Surviving the 2015 Mount Everest Disaster: A Phenomenological Exploration into Lived Experience and the Role of Mental Toughness

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Abstract

**Objectives:** The 2015 Nepal earthquake and subsequent avalanche at Mount Everest Base Camp is the deadliest mountaineering disaster to date. This study is novel in exploring the lived experiences of survivors and the role of mental toughness in their psychological responses to the disaster.

**Design:** Phenomenological study.

**Method:** Ten mountaineers, who were on expeditions during the earthquake, participated in phenomenological interviews. Data were analysed inductively and thematically, while strategies to enhance trustworthiness were also employed.

**Results:** Seven dimensions emerged from the data, which captured climbers’ psychological responses to the disaster, ranging from the moments the earthquake hit to reflections on the disaster after returning home. Contrasting emotional responses were described, and suggested to depend on experience and mental toughness. Negative emotional and behavioural responses were reported in the aftermath. Some climbers reported post-traumatic stress, but also a strong desire to return to Mount Everest and continue mountaineering.

**Conclusions:** These findings provide detailed insights into the lived experiences of climbers who survived the 2015 Nepal earthquake and Base Camp avalanche. Findings also shed light on the role of mental toughness in coping with and responding to a major natural disaster.

**Keywords:** climbing; coping; emotion; extreme environments; mental health; natural disaster
Introduction

High-altitude mountaineering is considered one of the most dangerous sports, with high accident rates and numerous fatalities each year (Wickens, Keller, & Shaw, 2015). The term “death zone” is commonly used to describe climbing above 8000m because air contains approximately one third of the oxygen available at sea level, temperatures can drop below -30°C at the summit, and as such humans can only survive temporarily in such conditions. Of the 14 mountains in the world that rise above 8000m in altitude, Mount Everest (8,848m) is the highest and attracts a few hundred climbers each year. Numerous factors combined (e.g., altitude, temperature, wind, snow conditions, etc.) make climbing peaks such as Mount Everest a risky pursuit. Since the first ascent in 1953, over 4000 climbers have achieved the summit of Mount Everest, although more than 280 people have died on the mountain (e.g., Mu & Nepal, 2016). High profile incidents on Mount Everest include the 1996 disaster where eight lives were lost in a single day (e.g., Elmes & Barry, 1999) and the 2014 ice avalanche where 16 Nepalese guides were killed in the Khumbu icefall (e.g., Stokes, Koirala, Wallace & Bhandari, 2015), a dangerous and unstable section of the route just above base camp.

On 25th April, 2015 an earthquake measuring 7.8 on the Richter scale struck Nepal, triggering avalanches in the Himalayas. The most deadly avalanche descended from Pumori mountain into Mount Everest Base Camp where most teams and expeditions were located (Salas, 2015). Three hundred and fifty nine climbers were granted permits to climb Everest in 2015, many of whom were at Base Camp during the avalanche (Parker, 2015). The impact of the avalanche caused devastation at Base Camp and, in total, 22 climbers died and over 60 were injured (Farrer & Beaumont, 2015), making it the deadliest disaster in the history of climbing Mount Everest.

The aim of this study was to explore the lived experiences of mountaineers who survived the 2015 Nepal earthquake and subsequent avalanche at Base Camp. Specifically,
we focused on the psychological and emotional challenges involved for these climbers, and
the role of mental toughness in coping with this disaster. Such catastrophic events pose
significant short-term and long-term emotional challenges and psychological consequences
(Garcia, 2011). Indeed, survivors at Base Camp remained at an altitude of 5300-5400m, a
height which impacts on physical and cognitive functioning (e.g., Bahrke & Shukitt-Hale,
1993). Furthermore, these individuals were in an extremely isolated location with limited
supplies (including medical) or access in and out of the area. Therefore, this event presents a
significant but, as yet, under-researched context in which to understand climbers’
psychological and emotional responses.

Mental Toughness

Several motivational and cognitive mechanisms can contribute to different, and
sometimes opposite, psychological outcomes (e.g., meaning-construction or distress) after
trauma and loss (Park, 2010). For example, Garcia, Cova, Rincon, and Vazquez (2015) found
that rumination processes (e.g., brooding and cognitive strategies) mediated both
posttraumatic symptoms (PTS) and posttraumatic growth (PTG) following a natural disaster.
In particular brooding (i.e., passive focus on causes and consequences, recurrent
comparisons, and dwelling on obstacles) has been found associated with negative emotions
and maladaptive outcomes such as PTS, while more active strategies concerned with
deliberately and consciously coping appear related to adaptive outcomes and PTG (Garcia et
al., 2015). Similarly, personality has been found to influence behaviours and psychological
outcomes – especially in extreme environments such as high-altitude mountaineering (e.g.,
regarding risk-taking; Barlow et al., 2015; Monasterio, Alamri, & Mei-Dan, 2014). Mental
toughness (MT) is reported to have particular importance for high-altitude mountaineers
(Author 1 et al., under review; Fawcett, 2011). Researchers generally agree MT is a multi-
dimensional construct comprising values, attitudes, emotions and cognitions that enable
people to successfully pursue their goals and perform consistently well regardless of obstacles or adversity (Coulter, Mallett, & Gucciardi, 2010; Hardy, Bell, & Beattie, 2014). Researchers in sport and exercise have found mentally-tough individuals to be disciplined, persistent, confident, and able to demonstrate resilience by moving on quickly (without dwelling on negative experiences), and refocusing on goals following setbacks (Cook, Crust, Littlewood, Nesti, & Allen-Collinson, 2014; Crust et al., 2014). Most researchers agree that MT is a relatively stable disposition / trait construct that is important in coping with stress and is unlikely to change quickly over time (Hardy et al., 2014).

Two previous studies used a phenomenological approach to examine MT in mountaineering. Fawcett (2011) provided a case example from a larger sample of interviews with elite high-altitude mountaineers and explorers, which emphasised the contextual nature of MT. Safety and survival were found to be crucial issues and the participant reported keeping emotions in check, control of ego, self-knowledge, and the ability to make correct decisions under-pressure as indicative of MT. Generally, a realistic perspective was adopted, involving perseverance and suffering, calculated risk-taking, but also the acceptance that sometimes conditions were too dangerous to continue. Author 1 et al. interviewed 14 mountaineers including guides, expedition leaders, and doctors to understand the role of MT in decision-making – particularly around the decision to persevere or abort summit attempts. Participants emphasised the importance of MT in mountaineering, and described rational, flexible, and vigilant decision-making. In contrast to much MT literature, these mountaineers accepted limits, demonstrated restraint, and sacrificed personal goals to aid others, while also reporting costly perseverance as some mountaineers were described as “too tough”, over-competitive, goal-obsessed, and biased decision-makers.

