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1 **What is uncertainty? A grounded theory of the role of uncertainty in anxiety in autism**

2 Laura Lennuyeux-Connene¹, Julia Yates¹ & Sebastian B Gaigg¹

3

4 Running title: **A theoretical construct of uncertainty**

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6 ¹Department of Psychology, City, University of London, London EC1V 0HB, UK

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9 **Corresponding Author:**

10 Laura Lennuyeux-Connene

11 Department of Psychology,

12 City, University of London

13 Northampton Square

14 London EC1V 0HB

15 Tel: 0208 040 8380

16 e-mail: laura.lennuyeux-connene.2@city.ac.uk

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25 **Keywords:** autism; anxiety; intolerance of uncertainty; uncertainty

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Abstract

Background: While previous qualitative work has contributed to identifying intolerance of uncertainty as a significant source of anxiety in autism, there has been little research on what uncertainty means exactly for autistic people and/or what types of uncertainties might be particularly anxiety-provoking.

Methods: 15 autistic adults (5 women) took part in this qualitative interview study in which we probed their understanding and experiences of uncertainty and its links to feelings of anxiety.

The researchers applied a Grounded theory approach to transcripts of the interviews, broadly following Charmaz’s constructivist epistemology, to derive a theory of uncertainty as it is experienced by the autistic people we interviewed.

Results: From the interviews, we derived a model of uncertainty which identified three different levels of uncertainty, ranging from the certainty of the ‘known’, through to the relatively manageable uncertainty of the ‘known unknown’, to the anxiety-provoking ‘unknown unknown’ or that which cannot be made known. We propose in this model, that anxiety can be understood as resulting from difficulties with avoiding or controlling the latter types of uncertainty through planning or information gathering.

Conclusion: Previous researchers had treated uncertainty as a unified construct. However, they may not have explored what uncertainty might mean for autistic people. We have shown in this study that not all uncertainties are experienced equally. We hope that this

51 research will help develop a more nuanced understanding and that it constitutes the first step
52 in disentangling anxiety from intolerance of uncertainty in autism.

53

54 **Introduction**

55 High rates of anxiety in autism have been reported in systematic reviews and meta-analyses.

56 For instance van Steensel, Bögels, & Perrin ¹ report rates of 30-50% in young people with

57 autism, and Buck, Viskochil, Farley et al ² report rates of 40-50% in adults. This is

58 compared with anything from 2.2 to 20.9% in children and adolescents (from 6.4% in

59 Europe, and to 18.1% in the US). ^{3,1} A more recent systematic review from 2021⁴ found

60 substantial heterogeneity in prevalence of co-occurring conditions in autism, with figures of

61 anxiety co-occurring with autism, ranging from 0 – 82% in children and adolescents. An

62 earlier meta-analysis from 2020 ⁵ found a much lower pooled estimate of co-occurrence of

63 anxiety and autism of 20%.

64

65 Anxiety has been linked to poor quality of life for children and adults on the spectrum, as it

66 interferes with achievement of potential in education and later employment ^{6,7}. In a recent

67 survey asking people on the spectrum what their priorities would be for future research,

68 mental health and anxiety in particular was seen as a key area of concern⁸.

69 Intolerance of Uncertainty (IoU) as a construct was conceived first out of a distinction

70 between fear and anxiety, the latter being directed at the possibility (real or imagined) of

71 something unpleasant happening in the future ⁹. For Lidell (1964)¹⁰, anxiety was an outgrowth

72 of vigilance as an adaptive function of awareness of potential danger. Anxiety can thus be

73 identified as when this concern for future events is extended and maintained over a long

¹ It is difficult to compare the figures exactly as they change according to time frame: the last three/six/twelve months or lifetime prevalence. The figures nonetheless highlight that there is a stark difference overall.

74 period of time and consequently quality of life is impaired¹¹. Worry is a facet of anxiety
75 which particularly pertains to the persistence of this concern¹². Lazarus proposed that anxiety
76 was an emotion which was based on appraisal of the anticipatory and uncertain elements of
77 future threats, which, importantly, were also the result of the person perceiving themselves as
78 not having the cognitive resources (in his terms the interpretive schemata) to resolve the
79 situation¹³. Worry and by extension anxiety, then, are related to IoU, which is characterized
80 by thinking that all unknown future events are by definition distressing and that the preferred
81 behaviour is therefore to avoid situations where outcomes are unknown.

82 IoU is defined as a feeling of stress in the face of uncertainty, and was initially postulated as a
83 factor contributing to Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD) in the general population¹⁴.

84 People who report high levels of IoU on measures such as the Intolerance of Uncertainty
85 Scale (IoUS)⁹ find situations of uncertainty stressful, have a tendency to view such situations
86 as inherently threatening and experience difficulty functioning in the face of uncertainty¹⁵⁻¹⁷.

87

88 Researchers have tried to identify the causes and risk factors of the high levels of anxiety in
89 autism⁷, with an emerging consensus that Intolerance of Uncertainty (IoU) plays a critical
90 role¹⁸. The majority of this work, however, has been based on the use of self-reports¹⁹.

91

92 The IoUS is both a measure of the emotional and cognitive as well as the behavioural
93 responses to uncertainty, whereas Ledoux and Pine²⁰ argue for two separate neural circuits
94 for emotional and behavioural responses to anxiety. In addition, although the IoUS
95 demonstrates good internal consistency, and is thought to capture a single unified construct
96^{9,15,21}, it seems unlikely that all types of uncertainty in life are equally anxiety inducing. For
97 example, uncertainties involved in gambling seem qualitatively different from the kinds of
98 uncertainties that have characterised the Covid pandemic.

