

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

Mahoney, J. and Ntoumanis, N. and Gucciardi, D. and Mallett, C. and Stebbings, J. 2015. Implementing an Autonomy-Supportive Intervention to Develop Mental Toughness in Adolescent Rowers. Journal of Applied Sport Psychology. [In Press].

Implementing an Autonomy-Supportive Intervention to Develop Mental Toughness in Adolescent Rowers

John W. Mahoney^{1*}, Nikos Ntoumanis², Daniel F. Gucciardi³, Cliff J. Mallett⁴, Juliette Stebbings⁵

¹School of Allied Health Sciences, Griffith University, Australia

²School of Psychology and Speech Pathology, Curtin University, Australia

³School of Physiotherapy and Exercise Science, Curtin University, Australia

⁴School of Human Movement and Nutrition Sciences, The University of Queensland, Australia

⁵School of Sport, Exercise and Rehabilitation Sciences, Birmingham University, United Kingdom

*Corresponding author

Email: jwjmahoney@gmail.com

Abstract

It was hypothesized that autonomy-supportive coaching behaviors, psychological needs satisfaction, and mental toughness would increase, and controlling coaching behaviors and psychological needs thwarting would decrease following a coach-directed autonomy-supportive intervention. Data related to these hypotheses were collected with coaches (N = 18) and adolescent rowers (N = 61) prior to and following an 8-week intervention, and 8-weeks following the intervention. Coaches were interviewed following data collection about their involvement in the intervention. Results did not support the hypotheses. Qualitative analyses revealed that autonomy-supportive behaviors might not have been adopted due to contextual pressures on the coaches.

Keywords

Self-Determination Theory; Resilience; Mixed Methods; Basic Psychological Needs; Motivational Climates

43 Implementing an Autonomy-Supportive Intervention to Develop Mental Toughness in
44 Adolescent Rowers

45 With an increased understanding of mental toughness and its key components
46 (Gucciardi & Gordon, 2011), researchers have shifted their attentions and efforts from these
47 foundational topics to exploring key factors associated with mental toughness development
48 (Gucciardi, Gordon, Dimmock, & Mallett, 2009; Weinberg, Butt, & Culp, 2011). In so doing,
49 researchers have attempted to ground understanding of mental toughness development in
50 established theory from broader fields of psychological enquiry. In particular, one group of
51 researchers (Mahoney, Gucciardi, Ntoumanis, & Mallett, 2014; Mahoney, Ntoumanis, Mallett,
52 & Gucciardi, 2014) have argued for and provided preliminary evidence to support the
53 usefulness of self-determination theory (SDT, Deci & Ryan, 1985) for understanding mental
54 toughness development. The purpose of the current study was to extend on these recent
55 advances by evaluating the effectiveness of an SDT-informed intervention for developing
56 mental toughness in a sport setting.

57 **An Overview of Mental Toughness and SDT**

58 A number of definitions of mental toughness have been offered in the past decade
59 (Gucciardi, Gordon, & Dimmock, 2008; Jones, Hanton, & Connaughton, 2007). Despite some
60 differences, these definitions share considerable conceptual space. Gucciardi, Hanton, Gordon,
61 Mallett and Temby (2015) acknowledged these similarities, and defined mental toughness as
62 the capacity to attain and sustain high performance standards commensurate with subjective
63 (e.g., goal progress) and objective indicators (e.g., race times), especially when faced with
64 challenges, stressors, and adversities. Based on this definition, mental toughness is a concept
65 that broadly references the optimization of human functioning. Like mental toughness, the
66 optimization of human functioning is also a central focus of SDT – in particular, the processes
67 and conditions that foster and forestall such functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2000). As such, the

68 notion of optimal human functioning forms the conceptual bridge that joins understandings of
69 mental toughness development and SDT principles.