While the measurement of MT has been the subject of intense debate (cf. Gucciardi, Hanton, & Mallett, 2012; Perry, Clough, Crust, Earle, & Nicholls, 2013) several studies have
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used questionnaire-based approaches to demonstrate the associated behavioural correlates. These correlates have generally consisted of performance on physical tasks, with evidence supporting MT relating to pain endurance (Crust & Clough, 2005), cross-country race times (Mahoney, Gucciardi, Ntoumanis, & Mallett, 2014) and physical training tasks (Gucciardi, Peeling, Ducker, & Dawson, 2016). These performance variables essentially measure perseverance and the ability to persist despite the presence of pain or fatigue. Whilst these studies support conceptual foundations by highlighting meaningful correlations (Mahoney et al., 2014), most definitions of MT emphasise the ability to cope with psychological as well as physical stressors. Outside of sport, findings have supported the conceptualisation of MT as a positive psychological construct, with significant and positive relations reported with psychological wellbeing (Stamp, Crust, Swann, Perry, Clough & Marchant, 2015), most likely attributable to effective stress management. Furthermore, numerous studies have examined the relationship between MT and coping. Using questionnaire-based research, Nicholls, Polman, Levy, and Backhouse (2008) found higher MT to be associated with greater use of approach / problem focused coping, and less use of avoidance / emotional coping. Follow-up research found MT correlated with more effective coping (Nicholls, Levy, Polman, & Crust, 2011). Qualitative research (Crust, Nesti, & Bond, 2010; Crust et al., 2014) found maintaining perspective / sense of reality, seeking support, compartmentalising, and refocusing quickly after setbacks were indicative of greater mental toughness.

While much extant literature has examined MT within traditional team sport settings (Cook et al., 2014; Hardy et al., 2014; Gucciardi, Gordon, & Dimmock, 2008) this potentially provides too narrow a view of the construct. Similarly, past researchers have been critical of MT literature that focused mainly upon reactions to adversity, and the ability to cope and recover following setbacks. Gucciardi et al. (2008) emphasised that MT is also important in positively construed situations but is best understood “in the context of those conditions in
which mental toughness is required” (p. 262). Nevertheless, while adversity in team sports
might represent injury, de-selection, or performance slumps, in high-altitude mountaineering
adversity can involve critical survival situations involving life or death decision-making. The
extreme adversity faced during the earthquake and subsequent avalanche provides an ideal
and unique context to understand the decision-making, behavioural responses, cognitions,
and emotions perceived to underpin MT.

In seeking to understand the characteristics and development of MT, numerous
qualitative studies (see Anthony, Gucciardi, & Gordon, 2016) have interviewed elite athletes,
coaches, and/or parents. Past work has generally adopted a “career-based” semi-structured
interview that required elite participants to reflect on experiences which have occurred over
several years (i.e., throughout their career; see Swann, Keegan, Crust & Piggott, 2016).
Whilst this approach has added to knowledge (e.g., general behaviours, critical incidents etc),
it can represent a selective process where information conforming to the ideal mentally-tough
athlete is over-emphasised. This argument appears central to Andersen (2011) labelling MT
as an idealised, selective, and fantasy construct detached from realistic accounts of human
experience. As such, some literature on MT appears to represent a super-human ideal
inconsistent with even the toughest and most successful athletes who, like all other athletes,
are susceptible to mental lapses or moments of weakness.

First, this study aimed to understand high-altitude mountaineers’ lived-experiences of
surviving the 2015 Nepal earthquake and subsequent avalanche at Mount Everest Base Camp
- an under-researched yet highly significant and psychologically challenging event. The
second aim was to understand the role of MT in coping with this disaster. We therefore
required rich, descriptive accounts based upon real rather than idealised experiences. While
high-altitude mountaineers frequently experience avalanches, the nature of the earthquake,
the devastation, and aftermath, provided unique and extreme challenges that enabled more
and less mentally-tough behaviours and responses to be examined. Understanding the experiences of these mountaineers might have implications for other individuals who experience traumatic sporting or environmental catastrophes.

**Method**

**Participants**

Participants were 10 high-altitude mountaineers (nine male, one female) who experienced the 2015 Nepal earthquake and subsequent avalanche at Mount Everest Base Camp. Nine climbers were on Everest at the time of the disaster (at Base Camp, Camp One or Camp Two) while one was on a nearby 8000m mountain (Makalu). The average age of the sample was 42.3 years (SD = 12.6). The climbers were from England (n = 3), USA (n = 2), New Zealand (n = 1), Mexico (n = 1), Wales (n = 1) Republic of Ireland (n = 1), and Iran (n = 1), and included expedition leaders/operators and a team-doctor. Four participants had also been on Everest during the 2014 avalanche. On average, these participants had been on 10.8 expeditions to 8000m mountains (range = 2 – 46; SD = 12.98), and had summited 5.2 8000m mountains (range = 0 – 14; SD = 4.89).

**The Phenomenological Interview**

Since this study sought to understand climbers’ experiences of surviving the 2015 Everest earthquake and avalanche, and perceptions of the role of MT in coping with the disaster, we employed phenomenological interviews. Phenomenology was selected as an appropriate methodological approach for enabling the collection of detailed, descriptive information exploring the *lived experiences* of these high-altitude climbers. Drawing on a form of empirical phenomenology (Allen-Collinson, 2009, 2011), as applicable to psychological and sociological research, interviews were designed to elicit rich, in-depth accounts of lived-experiences. While many qualitative approaches seek to elucidate why/how something happens, descriptive empirical phenomenology is primarily concerned with
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investigating what participants report as being experienced, that is what appears to conscious mind. This form of empirical phenomenology differs from the original “purer” forms of philosophical phenomenology, in that it applies phenomenological principles to the collection and analysis of empirical data, but acknowledges the impossibility of the researcher being able to achieve “pure” transcendental reflection by engaging in the full phenomenological epochē (sometimes termed phenomenological “bracketing”) as required by, for example, Husserlian descriptive phenomenology (see Author 3, 2011 for an extended discussion).