99 Nonetheless, according to findings from studies using self-report questionnaires such as the
100 IoUS, autistic participants consistently report greater levels of IoU ^{22,23} and modelling studies
101 show that this construct constitutes one of the strongest predictors of self-reported levels of
102 anxiety^{18,24}. It is important to note that although self-report are an oft used and quick way of
103 gathering a large amount of data they do not come without their drawbacks. Self-report
104 measures have been developed by and with, non-autistic people (with some exceptions such
105 as the ASA-A (Rodgers et al., 2020) used in our study). This means that questionnaires may
106 not have been designed in the most accessible way for autistic people (Stacey & Cage, 2022).
107 Furthermore, a reliance on ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ may be at the expense of ‘relevance’ for
108 autistic people; i.e. the existing instruments may not adequately reflect the lived experience
109 of autistic people (Jones, 2022).

110 However, qualitative research such as interviews, do indicate that autistic adults and
111 adolescents report that uncertain and unpredictable situations are anxiety-provoking for them
112 and that they try to avoid them as much as possible. For instance Robertson, Stanfield, Watt,
113 et al (2018)²⁵ conducted semi-structured interviews with autistic adults, carers and partners of
114 autistic adults and found that participants consistently described change and unpredictability
115 as sources of anxiety. Parents and teachers of autistic children similarly report that
116 uncertainties, particularly in social contexts, are often the source of distress²⁶.

117
118 Researchers investigating different interventions have shown the importance of including
119 intolerance of uncertainty as a target for treatment for anxiety in autism. However, while
120 previous work such as the development of the Coping with Uncertainty in Everyday
121 Situations (CUES) intervention has focused on Intolerance of Uncertainty ²⁷, the construct of
122 ‘uncertainty’ itself remains relatively ill-defined.

123

124 In this study, we sought to explore further the kinds of uncertainty which might be more
125 likely to cause anxiety than others for autistic individuals. Additionally, we aimed to help
126 clarify what kinds of uncertainties might lead to anxiety and to disentangle which emotional
127 and cognitive responses might lead to which behavioural response. Working towards a better
128 understanding of the experiences of our interviewees might contribute to future studies aimed
129 at unpacking mechanisms through which uncertainty might lead to anxiety. In turn,
130 understanding what uncertainty means for and how it is experienced by autistic people in
131 their day-to-day lives may help develop more effective support strategies for autistic people
132 who may find uncertainty difficult. .

133

134 Thus, in this study, we aimed to explore *how autistic people conceptualise and experience*
135 *uncertainty*. Thereby, we hoped to refine the definition of the construct of uncertainty, in
136 order to investigate further the role it may play in anxiety in autism. To this end, we
137 conducted semi-structured interviews to provide a flexible context within which the
138 interviewer and participants could freely explore the meaning and experiences of
139 uncertainty. We adopted a Grounded Theory approach, with a loose constructivist
140 epistemology²⁸, which provides a systematic yet flexible approach to construct theories
141 grounded in data²⁸. We have called this ‘loose’, because we were also interested in the
142 subjective experiences of the autistic people we interviewed, beyond the meaning making
143 that might be constructed in the process of the interview itself.

144

145 **Methods**

146

147 Participants

148

149 The participants were 15 autistic adults (10 male, 5 female), aged 24-71, who have been
150 given pseudonyms in the analyses below to protect their identity. Their ethnicity was
151 predominantly White European, apart from one participant who was of Chinese origin
152 although born and brought up in the UK. Depending on the time of their diagnosis (ranging
153 from early childhood to late adulthood), participants had received a diagnosis of either
154 Asperger's syndrome, Autism or Autism Spectrum Disorder in line with the relevant DSM
155 diagnostic criteria at that time.

156 To help characterise the patterns of strengths and difficulties across core diagnostic functional
157 domains and experiences of anxiety, we asked the participants to complete the Social
158 Responsiveness Scale (SRS-2-ASR)²⁹ and the Anxiety Scale for Autism (ASA-A)³⁰. The
159 scores for the SRS-2-ASR ranged from 76 to 90+, with 10 participants scoring in the 'severe'
160 range of above 85 and the rest in the 'moderate' range. Scores for the ASA-A ranged from 17
161 to 44 with seven participants scoring above a score of 28, which has been suggested to
162 indicate clinically significant levels of anxiety. Additionally, although we did not ask for any
163 formal medical history, during the interviews three participants mentioned they had received
164 or were receiving treatment for anxiety, three for depression and two participants talked about
165 experiencing Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (OCD). One participant also referenced a
166 family history of ADHD and one a personal history of schizoid personality disorder. None of
167 the participants in our sample had any identified learning disability or language impairment.
168

169 We primarily recruited participants from a database of participants who had taken part in
170 research of the Autism Research Group at City, University of London before, or through
171 word-of-mouth advertising through the researcher's social networks.
172
173

174 Setting

175

176 Due to the pandemic, and the ensuing necessary restrictions to travel and face-to-face contact,
177 all the interviews took place remotely on Zoom (n = 11), Itsi (n = 1), Microsoft Teams (n =
178 1), over the phone (n = 1) or Skype (n = 1). We recorded the interviews on a digital device
179 and the main researcher who conducted the interviews transcribed them verbatim.

180

181

182 Procedure

183

184 All participants provided written informed consent to take part in the study after receiving a
185 detailed information sheet explaining the aims of the research. The Psychology Department
186 Research Ethics Committee (ETH2021-0170) approved the study procedure, in line with
187 ethical guidelines set out in the Declaration of Helsinki.

