & Matkin, 2012) and self380 harmers (Edmondson et al., 2016) each experience pain as integral, comforting, and even 381 enjoyable. One could argue that the pain experienced during endurance running would be a 382 somewhat less destructive emotion regulation strategy than the self-inflicted pain more typical in the self-harm literature (e.g., Laye-Gindhu & Schonert-Reichl, 2005). Equally, 383 384 endurance running with pain as a central feature may also be a sign of impending injury 385 (Franken et al., 2006). We urge researchers to look in depth at the relationship between self-386 induced pain via running compared to pain associated with self-harm and to investigate the 387 underlying mechanisms and effects of each. It is also perhaps noteworthy that despite pain in 388 running and hardship in high-risk sports being likely central anxiolytic mechanisms, they 389 remain unexplored.

390 Limitations

The main limitation of this study is clearly the modest sample size. Thus, despite
having sufficient power for the analyses, the current study clearly warrants replication.

A further consideration is that the degree of alexithymia in this sample was moderate with scores on the TAS-20 ranging between 30 and 73. It would be interesting for future research to recruit participants who score on the high extremity of the TAS-20 scale. This would help to solidify endurance running as an effective emotion regulation strategy for those with extreme levels of alexithymia.

398 Conclusion

The findings of this paper provide a valuable initial insight into the affect regulation role of extreme endurance events for individuals high in alexithymia. This study offers a novel research avenue for exploring how endurance running may be beneficial for emotion regulation and offers some future directions for understanding the likely underlying mechanisms. Furthermore, the extension of the emotion regulation literature into endurance running invites questions regarding other anxiety-inducing environments that might provide

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405	similar benefits. Clinically, endurance running might provide a relatively low-risk and
406	accessible emotion regulation strategy for individuals who are at risk of turning to more
407	maladaptive strategies, such as self-harm. However, the degree to which the emotion
408	regulation function of endurance running and self-harm might be similar for individuals high
409	in alexithymia clearly warrants further investigation.
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	Pre- race anxiety	Post- race anxiety	Total alexithymia	DDF	DIF	EOT
Post-race anxiety	.55**					
Total Alexithymia	.49**	.13				
DDF	.41**	.08	.89**			
DIF	.65**	.24	.88**	.75**		
EOT	.06	04	.66**	.42*	.31	
Mean	37.20	31.69	47.03	12.26	15.46	19.31
SD	11.45	8.04	12.46	4.69	6.09	4.43

Table 1. Bivariate correlations, means, and standard deviations (n = 35).

Notes. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

DDF = Difficulty Describing Feelings (5-25); DIF = Difficulty Identifying Feelings (7-35); EOT = Externally Orientated Thinking (8-40).

	Mean (SD)	b_0	b ₁	t	LLCI	ULCI
Pre-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_1)	37.20 (11.45)	15.90	.45	3.26 **	.17	.73
Post-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_2)	31.69 (8.04)	27.63	.09	.77	14	.31
$\hat{Y}_1 - \hat{Y}_2$ difference	5.51 (9.69)	-11.73	.37	3.07 **	.12	.61

Table 2. The within-subjects moderation of alexithymia on anxiety pre- to post-race.

Notes: $b_0 = Y$ intercept; $b_1 =$ Unstandardized beta coefficient; Following the Judd et al. (2001) methodology, a significant $\hat{Y}_1 - \hat{Y}_2$ difference is evidence of a significant moderation of alexithymia on pre- to post-race anxiety.

***p* < .01

		b_{0}	b_1	t	LLCI	ULCI	
		10.11		4.0.6.4.4		1.50	_
DIF	Pre-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_1)	18.44	1.21	4.86 **	.71	1.72	
	Post-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_2)	26.76	.32	1.43	14	.77	
	\hat{Y}_1 - \hat{Y}_2 difference	-8.31	.89	3.90**	.42	1.36	
DDF	Pre-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_1)	24.87	1.00	2.60*	.22	1.79	-
	Post-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_2)	30.00	.14	.46	47	.74	-
	\hat{Y}_1 - \hat{Y}_2 difference	-5.13	.87	2.66*	.20	1.53	-
EOT	Pre-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_1)	34.05	.16	.36	75	1.08	-
	Post-race anxiety (\hat{Y}_2)	33.12	07	24	72	.57	-
	\hat{Y}_1 - \hat{Y}_2 difference	.93	.24	.63	53	1.01	-

Table 3. The within-subjects moderation of the subcomponents of alexithymia on anxiety pre- to post-race.

Notes: $b_0 = Y$ intercept; $b_1 = Unstandardized beta coefficient; DIF = Difficulty Identifying Feelings, DDF = Difficulty Describing Feelings, EOT = Externally Orientated Thinking.$

p* < .05, *p* < .01

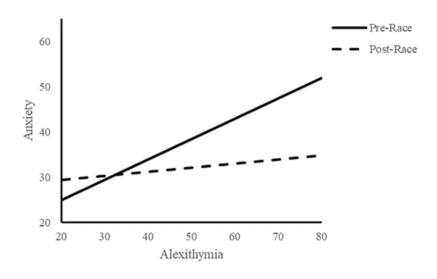


Figure 1.

Regression slopes for pre-race and post-race anxiety regressed on alexithymia as presented in Table 2, showing a significant alexithymia × anxiety interaction.