Phenomenological interviews are characteristically open, relatively unstructured, and “naturalistic”, with participants often construed as co-researchers (Brinkman & Kvale, 2005) and co-producers of the research (Allen-Collinson, 2009). Unconstrained by a fixed interview schedule, there is freedom to explore emerging concepts, and interviewees to take the lead, as appropriate. Phenomenological interviews are not designed to “test”, confirm or reject theories or conceptualisations (Bevan, 2014; Høffding & Martiny, 2015), therefore, but rather the interviewer attempts to suspend her/his prior assumptions and presuppositions about the phenomenon under study, to bracket “the natural attitude” as part of the phenomenological epochē (Author 3, 2011) and to return “to the things themselves” in Husserl’s (1989) famous dictum. As Gallagher & Zahavi (2008) argue, phenomenology aims to disclose structures of consciousness that are intersubjectively accessible. Phenomenological interviews, we thus emphasise, do not provide a transparent window to some inner private-self (Smith & Sparkes, 2005) but generate intersubjectively “data” that are co-produced by interviewee/interviewer in the interactional encounter. These data are then subjected to phenomenologically-sensitive analysis, as we describe below.

The first and second authors conducted interviews lasting between 49 and 118 minutes (M = 76 minutes; SD = 19.46). SKYPE™ and telephone interviews were used for most as participants spanned a wide-range of geographic locations, although one interview
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was conducted face-to-face. To minimize differences between interview methods a deliberate process was employed to develop rapport in all cases. This included introducing the project, scheduling the interview to maximize convenience, and making the participant feel at ease by commencing with background information such as major career highlights and motives for climbing. A flexible interview guide was used, and questions included: “are you familiar with the term “mental toughness”?”; “can you provide an example of mental toughness in mountaineering?”; “what role did mental toughness play in your response to the earthquake and avalanche?”; and “what differences did you notice in how other climbers coped with the disaster?” Participants were asked to recall the moments the earthquake and avalanche hit; the remainder of their time on the mountain; and reflections on leaving the mountain and returning home. Due to the sensitive nature of the topic, participants were reminded that they were under no obligation to answer any of the questions, and could withdraw at any point (although none did). Probes such as “Can you tell me a little more about that?” were utilised to provide elaboration and check initial understanding.

**Procedure**

Ethical approval was obtained from a University Research Ethics Committee. Initially, purposive sampling (Patton, 2002) was used to recruit mountaineers who had participated in a previous study. These participants were contacted via email and asked whether they would be willing to be interviewed. Then a process of “snowball” sampling (Patton, 2002) was utilised to recruit further mountaineers who had experienced the disaster and were also willing to be interviewed. Specifically, these participants were approached via email after their contact details were provided by other participants (who, in most cases, had already spoken to them and introduced the study). Interviews were recorded using a digital data-recorder and transcribed verbatim by a professional transcription company.

**Data Analysis**
Employing an iterative process of data analysis, research-team members independently analysed transcripts to identify raw themes. Adopting elements of Giorgi’s (1985) guidelines for psychological-phenomenological research, the following process was used: engagement with the phenomenological epochē (efforts to bracket preconceptions regarding mental toughness; see Trustworthiness); initial impressionistic readings of transcripts; in-depth re-reading to engage in data-immersion, and identify themes and sub-themes (see Allen-Collinson, 2011). Separate initial discovery sheets of key words, concepts and themes were generated to aid preliminary classification. Subsequently, comparisons were made between these independent analyses to identify salient higher-order themes and general dimensions. Each transcript was analysed to question the classification of meaning segments into established theme categories. We thus sought to enhance the accuracy of the coding and inductive analysis. In terms of judgment criteria, we adhere to a relativist perspective rather than a criteriologist approach (Sparkes & Smith, 2013), in seeking to ensure the research findings are well-grounded in an understanding of participants’ lived experiences. Our initial interpretations were discussed with participants in an effort to ensure congruence and resonance with their lived experiences.

**Trustworthiness**

Procedures were undertaken to enhance the authenticity and trustworthiness of data analysis (Sparkes & Smith, 2013). In engaging in the phenomenological epochē, researchers make their best efforts temporarily to bracket or set aside tacit assumptions and presuppositions regarding what is claimed to be “known” about a phenomenon, or at least to identify and critique these assumptions (Allen-Collinson, 2011). A bracketing interview was therefore conducted between two of the researchers to identify and challenge any potential interviewer bias. All authors had read auto-biographical accounts of mountaineering disasters and / or had undertaken previous research with mountaineers. Thus it was important to avoid
personal assumptions about what the experience would be like, and to obtain rich descriptive
counts of the event and responses to it. Equally, all authors have previously studied MT
and have assimilated preconceptions about the construct that could have influenced
participant/researcher interactions. For example, MT research has generally identified tough
individuals appraise adverse situations as challenging rather than threatening so it was
important to bracket such assumptions. Then, after four interviews were complete, the first
two authors listened to a recording to engage in self-reflection, critique, and to further aid the
process of bracketing. This process led to greater agreement about areas to probe in
subsequent interviews—the content of which were reflected upon in weekly meetings during
data collection.

As part of the analysis and interpretative process, follow-up interviews were conducted
with two participants ($M = 37$ min.) to develop critical dialogue about results. The two
participants were selected based on access, that is, they both expressed interest in the topic
and were open to further discussion. The role of these follow-up interviews was to encourage
reflection upon, and exploration of, alternative explanations and interpretations as they
emerged in relation to the data (e.g., Smith & Sparkes, 2009). This process took place by
reflecting on key aspects of the participant’s initial interview, and asking for feedback about
preliminary analysis. In addition, participants were provided with a draft of the manuscript
via email, and encouraged to question the team’s interpretations and offer alternative
accounts. They did not report any issues or request any changes to the analysis or manuscript.
Indeed, they provided positive feedback about the extent to which the analysis ‘captured’
their experiences, and this process helped generate confidence in data interpretation.

**Results**

The analysis revealed seven general dimensions which are presented in two sections
below. The first section addresses the climbers’ lived experiences of the disaster (see Table
Experiencing the 2015 Everest Disaster

This section involved three general dimensions which represented the participants’ experiences on the day of the 2015 Everest disaster. These dimensions are discussed below in terms of key themes with direct quotes to illustrate (see Table 1).

Experiencing the earthquake. The climbers described their initial experience of the disaster in two themes: recognising the earthquake, and immediate fear and helplessness.