188 We used a semi-structured interview approach to guide the conversation and maintain focus
189 on the core issue of interest, while providing enough flexibility to allow the participants to
190 lead the conversation while remaining both relevant and open to their experiences and
191 understanding. During the development of the interview schedule (see appendix 1), the first
192 author held informal consultations with parents of autistic people, with researchers and an
193 autistic person, in addition to the pilot participant who informally provided feedback on her
194 experience of the interview. The former person, who wishes to remain anonymous, .
195 suggested that what autistic people might want, rather than not being uncertain, was to be
196 certain. This prompted the main researcher to add questions in the interview schedule
197 regarding the areas in which participants might need certainty. The main researcher then
198 piloted the interview schedule with three parents of autistic adults, one tutor of autistic

199 children and young people, and an autistic adult to obtain rich perspectives that might prompt
200 further revisions to the initial draft interview schedule. We encouraged the pilot participants
201 to give feedback on the conduct of the interview as well as on the questions. Only one autistic
202 adult was interviewed for the pilot as, initially, the project was to include interviews of adults
203 and parents and professionals working with autistic people. However, the main researcher,
204 after reflecting on the pilot interviews, considered that parents and professionals had a
205 different narrative concerning what they perceived to be the experience of uncertainty by
206 autistic people and therefore considered that it was unfeasible to aim to develop a grounded
207 theory that would be applicable to the different experiences. Therefore, for this study we only
208 interviewed autistic adults for the main data collection, although we note that interviewing
209 parents and professionals working with autistic people with little or no spoken language
210 would be worth pursuing in future studies. Another modification stemming from the pilot
211 interviews was the order of the questions, which we changed to allow for a suitable space for
212 a break, should participants need it. Lastly, we defined the topics which were going to be
213 discussed more clearly at the beginning, so as to give the participants a little time to process
214 and to give them an idea of what was to come.

215

216 The final version of the interview guide included as Appendix 1, started with broad
217 conceptual questions (e.g., “*People apply many different meanings to the word ‘uncertainty’.*
218 *When you say ‘uncertainty’ what do you mean?*”), followed by probes about the experience
219 of uncertainty in different situations (e.g., “*Can you think of a time recently when you felt*
220 *uncertain?*”). After advice from the autistic person whom we consulted in the development of
221 the schedule, we added the concept of certainty. Interviews lasted between 35 minutes to just
222 over an hour and began with the researcher outlining what the participant could expect from
223 the interview and reminding them of the key information in the participant information sheet

224 (e.g., right to withdraw etc). We generally avoided small talk before beginning the interview
225 as there are indications that this can make the participants feel uncomfortable rather than
226 more at ease ³¹. However, the interviewer let herself be led by the participants in this respect.

227

228 Research approach and Analysis

229

230 The interviewer transcribed each interview verbatim either on the same day, or the next day.
231 She conducted the analysis simultaneously, partly with the use of NVivo 12 pro ³², through a
232 process of continuous evaluation and constant checking by testing out nascent ideas and
233 themes with each new participant. This is known as theoretical sampling and is a key part of a
234 Grounded Theory analysis and approach ³³⁻³⁵ that develops new theory whose abstractions
235 are derived directly from data³⁶. The term refers to both the theoretical analysis and the
236 resulting product of the method³⁷. In this current study, we adopted a Grounded Theory
237 which leant towards a constructivist approach, as described by Charmaz and Henwood³⁸,
238 constructing a theory about the experiences of participants through interaction with, and
239 interpretation of, the data in successive levels of analysis involving memo-writing, coding
240 and drawing up of categories and diagrams.

241 The interviewer initially coded the transcripts line-by-line, at first adding new codes to the
242 existing list with every new participant transcript. She then expanded, redefined, or refined
243 the codes as she identified different themes and questioned them with repeated reading of the
244 transcripts.

245 Importantly, the researcher was not completely naïve of autistic experience or theory, as she
246 is a researcher in autism, the parent of an autistic adult, and someone who has worked as a
247 carer and support worker of autistic children and young people and their families. Her
248 background helped to sensitize her approach (Corbin & Strauss 2015) and to *'be more*

249 *sensitive to concepts in data but also enable them to see connections between concepts'*
250 (Corbin & Strauss 2015³⁹, p79). It may also have influenced how she interpreted statements
251 where there might have been ambiguity. To counter this, as part of the continuous theoretical
252 sampling, the interviewer checked her own interpretations and thoughts during as well as
253 after the interviews. The other researchers, while being less involved in the analysis,
254 nonetheless helped shape and refine it. The first is a qualitative researcher who has no autism
255 experience but was able to guide the main researcher in her methodology and the second is a
256 researcher, who although has no personal or lived experience of autism has been a researcher
257 in autism for many years and as such could provide guidance regarding theoretical
258 underpinnings of the analysis. Thus, we adopted Grounded Theory in this study as a process
259 of co-construction⁴⁰, which combines a form of informed induction (the formulation of a
260 theory based on observation and reflection) with abduction (deciding on a 'best' description
261 of the data from amongst a number of possible different explanations).
262 In a final stage of the analysis, we sent a brief summary of the theoretical framework that was
263 derived from the interviews to all participants for member checking. Generally, the
264 participants responded that the theory did resonate with them, with some providing minor
265 clarifications that were incorporated into the final formulation of the theory.

266

267

268

269

270 **Findings**

271

272 In the findings set out below, we will first describe the themes and resulting categories

273 regarding how the participants conceptualised and experienced uncertainty. In contrast to a

274 thematic analysis where one might seek to find discrete themes, in grounded theory these are
275 inter-related as they are progressive building blocks for the eventual construction of the
276 theory itself.

277

278

279 **Part 1: Themes and Categories**

280

281 **What is uncertainty?**

282

283 When exploring how the participants experienced uncertainty, the main researcher
284 increasingly found that participants conceptualised it as all that was unknown and drew
285 important distinctions between different types and levels of unknowns. They can be
286 summarised as follows:

287

288 Not knowing what is going to happen, what things are going to be like, what the outcome of
289 one's decisions might be.

290 For some, uncertainty was primarily related to not knowing what was going to happen or
291 what the outcome would be of one's decisions and behaviour. For instance, Sylvia, during
292 the pandemic when things were likely to be cancelled at the last minute felt "*really uncertain,*
293 *even up to the morning [she] went [anywhere], whether [she] was going to be able to go.*"

294 What made it uncertain was that unexpected changes could happen at the last minute, not
295 giving her enough time to plan.

