

LJMU Research Online

Mack, R, Breckon, J, Butt, J and Maynard, I

Practitioners' use of motivational interviewing in sport: A qualitative enquiry

http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/id/eprint/13928/

Article

Citation (please note it is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from this work)

Mack, R, Breckon, J, Butt, J and Maynard, I (2021) Practitioners' use of motivational interviewing in sport: A qualitative enquiry. The Sport Psychologist. ISSN 0888-4781

LJMU has developed LJMU Research Online for users to access the research output of the University more effectively. Copyright © and Moral Rights for the papers on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. Users may download and/or print one copy of any article(s) in LJMU Research Online to facilitate their private study or for non-commercial research. You may not engage in further distribution of the material or use it for any profit-making activities or any commercial gain.

The version presented here may differ from the published version or from the version of the record. Please see the repository URL above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information please contact researchonline@ljmu.ac.uk

http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/

1	Practitioners' use of motivational interviewing in sport: A qualitative enquiry
2	Rory Mack
3	Jeff Breckon
4	Joanne Butt
5	Ian Maynard
6	
7	Submission date: 21/11/2019
8	Resubmission date: 01/07/2020
9	Resubmission date: 04/08/2020
10	Final submission date: 21/08/2020
11	
12	
13	Please review under Professional Practice

15 The purpose of this study was to explore the use of motivational interviewing (MI) in sport contexts by experts in that approach. Specifically, to understand which aspects 16 17 of the MI approach are deemed valuable for working in sport, and begin to 18 understand how these aspects are best applied. Nine practitioners participated in 19 semi-structured interviews, and thematic analysis identified themes related to core 20 and sub-components of MI (e.g., relational spirit, technical microskills, applied tools 21 and the MI communication styles continuum). Additional themes relate to integrating 22 MI with other interventions, challenges of working with athletes (e.g., mandated 23 attendance, ambivalence about change) and unique aspects of working in sport 24 contexts (e.g., frequency, duration and location of contact points). Participants also 25 outlined essential ingredients for an MI training curriculum for practitioners in sport. 26 This counseling approach appears to have valuable relational and technical 27 components to facilitate the building of the therapeutic alliance, enhance athlete 28 readiness for change, and support delivery of action-orientated interventions in 29 applied sport psychology. 30 Key words: motivational interviewing; applied sport psychology; therapeutic

31 alliance; ambivalence; integration

14

Abstract

2	S
J	2

Introduction

33 The relationship between sport psychology practitioners and their athlete 34 clients is consistently recognised as very important for the outcomes of sport 35 psychology consultancy, (e.g., Andersen & Speed, 2010; Petitpas, Giges, & Danish, 36 1999; Sharp, Hodge, & Danish, 2015). Nevertheless, what is required in the 37 discipline is greater clarity on how to cultivate and maintain these working alliances, 38 beyond broad descriptions of rapport building and verbal and non-verbal 39 communication. In this regard, repeated recommendations have been made for sport 40 psychology to learn from wider disciplines within psychology (Andersen & Speed, 41 2010; Petitpas, Giges, & Danish, 1999), with limited sources delineating specific 42 relational and technical communication skills for sport psychologists (e.g., Katz & 43 Hemmings, 2009; Longstaff & Gervis, 2016; Murphy & Murphy, 2010; Watson, 44 Hilliard, & Way, 2017).

45 One approach which seeks to maximise the working alliance, and is starting 46 to receive attention in applied sport psychology (Mack, Breckon, Butt, & Maynard, 47 2017; Mack, Breckon, O'Halloran, & Butt, 2019; Turner et al., 2019, Wood, Mack, & 48 Turner, 2020), is motivational interviewing (MI; Miller & Rollnick, 2013). MI is a 49 counseling therapy which was founded on the principles of client-centred 50 psychotherapy of Carl Rogers (1959), yet is different to traditional Rogerian 51 counseling, in that it is intentionally directional (Markland, Ryan, Tobin, & Rollnick, 52 2005). Guided by its underlying 'spirit', MI primarily facilitates the building of an 53 interpersonal relationship between practitioner and client, and aims to resolve 54 ambivalence towards behavioral change. Initially applied as a pre-treatment to 55 action-orientated intervention work on substance addictions (Miller, 1983), MI was 56 conceived not from testing empirically-driven hypotheses, but phenomenologically

from intuitive clinical practice, as an alternative to the more confrontational styles of
therapy which were prominent at the time (Miller & Rose, 2009).

59 Breckon (2015) offers an extensive description of the core elements of MI: the 60 relational component (spirit) which consists of partnership, acceptance, compassion 61 and evocation; the technical component (microskills) which mobilises the spirit,

62 known by the acronym OARS - open-ended questions, affirmations, reflections,

63 <u>s</u>ummaries; the four+ processes (engaging, focussing, evoking, planning,

64 maintaining) within which the relational and technical components are actualized;

and the language of behavior change (change talk, sustain talk).

66 Psychotherapy research has repeatedly concluded that therapists who form 67 stronger alliances with their patients show better treatment outcomes than therapists 68 who form weaker alliances (e.g., Baldwin et al., 2007; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; 69 Martin, Garske, & Davis, 2000; Wilmots, Midgley, Thackeray, Reynolds, & Loades, 70 2019). MI acknowledges conceptual differences between relational and technical 71 components, and offers a philosophy of professional relationship development and 72 maintenance, and techniques to achieve those aims, in keeping with working alliance 73 theory (see Hatcher & Barends, 2006). Many of the therapist attributes and 74 techniques associated with strong alliances reported by Ackerman and Hilsenroth 75 (e.g., exploring, reflecting, providing accurate interpretations, and affirming; 2003) 76 can be found within the MI approach (e.g., Miller & Moyers, 2015, Table 1, p. 408; 77 Miller & Rollnick, 2013), not least the value of empathy and engagement with clients 78 (Miller & Rose, 2009). Similar attributes and techniques have been repeatedly 79 outlined as ideal for sport psychology practitioners (e.g., Sharp, Hodge, & Danish, 2015). What appears to be sparse in applied sport psychology literature is not the 80 81 importance of demonstrating engagement, forming working alliances and

82 communicating effectively with athletes (e.g., Sharp & Hodge, 2015), but explanation 83 of the fundamental processes or mechanics of achieving these things, i.e., the how of alliance building and intervention delivery. This is a gap that MI can fill potentially, 84 85 particularly for students and neophyte practitioners in sport and exercise psychology. 86 One further contribution that MI may make to applied sport psychology could be a 87 framework to underpin the action-orientated approaches, such as cognitive-88 behavioral therapies and strategies, which are dominant in the discipline. This 89 integration was, in fact, the purpose of MI upon its conception, with the MI spirit 90 (ways of *being*) supporting the techniques (ways of *doing*) of other approaches 91 (Miller & Rose, 2009). An MI-CBT integration is becoming understood in other areas 92 of psychology (e.g., Naar & Safren, 2017), and this is perhaps where sport 93 psychology could seek guidance on how to effectively integrate these complimentary 94 approaches on a common factors, assimilative or theoretical level, as opposed to 95 eclectically combining tools and techniques from multiple approaches with little 96 regard for their underpinning theories (Norcross, Karpiak, & Lister, 2005). 97 Mack and colleagues (2017) identified a limited use and understanding of 98 core elements of MI by applied sport psychologists, but a significant role for MI in sport psychologists' work - including the use of MI as a stand-alone or an integration 99

100 with other approaches. Subsequently, Mack et al. (2019) shared a single session

101 case study outlining the use of MI with one professional athlete. Therefore, the aims
102 of the current study were to provide an in-depth exploration of which components of
103 the MI approach underpin expert practitioners' work in sport, and to begin the
104 process of understanding the application of these components, for example to

105 enhance verbal communication, facilitate alliance formation and maintenance,

106 increase athlete readiness for intervention, or in conjunction with other

107 psychotherapeutic approaches.