70 Within the context of SDT (for a review see, Deci & Ryan, 2000), the optimization of
71 human functioning is predicated by the satisfaction of three fundamental psychological needs,
72 namely autonomy (i.e., the perception that one's actions are self-directed and volitional),
73 competence (i.e., the perception that one has the ability to bring about desired outcomes), and
74 relatedness (i.e., the belief that one is valued by and connected to wide social networks).
75 Indeed, researchers have demonstrated strong associations between psychological needs
76 satisfaction and indicators of optimal human functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ng et al., 2012).
77 These associations provide further support for the link between SDT and mental toughness, as
78 these indicators of human functioning are consistent with conceptualizations of mental
79 toughness (for a review see, Mahoney, Ntoumanis, et al., 2014). Scholars have also
80 demonstrated that psychological needs satisfaction is contingent on the provision of particular
81 psychosocial conditions, as well as the absence or restriction of others (Bartholomew,
82 Ntoumanis, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Researchers have contested
83 that, within sport, coaches are the primary social agent who determine the degree to which
84 athletes' psychological needs are satisfied or thwarted. Mageau and Vallerand (2003)
85 suggested that certain coach behaviors promote psychological needs satisfaction in athletes
86 (e.g., offering choices, providing rationales for tasks and limits, providing structure and
87 involvement). These coaching behaviors, although suggested to nurture all three psychological
88 needs (Ntoumanis, 2012), are collectively referred to as autonomy-supportive coaching
89 behaviors.

90 Bartholomew et al. (2009) suggested that coaches not only need to display autonomy-
91 supportive behaviors, but also avoid or minimize the use of controlling behaviors. These
92 researchers identified that coaches could thwart psychological needs by using rewards to
93 control behaviors, displaying negative conditional regard, intimidating athletes, and enforcing

94 excessive personal control (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2010).
95 Researchers from mental toughness (Gucciardi, Gordon, Dimmock, et al., 2009) have echoed
96 the above arguments, reporting that coaches can support mental toughness development by
97 displaying behaviors similar to autonomy-supportive behaviors (e.g., prioritizing athlete
98 development, continuously challenging athletes, establishing and maintaining positive
99 relationships), as well as avoiding or restricting actions similar to controlling behaviors (e.g.,
100 prioritizing success, focusing on athlete weaknesses, creating unchallenging training
101 environments). In light of the aforementioned evidence, there are reasonable grounds to
102 suggest that coaching environments that are autonomy-supportive (while also non-controlling)
103 promote mental toughness development through the satisfaction of psychological needs.

104 Recently, Mahoney, Gucciardi et al. (2014) provided preliminary evidence connecting
105 SDT principles and mental toughness development. In a group of 220 adolescent cross-country
106 athletes, they found that athletes' perceptions of autonomy-supportive coach behaviors were
107 indirectly related to mental toughness through psychological needs satisfaction (in a positive
108 direction) and psychological needs thwarting (in a negative direction). These authors also
109 reported that controlling coach behaviors were related with mental toughness indirectly
110 through psychological needs satisfaction (in a negative direction) and psychological needs
111 thwarting (in a positive direction). In line with SDT, these authors argued that mental
112 toughness was enhanced through the energizing effects of psychological needs satisfaction
113 (and inhibited through the de-energizing effects of psychological needs thwarting). That is,
114 individuals are more likely to sustain their efforts and persist on tasks – characteristics of
115 mental toughness – when their psychological needs are satisfied because they perceive their
116 actions as emanating from a sustainable internal source (e.g., interests, values), as opposed to
117 uncontrollable external forces and sanctions (e.g., coercion, rewards). Unfortunately, because
118 of the cross-sectional nature of their study, it is not possible to infer causality from Mahoney,
119 Gucciardi et al.'s findings. However, when considered alongside the theoretical links between

120 SDT and mental toughness mentioned above, Mahoney, Gucciardi et al.'s study highlights the
121 need for experimental research into the effectiveness of a coach intervention aimed at
122 supporting athletes' psychological needs with the intention of promoting mental toughness
123 development.