Recognising the earthquake. These climbers described the moments when the earthquake hit, and initial confusion about what was happening: “I felt that something was wrong. I didn’t know if it was an avalanche or a rock fall. I never thought about [an] earthquake…It was long, for two or three minutes, a very long time” (Participant 3). Another described being on the edge of Base Camp when:

[We] started feeling the ground rumbling…And we thought: “That’s a big avalanche”…The whole ground under us is just moving from side to side…And we realised, “Shit, this is an earthquake.”…And then from behind us, the Pumori avalanched…the whole top of the mountain fell off…and started a shockwave…We turned around and we’re seeing this white wall, as high as you can see and as wide as you can see, just coming at us (Participant 1).

Higher on the mountain, the events unfolded differently, as Participant 2 described:

I had gone to Camp Two that morning, the earthquake was around noon and even before I felt the earthquake there were many avalanches triggered around us coming at once down all those mountains…I’ve never seen so many avalanches come down at the same time but then started feeling the ice shaking underneath us, very violent[ly].
Fear and helplessness. The climbers reported immediate feelings of fear, shock, and helplessness when the Pumori avalanche hit:

All of us thought we were gone, without a doubt... A most sickening feeling of fear I have ever, ever had. It’s just like the pit for your stomach... It’s like nothing I have ever experienced. But there’s a sense of no control, there’s nowhere to run, nowhere to hide but you can hear it coming towards you in this big open valley (Participant 4)

Participant 1 described similar feelings as the avalanche approached:

When it first happened... there was more confusion than concern... Confusion... [because] you don’t know what the hell is going on... When we turned around and saw what was coming for us, blind fear”... I remember feeling, “We’re in trouble here”... And thinking... “What do we do?”... You’re looking at this white wall and... your mind thinks, “Do something,” and you’ve got two seconds... So we ran inside, got under the table... and we’re sitting in the tent, waiting for it to hit us, thinking, “Right, how do you brace yourself for this? What do we do here?”

Reorienting, reorganising, and recovery. After the initial impact of the earthquake and subsequent avalanche, the climbers described the process of recovery which occurred at Base Camp. Specifically, this theme captured processes involved in initiating rescue and recovery, which included leadership behaviours.

Initiating rescue and recovery. After the earthquake and avalanches stopped, the climbers described processes of reorientation and reorganisation – both at Base Camp and for those climbing down from higher points on the mountain. Base Camp survivors experienced a scene of devastation that resembled a “plane crash site” (Participant 1), with tents buried under ice; equipment and bodies of dead and injured climbers strewn all around. On returning to Base Camp, climbers described the devastation and reflected on potential consequences had they been in that location during the earthquake: “It was disbelief seeing Base Camp just
shattered. We realised had we been there we would have been gone without a doubt. We
would have been wiped out because our tents were buried under a foot or two of ice”
(Participant 4). Others described seeing the bodies of climbers who had died: “walking
through camp trying to find your extra boots or whatever and you'd see a puddle of blood and
a body...So it was pretty brutal” (Participant 5). Subsequently, Participant 1 described how
the immediate recovery effort was co-ordinated at Base Camp:

One or two of the…the big expedition leads…said, “Right, we’ll use our camp for
this, use their camp for that; let’s go. What do you need?”…And that happened within
half an hour…If it wasn’t a disaster, it was an incredibly impressive thing to watch.

We had a full-scale rescue and recovery operation.

The medical recovery was described as being equally efficient: “the medical tent in the
middle [of Base Camp] was still intact somehow, and the medics were in full flow at that
point, treating the people [who] had been brought in…That was 20 minutes in, maybe”
(Participant 1). Higher up the mountain, Participant 2 described other processes:

Right after the avalanche, we tried to contact the other expedition at Camp Two to see
if everybody was accounted for. We called for meetings...We tried to figure out if we
could go down and how many supplies we had, how long we could stay up there. And
the people that were involved were people with experience, people…I would say
[who] were mentally tough.

Similarly, at Camp One processes of evaluation and assessment were also described:

Making sure we had enough food and supplies to survive where we were - the route
was out between Base Camp and Camp One so we couldn’t get any resupply. And
eventually coordinating the helicopter evacuation because the route was not climbable
and didn’t look like it would ever be repaired - which it never was - so just managing
…the plan for how we were going to get out of there eventually (Participant 6).
Leadership behaviours. A number of core behaviours were described as being important in the organisation and initiation of this recovery effort. For example, the climbers reported that leaders in this situation showed clarity: “I think the guides they show more clarity afterwards because they just seem to know what to do in that situation - even though it is a terrifying situation to be in, no matter who you are” (Participant 4). Indeed, climbers reported that the leaders were often very direct in co-ordinating the recovery: “You tend to find those people will focus in very clearly on what they're doing and then will direct quite clearly, back to the other climbers what to do, and it suddenly doesn’t become a semi-diplomatic way of conversing” (Participant 7). An expedition leader described how: “in order to be effective you have to stay calm, you have to put together a plan and use whatever resources are available and execute and do everything you can to help” (Participant 6).

Making sense of the disaster. These participants reported an ongoing process of attempting to make sense of the disaster, and the situation around them. This theme involved becoming aware of the extent of the disaster, as well as continuing uncertainty inherent in the situation.

Becoming aware of the extent of the disaster. The climbers described increasing awareness of the scale of the disaster throughout the day. Participant 1 reflected that:

As the day wore on you became more aware. At the beginning of it you were thinking, “This is very weird. This is Base Camp. This doesn’t happen on Base Camp.” And then you become aware that, “Right, there’s a lot of people injured, and there’s a couple of people killed.” And then by halfway through the day, “There’s at least half a dozen people are killed here.” By the next few runs that you do [to the medical tent]…you think, “Right, we’re in double figures here.” By the end of the day it was 19, with 60 people in a bad way…the worst disaster in the history of Everest.
Continuing uncertainty. These climbers described a continuous sense of uncertainty, and loss of trust in the physical environment surrounding them. Participant 1 described:

You don’t know whether it’s all going to happen again in two minutes’ time…I remember being more scared maybe that night because we were told, “Go back to your tents, put on your helmet. Don’t really sleep. If you hear something…make sure you get out of your tent”…All of your presumed safety nets were gone, and that was a particularly uneasy feeling. So I think it’s the combination of fear and disbelief…We didn’t get much sleep that night…you lose your faith with the floor under you…whatever firm connection you have to terra firma was gone. Now, anything could happen, any ground could move…And you still have no idea whether everyone at Camp One and Camp Two is okay, and I had a lot of my buddies at Camp One.

Climbers remained on the mountain for days afterwards, with some participants among the last to leave Base Camp. In doing so, they described the role of MT - in their own coping responses, and through their observations of others at Base Camp (discussed below).