296 For others uncertainty was not knowing what things were going to be like, more than whether
297 or not they would happen. For instance, Jeremy, when planning a holiday, would do a lot of
298 research prior to going. He would look things up, including on StreetView, yet "*would still*

299 *retain a sense of ...not actually knowing what it was actually going to be like, when [he] got*
300 *there*". For Jeremy, this was compounded by his difficulty anticipating how he would or
301 should be feeling in any given situation, saying: *"I think if I have, if the, uhm, autism thing*
302 *has any effect on me, really, is that I'm never sure what I'm thinking (...) I don't know, what I*
303 *feel in any particular situation*". For others, not knowing what something could be like could
304 be exacerbated by increased sensory sensitivities. For instance Rachel, who needed to know
305 if somewhere was going to be noisy. Note that she did not phrase it in such terms, nor did she
306 underline that this was a way in which she may have been different from non-autistic people.
307
308 In some cases, uncertainty was epitomised by small, unexpected changes to their routine. The
309 unknown here is more nebulous: going from the stability of what is known (their routine) to
310 the less secure unknown (a new way of doing things or even a different day for doing them).
311 For instance Stuart found it very difficult to adapt to changing his shopping day from a
312 Wednesday to a Thursday, when his wife suggested it. This was despite the fact that his
313 unease and resistance weren't *"based on any reality"* or on *"any fear that anything was*
314 *going to happen"*. The uncertainty resided on his not knowing what the alternative would be
315 like, what he would do on the Wednesday, now that he was not going shopping, or if his
316 experience of shopping on a Thursday would be different, at a visceral, rather than a rational
317 level. Change was inherently uncertain, although exacerbated by not being able to process
318 the change, for instance if the change came about out of the blue.
319 For participants who did not have solid foundations (a permanent home or income),
320 transitions from a known to an unknown, on a grander scale were also deeply unsettling.
321 Francis, for example, when made redundant and having to start a new job, was very anxious
322 about *"the fact that [he didn't] know where the job [was], where [he was] going to be*
323 *relocating"*.

324 People as unpredictable

325 Another aspect of ‘now knowing what was going to happen’ was specific to social situations
326 and interactions, most often with non-autistic people, an example, perhaps, of a double-
327 empathy problem⁴¹. The autistic interviewees fearing to be misunderstood by , as well as not
328 always understanding, non-autistic people . The participants expressed that they found non-
329 autistic people as inherently confusing and unpredictable. For Fred, it was the
330 unpredictability in any social interaction which was uncertain: “*But you don’t know what will*
331 *happen. I mean someone could say something that - or I could say something that - offends*
332 *someone and then it goes a bit wrong, and I feel depressed about the world and that kind of*
333 *thing”.*

334 For Rachel, this was because they were seen as inherently unreliable – “*you never quite*
335 *know if things are going to be as they say”* – meaning if situations were going to happen the
336 way that non-autistic people said that they would. This was echoed by John, for whom non-
337 autistic people’s behaviour was often unpredictable, and therefore difficult to understand:
338 “*Oh, for autistic people, yeah, because they’re completely unpredictable.”*

339 Participants also frequently commented on the fact that the unpredictable nature of other
340 people was often compounded by social rules to which non-autistic people seem to be privy
341 in an unconscious way, but that are not intuitive to many autistic people who have to learn
342 them more consciously instead. For example, according to Steven:

343 “*rules are fluid and there’s some part of a neurotypical brain that does them, and the*
344 *[stories] that society tells about itself are mostly false, and yet people operate as if*
345 *they were true, to greater or lesser degrees - while ignoring them when it suits them”*

346

347

348

349 Unsure of what to do

350 For other interviewees, uncertainty meant not knowing what to do, or whether they had made
351 the right decision. Rachel experienced uncertainty in this context as both not knowing if she
352 had made the right decision and not knowing what to do next: “*Am I doing the right thing?
353 Am I better still staying, although things were not good? (...) I’m putting myself, not only
354 myself but my three children ... am I putting my three children at more risk?*”.

355

356 Another expression of this uncertainty about *what to do* is an avoidance of making decisions.

357 For example, John explained that he had many pairs of the same headphones he liked and

358 trusted so that he would not be in a position of having to choose another type, whereas

359 Amelia explained that she always has the same lunch so that she does not have to think about

360 what to choose. The uncertainty in these contexts was expressed as not knowing what would

361 be the right choice of product to suit their needs, as well as the act of choosing taking up

362 more cognitive resources than they were prepared to spare. According to John, for instance,

363 what distinguished him from the way non-autistic people might deal with situations, is that he

364 worked better if he could be in ‘flow’ and was not disrupted or if his ‘cognitive processes’

365 were not wasted on matters of less interest, stating: “*if you’ve got a lot of things that are*

366 *exactly the same, you don’t have to think about them (...) you can use your mind, your*

367 *cognitive processes, to think about other things*”.

368

369

370 Uncertainty as pervasive

371 Finally, the meaning of uncertainty for participants also often comprised an element of

372 something that is omnipresent and unavoidable. As Steven put it, the “*unbounded unknown*”:

373 it was everywhere, anything situated in the future and all around. For Stuart, “*anything that*

374 *[was] in the future [was] uncertain*". For Sylvia, life itself was uncertain: *"I suppose it's the*
375 *whole of life [laughs] (...) That's just what life is, uncertainty."*

376

377 **In summary:** Participants largely defined uncertainty as *not knowing* something in different
378 situations and contexts. Underlying it all was a sense of powerlessness: the interviewees often
379 explained that they would often try to gather as much knowledge and information as they
380 could, but there were always some hidden unknowns that couldn't be resolved (at least not in
381 time to be useful). These hidden unknowns were the unexpected, the uncontrollable or
382 unpredictable and were the greatest source of anxiety.

383

384

385 **Experience of Uncertainty**

386

387 Uncertainty as anxiety-provoking

388 Some, like George, experienced uncertainty as something physical, that from the outside is
389 akin to the beginnings of a panic attack: *"I can feel it (...) in my stomach (...) there are other*
390 *physical symptoms like my palms might sweat more"*. Whereas for Maria, the anticipation of
391 stress and anxiety made the reaction to uncertainty much worse: *"uncertainty is sort of*
392 *whether doing [this] is going to bring up those unpleasant emotions in me"*.