108

Method

109 Participants and sampling

110 Nine practitioners took part in data collection. To qualify for inclusion, 111 participants were required to have extensive knowledge of, and experience in 112 applying MI, and be doing so in a sporting context. The Motivational Interviewing 113 Network of Trainers (MINT: www.motivationalinterviewing.org) provides training 114 internationally for practitioners wishing to become trainers in MI, and determines the 115 content and curriculum for MI training globally. MINT has a rigorous application 116 process for new members, and membership of MINT was therefore used as an 117 indication of knowledge and experience in MI, and was deemed essential for 118 inclusion in this study.

119 A purposeful sample (Patton, 2002) of 16 MI practitioners known within the 120 research team's network, and thought to be using MI in a sporting context, were 121 contacted via email to participate voluntarily in this study. Further, four practitioners 122 responded to a public message broadcast on the MINT eForum (self-recruited 123 sampling; Gomm, 2008) and six practitioners were recommended to the primary 124 researcher by practitioners from the initial round of sampling (snowball sampling: 125 Patton, 2002). This represents an exhaustive initial sample, on a global scale, of 126 practitioners thought to be applying MI in a sporting context. Of these 26 127 practitioners, 17 were eliminated due to failing to satisfy inclusion criteria, or being 128 unresponsive to repeated requests to participate. This gave a final sample size of 129 nine participants, based around the world (two in Australia; five in the U.S.A.; two in 130 mainland Europe). Participants came from a range of educational and training

131 backgrounds, including clinical psychology (n=1), health psychology (n=1), sport 132 psychology (n=3), counseling (n=2) and sport coaching (n=2). All participants were 133 members of chartered societies and governing bodies of their relevant fields (e.g., 134 Australian Psychological Society; Southern Association for Counselor Education and 135 Supervision; National Association of Social Workers). Finally, all participants were 136 applying MI in a sporting context, in roles such as head coach, sport psychologist, 137 addictions counselor, and MI trainer. The sample comprised of seven males and two 138 females, aged between 32 and 53 years $(41.2 \pm 6 \text{ years})$. Participants had between 139 4 and 23 years of experience $(13.2 \pm 6.9 \text{ years})$ in their respective fields. Finally, 140 participants were working with a range of athletes, including amateur (e.g., club, high 141 school), college (e.g., National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)), professional 142 (e.g., National Football League (NFL); Major League Baseball (MLB); Australian 143 Football League (AFL)), and Olympic level.

144 **Procedure**

145 Those recruited were sent participant information, participant consent forms 146 and a demographics questionnaire prior to their interviews. Voluntary, written, 147 informed consent was received from all participants. Ethical approval was provided 148 by the governing institution of the research team (HWB-2016-17-S&E-13, Sheffield 149 Hallam University). Data were collected in the form of semi-structured qualitative 150 interviews, which were conducted by the principal researcher. The semi-structured 151 nature of the interviews permitted the interviewer to deviate from the interview guide, 152 to explore novel concepts as and when they arose (Patton, 2002). Interviews were 153 conducted using internet-based conferencing software (Zoom; https://zoom.us/), as 154 this was a sample of international participants. All interviews were audio recorded on 155 a manual Dictaphone. Audio recordings were then transcribed (converted to written

form) verbatim, which initiates immersion in, familiarity with and reflection on the
collected data (Braun & Clarke, 2019), and can mark the beginning of the data
analysis process (Emerson & Frosch, 2004).

159 Interview guide

The interview guide was designed deductively, in that it was informed by existing MI theory, but with flexibility to ask spontaneous, probing questions. Each member of the research team contributed to the development of the final interview guide. Questions in the interview guide focused on key aspects of the application of MI, including the application and relevance (to sport contexts) of MI spirit, MI technical skills, MI processes, eliciting change talk, managing ambivalence and discord, and integrating MI with other approaches.

167 Data analysis

168 As latter participant interviews were being conducted, and former interviews 169 were being transcribed verbatim from audio recordings, the primary researcher 170 began to suspect that data saturation (e.g., Saunders et al., 2018) had been reached. 171 This was due to a repetition of responses given by participants in earlier interviews. 172 Therefore, additional participants were not initially sought prior to commencement of 173 data analysis. This impression of data saturation was strengthened as interview 174 transcription was completed, and after performing several initial sweeps of the 175 transcriptions to become familiar with the data, though without being pre-emptive 176 regarding what would eventually constitute themes (Saunders et al., 2018). Data 177 saturation was subsequently discussed and agreed upon within the research team 178 as data analysis progressed.

179 In order to gain a clear understanding of how MI is being applied in sport, a
180 deductive to inductive thematic analysis of the data was conducted in two phases

181 (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Braun & Clarke, 2019) by the primary researcher. In line with 182 the deductively-designed, a priori interview questions determined by broad MI core 183 components and language (e.g., Miller & Rollnick, 2013) an initial deductive sweep 184 of the data was performed. The purpose of this was to identify responses related to 185 the MI core components of spirit (e.g., partnership, empathy), microskills (e.g., 186 reflections, affirmations), four+ processes (e.g., engaging, focussing) and language 187 of change (e.g., change talk, sustain talk). In the second phase, transcripts were 188 analysed inductively to identify, analyse and report novel themes from the data 189 (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013) which did not fall immediately within the MI 190 core components, such as communication styles and traps to avoid, and applied 191 tools of MI.

192 The primary researcher extracted codes consisting of discrete, original 193 participant responses from interview transcripts, and grouped codes of similar 194 meaning to create sub-themes, using spreadsheet software (Microsoft Excel). A 195 similar process was executed on a sample of interview transcripts by other members 196 of the research team. Sub-themes were discussed, discrepancies were addressed 197 and codes were re-grouped within the research team, until consensus was reached 198 that the shared meaning of codes within each sub-theme was consistent, and had 199 been labelled appropriately (Braun & Clarke, 2019). A similar process took place to 200 group sub-themes in order to construct themes, and to label themes in ways which 201 both accurately captured theme content and would be most meaningful for the 202 reader. The research team included two practitioners who are trained in MI, and two 203 who are not, whose analysis of interview transcripts was therefore not lead by prior 204 MI knowledge. This assisted with reducing researcher bias in the data analysis.

205 Throughout the analysis, MI-specific language has been used where possible 206 to label themes and subthemes, to maintain clarity and consistency with existing MI 207 literature, and the MI practitioner training process. Novel themes which were 208 constructed were labelled accordingly with new terminology. In keeping with previous 209 articles (e.g., Sharp, Hodge, & Danish, 2019) themes and sub-themes are presented 210 briefly in Tables 1-4, in conjunction with thick descriptive quotes from participants to 211 provide detail and context for the reader. Quotes were chosen based on how 212 accurately they captured the shared meaning of the theme or sub-theme they 213 represent, and those which would provide the most meaning, context and clarity for 214 the reader. Consideration was given to the eight criteria for excellence in qualitative 215 research (worthy topic, rich rigor, sincerity, credibility, resonance, significant 216 contribution, ethics, meaningful coherence) in the design, implementation, analysis 217 and reporting of this research (Tracy, 2010). To give one example of this, to 218 represent the perspectives and contributions of the entire sample, quotations from all 219 nine participants, rather than a select few individuals, were chosen to add detail and 220 context to the themes for the reader (multivocality, contained within credibility; Tracy, 221 2010). Participants have been identified with a label in accordance with their 222 professional role (e.g., Psychologist 1).