The Role of Mental Toughness in Coping with the Disaster

Four dimensions represented the participants’ perceptions of the role of MT in coping with the 2015 Everest disaster. These general dimensions are discussed below in terms of their key themes with direct quotes to illustrate, which are also presented in Table 2. The climbers displayed understanding of MT and advocated its importance in mountaineering.

Participant 1 stated:

“Mental toughness”…I’ve heard that term used a lot…Everyone arrives at Everest reasonably ready. Everyone is in the same shape…but the upper mountain is a psychological battle…Those…mental battles are what gets you up the Lhotse Face. They certainly get you from Camp 4 to the summit and back, because you’re dying that whole journey. It’s horrible…And that toughness, I guess, is the only thing that is
going to get you through it...We’ve seen people who you think have it...and then,
when things start getting tough, they just fold in on themselves...Whatever mental
capacity was required to convince them to go even further beyond what they’re used
to, they weren’t able to do it. Some people are able to call on that extra reserve.

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**Emotional responses.** Participants described two themes representing the role of
mental toughness in climbers’ emotional responses to this disaster. These themes were
conceptualised as *contrasting emotional responses* and the importance of *experience and
mental toughness*.

**Contrasting emotional responses.** Distinct responses were reported by the climbers in
the immediate aftermath of the earthquake and avalanche. For example: “We had all been hit
by the same thing, but everyone reacted differently” (Participant 4). Similarly, at Base Camp,
Participant 4 described how:

> After the avalanche has hit us...there was a distinct separation between the people
> that were just very scared [and] weren’t sure what to do - that kind of fear overtook
> them - and then the other people...especially the guides and the Sherpas...as soon as
> the avalanche had passed, they were back on their feet...directing a recovery effort.

Similarly, Participant 2 described:

> I could see two patterns: people that were familiar with this type of accidents like
> doctors, medical personnel or experienced guides...they were more calm and useful
> to help other people; and people that I would consider inexperienced or weaker
> because of their personality...They were in shock, they were just sitting around...they
> were just like in a daze...I would say that they were just like numb.

**Experience and mental toughness.** Participants described experience and MT as two
key factors that distinguished those climbers who were more quickly able to regain emotional
control, remain calm, begin to reorganise thoughts, and focus on immediate concerns following the initial shock and confusion. This essentially reflected a process of “self-righting”. Participant 6 reported more rational processes were indicative of experience: “someone who has dealt with the situation can function more like a robot and process and continue to function and help remedy the situation in whatever way is possible”. Others attributed such responses to mental toughness: “people that are mentally tough can take all the ups and downs with more calm because I think we act in a more rational way…[and] I think that keeps us from…not getting carried away...We see the bigger picture” (Participant 2). Less tough individuals remained in shock for longer, dwelling on events and as such were incapable of helping themselves or others.

Coping styles. Two themes representing the role of mental toughness in the strategies employed to cope with the disaster: suppressing emotion and task-focused coping.

Suppressing emotion. Many of these participants reported that they suppressed emotions at the time and dealt with them later, as Participant 8 noted:

It's horrible. But I think you get into a format like many rescue people - you can't deal with emotion…because…you just have to get on with the job at hand…I think people put a hold on their emotion at the time and get on with the job but then have to deal with the emotional part on a later date.

However, for some experienced and mentally tough climbers – particularly those who lost close friends or team members – emotional responses were much more immediate and difficult to handle: “I lost somebody at Base Camp who I was very close to and that…made it really challenging for me, just emotionally to process that and also be the team leader in charge of…clients and…Sherpas” (Participant 6).

Task-focused coping. Following the reorganisation, climbers described rational rather than emotional responses during the subsequent rescue efforts that involved coping by
focus upon the task at hand. This form of coping was essentially directed to aiding others and as such reduced the opportunity for dwelling on personal circumstances or ruminating:

“We’ve got to get stuck in here. We are trained, we have our gear…this is our mission now”…It’s your mind’s way of…dealing with it…Every sense is exposed to a whole series of different traumas…And I think it’s your mind’s way of just saying, “Okay, well what are we going to do? We can either…put you to work, or we can send you into the corner to huddle up into a ball”…I think it is a coping mechanism…“Great, this is your way of coping with this. Get on with it.” (Participant 1).

A primary reason for staying actively involved in the recovery was to regain perceptions of control that had been lost during the earthquake, as Participant 1 described:

That sense of purpose under fire, almost, that you weren’t helpless. The whole thing was massively out of your control. The flipping earth moved. So you’re trying to regain…some semblance of control of the situation around me?”…It was trying to make sure that I could control something when the ground under me was now gone

Deciding whether to continue the expedition. In the days after the disaster, many climbers were faced with uncertainty and a decision of whether to continue the expedition. This dimension was captured in the themes desire to continue; acceptance; emergence of negative emotions and behaviours; and deciding to leave or stay.

Desire to continue. Following the recovery, there were differences in how climbers responded to the end of the expedition as, for example, “some still held on to their dream of continuing the climb” (Participant 8). One expedition leader, Participant 6, described how:

For everyone who's planned and trained and spent so much money and focused and sacrifice to make this expedition happen I think it can be tough to let go of that goal…for some of the individuals they just couldn’t accept that it could be over.
Similarly, Participant 10 described the desire of one team to continue with their expedition and attempt to summit:

When I got to the Base Camp three quarters of those teams had already downed tents and had gone and yet there was still, definitely [one team] and they were trying to rally round all the people that were still there to try and reopen the route and go for the summit. The ‘want’ was there still. I obviously declined...they were definitely…not willing to let go, they were just “come on, let's keep going.”

Others expressed their disappointment at not being able to continue – especially after returning to Base Camp from higher up the mountain. Nevertheless, most participants reported a shift in focus and realisation that the goals of their expedition had changed from attempting to climb the mountain to directing and aiding recovery efforts.

**Acceptance.** Participants reported that MT was a key distinguishing factor between mountaineers who were able to maintain a sense of perspective and recognise their own personal goals and ambitions were of diminished importance in the context of the earthquake. Like others, the toughest climbers were frustrated and disappointed at not having the opportunity to summit, but accepted the reality of the situation, as Participant 1 reported:

When I realised it was an earthquake, there was a second where I thought, “You’ve got to be kidding me…Concern that it might be influencing your own mission, because at that point you put your own life into it, so you’ve got that selfishness going on…I remember for a second thinking that, and then not thinking it ever again.