124 To date, only two groups of researchers have evaluated mental toughness interventions.
125 Gucciardi, Gordon, and Dimmock (2009) evaluated the effectiveness of an athlete-centered
126 psychological skills mental toughness intervention that was informed by their previous
127 conceptual work (Gucciardi et al., 2008). Bell, Hardy, and Beattie (2013) evaluated a mental
128 toughness intervention informed by literature on stress, in particular, stress-inoculation
129 training. Both research groups garnered support for their respective interventions. Our
130 approach differs from these two studies because it focuses on mental toughness development
131 through the provision of optimal motivational coaching environments, thereby adding to the
132 limited body of literature on mental toughness intervention, while also attending to the need for
133 more experimental research in sport informed by SDT principles.

134 Meta-analytic data has supported the effectiveness of autonomy-supportive
135 interventions implemented across a variety of contexts including healthcare, education and
136 workplace settings ($k = 20$; $N = 916$; $d = .63$; Su & Reeve, 2011). Findings from these studies
137 and others (Ng et al., 2012) demonstrate that autonomy-supportive interventions are effective
138 for enhancing individuals' satisfaction of their psychological needs as well as outcome
139 variables that are consistent with mental toughness conceptualizations (for a discussion see,
140 Mahoney, Ntoumanis, et al., 2014). Su and Reeve found that autonomy-supportive
141 interventions were most effective when delivered to relatively inexperienced individuals in
142 teaching roles (compared to professionals, parents, and workplace managers). Further,
143 interventions were more effective if they included various forms of media (e.g., reading
144 materials, electronic media), both knowledge- and skill-based content, an instructional period,
145 and were between 1–3 hours in duration.

146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171

The Current Study

This study advances previous work in three important ways. First, it is the first SDT-based intervention with mental toughness as an outcome variable, hence, it makes a unique contribution to both SDT and mental toughness literatures. Second, we experimentally test previous arguments and correlational evidence that have indicated that coaching environments might promote mental toughness development through psychological needs satisfaction (Mahoney, Gucciardi, et al., 2014; Mahoney, Ntoumanis, et al., 2014). Third, this study provides both quantitative and qualitative evaluations of the effectiveness of the intervention and identifies barriers and solutions for future intervention work in this area.

We hypothesized that coaches would display more autonomy-supportive behaviors and less controlling behaviors following exposure to an autonomy-supportive intervention. Additionally, we predicted that athletes' perceptions of autonomy-supportive coach behaviors, psychological needs satisfaction, and mental toughness would increase after coaches had undergone the intervention. In contrast, we expected that athletes' perceptions of controlling coach behaviors and psychological needs thwarting would decrease following the intervention. We expected that these changes would be sustained eight weeks after the end of the intervention. As this study represented one of the very few controlled experiments designed to assess the effectiveness of an autonomy-supportive intervention with coaches, we also interviewed coaches to gather their thoughts on the strengths and weaknesses of the intervention. The aim of these interviews was to gather information that could help strengthen future efforts in this area of research and practice.

Method

Participants

Adolescent athletes ($n = 113$) and their respective coaches ($n = 18$) were recruited from four rowing clubs in the UK. Rowing was selected because it is a sport with year-round competition, making data collection possible over the course of the study. All four clubs

172 competed in locally and nationally coordinated rowing events. Within each club, coaches were
173 not designated to one or more particular groups of rowers. Instead, coaches took a collective
174 approach to training and shared coaching responsibilities across athlete cohorts. All coaches
175 had been awarded their primary coaching certificates in the past year. As such, the recruitment
176 of coaches complimented Su and Reeve's (2011) recommendations regarding the
177 implementation of autonomy-supportive interventions with individuals in early-career
178 'teaching' roles. A quasi-experimental design was employed with each club assigned to
179 either a treatment or delayed treatment condition using a computer program.

180 **Group 1: Treatment condition.** The treatment condition comprised 10 male coaches
181 ($M_{\text{age}} = 53.88$; $SD = 7.51$) from two of the four clubs, along with their respective rowers ($n = 53$;
182 17 male, 36 female; $M_{\text{age}} = 15.33$, $SD = 1.31$). Rowers in this group had, on average, competed
183 for 1.65 years ($SD = 1.51$) and trained 6.00 hours/week ($SD = 3.13$).