223

Results

Participants highlighted numerous aspects of the MI approach which feature prominently in their applied work in sport, including the four core components of MI, the applied tools of MI, sharing information and expertise with athletes in an MIconsistent manner, relational and technical traps to avoid, and the MI verbal communication styles continuum. Participants also described their consideration of structure and processes of integrating MI with other approaches or interventions, and several aspects of the MI approach which are relevant to working with athletes in
brief contact, or as a team. A number of challenges associated with working in sport
settings, and unique aspects of the sport environment, which give rise to
opportunities for implementing the MI approach, were also described. Finally,
participants shared insights on what are considered to be essential ingredients and
structure of MI training for sport psychologists.

236 **Core components of MI (Table 1)**

237 All nine participants commented on the four core components of MI (spirit; 238 technical skills; four processes; language of change; see Table 1), indicating that 239 these are paramount in their work with athletes, and felt these would be relevant 240 regardless of the context of their work. A summary of these can be seen in Table 1. 241 All participants indicated that the spirit of MI was essential to their work with athletes, 242 was something which drew them to the MI approach and something upon which they 243 placed great value. For example, Psychologist 2 said, "I use a lot of MI with athletes, 244 but one thing I always, always use is the spirit. To me, that's the most critical 245 component."

Participants spoke of the importance of each of the technical skills, primarily complexreflections and affirmations:

248 I think what the MI training did for me was really help me sharpen my use of

249 reflections, in particular complex reflections. I've really noticed a difference

250 when I've been working with clients in terms of how much quicker it is to

251 engage with the client now, and how we're getting better results than I was

252 *previously.* [Psychologist 2]

Psychologist 1 described affirmations as "something that is specific and that you're
observing that's positive about an internal quality that they have." All participants

255 reported their use of the original four processes model (engage, focus, evoke, plan) 256 and several spoke of a phase of maintenance or troubleshooting, which has been 257 proposed elsewhere for addition to the original model as a fifth process (maintain), 258 known as the four+ processes (Breckon, 2015). Participants were asked to elaborate 259 on how they specifically apply these processes with athletes. Two points in particular 260 were clear and recurring; firstly, that engaging is something which is ever-present, 261 regardless of the stage in the relationship or the intervention. And secondly, that the 262 processes do not take place in a linear, stepwise manner, but rather in a fluid,

263 flexible, non-linear manner:

264 Let's say suddenly the athlete comes up with some kind of sustain talk that

265 gives us a hint that maybe we are too far now in the process, do we really

266 have the right focus here, since here comes a lot of sustain talk? Should we

267 proceed to help this person resolve ambivalence, or should we maybe take it

a bit slower and just do a big mapping of the athlete's whole situation and see

269 what's the most important focus right now? Maybe we were a bit too quick

when we tried to move further on... it's not a step by step process.

271 [Psychologist 4]

272 Regarding the language of change, participants referred specifically to change talk 273 (athlete language in favour of behavior change), sustain talk (athlete language 274 against behavior change), ambivalence (athlete language which indicates mixed 275 feelings about behavior change) and resistance (athlete language which indicates a 276 lack of readiness for behavior change). All participants stated that they are 277 constantly listening to the language being used by their athletes regarding behavior 278 change, and become more attuned to this the more they practise MI. Participants are 279 consciously trying to evoke change talk from their athletes, as well as trying to

reinforce it upon hearing it. Several participants indicated that they are deliberate
and selective in their responses to athlete sustain talk, opting to stay strengthsorientated and frame their responses in a way that will evoke change talk rather than
reinforce sustain talk. It was acknowledged that change talk in particular tends to
come primarily in the form of 'preparatory' language:

285The form that I hear the most in terms of change talk is usually more of that286preparatory change talk, that desire to change, or 'I need to change' or 'I

should change', 'I should study more at night', 'I know I shouldn't be partying',

288 'I know I should go talk to the trainer about this injury', it's a lot of that.

289 [Counselor 1]

290 Participants generally stated that their work with athletes is primarily about applying 291 MI in sport as they would in other settings, as opposed to a sport-specific version of 292 MI being required. For example, Coach 2 would ask themselves, "how effective is 293 this, how can I use MI, the techniques or the spirit, how can MI help this conversation, 294 this coaching session be better?" Nevertheless, participants indicated that an 295 intimate understanding of elite sport environments and challenges is essential, as 296 well as athlete cultures, norms, pressures, risks and rewards. It was felt that 297 adaptations to the MI approach may have to be made in order to fit with these, and 298 opportunities to apply MI in sport settings may have to be actively sought. Another 299 participant described MI as "home base", and stated, "...if I'm confused at where we 300 are, or where we're going, I always just go back to MI" [Counselor 2]. To that end, 301 participants commented further on how MI enhances their work in sport settings, 302 including applied tools, sharing information and expertise, traps to avoid, challenges 303 of working with athletes, unique aspects of the sport context, brief MI interactions,

the communication styles continuum, using MI with teams, integrating MI with sportinterventions, and MI training.

306 MI Applied tools (Table 2)

307 Participants referred to several tools from the MI approach, the most common
308 of which were scaling rulers, agenda setting, and elicit-provide (with permission) 309 elicit (E-P-E; see discussion for description).

- 310 *I think that* [collaborative agenda setting] *does a couple of really useful*
- 311 *things... you're getting a sense of what is most important for the athlete, and*
- 312 often we make assumptions about 'ah yes they'd like to work on this first', or
- 313 'this is most important', but by agenda setting, we're essentially asking them
- 314 'ok what's most important for you right now?', and they're then giving us that

315 *feedback which is really valuable.* [Psychologist 2]

316 **MI-consistent sharing information and expertise (Table 2)**

Participants reflected that the E-P-E format is a valuable and efficient tool for
sharing key information with athletes in a respectful and collaborative manner, and
that it can be used in conjunction with more instructional or educational approaches,
to share information in an MI-adherent manner:

321 I think that it's much more effective if you offer it in that MI-consistent way, that

322 E-P-E, asking what they know about imagery, cognitive rehearsal, asking if

323 they've used it before and getting some input about that. Then saying 'would

324 you like to hear more about it' if they don't have much knowledge about it and

- 325 how it can work, then asking if it would be useful for them and in what way.
- 326 When you do that, you get greater buy-in. [Psychologist 2]

327 Relational and technical traps to avoid (Table 2)

Participants spoke of 'traps to avoid' from the MI approach, including the
'expert trap' (and associated 'righting reflex') and the 'premature focus trap'.
One participant gave a specific example of conflicting feelings and concerns
between them and an athlete who was playing through a potentially career-ending
injury, and highlights how priorities can be completely different between stakeholders.
This example contains the expert trap and righting reflex, sustain talk, acceptance
and equipoise (Miller & Rollnick, 2013):

335 I had this gut feeling of 'oh my gosh, I just want this guy to get an MRI, I want

this guy to get healthy so he can dominate at the next level' but he really felt

337 so much like 'if I go through this and tell my coach that I'm hurt, I'm losing

338 eligibility, I'm afraid I'm going to miss out on being drafted, if I rehab I may not

339 get the velocity on my fastball that I had before', so it's hard for me in those

340 instances when I feel like 'I know what's best for you', and I need to leave that

341 feeling at the door and be willing to sit with that sustain talk, sit with some of

342 that resistance to change, and honour it some, rather than push and go

343 'you've really got to get this fixed, you need to figure this out, you need to be

344 honest with your coach' because I'm not in his shoes, I'm so removed from

345 *being there.* [Counselor 1]

336

Participants also described differences between praising (i.e., attaching value or making judgements about behavioral or performance outcomes) and affirming (i.e., enhancing self-efficacy, self-exploration and autonomy), and spoke generally of always striving to affirm rather than praise. Nevertheless, one participant explained being conscious of using both praise and affirmation in their role as a coach: 351 I use praise as a coach, and I think most coaches do, 'nice hitting, nice job