In contrast, “Mentally weak people initially don’t accept it and then when they do accept it it's very hard for them and overwhelming, and then [they] have reactions to it….they deny all blame, and anger, probably the stages of grief and losing their own ambition” (Participant 8).
Emergence of negative emotions and behaviours. This struggle to accept that the expedition could be over caused the emergence of negative emotions and dysfunctional behaviours in some cases:

People began to rebel; people began to look at people or individuals to blame; people became very selfish. All they talked about was the money they’d paid as opposed to people dying. A lot of people wanted to go on regardless. It actually brought the worst out in [some] people. [Those] people became very selfish; very aggressive; very greedy; blinkered vision; uncaring; argumentative. It got worse and worse as the days went on because we were stuck there” (Participant 10).

Other mountaineers reportedly made every effort to leave as soon as possible:

I have a lot of judgement for the folks who chose to try and run to the helicopters when they arrived the next day to bring the sick back to Kathmandu…[some people who] tried to feign injury to get on helicopters to get back to Kathmandu, to get home…We lost patience with those folks (Participant 1).

Deciding to leave or stay. The climbers described differences in how individuals responded with respect to leaving the mountain and once more associated these differences with MT. Some climbers stayed at Base Camp to help with the recovery, while others left as soon as possible. Indeed, a number of participants in this study stayed to help with relief work in Nepal after coming down from the mountain. Participant 2 described how: “I was the last person to be flown off the mountain…But I ended up staying in Nepal for another two weeks to help with the search and rescue”; and Participant 1 explained that:

I stuck around for the two weeks for the relief work, partly because I just didn’t want to go home and…stare at the wall and realise, “That’s happened”…Because your mission is gone…and you’re lucky to be alive…You’ve had to endure trauma that you
really would rather have not endured. And that’s a private thing. So…I knuckled down again and started doing the relief work.

**Returning home but staying with the mountain.** This dimension described the experiences and reflections of these climbers – who all considered themselves to be mentally tough - after returning home. Five themes were reported: *the emotional aftermath; post-traumatic stress; continuing with mountaineering; rationalising luck and acceptance of risk;* and a *changed perspective on life.*

**The emotional aftermath.** The climbers described how suppressed emotions were experienced after leaving the mountain: “My first sort of sadness was when I got home” (Participant 4); “anybody who says they can shrug that off emotionally is lying to themselves. It’s a big deal” (Participant 6). Many reported being unable to leave the experience behind: Definitely when I got to Dubai airport, suddenly my team that had been around me had gone and I just remember crying in the airport – first time I had broke down. I think I had just realised the mess I had been in and what I had seen and how people can be taken like that and yes, I was emotional for a long time actually (Participant 4).

Others, however, did not experience such emotion until much later: “the enormity of it kind of hit me…a year on, and I thought, “Well, that really was a big thing, wasn’t it?”” (Participant 1). Subsequently, these participants reported *grieving* long after leaving the mountain: “there's the emotionally tough days, you're dealing with grief of losing someone” (Participant 6). This process was particularly vivid for some, including Participant 4:

We lost three of our team. So we had that personal connection and I knew them from last year so that got to me for a while and even today, ever since it happened, every single day since my mind replays the avalanche and what had happened.

Participants reported a sense of *guilt* following their experience of the earthquake. This was illustrated by one climber who described: “I think the feeling of guilt more than anything.
Safe in my house and thinking “why am I spared this, why not me?” - it didn’t really hit me until I was on my own” (Participant 4).

Post-traumatic stress. Some climbers reported that the experience had longer-lasting impact. Participant 5 explained that: “For the Everest [expedition], for this last Spring…I’ve suffered trauma and yes it’s led to some repercussions that weren’t totally pleasant and that would be post-traumatic stress”. This participant also considered himself to be mentally tough, indicating that such characteristics did not render these individuals immune to the effects of natural disaster. Other climbers, including Participant 1, described similar effects:

When I fly in aeroplanes now, it’s very different. Turbulence is utterly terrifying. And I don’t know how to get rid of that…The rumble goes up into your muscle fibres, and it’s part of your muscle memory. I still have it. Whenever I walk up to [the train] station…the train comes through, the whole station vibrates, and every muscle in my leg tells my brain to get out of there…My brain is so influenced by that experience.

Rationalising luck and acceptance of risk. Some climbers attributed their survival (and the death of others) to luck: “I think about the 19 people that just died in a flash? That’s because they were just in the wrong place. Just one of those things” (Participant 4). Others attributed the death of others to the inherent risk in mountaineering: “losing somebody – yeah it’s really hard and it’s sad. But everybody who’s there knows the risks that are involved” (Participant 2). Similarly, Participant 1 – who also survived the Everest avalanche in 2014 – rationalised the role of luck in two unsuccessful Everest expeditions:

If we were in the position at Base Camp that we were in in 2014, we would have been killed. That’s just blind luck…The fact that I wasn’t just waltzing across the middle of Base Camp at the time, which I would have been doing regularly…Any of that could have been happening. Just right place, wrong time. So I guess on the whole, I feel
more lucky than unlucky. Because…I’ve come out of the two worst disasters in the
history of Everest without a hair on my head touched.

As the climbers were leaving the mountain, some reflected on the reality of the experience.

Although high-altitude mountaineering is a risky sport/activity, and these participants had
regularly experienced death in the mountains, some reflected a sense of realising their own
mortality: “I never believed it could happen to us, and then I realised it could happen to us”
( Participant 3). This sense was illustrated by one climber who described how: “I remember
looking out of the helicopter window and thinking I’d got away with it all” ( Participant 10).

Continuing with mountaineering. All of the participants in this study continued in
high-altitude mountaineering. Participants reported a passion for the sport, feeling that
mountaineering was something that enhanced their lives. As such, climbing other peaks soon
after the disaster was reported as a way of regaining control (and confidence) rather than
dwelling and ruminating upon events: “You don’t dwell on it…If you thought about it then
you wouldn’t do it, would you? But I [still] just love everything about it [mountaineering]”
( Participant 10). Participant 1 explained the level of risk involved in returning to Everest:

Everest is inherently dangerous, so…you’ve rationalised in your mind the
danger…that’s always going to exist. It existed before the earthquake happened, it
exists after the earthquake happened…In relative terms, it’s not the same as coming
out of the building that had been half-destroyed and then walking back into it…The
mountain was no more dangerous now than it was the day before the earthquake.