393 A number of participants experienced uncertainty as a persistent worry about making or
394 having made a mistake which would only be assuaged with validation or reassurance. For
395 Arthur, it was important to know that he had done or was doing the right thing, and for this he
396 needed feedback and communication:

397 *"when you're doing it remotely, all you can see is just the status on the dashboard*
398 *and you can't see whether the computer's got stuck or (...) yeah, it's things like that*

399 *which kind of panicked me a few times, I have to admit (...) they didn't even, respond,*
400 *kind of thing (...). It really knocks your confidence".*

401

402

403

404 Uncertainty made worse by lack of control

405 Fred felt more at ease if he could opt out of an event: *"I'd achieve it [overcome his anxiety*
406 *and attended the event] almost, yeah, just by never putting myself in a position where I just*
407 *have to do it."* What worked for him was to *"just slowly introduce myself to things that make*
408 *me uncomfortable"*, which could be interpreted as keeping control by deciding how to engage
409 with the unknown.

410 For John control was important in the context of aspects of communication where he found
411 the anticipation of the unexpected stressful. He therefore preferred emails that allowed him to
412 choose when and how to respond, rather than phone calls, which could happen at any time,
413 with no time to prepare:

414 *"It's why a lot of autistic people don't like using the telephone. Because the*
415 *telephone rings and you're not expecting it, so you're going to answer it. They*
416 *much prefer emails because you look at the email, you don't have to open it*
417 *straight away, you can open it when you want to open it".*

418 As a committed planner, Susan tried to prepare for every eventuality (even those which may
419 not seem likely at the time): *"It's not that I think that the plane will crash but I want to know*
420 *what happens if it does; I will think about it, have a plan"*. This is a process of regaining
421 control by making the unknown known, preparing for what might happen so as not to be
422 taken by surprise.

423

424 Uncertainty as a challenge

425 It is worth mentioning here that not all uncertainty was thought of as negative or problematic.

426 John relished puzzles and ‘*complex analytical problems*’ which he saw as a more positive
427 form of uncertainty, and one he could, and often would, choose to engage in.

428 Amelia, saw uncertainty as inherently stressful, as she felt that uncertainty meant “*that [she*
429 *did not] have complete control of the quality of [her] life*” and that there were “*decisions that*
430 *were out of [her] hands*”. Nonetheless, she also felt that “*whereas if you [would] have a bit*
431 *of uncertainty, you [would] have a bit more stress in your life, but there [would be] potential*
432 *for your life, for it to be better*”

433 This was emphasized by Francis, who liked “*not knowing what [he was] going to do,*
434 *somehow, because it [gave him] a bit more choice and [he felt] more in control, when [he*
435 *felt] that options were open to [him]*”

436

437 **In summary:** For all the participants uncertainty was at the very least a stressful experience.

438 The kind of uncertainty that participants discussed as being particularly stressful and anxiety-
439 provoking was characterized by a lack of control. For some, though, a degree of uncertainty
440 was necessary, could also be useful, and was even sometimes pleasurable, as long as they
441 retained their agency in how to engage with it.

442

443 **Managing uncertainty and the need for certainty.**

444

445 Following informal feedback from an autistic friend who mentioned the importance of
446 needing certainty for her, the researcher also asked participants to consider how they
447 understood and experienced certainty. This helped to develop the theory of uncertainty as a
448 process of moving away from and then back towards the safety of the known, the certainty.

449

450 Conceptualising certainty

451 Interestingly, participants found this section harder than they had anticipated, and often talked
452 about ‘certainty’ as the absence of ‘uncertainty’ rather than having a clear conceptualisation
453 of it in its own right.

454 For Rachel, being certain meant “*being sure that something’s definitely going to happen*”
455 which meant that “*you can plan for it*”. When Henry thought about certainty, he thought
456 about things happening “*how you expect*” and things he felt “*that you have control over*”.

457 Certainty also meant something definitive, for Francis:

458 “*Certainty is when you know (...) it’s going to happen this way, whether comforting*
459 *or not (...), you know what to action in advance. (...) It allows me to predict how I can*
460 *minimise the impact of anything*”.

461 Francis also felt less anxious about the uncertainty around not knowing either the content or
462 the outcome of an exam if he had had time to prepare and was told what to revise: “*playing*
463 *the piano knowing what exactly what’s required for the exam (...) to be able to prepare in*
464 *advance - and I know that certainty, that they’re going to test me on that.*”

465

466 Here, underlying it all was the notion that having certainty equated with what they *needed to*
467 *know*. For Rachel, the things she needed to know were: “*what time do you have to be there,*
468 *how many people, if it’s a meeting; it’s less likely now (...) if it’s going to be a noisy*
469 *environment, or a quiet environment*”. Certainty was confidence in the knowledge, the
470 reliability of the information and the sense of control and agency this gave them over
471 unfolding events.

472

473 Certainties and knowns as anchors in people’s lives

474 The participants' reliance on routine and established patterns was interpreted as sticking to
475 what they know and have already experienced or staying in the 'known', their place of safety.
476 For instance, George had a fairly set routine, and always ate the same foods at the same time,
477 and went for the same walks every day. He worked "*very hard to make sure everything's*
478 *pretty certain, around [him].*"

479 For John, knowing what was going to happen was a way for him to be able to switch off and
480 concentrate on what he was interested in. Certainty of what was going to happen meant that
481 there would be no surprise: "*you do everything absolutely by a routine, because if you've got*
482 *routine, you've got an expectation of certainty*".