- 352 there', but one thing that motivational interviewing has caused me to do is ask
- 353 a question like 'how do you think that went?' and I go into MI from there, so an
- 354 affirmation that I'll give them would be along the lines of 'you're thinking about
- 355 this more deeply' or 'you're taking this more seriously'... [Coach 2]

356 MI communication styles continuum (Table 2)

Two participants, both of whom are coaches, commented on the directingguiding-following continuum of communication, and how they attempt to stay mostly in the guiding style. The first of these participants acknowledged that this is openly discussed between coaches during their coaching sessions:

- 361 I think it's important to have a guiding style, like 95% of the time... And I talk to
- 362 my colleagues about this as well, 'we have to be more guiding now', 'now is
- 363 time to be more directive'. Often if we have been directive we have to go
- 364 quickly back to the guiding style. [Coach 1]
- 365 The other participant acknowledged that there are times when they have to be
- 366 directive in their role, but limit this to when necessary, and described a conscious

367 process of "slipping in and out" of the MI approach [Coach 2].

368 Brief contact MI interactions (Table 2)

The unique settings and circumstances of sport contexts (see Table 3) give rise to conversations which participants stated could last as little as 30 seconds. This has led participants to recognise the need to be able to interact with athletes in a carefully considered way in these very brief moments:

- 373 Sometimes these conversations are two minutes long, but starting with that
- 374 open-ended question, 'what were you thinking here, what was the plan?', or if
- 375 I go out to the mound with a pitcher who is struggling, it's really trying to

376 understand better, instead of saying 'this is what you need to do, here's what
377 you should be doing'. [Coach 2]

378 Using MI with teams (Table 2)

379 Several participants acknowledged that this was perhaps an area to which 380 they should give more consideration. Nevertheless, two participants were able to 381 give specific examples of their use of MI with teams. Psychologist 5 spoke in detail of 382 their use of MI during team sessions, for example a session to resolve conflict 383 between players and a coach:

- 384 ... this team meeting, I spent 90% of it reflecting back to them. A lot of it was,
- 385 'so you don't feel like the coach is listening to you; it's frustrating that he's not
- 386 asking you all what you think and just telling you what to do; so he's frustrating
- 387 you because he's moving you to new positions and he's not telling you why',
- 388 those kinds of things. And it built engagement like I haven't seen.
- 389 [Psychologist 5]

390 Integrating MI with other interventions in sport (Table 2)

The suitability of MI for integrating with other approaches or interventions in sport was highlighted by all participants, who felt that as a minimum, the spirit, the technical skills and listening for change talk would probably be relevant in any circumstance:

- 395 I haven't really come across any mainstream approach that's incompatible
- 396 with motivational interviewing. People can find some way to weave it in there
- *in some form or fashion.* [Psychologist 3]

When it comes to the process of integrating MI into one's applied work, what appears
to be essential is having an in-depth understanding of the different approaches being
integrated:

401 No matter what intervention style I'm doing, I always have motivational 402 interviewing running in the background, and I was trained in person-centred 403 therapy and existential psychotherapy and then moved into the more CBT-ish 404 kind of stuff, and it [MI] just fits really well. [Psychologist 3] This participant also spoke of two options for integrating MI with an approach like 405 406 CBT or interpersonal therapy, either as preparation for another intervention, or 407 applied extemporarily when faced with, for example, ambivalence: 408 One is you just kind of do it as a precursor to CBT and then the other one is 409 you look at the common elements and you blend them together and I think 410 you could take a utilitarian approach. [Psychologist 3] 411 Three participants shared more details of how they would integrate MI with another 412 approach for the duration of an intervention. Psychologist 2 described a framework 413 for underpinning action-orientated intervention work such as cognitive-behavioral 414 strategies: 415 I see MI as the kind of framework for working with the athlete, and then 416 cognitive behavioral strategies might be some of the tools that you use within 417 that framework, so your mindset of working with the athlete is very much 418 about the spirit of MI, you're using some of the techniques of MI and so forth, 419 and then you're using the CB strategies, and you're delivering them within that 420 framework. [Psychologist 2]

421 Psychologist 4 described how their work was 'topped and tailed' with more MI422 specific work, and how MI was used to support a middle phase of intervention
423 delivery:

424 ... I think I always start from MI in my approach, to explore the situation and
425 the goal and so on... Then I'm combining my work with strategies from

426 cognitive behavioral coaching, for example using mindfulness... MI is always 427 helpful to strengthen the readiness and to strengthen the feeling of how 428 important this is, and to strengthen confidence also... I always have a follow-429 up session two or three months after the last session, and in that follow-up 430 session of course a lot of MI is the focus. [Psychologist 4] 431 Counselor 2 indicated both an MI-intensive period at commencement of the 432 relationship, and the ever-present nature of MI in their work: 433 I tend to be heavy on MI in the beginning, because I think the spirit is what 434 really creates the most fruitful relationship... after five or six sessions, we're 435 moving into mindfulness strategies or CBT, or for some a lot of traumatic 436 experiences come up, so we'll move into strategies to work through that. [MI] 437 is always interwoven, especially if emotions get high and an athlete needs a break, I'll go right back to just basic reflections, that's 'home base'. [Counselor 438 439 2]

440 Challenges of working with athletes (Table 3)

Several participants spoke of the challenges of working with athletes,
including mandated attendance, coaches wanting to know the content of sessions,
stigma attached to mental health and psychology, athletes not being used to
answering questions or having opinions, and athletes being mistrusting of 'outsiders'.
The MI core components of spirt and technical skills were repeatedly highlighted as
primary strategies in overcoming many of these challenges.

I have found that I have to lay a lot more groundwork in terms of establishing
rapport and trust with athletes than I do with most of my other clients... they're
so consumed with their responsibilities to the team that I'm like an outsider... it
takes time to inspire trust. [Counselor 2]

451 Unique aspects of the sport context (Table 3)

452 Several participants acknowledged that interactions in sport take place in 453 settings which are very different to other contexts (e.g., healthcare), including locker 454 rooms, training grounds, gyms and corridors. Additionally, participants acknowledged that contact with athletes can occur with reduced frequency and significantly reduced 455 456 duration compared with other settings. Examples of these include half time, time-457 outs and in-game situations, such as visiting a pitcher's mound during a baseball 458 game. Psychologist 4 labelled these conversations as "MI on the go". Participant 9 459 highlighted how most MI work takes place 'out of the moment', for example treatment 460 for alcohol addiction, but working in sport can involve working in the moment, in 461 situations which have literally just taken place, referred to here as 'hot' issues:

462 ... in baseball we're doing it often right in the moment... sometimes it's not
463 even after, it's in the midst of it, if it's a pitcher and I've visited the mound to
464 talk to him and he's struggling through something, and you're right in the
465 middle of it... we use this metaphor it's 'hot', it's a hot issue and they're feeling

466 *it.* [Coach 2]

467 MI training for sport psychologists (Table 4)

468 Participants cited several aspects of the approach as being essential for 469 training curricula for practitioners. Firstly, there was consensus from all participants 470 that the MI core components and their constituent parts were paramount, and would 471 need to be covered and understood in depth. Auxiliary components of the approach 472 which were mentioned include the righting reflex, elicit-provide-elicit, demonstrating 473 accurate empathy, maintaining practitioner equipoise (consciously deciding not to use professional expertise to influence an athlete's decision in a direction the 474 475 practitioner views as optimal), and how to integrate MI with other strategies.