Similarly, Participant 2 described how: “I think it (death) also helps me focus for the next
time - do everything right and you will come down”. Participant 4 stated:

Seeing how fast life can be taken away from you has just spurred me on to keep doing
what I am doing because it could have been me. So in case it ever is, I want to make
sure that I achieve as much as I can.
MENTAL TOUGHNESS IN SURVIVING THE 2015 EVEREST DISASTER

Changed perspective on life. The climbers reflected on changed outlooks on life following the disaster: “when you are that close to death nothing teaches you more about yourself” (Participant 10). These changes related to managing other situations that occurred in their life following the earthquake: “I used to be more sensitive. I think I am less like that now because I have an attitude of that’s life. That’s what happens” (Participant 4). Some climbers described feeling lucky following the experience: “for sure it makes me realise how lucky I am that I'm still alive” (Participant 2). Finally, some climbers described how the experience gave them a more positive and resilient outlook on life: “It gives you a better outlook on life. It makes you think how important things are. It makes you realise how short life can be…it does make you a bit more resilient to things” (Participant 10).

Discussion

In this study we aimed to understand high-altitude mountaineers’ lived-experiences of surviving the 2015 Nepal earthquake and subsequent avalanche at Mount Everest Base Camp, and to explore their perceptions of the role of MT in coping with the disaster. The present study provides first-hand accounts of a high-altitude natural disaster from the perspective of mountaineers, in terms of how the events unfolded and their psychological responses to the disaster. Previously researchers have examined climbing disasters by drawing upon Foucault to discuss the discourse of ‘disaster and tragedy’ (Elmes & Frame, 2008); reviewing secondary sources (Burnette, Pollack and Forsyth, 2011); and combining primary and secondary data to examine the breakdown of leadership (Hällgren, Lindahl and Rehn, 2013). Thus, the present study provides important insights into climbers’ experiences of a natural disaster, and understanding of the events that occurred at Base Camp during the 2015 earthquake and avalanche – the worst disaster in the history of climbing Mount Everest.

The behaviours of participants in the immediate aftermath, and the continued recovery efforts were evidently influenced by role and experience. For example, as might be
expected, the expedition leaders, mountain guides, doctors, and Sherpas, who had previously
experienced traumatic situations in the mountains, tended to direct efforts and make initial
decisions. Similarly, recent work (Author 1 et al., under review) on MT and decision-making
in high altitude mountaineering found that the combination of experience and MT was crucial
in terms of survival and success in extreme conditions. These participants also described their
observations of the behaviour of others at Base Camp – including negative emotional and
behavioural responses such as selfishness and feigning injury, which relates to previous work
on antisocial behaviour following natural disaster (Garfin & Silver, 2015). All participants
reported an initial sense of shock, confusion, and disorientation as the earthquake and
avalanches occurred. From this point onwards, differences emerged. Examining MT in the
aftermath of a natural disaster allowed the behavioural responses of more and less tough
climbers to be identified in adverse and traumatic circumstances that are different to most
other sport settings.

Both the immediate and subsequent effects of the earthquake reported by participants
in our study are important in the context of previous work concerning psychological effects
following natural disaster (e.g., Henderson et al., 2010). Our participants, who all reported
themselves as mentally tough, were less likely to dwell or brood over events in the immediate
aftermath of the earthquake as coping was effectively achieved by a task-oriented focus that
placed emotions on hold. This finding is commensurate with Henderson et al.’s (2010) study
of coping behaviour amongst older adults in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina, in that
mentally tough climbers also reported “staying busy” immediately after the earthquake, as a
coping mechanism. It could be the case that MT participants’ ability to reappraise,
reorganise, and shift focus from the initial threat to the challenges of a “new mission” (e.g.,
helping others and staying safe) meant that they were less likely to brood over the events.
Appraising stressful situations to be challenges rather than threats is linked to more positive
emotions such as confidence, as well as more effective performance (Folkman, 2008; Jones, Meijen, McCarthy & Sheffield, 2009). Indeed, Kaiseler, Polman and Nicholls (2009) found that MT was related to fewer stress appraisals and greater perceptions of control. Alternatively, it could be the case that these participants had higher coping self-efficacy which has been identified as a mediator of distress following natural disaster (Benight, Swift, Sanger, Smith & Zeppelin, 1999).

In previous studies (e.g., Crust et al., 2010; Crust et al., 2014; Nicholls et al., 2011) MT has been associated with effective coping, enabling performance to be relatively unaffected regardless of setbacks or adversity, and reflects a task-oriented focus and not dwelling on setbacks (quickly moving on). While this is evidently an effective strategy in the short-term, the longer-term effects are less well understood. Evidence from the present study suggests some participants who placed emotions on hold reported negative consequences of this at a later time. While for some the outcomes concerned growth and reappraisal, others reported PTS. Recent research (Shepherd & Wild, 2014) reported PTS symptoms associated with greater emotional suppression strategies and less cognitive appraisal. Garcia et al. (2015) also found that ruminating processes such as brooding and cognitive strategies could explain different outcomes such as those experiencing PTG as opposed to PTS. Similarly, our participants reporting growth appeared to rationalise and reappraise the event through direct reflections in a process of deliberate rumination (Garcia et al., 2015). At the very least, present results have established that MT, while an important resistance resource, does not protect against PTS.

Furthermore, participants reported their core assumptions of the world were initially shattered by the earthquake (similar to Garcia et al., 2015) but all eventually returned to mountaineering. Thus, one longer-term coping strategy used by these participants was to return to the activity relatively soon afterwards – as though they were actively avoiding the
ment of dwelling on the disaster or tackling the emotions involved. This suggestion is in line with Crust et al. (2014) who reported that MT participants move on to the next task quickly and do not spend much time thinking about success or failure in the short-term. Mentally tough participants reported quickly regaining a sense of equilibrium following the initial shock and the ability to remain calm and think clearly about what needed to be done. This is theoretically consistent with past work that has found MT related to self-control in adverse situations (Cook et al., 2014; Gucciardi, et al., 2008). Emotions were placed on hold (cf. Fawcett, 2011) as thoughts were immediately focused on the survival of self and others, and then turned to aiding climbers who were in shock or injured. In terms of coping, and similar to previous work (Crust et al., 2010), the toughest participants reported compartmentalising their thoughts to allow a strategic plan to be formulated. This reflected thinking about what needed to be done rather than personal concerns, and avoided dwelling on events by moving thoughts onto the next problem that needed to be addressed (keeping mentally busy). Nevertheless, even the mentally toughest mountaineers reported self-doubts and effortful struggles to cope with the enormity of unfolding events and personal loss. In the hours following the initial event, when recovery efforts were under way, participants reported personal disappointment and frustration that goals (to summit) had been curtailed. This was soon replaced, for the toughest, by a sense of perspective that in the circumstances personal goals were of little significance against the tragic events that had unfolded. One characteristic that was reported as defining the mentally toughest climbers was staying behind to provide aid within Nepal rather than leaving the country immediately. Similarly, recent work has challenged the notion of mentally tough individuals being selfish and focused only upon personal ambition, as in the context of mountaineering, the toughest were found to set aside personal goals to rescue and aid others (Author 1 et al.). The coping processes and the sense of perspective reported appear consistent with findings from sports MT literature (Crust et al.,
Mental toughness in surviving the 2015 Everest disaster (Crust et al., 2014; Nicholls et al., 2008) and also more theoretical work concerning the directed forgetting paradigm – setting aside previously experiences to focus upon the present task (Dewhurst et al., 2012).