483 Having an anchor, a certainty to hold on to, was something they needed to counter their
484 anxiety over things being out of their control. For Amelia, for example, who was
485 unexpectedly made redundant and had to quickly find somewhere else to live, changes which
486 were imposed by others left her with a feeling of not having control and agency in her life,
487 and meant that she valued certainty as:

488 "*things that can't be changed by other people, basically. (...) so I have complete*
489 *control, or, not necessarily me, but I don't have a lack of control over it, because it's*
490 *already definite, what's going to happen.*"

491
492 Continuing this theme of anchors and structures, guidelines and rules of behaviour could also
493 provide a framework. This 'known' could be generalised and could make unknown situations
494 easier to manage. For instance Henry enjoyed going to work with other people, because at
495 work he and his colleagues have a purpose. While he would avoid parties with free,
496 structureless interactions, he enjoyed going to concerts, as there, too, everyone had a purpose
497 and focus.

498 Sometimes this guideline was a trusted person, organisation or family member. Friends and
499 family provided support for Francis, who needed reassurance and validation both from his
500 existing friends (known) and his new colleagues who could show him the ropes in his new
501 job. Susan, on the other hand, would feel able to do things she mightn't otherwise, as long as
502 she had her daughter with her. The researcher interpreted this as having a known as an anchor
503 and source of knowledge that helped one to navigate the unknown.

504 Certainties and constants helped the participants deal with uncertainties in their everyday life.
505 Francis talked about routines (for example at work or school), and having a home and,
506 importantly, a network of friends as being his 'structure' which gave him a sense of security:

507 *"because at least I know that something was in place, I felt that it was a bit*
508 *under control and that, knowing that I have a place to go to and then, that I*
509 *have a job (...) It was just nice to have everything that fitted like a jigsaw puzzle".*

510 For Susan, knowing where things were going to happen was important, as a sense of place
511 was a certainty that she needed: *"because they're known (...); they're constant in a changing*
512 *world, I suppose".*

513

514 **In summary:** Certainty consisted of anchors and 'knowns' which helped maintain a degree
515 of control in the process of managing uncertainty and ultimately arriving at a state of
516 knowing. The more the various aspects of their lives were certain, the more they knew and
517 could rely on it in any given situation, and the more secure they felt.

518 In other words, certainty was a known that the participants could rely on and depend upon to
519 help them navigate the more stressful unknown. Predictability and knowns helped create a
520 sense of being safe, secure, and ultimately at peace, or, as John put it, '*equanimity*'. Not being
521 taken unawares gave them time to process and, by being prepared, exercise agency in their
522 life and in a sense control their environment.

523

524

525 **Part 2: A Grounded Theory of Uncertainty**

526

527

528

[Insert Figure 1 here]

529

530 Three degrees of knowns

531

The meaning of uncertainty for participants, therefore, was very closely linked to that which

532

is unknown. Different types of unknowns were experienced as anxiety-provoking to varying

533

degrees. This model of uncertainty is illustrated in **Figure 1**, which represents uncertainties

534

that are increasingly anxiety-provoking as a series of concentric circles. The different degrees

535

and types of knowns and unknowns are described in more detail below.

536

The analysis also suggested that participants seek to mitigate these uncertainties by reducing

537

the unknown through information gathering or the adherence to routines. This was interpreted

538

as a way of regaining control over the uncertainty. When participants experience a lack of

539

such control over the unknown, feelings of anxiety and distress are typically severe. We

540

therefore propose the framework set out in **Figure 2** as a theoretical model to understand the

541

causal relationship between uncertainty and anxiety in autism (and possibly the general

542

population).

543

544

545

[Place Figure 2 here]

546

547 A key feature of the model is the prediction that uncertainty-related anxiety is dependent on
548 the level of perceived control/agency that participants have over the unknown. In this context
549 the model distinguishes between the following different degrees of knowns and unknowns
550 (see also **Figure 1**):

551

552

553 Knowns

554 The knowns are certainties: the constants in a changing world. These provide stability and
555 security and also provide a toolkit of techniques and opportunities to navigate situations of
556 uncertainty. These are Francis' structure , Susan's plans , and John's and George's routines.

557

558 Known unknowns

559 The known unknowns are situations with limited certainties, but for which the parameters of
560 the uncertainties are known, or for which one retains a degree of control. This can range from
561 situations such as exams, gambling with known ratios and risks, uncertain situations from
562 which one can escape (e.g., a party which one can decide to leave), or situations which are
563 avoidable or that one can carefully plan and prepare for (e.g., what the weather is going to be
564 like when travelling). This type of known unknown is exemplified by Francis' exams,
565 George's investments as well as Susan relying on her daughter to take her to new places,
566 Henry preferring the structured social interactions of an office environment, or Fred building
567 slowly on previous success to get to know this unknown.

568

569 Unknown unknowns

570 The unknown unknowns are those situations over which one has little if any control, for
571 which one cannot plan or prepare, and which are unavoidable. These prove to be the most

572 anxiety-provoking situations and can range from unexpected events, unplanned changes or
573 cancellations, events for which relevant details are very loosely specified (timing, what
574 exactly is involved etc), or social situations with limited structure or specific goal. Such
575 situations are particularly challenging when there are limited opportunities for escape or
576 avoidance and no guidance regarding possible outcomes or processes. These types of
577 situations range from the (then) current situation of living through a pandemic and not
578 knowing if things are going to be cancelled, to train cancellations and the inherent
579 unpredictability of people.

580

581 Uncertainty and Anxiety

582 The construct of uncertainty as different degrees of 'known' therefore lends itself to the
583 beginning of an explanation regarding its relationship to anxiety in the following manner:
584 certainty, or knowns, represent a place of safety and John's '*equanimity*'. As this 'known'
585 becomes increasingly 'unknown', anxiety increases too. What became clear from the
586 interviews is that the participants who openly expressed that they disliked and avoided
587 uncertainty as well as discussing the fact that they suffered from anxiety, and in cases had
588 undergone therapy to deal with their anxiety were likely to need less of an 'unknown' before
589 becoming anxious. They were more likely to view this 'unknown' as either dangerous or
590 negative, and catastrophise by imagining the worst case scenarios. Whereas others were
591 perhaps more open to exploring the 'unknown' as long as there was no loss of control or
592 agency (i.e.: choice).