Practitioners indicated that this should be achieved through a combination of
context-specific methods, including experiential exercises, case studies, and video
samples. Further, Psychologist 2 commented on the sequence of training in MI and
other more action-orientated approaches, which potentially has implications for
training pathways:

And then once you have that pure understanding of how this framework [MI]
might work, then it'd be introducing the cognitive behavioral strategies,
because I think if you do them first, I think that people would often just jump
into suggesting those, and not within the framework. So my preference
would be to build the MI before the [CB] strategies. [Psychologist 2]

486

Discussion

487 The purpose of the current study was to explore the components of MI which 488 expert practitioners are applying in sport contexts, and begin to describe the 489 application of these with athletes. Findings revealed ways in which MI can enhance 490 the work of practitioners working in different roles in sport (e.g., psychologist, 491 counselor, coach). Participants have confirmed that the four core components of MI 492 (spirit; technical skills; four processes; language of change) are as pertinent to 493 working in sport as they are to working in any other setting, something which has 494 been questioned in previous research (Mack et al., 2017). Significant overlap can be 495 seen between sub-components of the MI spirit (see Table 1) and components of the 496 'real relationship' in sport psychology as outlined by Longstaff and Gervis (2016), 497 indicating that MI is one way for students, neophyte and established practitioners to 498 develop and maintain these relational aspects of their practice. 499 The MI technical skills mobilise this spirit, helping practitioners to build

500 engagement and demonstrate empathy (which are key predictors to success in

501 talking therapies; Miller & Rose, 2009), by showing that the practitioner is listening to 502 what the athlete is saying, doing their best to understand the athlete's perspective, 503 and prompting a raised consciousness of the actual words they are using, their 504 meaning and the potential directions of the conversation. In psychotherapy, empathy 505 is consistently shown to be correlated with client satisfaction and compliance with 506 treatment, and positive outcomes of treatment, and this was recently shown also to 507 be the case for athletic trainers working with NCAA athletes (David & Larson, 2018). 508 Sub-components of the MI technical skills (Table 1) are clearly linked with 'general 509 counseling skills' for developing relationships with athletes identified by Longstaff 510 and Gervis (2016). The MI four processes can provide practitioners with a conscious 511 structure for everything from a single consultancy or coaching session to long-term, 512 ongoing support, as has previously been suggested (Mack et al., 2019). It was also 513 highlighted that practitioners are considering a period of maintenance following the 514 action/intervention phase, which may constitute a fifth process (maintenance and 515 managing relapse) as proposed by Breckon (2015), and it may benefit practitioners in sport to be cognizant of maintenance and lapse response when implementing 516 517 psychological interventions.

518 Practitioners spoke of constantly listening for opportunities to evoke, 519 acknowledge or strengthen change talk from their athletes, to increase momentum 520 towards change. The finding that athletes' change talk is usually preparatory (client 521 language which expresses perceived desire, ability, reasons or need for behavior 522 change) rather than mobilizing (client speech which indicates intention, obligation or 523 steps taken to change behavior; Miller & Rollnick, 2013) shows support for previous findings on a lack of athlete readiness for change (Massey, Gnacinski, & Meyer, 524 525 2015) and that athlete resistance is a crucial but neglected aspect of sport

526 psychology consultancy which should be receiving greater attention (Gardner, 2017). 527 Barriers to 'gaining entry' to athletes and teams were identified a number of years 528 ago (Ravizza, 1988), and today there are still factors which can influence an athlete's 529 attitudes and openness to engaging with sport psychology (e.g., gender, previous 530 experience, stigma tolerance - see Martin, Zakrajsek, and Wrisberg (2012) for a 531 summary). Taken together, these findings indicate that sport psychology 532 practitioners need to be prepared to work with athletes who present initially as 533 ambivalent or discordant, and to work with this as it arises, responding to sustain talk 534 and ambivalence in a non-confrontational way (Apodaca et al., 2016). This has 535 previously been identified as something which is perhaps missing in applied sport 536 psychology in the UK (Mack et al., 2017), and may begin with a recognition that 537 sustain talk and ambivalence towards change are naturally-occurring aspects of the 538 change process (Miller & Rollnick, 2013; Miller & Rose, 2009). Athlete reluctance to 539 engage with sport psychology support has been acknowledged for at least 30 years 540 (e.g., Orlick, 1989), and yet strategies for overcoming this are yet to be widely 541 acknowledged and implemented within the discipline. The initial assumption can 542 often be that the 'blame' for a lack of engagement or motivation lies with the athlete 543 (Gardner, 2017), and practitioners are instead encouraged to examine their own 544 approach and behaviors to determine if they might be contributing to athlete 545 resistance (Tod, Hardy, Lavallee, Eubank, & Ronkainen, 2019). Such self-546 examination was described in a recent case study regarding an MI-rational emotive 547 behavior therapy (REBT) intervention with an athlete (Wood et al., 2020). Athlete 548 ambivalence and scepticism about sport psychology support arose after several consultancy sessions, when the practitioner introduced the REBT phase of work 549 550 before client allegiance (Tod et al., 2019) had been achieved. Relational and

technical aspects of MI, combined with the practitioner's awareness of their role in
inducing athlete resistance, proved effective for addressing these issues, and
progressing the athlete to the point of readiness for intervention work. It has recently
been suggested that strategies for working with athlete resistance should be factored
into intervention guidelines (Latinjak, Hernando-Gimeno, Lorido-Méndez, & Hardy,
2019), which presents on way in which MI may support intervention delivery.

557 Participants commented on many other aspects of the MI approach beyond 558 the four core components. The need to share information or advice in an MI-559 consistent way (viewing the athlete as resourceful and knowledgeable; being mindful 560 of collaborating and supporting athlete autonomy) was highlighted repeatedly, with a 561 need to avoid the 'expert trap' and its inherent 'righting reflex' essential to forming 562 successful relationships. One tool for doing so which was often mentioned was the 563 elicit-provide-elicit (E-P-E) framework, which facilitates practitioners in gathering 564 information held by the athlete on a certain topic, then gaining permission to fill any 565 gaps in this knowledge, and finally checking with the athlete so see how they understand this new knowledge, and what they might do with it (Miller & Rollnick, 566 567 2013). The E-P-E framework has previously been approximated in applied sport 568 psychology literature; Petitpas et al. (1999) discuss the need for psychologists to 569 collaboratively solve problems with their athletes, by first taking time to understand 570 the athlete's issues, and then checking to see firstly whether the athlete will accept 571 information from the practitioner, and secondly if the athlete understands this 572 information once it is provided. Sachs (1999) extends this idea by suggesting an 573 additional step which takes into account the athlete's ideas for what might work for 574 them, or even strategies which they have previously (perhaps unsuccessfully)

attempted. The EPE framework can add value to sport psychology consultancy,when applied in a skilled, considered manner.

577 The differences between praising and affirming (practitioner statements which 578 value a client positive attribute or behavior, and build self-efficacy; Miller & Rollnick, 2013) were discussed. Participants stated that where possible they seek to affirm 579 580 rather than praise, but occasionally (particularly in the role of a coach), there is a 581 need to step away from this MI-adherent strategy and offer praise which may help to 582 teach or reinforce the performance of a skill, or congratulate an athlete on their 583 performance. This ability to consciously 'slip in and out of' the MI approach also 584 appears relevant to the 'directing-guiding-following' continuum of communication 585 styles (Rollnick, Miller, & Butler, 2008), which was cited here as giving participants a 586 consciousness of which style they were adopting, and their reasons for this, and 587 helped them determine when it was appropriate to switch from the coach or expert-588 like style of directing back to the MI-consistent style of guiding. Being conscious of 589 affirming rather than praising, and of the flow of communication styles within a 590 conversation, appears beneficial for practitioners and has recently been further 591 supported elsewhere (Wood et al., 2020).