In contrast, climbers who were perceived by these participants to be less mentally tough were reported to remain in a state of shock for longer, were unable to contribute to immediate relief efforts, and needed to be supported and aided by others. A number of such individuals were reportedly ruminating and dwelling on events (e.g., “I could have died”) and were unable to think clearly or rationally about what needed to be done. This included some experienced mountaineers, demonstrating that MT and experience are not necessarily synonymous. Some clear contrasts were evident between more and less tough climbers, in regards to the end of the expedition. Some mountaineers with lower MT sought to leave the mountain immediately and were on occasion reported to be feigning injury in order to be flown out by helicopter. Other less tough mountaineers were reported to behave selfishly, with a lost sense of perspective, and found it difficult to reconcile the end of personal ambition; this manifested in anger, blaming others, wanting to continue climbing regardless, and general dysfunctional behaviours at Base Camp before leaving the mountain.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The present research offers insights into the lived experiences of surviving the 2015 Nepal earthquake and avalanche at Everest Base Camp, with new perspectives on psychological responses, coping, and the role of mental toughness. However, as with all research, some limitations were evident. For example, these are accounts of the lived experience as this time - at another time (e.g., before or after this study), participants may view the experience differently. Furthermore, these experiences are derived from a small purposive sample, and generalisation should not be done on the basis of sample, as the sample is not representative of all involved (e.g., Sherpa), but cautiously and critically
through analytical generalizability. Similarly, we obtained the perspective of mentally tough
mountaineers who provided their perceptions, observation, and experiences of the disaster
and the people around them/different coping responses. It would also be useful to interview
participants who experienced “less tough” responses to obtain their perspective. While these
participants were harder to reach and less willing to be interviewed, they may have offered
alternative experiences and interpretations of the disaster.

The findings offer several promising lines of enquiry for future researchers. These
participants described eagerness to go back to Everest and continue mountaineering despite
being involved in a natural disaster. Future research could aim to explore their experiences of
making such a return. Future research could also examine the relationship between mental
toughness and mental health (e.g., protection vs. susceptibility across issues such as post-
traumatic stress). Specifically, it appears important for future researchers to examine the
longer-term effects of coping strategies employed by mentally tough individuals. While the
logical and “in the moment” focus that is applied to manage during traumatic circumstances
can leads to effective results at the time, researchers should examine whether this approach
may actually suppress emotions which can surface later and cause longer-term issues. Indeed,
this suggestion reinforces the need to develop effective interventions for mountaineers and
survivors of other traumatic sporting or environmental events. Importantly, it should not be
assumed that the toughest individuals, who appear to cope well with events at the time, do
not need support at later stages. Indeed, it could be the case that specific interventions are
required for those who are low (e.g., shorter-term strategies) and high (e.g., longer-term
strategies) in MT. Finally, given the risk involved in these extreme environments, and high
mortality rates, guides and operators should consider providing psychological support for
climbers, for example, during preparation for expeditions and access to practitioners after.
References


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Mental Toughness in Surviving the 2015 Everest Disaster


Table 1: Mountaineers’ experiences of the 2015 earthquake and avalanche on Mount Everest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example Raw Data Themes</th>
<th>Higher-Order Themes</th>
<th>General Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Felt the ground rumbling; knew something was wrong; thought it was an avalanche</td>
<td>Recognising the earthquake</td>
<td>Experiencing the earthquake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear for self and others on the mountain; no control; thinking “what do we do?”</td>
<td>Fear and helplessness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response initiated by guides, Sherpas and expedition leads; assessment and evaluation key</td>
<td>Initiating rescue and recovery</td>
<td>Reorienting, reorganising and recovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarity and knowing what to do; direct communication; calmness and planning</td>
<td>Leadership behaviours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realising how bad the disaster was; hearing increasing death toll</td>
<td>Becoming aware of the extent of the disaster</td>
<td>Making sense of the disaster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know what’s going to happen; waiting for aftershocks; no idea if friends are okay</td>
<td>Continuing uncertainty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: The role of mental toughness in coping with the 2015 Everest disaster

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example Raw Data Themes</th>
<th>Higher-Order Themes</th>
<th>General Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All hit by the same thing but everyone reacted differently; some pro-active, others shaken badly</td>
<td>Contrasting emotional responses</td>
<td>Emotional responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentally tough and experienced climbers able to regain control, reorganise, and focus on the task</td>
<td>Experience and mental toughness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put emotions on hold; challenging to process emotions after losing friend/team member</td>
<td>Suppressing emotion</td>
<td>Coping styles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational rather than emotional responses; getting stuck in to avoid dwelling or ruminating</td>
<td>Task-focused coping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some still wanted to climb; tough to let go of the goal; disappointment at end of the expedition</td>
<td>Desire to continue</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentally tough climbers able to maintain perspective; personal goals no longer important</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>Deciding whether to continue the expedition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brought out the worst in some: frustration, anger, blame, selfishness</td>
<td>Emergence of negative emotions and behaviours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some left as soon as possible; some stayed in Nepal for two weeks to help with recovery</td>
<td>Deciding to leave or stay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadness and heightened emotional sensitivity; survivor’s guilt; grief</td>
<td>The emotional aftermath</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-traumatic stress; still feel shakes/afraid of turbulence</td>
<td>Post-traumatic stress</td>
<td>Returning home – but staying with the mountain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost immediate thoughts about climbing again; planning return to Everest</td>
<td>Continuing with mountaineering</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyone knows the risks involved; just one of those things; right place, wrong time; felt lucky</td>
<td>Rationalising luck and acceptance of risk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appreciating the importance of life; now have an attitude of “that’s life”; realise how lucky I am to be alive</td>
<td>Changed perspective on life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>