184 **Group 2: Delayed treatment condition.** The delayed treatment condition comprised 8
185 coaches ($M_{\text{age}} = 47.80$; $SD = 5.26$; 1 female coach) from the remaining two clubs. Participants
186 in this group also included rowers from these clubs ($n = 60$; 18 male, 42 female, $M_{\text{age}} = 14.77$,
187 $SD = 1.68$) who had, on average, competed for 2.35 years ($SD = 1.58$) and trained 7.18
188 hours/week ($SD = 2.65$).

189 **Measures**

190 A number of self-report measures and qualitative interviews were employed to address
191 the aims and hypotheses of the study.

192 **Established questionnaires.**

193 **Demographics.** Rowers were asked to respond to single-item questions pertaining to
194 demographic information including age, gender, years rowing, and hours per week rowing.
195 Coaches were asked to respond to single-item questions pertaining to their age, gender, and
196 highest coaching qualification achieved.

197 ***Sport Climate Questionnaire – Short Form (SCQ-SF)***. The SCQ-SF (Hagger et al.,
198 2007) is a 6-item questionnaire that assesses individuals perceptions of autonomy support (e.g.,
199 “I feel that my coach provides me with choices and options”) on a scale ranging from 1
200 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Adapted from Williams and Deci’s (1996) Learning
201 Climate Questionnaire, researchers have demonstrated strong internal reliability for the SCQ-
202 SF with sport samples (e.g., Hagger, Chatzisarantis, Culverhouse, & Biddle, 2003).

203 ***Controlling Coach Behavior Scale (CCBS)***. The CCBS (Bartholomew et al., 2010) is a
204 multidimensional self-report measure that assesses athletes’ perceptions of their coaches’
205 controlling interpersonal styles. The measure comprises four factors: controlling use of rewards
206 (e.g., “my coach only rewards/praises me to make me train harder”), negative conditional
207 regard (e.g., “my coach pays me less attention if I have displeased him/her”), intimidation (e.g.,
208 “my coach threatens to punish me to keep me in line during training”), and excessive personal
209 control (e.g., “my coach tries to control what I do during my free time”), and is rated on a 7-
210 point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 7 = *strongly agree*). Initial investigation into the
211 psychometric properties of this measure revealed sound content and factorial validity, as well
212 as internal consistency and invariance across gender and sport type (Bartholomew et al., 2010).

213 ***Basic Needs Satisfaction in Sport Scale (BNSSS)***. The BNSSS (Ng, Lonsdale, &
214 Hodge, 2011) measures the degree to which athletes perceive their psychological needs as
215 being satisfied. The 20-item measure contains three factors: competence (e.g., “I am skilled at
216 my sport”), relatedness (e.g., “I show concern for others in my sport”), and autonomy, of which
217 autonomy is further separated into volition (e.g., “I feel I participate in my sport willingly”),
218 choice (e.g., “In my sport, I get opportunities to make choices”), and internal perceived locus
219 of causality (e.g., “In my sport, I feel I am pursuing goals that are my own”). Participants are
220 required to respond to a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*). Initial
221 investigations have revealed sound internal consistency scores and model fit indices for the

222 measure, as well as evidence for nomological validity and test-retest reliability (Ng et al.,
223 2011).

224 ***Psychological Needs Thwarting Scale (PNTS)***. The PNTS (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis,
225 Ryan, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2011) is a 12-item measure that requires participants to respond
226 using a seven-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*). The measure assesses
227 athletes' experiences of their needs being thwarted, namely those for autonomy (e.g., "I feel
228 pushed to behave in certain ways"), competence (e.g., "There are situations where I am made
229 to feel inadequate"), and relatedness (e.g., "I feel rejected by those around me"). Researchers
230 have demonstrated support for this three-factor model, as well as high internal consistency for
231 the measure (Bartholomew et al., 2011).

232 ***Mental Toughness Index (MTI)***. The MTI is an eight-item measure of mental
233 toughness (e.g., "I am able to regulate my focus when performing tasks") that requires
234 participants to respond to each item on a 7-point scale (1 = *false, 100% of the time* and 7 *true,*
235 *100% of the time*). Initial investigations by Gucciardi et al. (2015) with individuals across
236 performance contexts (e.g., education, sport, workforce) supported the psychometric properties
237 of this measure, as well as links with theoretically connected concepts such as performance,
238 stress, and psychological health.