592 Participants' comments on integrating MI with other approaches have 593 significant implications for applied practice in sport psychology. It was stated that at 594 the very least, the MI spirit, technical skills and an awareness of athlete change talk 595 are valuable in any circumstance and regardless of other approaches being used. 596 This indicates that training in MI is a route to developing and maintaining one's 597 professional philosophy, communication strategies and self-reflection in striving to cultivate meaningful professional relationships with athletes, and generate 598 599 momentum towards athlete behavioral change. It is likely for this reason that MI was described by participants in this study as 'home base'. It is noteworthy that all nine
participants spoke of having at least one other approach that they applied regularly
in their work with athletes, so MI was by no means regarded as a universal remedy

603 (cf. Miller & Rollnick, 2002).

604 Several ways of integrating MI with other approaches were indicated, 605 including: a precursor to an intervention deemed appropriate for the athlete's issues 606 or concerns; a strategy for working with ambivalence or discord, should these arise; 607 or a framework which can be used to underpin and facilitate the delivery of an 608 intervention or ongoing support from beginning to end. Regarding the latter, this is 609 likely a period of MI-intensive work at commencement of the relationship, followed by 610 delivery of the appropriate action-orientated intervention supported with relevant core 611 components from MI, and concluded with a second period of MI-intensive work for 612 review, maintenance, or possibly to assist reassessment and reformulation 613 processes. This comprehensive knowledge of the MI approach, and conscious 614 consideration of the steps for integrating MI into applied sport psychology with other 615 relevant and compatible approaches, represents a level of integration at least akin to 616 'assimilative integration', potentially even 'theoretical integration'. This is a step up 617 from 'technical eclecticism' (Norcross, Karpiak, & Lister, 2005), or a 'cherry picking' 618 or "scattergun" (Cecil & Barker, 2016, p. 63) approach, which has been proscribed 619 by the British Psychological Society as an unsuitable approach for trainee 620 practitioners (BPS, 2018). These deeper levels of integration can only be achieved 621 through greater understanding of the theories, common factors and techniques of 622 multiple approaches (Boswell, 2016), and are perhaps what practitioners in applied 623 sport psychology should be striving for. Research has already begun to describe

such integrations of MI with different cognitive behavioral therapies in applied sport
psychology (e.g., Turner et al., 2019; Wood et al., 2020).

626 Practitioners highlighted aspects of the sport context which create challenges 627 when working with athletes (Table 3). Several of these were in keeping with 628 previously identified factors which may prevent athletes from taking up or engaging 629 fully in sport psychology support (e.g., Mack et al., 2019; Martin, Zakrajsek, & 630 Wrisberg, 2012). MI appears to have several valuable tenets to assist practitioners in 631 navigating these challenges. The dynamic and unpredictable nature of consultancy 632 in the sport context also appears to create some unusual opportunities for contact 633 with athletes, often outside pre-set appointment times and in non-clinical locations 634 which would be typical of other contexts where MI has traditionally been applied. 635 These contact points can also be extremely brief, perhaps a passing conversation in 636 a corridor or changing room, and even in-game situations lasting as little as 30-60 637 seconds, when issues are 'hot' and performance may or may not be going according 638 to plan. This is absolutely the briefest of brief contact consultancy, and participants 639 were adamant that MI has a role here, by being conscious of embodying elements of 640 the MI spirit (e.g., evocation) and focusing on the MI communication microskills (e.g., 641 asking, reflecting, affirming).

642

Implications for training in MI

Participants indicated aspects of the MI approach which would be essential for a training curriculum for practitioners working in sport settings (Table 4). The general consensus that practitioners are applying MI in the context of sport, as opposed to a sport-specific version of MI, indicates that a grounding in broad MI theory and training (i.e., Tables 1 and 2) is a suitable initiation for any practitioner wishing to add MI to their applied work in sport. It was proposed by one participant that students of sport psychology should be taught an approach like MI, with
relational and technical aspects to form the therapeutic alliance, *before* actionorientated interventions. This could minimise the risk of neophyte practitioners
prematurely applying the only intervention strategies they have learned so far,
regardless of athlete resources or readiness and without developing a sound alliance,
assessment and formulation (e.g., Cecil & Barker, 2016). This is perhaps something
for professional bodies, universities and supervisors of trainees to consider.

656

Implications for future research

657 The training of practitioners in the MI approach opens avenues of possible 658 further research. It is of course important to investigate the impact of this training on 659 their applied practice, in terms of MI-consistency, professional relationship 660 development (from both practitioner and athlete perspectives), and impact on 661 desired outcomes, such as intervention goals and sport performance. But, only once 662 competence and consistency in applying the MI approach has been achieved. 663 reported and evidenced, can its impact in sport be truly measured. Such an 664 investigation would likely further inform best practice guidelines, help to identify 665 sport-specific adaptations of the approach (e.g., MI with teams; brief-contact MI with 666 athletes), and contribute to the development of a model for integrating MI with other 667 interventions in sport.

668

Strengths and limitations

Several sampling methods were employed to ensure the search for
participants for this study was as exhaustive as possible, producing a global sample
of practitioners who are a) working regularly in sport with amateur, international and
professional athletes, and b) proficient in the MI approach, as indicated by their
membership of MINT. The research team has attempted to show rather than tell

674 (Tracy, 2010) the reader participants' responses, using their own words and the675 established language of the MI approach.

676 There are limitations to this study, which also need to be acknowledged. It is 677 debatable if this study has identified specific adaptations to the MI approach for use in sport psychology, for example during moments of brief contact with athletes. It is 678 679 possible that this may only be achieved through action research or case studies, to 680 identify the nuances of adapting this approach to this specific context. Additionally, 681 the participants in this study have not provided evidence of their competence in 682 using MI, nor their fidelity to the approach. Their comments are based on their recall 683 and their self-assessment of their applied work. This opens their testimonies to 684 questions of bias and accuracy, as is the case with any qualitative research of this 685 nature. Recent research on an MI-based intervention in sport (Wood et al., 2020) 686 has begun to address this limitation by audio recording practitioner-athlete 687 consultations, assessing for practitioner MI competence and fidelity, and providing 688 verbatim extracts to support practitioner assertions and reflections.

689

Conclusion

690 This study has offered the most in-depth exploration to date of the 691 components of MI being applied by MI-proficient practitioners in sport settings, and 692 determined that the approach has much to offer psychologists, coaches, and other 693 practitioners working in the sport context, for whom the practitioner-athlete 694 relationship is fundamental to their role and the success of their work. This includes 695 the MI core components and tools, communication styles, traps to avoid and 696 integrating MI with action-orientated interventions. More research is needed on 697 sport-specific adaptations to the approach, including working with teams and brief 698 contact interactions. MI is a viable option for neophyte and established practitioners

- 699 to develop their professional philosophies, sharpen relational and communication
- skills for building and maintaining working alliances, and enhancing their self-
- reflection.