593

594 **Discussion**

595 The main researcher interviewed fifteen autistic people in order to explore the way in which
596 autistic people conceptualise and experience uncertainty. The main theme that recurred in

597 people's narrative was that 'uncertainty' was 'not knowing'. This 'not knowing' however,
598 was not always experienced as anxiety provoking. Rather, 'not knowing' became a source of
599 anxiety only when it felt difficult to plan for, or control. In this study, we refined the
600 construct of Uncertainty and its relationship to anxiety to a model including three different
601 levels of knowns: ranging from the certainty of what is 'known', through the relatively
602 manageable uncertainty of the 'known unknown', to the anxiety provoking 'unknown
603 unknown', which is difficult to avoid or manage through planning or information gathering.
604 There were aspects of this relationship which could be unique to autism, such as their need
605 for certainty in terms of environment, timing and their difficulty in making predictions in
606 their relationships with non-autistic people.

607 Indeed, autistic people tend to score consistently higher on measures of intolerance of
608 uncertainty (however this is defined) and measures of anxiety (e.g. ^{6,7,42-44}. Boulter, Freeston,
609 et al's framework ⁴⁵), indicated that although there is a relationship between IoU and Anxiety
610 in both typically developing and autistic children, this relationship is stronger in autistic
611 children. Autistic people also score more highly on questionnaire measures of sensory
612 processing differences and assessments measuring Rigid and Repetitive Behaviour (RRB),
613 which constitute facets of the criteria for a diagnosis of autism. RRB includes an '*insistence*
614 *on sameness*' and sensory processing differences as diagnostic descriptors (Boucher, 2017),
615 and research examining the relationship between RRB and anxiety consistently finds a
616 positive correlation in autistic children and adults ⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹. Furthermore, in their study
617 examining the relationship between sensory processing differences and RRB, Wigham and
618 colleagues ²⁴ found that there was evidence for a direct connection between sensory under-
619 responsiveness and both the repetitive motor behaviours and the insistence on sameness
620 components of RRB and that IoU acted as a mediator between autism and anxiety. These
621 differences in interaction with the environment could have an impact on how much

622 uncertainty there may be to deal with in the world that autistic people inhabit, above and
623 beyond what non-autistic or neuro-typical people may be exposed to.

624

625 Research into the role of uncertainty in anxiety in autism has thus far focused almost
626 exclusively on the Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale and its relationship to measures of
627 anxiety and different types of emotional processing^{14,18,43}. One of the potential pitfalls of
628 self-report measures is that for different populations or samples the nature of uncertainty is
629 not defined or explored in any specific detail. Additionally, what the questionnaires and the
630 analyses that explore relationships between them cannot say, is *why* autistic people score
631 highly on these measures.

632 The Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale short version⁹ in effect consists of two subscales:
633 Prospective IoU measures the extent to which people are anxious about the future, have a
634 need for predictability and seek information to increase certainty, whereas Inhibitory IoU
635 measures behavioural responses to uncertainty by measuring the extent to which people avoid
636 situations of uncertainty and experience paralysis in the face of it⁵⁰. As well as exploring the
637 participants' responses to uncertainty, this research sought to clarify further the reasons for
638 being anxious about the future and the need for predictability and information, helping to
639 disentangle which uncertainties might lead to which behavioural responses and why.

640

641 By adopting a Grounded Theory qualitative approach, the present study makes an important
642 contribution to the literature by refining the construct of uncertainty in terms of different
643 levels of 'unknown' that are distinguished on the basis of the level of perceived control or
644 agency that individuals can exercise in reducing uncertainties. Conceptualised in this way, the
645 relationship between uncertainty and anxiety can be understood in terms of such levels of
646 perceived control, whereby uncertainties that are difficult to control or escape from are

647 experienced as distressing and anxiety-provoking, whilst uncertainties that can be controlled
648 are not (or at least less anxiety-provoking).

649

650 Implying a lack of control as an important mechanism linking IoU and Anxiety resonates
651 with some earlier literature about the role of the locus of control in Anxiety. Mandler and
652 Watson (1966⁵¹ and Watson, 1967⁵²) hypothesised that if people perceive events that may
653 affect them as being outside of their control, they are more likely to feel anxious. To this
654 Abramson added that if one's own actions were perceived as having no effect on the external
655 environment, then a sort of resigned 'helplessness' would ensue, and no further action would
656 be taken to remedy a problem perceived as unsolvable⁵³. Bandura (1982)⁵⁴ looked at the
657 extent to which expectations of success were matched with estimations of self-efficacy. More
658 recently Weems and Silverman (2006)⁵⁵ integrated these earlier models by conceptualising
659 anxiety as different levels of discrepancy between control (actual or perceived; internal or
660 external) and our perceived capacity for doing anything about it: a maladaptive response
661 would stem from a dissonance between actual power and the reality of one's capacity to
662 effect change (either an over- or underestimate).

663 The model of uncertainty proposed in the current study, posits that it is not just the perception
664 of a lack of control which makes uncertainty more anxiety-provoking, but actual control over
665 those resources which may help alleviate it – be they the anchors of the familiar (routine,
666 family and other certainties and knowns), sources of information, or escape routes and
667 choices. Knowledge enables them to prepare for eventualities and make informed decisions
668 to suit their needs thereby providing them with a degree of control.

669 The findings of this research indicate further that the autistic participants conceptualised
670 uncertainty as two different types of external locus of control. The first type was predictive,

671 and therefore future-orientated. If the future was unpredictable, then it needed to be
672 controlled, through planning, routine, structure etc, where possible.

673 In their focus group study with young autistic adults and people working with young autistic
674 adults, Trembath and colleagues⁵⁶ found that both professionals and autistic adults
675 themselves identified ‘anticipation’ of an unknown event (either in terms of timing or the
676 event itself) as being a significant trigger for anxiety. This concurred with Hodgson and
677 colleagues’ focus group study⁵⁷ with mothers of autistic school-aged children, which also
678 found that unexpected events and situations were seen as anxiety-provoking.