239 **Observations**. An adaptation of the observational rating scale for teacher and student
240 behavior employed by Tessier, Sarrazin, and Ntoumanis (2010) was used to assess coaches'
241 behaviors. This checklist requires trained observers to score coaches' behaviors on a 7-point
242 scale across three broad categories: autonomy support (comprising organizational instructions,
243 rationales, coach guidance), interpersonal involvement (comprising coach-athlete interaction),
244 and structure (comprising introduction, leadership, workload, scaffolding, and debrief). Higher
245 scores are reflective of a greater prevalence of autonomy supportive/need supportive behaviors
246 and the measure has been shown to have adequate intra- and inter-rater reliability (Tessier et
247 al., 2010). Audio-recordings ranged from 37-113 minutes in duration.

248 **Coach interviews.** Garnered through 1-1 semi-structured interviews, coaches were
249 asked about their impressions of the intervention (e.g., “what did you like/dislike about the
250 workshops?”), as well as their recommendations for future interventions (e.g., “what, if
251 anything, could have been done differently, and how could it have been done?”). These
252 questions predominately reflected a social validity approach in that they sought to understand
253 the significance, appropriateness, and effect of the intervention (Wolf, 1978). Readers can
254 obtain a copy of the full interview guide from the corresponding author upon request.

255 **Procedure**

256 Participant recruitment occurred following institutional ethical approval and coincided
257 with the mid-stage of the summer rowing season, with final data collection occurred during the
258 mid-stage of the winter season. In the UK, rowing is a year-round sport that is traditionally
259 separated into two seasons: summer (water-based training) and winter (land-based training).
260 Following recruitment and written consent, the rowers completed their respective
261 questionnaire packs. The questionnaire packs took approximately 20 minutes to complete and
262 the order of the questionnaires was counterbalanced. Due to limited resources, it was not
263 feasible to collect observational data with all 18 coaches. As such, coach behavior data were
264 collected from a randomly selected subsample of coaches ($n = 6$, that is, three coaches per
265 condition) by audio-recording one training session per coach using a lapel microphone attached
266 to an Olympus VN-712PC recorder.

267 Following baseline data collection, coaches in Group 1 participated in the 8-week
268 intervention (see below). This duration was informed by previous intervention studies
269 exploring SDT principles (Su & Reeve, 2011). Shorter time periods may not have been
270 sufficient to change coach behavior, whereas longer interventions may have jeopardized
271 compliance. Upon completion of the intervention, athletes from both groups again completed
272 the aforementioned questionnaire package. These activities formed the post-intervention and
273 second baseline data collection points for Group 1 and Group 2, respectively. Coaches in

274 Group 2 then participated in the 8-week intervention, before athletes completed the
275 questionnaire package for a third time. At this data collection point, coaches' behaviors were
276 again recorded as before, and a randomly selected sub-sample of coaches ($n = 5$; three coaches
277 from the autonomy-supportive intervention without delay) participated in the semi-structured
278 interviews. These activities formed the follow-up and post-intervention data collection points
279 for Group 1 and Group 2, respectively (see Table 1 for an illustration of the data collection
280 points for the study). The collection of follow-up data 8-weeks following the completion of the
281 intervention was deemed necessary to explore any maintenance effects of the intervention.

282 **Intervention.** Consistent with Su and Reeve's (2011) recommendations, coaches
283 attended two 2-hour workshops. The last author, who was knowledgeable about SDT
284 principles and experienced in the delivery of workshops, but who was unaware of the aims and
285 hypotheses of the study (to avoid placing unnecessary emphasis on mental toughness
286 development) and not involved in data collection, delivered these workshops.