702	References
703	Ackerman, S. J., & Hilsenroth, M. J. (2003). A review of therapist characteristics and
704	techniques positively impacting the therapeutic alliance. Clinical Psychology
705	<i>Review</i> , <i>23</i> , 1–33.
706	Andersen, M. B., & Speed, H. D. (2010). Therapeutic relationships in applied sport

- eutic relationships in applied sport
- 707 psychology. In S. J. Hanrahan & M. B. Andersen (Eds.), Routledge Handbook of 708 Applied Sport Psychology (pp. 3–11). London: Routledge.
- 709 http://doi.org/10.4324/9780203851043.ch1
- 710 Apodaca, T. R., Jackson, K. M., Borsari, B., Magill, M., Longabaugh, R., Mastroleo,
- 711 N. R., & Barnett, N. P. (2016). Which individual therapist behaviors elicit client
- 712 change talk and sustain talk in motivational interviewing? Journal of Substance
- 713 Abuse Treatment, 61, 60-65. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2015.09.001
- 714 Baldwin, S. A., Wampold, B. E., & Imel, Z. E. (2007). Untangling the alliance-
- 715 outcome correlation: Exploring the relative importance of therapist and patient
- 716 variability in the alliance. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 75(6),
- 717 842-852. http://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.75.6.842
- 718 Bien, T. H., Miller, W. R., & Tonigan, J. S. (1993). Brief interventions for alcohol
- problems: a review. Addiction, 88, 315-336. http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1360-719
- 720 0443.1993.tb00820.x
- 721 Bordin, E. S. (1979). The generalizability of the psychoanalytic concept of the
- 722 working alliance. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training, 16(3),
- 723 252–260.

- Boswell, J. F. (2016). A perspective on integrative psychotherapy training. *The*
- 725 Integrative Therapist, 2(2), 5–6.
- 726 Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative
- 727 Research in Psychology, 3(2), 77–101.
- 728 http://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa
- 729 Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2019). Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. Qualitative
- Research in Sport, Exercise and Health, 11(4), 589–597.
- 731 http://doi.org/10.1080/2159676X.2019.1628806
- 732 Breckon, J. D. (2015). Motivational interviewing, exercise, and nutrition counseling.
- 733 In M. B. Andersen & S. J. Hanrahan (Eds.), Doing Exercise Psychology (pp. 75–
- 100). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- 735 British Psychological Society. (2018). Qualification in sport and exercise psychology
- 736 (stage 2) candidate handbook. Retrieved from
- 737 https://www.bps.org.uk/sites/bps.org.uk/files/Qualifications/Sport and
- 738 Exercise/QSEP %28Stage 2%29 Candidate Handbook Jan 2018.pdf
- 739 Cecil, S., & Barker, J. (2016). Special issue: Professional training in sport and
- exercise psychology. Sport & Exercise Psychology Review, 12(2), 62–63.
- 741 David, S., & Larson, M. (2018). Athletes' perception of athletic trainer empathy: How
- important is it? *Journal of Sport Rehabilitation*, 27(1), 8–15.
- 743 <u>http://doi.org/10.1123/jsr.2016-0085</u>
- T44 Emerson, P., & Frosch, S. (2004). *Critical narrative analysis in psychology: A guide*T45 *to practice*. London, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Gardner, F. L. (2017). Overcoming resistance from clients and stakeholders. In R.
- 747 Schinke & D. Hackfort (Eds.), *Psychology in Professional Sports and the*
- 748 *Performing Arts* (pp. 38–50). New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis.
- Giges, B., & Petitpas, A. (2000). Brief contact interventions. *The Sport Psychologist*,
- 750 *14*, 176–187.
- Gomm, R. (2008). Social research methodology: A critical introduction. Macmillan
 International Higher Education.
- Hatcher, R. L., & Barends, A. W. (2006). How a return to theory could help alliance
- research. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, *43*(3), 292–299.
- 755 http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-3204.43.3.292
- Horvath, A. O., & Symonds, B. D. (1991). Relationship between working alliance and
 outcome in psychotherapy: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*,
 38, 139–149.
- 759 Katz, J., & Hemmings, B. (2009). Counselling Skills Handbook For The Sport
- 760 *Psychologist*. The British Psychological Society.
- 761 Latinjak, A. T., Hernando-Gimeno, C., Lorido-Méndez, L., & Hardy, J. (2019).
- 762 Endorsement and constructive criticism of an innovative online reflexive self-talk
- intervention. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*(1819).
- 764 http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01819
- Longstaff, F., & Gervis, M. (2016). The use of counseling principles and skills to
- 766 develop practitioner-athlete relationships by practitioners who provide sport
- psychology support. *The Sport Psychologist*, *30*(3), 276–289.
- 768 http://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.2015-0029

- 769 Mack, R., Breckon, J., Butt, J., & Maynard, I. (2017). Exploring the Understanding
- and Application of Motivational Interviewing in Applied Sport Psychology. The
- 771 Sport Psychologist, (31), 396–409. http://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.2016-0125
- Mack, R. J., Breckon, J. D., O'Halloran, P. D., & Butt, J. (2019). Enhancing athlete
- engagement in sport psychology interventions using motivational interviewing: A
- case study. *The Sport Psychologist*, 33(2), 159–168.
- 775 http://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.2018-0053
- 776 Markland, D., Ryan, R. M., Tobin, V. J., & Rollnick, S. (2005). Motivational
- interviewing and self-determination theory. *Journal of Social and Clinical*
- 778 *Psychology*, *24*(6), 811–831.
- Martin, D. J., Garske, J. P., & Davis, M. K. (2000). Relation of the therapeutic
 alliance with outcome and other variables: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 68(3), 438–450.
- 782 Martin, S. B., Zakrajsek, R. A., & Wrisberg, C. A. (2012). Attitudes toward sport
- psychology and seeking assistance: Key factors and a proposed model. In C. D.
- Logan & M. I. Hodges (Eds.), *Psychology of Attitudes* (pp. 1–33). Hauppage, NY:
- 785 Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- 786 Massey, W. V., Gnacinski, S. L., & Meyer, B. B. (2015). Psychological skills training
- in ncaa division i athletics: Are athletes ready for change? *Journal of Clinical*
- 788 Sport Psychology, 9(4), 317–334. http://doi.org/10.1123/jcsp.2014-0042
- Miller, W. R. (1983). Motivational interviewing with problem drinkers. *Behavioural Psychotherapy*, *11*(2), 147–172. http://doi.org/10.1017/S0141347300006583

- 791 Miller, W. R., & Moyers, T. B. (2006). Eight stages in learning motivational
- interviewing. *Journal of Teaching in the Addictions*, *5*(1), 3–17.

793 http://doi.org/10.1300/J188v05n01

- Miller, W. R., & Moyers, T. B. (2015). The forest and the trees: Relational and
- specific factors in addiction treatment. *Addiction*, *110*(3), 401–413.
- 796 http://doi.org/10.1111/add.12693
- Miller, W. R., & Rollnick, S. (2002). *Motivational interviewing: Preparing people for change*. London, England: Guilford Press.
- 799 Miller, W. R., & Rollnick, S. (2013). *Motivational interviewing: Helping people change*.
- 800 London, England: Guilford Press.
- Miller, W. R., & Rose, G. S. (2009). Toward a theory of motivational interviewing. *American Psychologist*, *64*(6), 527–537. http://doi.org/10.1037/a0016830
- 803 Miller, W. R., & Sanchez, V. C. (1993). Motivating young adults for treatment and
- lifestyle change. In G. S. Howard & P. E. Nathan (Eds.), *Alcohol use and misuse*
- by young adults (pp. 55–81). Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.
- 806 Murphy, S. M., & Murphy, A. J. (2010). Attending and listening. In J. Hanrahan & M.
- B. Andersen (Eds.), Routledge Handbook of Applied Sport Psychology (pp. 12–
- 808 20). Oxford: Routledge.
- Naar, S., & Safren, S. A. (2017). *Motivational interviewing and CBT: Combining*
- 810 strategies for maximum effectiveness. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- 811 Naar-King, S., Earnshaw, P., & Breckon, J. (2013). Toward a universal maintenance
- 812 intervention: Integrating cognitive-behavioral treatment with motivational