679 In the current study, too, for most participants, not knowing what might happen in the future
680 or what it would be like represented the most anxiety-provoking aspect of uncertainty. They
681 tried to alleviate this anxiety by planning for eventualities so that an idea of the unknown
682 would already be formulated and envisaged. Dealing with uncertainty meant either accepting
683 the future as an unknown and making as much as possible known, or exercising control by
684 being prepared or relying on known certainties.

685 The second type of locus of control was more related to self-efficacy and self-awareness. A
686 number of participants reflected on how uncertainty used to be more difficult to manage
687 when they were younger. One of the strategies used by parents and teachers in the Hodgson,
688 Freeston, Honey et al (2017)⁵⁷ study involved exposing the children to the idea of the
689 unexpected. This resonated with the experience of the interviewees, who found that along
690 with a growing awareness and acceptance of themselves, what had helped was gradual
691 exposure to situations and demands, providing them with a bank of experiences on which to
692 draw to help them deal with challenges in their current and future lives. It is undeniable that
693 age can often bring greater material independence and with it, agency and control over the
694 circumstances in one’s life.

695 A related concept is that of the locus of evaluation⁵⁸. This can either mean, in a
696 psychotherapeutic relationship, where the locus of evaluation might lie (usually with the
697 client) or, more generally locus of evaluation as it pertains to personality organization. The
698 latter refers to emphasis given by the individual to a source of information, either internal or
699 external to the self, which is then used to form an attitude towards the self⁵⁸. It is possible that
700 there was a sense of distrust of self-evaluation in some of the participants, particularly for
701 Jeremy who had difficulty in understanding how he felt, or he ought to feel in any given
702 situation. Whereas Steven felt that he wasn't quite able to fit in with unknown rules he felt
703 non-autistic inherently 'knew' and yet changed seemingly in a haphazard manner.
704 Increasingly, autistic people are beginning to see 'their' autism as a key part of their
705 identity⁵⁹. It has been proposed that the minority stress model, originally designed to
706 investigate the effect of social stigma on the mental health and wellbeing of people of diverse
707 sexual and ethnic identities, could also apply to the nascent neurodivergent identity⁶⁰. The
708 stressors include victimization and discrimination, physical concealment of autism, as well as
709 expectation of rejection and internalized stigma: all potentially contributing to psychological
710 distress . Some participants in this study did indicate that they expected a social interaction
711 to go wrong (e.g. Fred, and it is possible that they could have internalized that the 'fault'
712 somehow resided in them. However, when the participants discussed their diagnosis and
713 indeed their identity as autistic people, it was largely positive, some (e.g. John) even stating
714 that it is through a process of better self-understanding, that they were better able to cope
715 with stress and uncertainty now.

716

717 **Limitations**

718 It is possible that the fact that the study was advertised as a study on the role of uncertainty in
719 anxiety may have biased the sample towards participants who had an interest in anxiety –

720 either through their own experience of it, or through personal connections with it. We
721 collected some questionnaire data, in order to verify that the sample was a representative one
722 of the autistic community. The percentage of the participants who scored at or above
723 threshold on the ASA-A scale was 40%, which is, admittedly, at the higher end of what we
724 know of the prevalence of anxiety in autism.

725 This was not participatory research insofar as the autistic community was not consulted
726 regarding the general topic of the research, nor did we seek advice on the method of analysis.
727 However, we did try and ensure that, by using a grounded theory approach which is, as the
728 name indicates, grounded in the data, and by sending them summaries of our findings for
729 'checking' before finalising our analyses, that we ensured that our findings were a true
730 reflection of the experience of our participants. Future research could involve autistic people
731 and, where appropriate, their family and/or carers or advocates, at all stages of the research,
732 including the design of the research protocol, and choice of analytical approach.

733 Because of the nature of this study, which consisted in interviewing autistic people one-to-
734 one in order to learn about experiences first hand, we only interviewed autistic people who
735 were able to express themselves aurally, and meaningfully respond to the questions without
736 support. This is a limitation to this research. A possible follow-up to this study, therefore,
737 would be to explore ways in which autistic people who do not express themselves verbally
738 with ease could nonetheless be included and their experiences of uncertainty be explored in
739 different ways, such as photovoice⁶¹

740

741 **Conclusion**

742 The in-depth analysis of the interviews in the current study and the subsequent development
743 of a Grounded Theory conceptualised uncertainty as different levels of unknowns, and

744 identified the issue of control as an important mediating factor in experiencing uncertainty as
745 anxiety-provoking. Planning, preparing and gradual exposure are all examples of exercising
746 control over the unknown.

747 This is an exploratory study with a relatively small sample. Acknowledging the limitations
748 of the study, we hope that a better understanding the different types of uncertainty which
749 might be anxiety-provoking will help foster further research on how increasing agency, self-
750 understanding and confidence in making choices may help improve well-being for autistic
751 people. It is possible that ensuring people have a degree of control over their life and
752 decisions that are made about it, and that they are given time to process and resources to
753 exercise their agency, may also help reduce anxiety.

754

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758 Laura Lennuyeux-Connene (LLC) conceived of the idea as part of her PhD thesis at City,
759 University of London, which was supervised by Dr. S.B.Gaigg (SBG). LLC designed the
760 interview protocol with support from Dr J. Yates (JY) and SBG, with additional support from
761 personal acquaintances (parents of autistic adults and an autistic adult). LLC recruited
762 participants, and analysed the data with support from JY. LLC wrote the findings up as part
763 of her dissertation. All authors contributed to the final manuscript and approved the final
764 version.

765 **Conflict of interest**

766 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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770

771

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943 **Figure legends**

944 Figure 1: *An illustration of uncertainty as different levels of knowns*

945 Figure 2: *A theoretical model of the relationship between uncertainty and anxiety in the*
946 *experiences of autistic adults*

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