- 813 interviewing for maintenance of behavior change. Journal of Cognitive
- 814 Psychotherapy, 27(2), 126–137.
- 815 Norcross, J. C., Karpiak, C. P., & Lister, K. M. (2005). What's an integrationist? A
- 816 study of self-identified integrative and (occasionally) eclectic psychologists.
- 817 Journal of Clinical Psychology, 61(12), 1587–1594.
- 818 http://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20203
- 819 Orlick, T. (1989). Reflections on sportpsych consulting with individual and team sport
- 820 athletes at summer and winter Olympic Games. The Sport Psychologist, 3, 358–
- 821 365. http://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.3.4.358
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (2nd ed.). London:
 Sage.
- 824 Petitpas, A. J., Giges, B., & Danish, S. J. (1999). The sport psychologist-athlete
- relationship: Implications for training. *The Sport Psychologist*, *13*(3), 344–357.
- 826 http://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.13.3.344
- Pitt, T., Thomas, O., Lindsay, P., Hanton, S., & Bawden, M. (2015). Doing sport
- 828 psychology briefly? A critical review of single session therapeutic approaches
- and their relevance to sport psychology. *International Review of Sport and*
- 830 *Exercise Psychology*, *8*(1), 125–155.
- 831 http://doi.org/10.1080/1750984X.2015.1027719
- 832 Ravizza, K. (1988). Gaining entry with athletic personnel for season-long consulting.
- 833 *The Sport Psychologist*, 2, 243–254. http://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.2.3.243
- 834 Rogers, C. R. (1959). A theory of therapy, personality, and interpersonal
- relationships, as developed in the client-centered framework client-centered

- framework. In S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A Study of a Science. Study 1, Volume*
- 837 *3: Formulations of the Person and the Social Context* (pp. 184–256). New York,
- 838 NY: McGraw-Hill.
- 839 Rollnick, S., Miller, W. R., & Butler, C. C. (2008). Motivational interviewing in health
- 840 *care: Helping patients change behavior.* New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- 841 Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., ... Jinks,
- 842 C. (2018). Saturation in qualitative research: Exploring its conceptualization and
- operationalization. *Quality and Quantity*, *52*, 1893–1907.
- 844 http://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0574-8
- 845 Sharp, L.-A., Hodge, K., & Danish, S. (2015). Ultimately it comes down to the
- 846 relationship: Experienced consultants views of effective sport psychology
- consulting. *The Sport Psychologist*, *29*(4), 358–370.
- 848 http://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.2014-0130
- 849 Sharp, L.-A., Hodge, K., & Danish, S. (2019). "I wouldn't want to operate without it":
- 850 The ethical challenges faced by experienced sport psychology consultant's and
- their engagement with supervision. Journal of Applied Sport Psychology.
- 852 http://doi.org/10.1080/10413200.2019.1646838
- 853 Tod, D., Hardy, J., Lavallee, D., Eubank, M., & Ronkainen, N. (2019). Practitioners'
- 854 narratives regarding active ingredients in service delivery: Collaboration-based
- problem solving. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *43*, 350–358.
- 856 http://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2019.04.009

- Tracy, S. J. (2010). Qualitative quality: Eight "big-tent" criteria for excellent qualitative
 research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *16*(10), 837–851.
- 859 http://doi.org/10.1177/1077800410383121
- 860 Turner, M. J., Aspin, G., Didymus, F. F., Mack, R., Olusoga, P., Wood, A. G., &
- 861 Bennett, R. (2019). One case, four approaches The application of
- 862 psychotherapeutic approaches in sport psychology. The Sport Psychologist.
- 863 Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H., & Bondas, T. (2013). Content analysis and thematic
- analysis: Implications for conducting a qualitative descriptive study. *Nursing* &
- 865 *Health Sciences*, *15*(3), 398–405. http://doi.org/10.1111/nhs.12048
- Wagner, C. C., & Ingersoll, K. S. (2012). *Motivational interviewing in groups*. New
 York, NY: Guilford Press.
- 868 Watson, J., Hilliard, R., & Way, W. (2017). Counseling and communication skills in
- sport and performance psychology. Oxford Research Encyclopedia of
- 870 Psychology, 1–23. <u>http://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190236557.013.140</u>
- 871 Wilmots, E., Midgley, N., Thackeray, L., Reynolds, S., & Loades, M. (2019). The
- therapeutic relationship in cognitive behaviour therapy with depressed
- adolescents: A qualitative study of good-outcome cases. *Psychology and*
- 874 Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice.
- 875 http://doi.org/10.1111/papt.12232
- 876 Wood, A. G., Mack, R. J., & Turner, M. J. (2020). Developing self-determined
- 877 motivation and performance with an elite athlete: Integrating motivational
- 878 interviewing with rational emotive behavior therapy. Journal of Rational-Emotive
- 879 & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10942-020-00351-6

880	Table Titles
881	Table 1
882	Core Components and Sub-Components of MI Being Applied in Sport
883	Table 2
884	Auxiliary Aspects of MI Being Applied in Sport
885	Table 3
886	Sport Context Which Enables Opportunities for the Application of MI
887	Table 4
888	Essential Ingredients for MI Training in Sport Context

Core Components of MI	Sub-components
Spirit	Partnership
	Build athlete autonomy
	Acceptance
	Unconditional regard
	Evocation
	Compassion
	Accurate empathy
	Equipoise
Vicroskills	Open Questions
	Affirmations
	Reflections (simple and complex)
	Summarising
_anguage of change	Preparatory change talk
	Mobilising change talk
	Sustain talk
Four+ Processes	Engage
	Focus
	Evoke
	Plan
	Maintain

890 Core Components and Sub-Components of MI Being Applied in Sport

Theme	Sub-themes
MI applied tools	Elicit-Provide-Elicit
	Agenda mapping
	Values sort
	Scaling rulers (importance; confidence;
	readiness)
	Goal setting
MI-consistent sharing information and	Consider the therapeutic alliance
expertise	Dialogue not monologue
	Collaboration
	Athlete autonomy
	Athlete as expert
	MI-adherent
	Elicit-Provide-Elicit
Relational and technical traps to avoid	Expert trap
	Righting reflex
	Premature focus trap
	Affirming not praising
MI communication styles continuum	Directing
	Guiding
	Following
Brief contact MI interactions	MI spirit is essential
	MI is adaptable to brief contact
	Short, intentional interactions
	Moment-to-moment scenarios
	Know when to direct/instruct
Using MI with teams	MI processes
	Reflections
	'Global' affirmations
	Accurate empathy
Integrating MI with other interventions in	Spirit
sport	Microskills
oport	Change talk
	'Home base'
	Precursor
	Common factors
	Underpinning framework
	Follow-up
	Cognitive behavioral strategies

894 Auxiliary Aspects of MI Being Applied in Sport

Theme	Sub-themes
Challenges of working with athletes	Mandated attendance
	Confidentiality
	Stigma towards psychology support
	Heteronomy (athletes are unaccustomed
	to being asked for their
	opinions/answers)
	Athlete mistrust of 'outsiders'
	'Quick fix' mentality within sport
	Performance-driven environment
	Deficit view of athlete issues
	Practitioner equipoise towards athlete change
	Managing discord in the relationship
	Athlete ambivalence towards change
Unique aspects of sport context	Reduced frequency of contact
	Limited duration of contact
	Non-clinical locations
	'In the moment' contact
	'Hot' issues

898 Sport Context Which Enables Opportunities for the Application of MI

899

Theme	Sub-themes
MI training content	Core components of MI
-	Traps to avoid
	Elicit-Provide-Elicit
	Accurate empathy
	Equipoise
	MI integration with other approaches
	Sport culture, norms, pressures
MI training design	Multi-method
<u> </u>	Experiential
	Sport-specific materials

902 Essential Ingredients for MI Training in Sport Context