287 The first workshop included both knowledge-based and skill-based activities and was
288 divided into four broad sections. Firstly, coaches were presented with an overview of the
289 theoretical underpinnings of SDT. During this presentation, emphasis was placed on the
290 associated outcomes (e.g., benefits associated with task persistence and engagement, goal
291 achievement, psychological well-being, as well as enhanced creativity, problem-solving skills,
292 and coping abilities) of individuals who perceived psychological needs satisfaction compared
293 to psychological needs thwarting. Secondly, coaching behaviors that have been demonstrated
294 to enhance perceptions of psychological needs satisfaction were detailed (Mageau &
295 Vallerand, 2003). Controlling coach behaviors were also discussed during this time and
296 coaches were encouraged to avoid or minimize the use of such behaviors (Bartholomew et al.,
297 2010). Following this stage of the workshop, a number of worked examples and small group
298 activities were used to offer coaches the opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge of the
299 information presented. Coaches were presented with workshop booklets that included a

300 number of quizzes pertaining to SDT principles, unfinished practical examples to complete,
301 and questions about autonomy-supportive and controlling coaching scenarios. The first
302 workshop concluded with coaches preparing a training session informed by autonomy-
303 supportive practices. As part of this activity, coaches were asked to action their plans prior to
304 the second workshop.

305 The second workshop, delivered 1 week after the first, was designed for coaches to
306 discuss their experiences when implementing their training plans. During this workshop, the
307 presenter facilitated discussions, but predominately encouraged coaches to use their knowledge
308 and experiences from the first workshop to identify learning points, as well as help each other
309 troubleshoot difficulties implementing autonomy-supportive behaviors. The second workshop
310 concluded with a summary led by the presenter who reiterated the value and importance of
311 employing coaching behaviors that support athletes' psychological needs.

312 In the 6 weeks following the second workshop, coaches were emailed supplementary
313 information that related to SDT principles and autonomy-supportive behaviors. These materials
314 included brief educational videos, media articles, and illustrated handouts. Again, the
315 dissemination of these supplementary materials were consistent with Su and Reeve's (2011)
316 recommendations.

317 **Coding and Analysis of Interviews**

318 Interviews ranged from 35-42 minutes in duration. Content analysis protocols were
319 employed to interpret data from these interviews. Content analysis is an established data
320 analysis method used for describing and quantifying phenomena and comprises three phases:
321 preparation, organizing, and reporting (Elo & Kyngäs, 2007). In the first of these phases
322 (preparation), transcripts are read and re-read as a way for researchers to immerse themselves
323 in the data. Data are not analyzed during this phase per se; analysis is typically reserved for the
324 second phase. During the second phase (organizing), researchers read the transcripts and
325 journal comments next to interesting or significant statements, labeling these comments using

326 terms and short phrases. Employing a higher level of abstraction, these terms and short phrases
327 are then categorized into a small number of higher order themes. In the final phase (reporting),
328 researchers develop a table that synthesized the organizing phrase. The table includes
329 superordinate and subordinate themes, as well as identifiers that the researchers can use to
330 locate representative quotes. This phase also involves researchers interpreting the results,
331 paying particular attention to translating the themes in light of contextual factors by providing
332 descriptions and examples of each.

333 Two third-party researchers, trained in qualitative methods, but unaware of the aims
334 and hypotheses of the study, conducted the analysis. The first researcher completed the content
335 analyses first before presenting the second researcher with a deconstructed results table
336 (including uncategorized raw data, subordinate themes, and superordinate themes) for the
337 second researcher to reconstruct. The second researcher's reconstruction was 86% consistent
338 with the first researcher's initial table. The lead author then met with both researchers to
339 discuss disagreements until a consensus was formed about the hierarchical structure of the
340 analysis. Finally, a detailed overview of the results was presented to the participants following
341 analysis. Participants were asked to reflect on and verify the accuracy of the analysts'
342 interpretations; participants voiced no disagreements.

343 **Results**

344 **Retention**

345 All 18 coaches participated across the entire duration of the study. However, athlete
346 retention was comparatively poor. Only 61 of the original 113 rowers completed all data
347 collection points. This attrition was due largely to athletes terminating their participation in
348 rowing, and absenteeism during data collection points. With regards to the latter, coaches from
349 all four clubs speculated that school holidays and examinations were the main causes of
350 participant absenteeism. This attrition occurred despite attempts to schedule data collection

351 points outside school holidays and examination periods. The attrition rate of athlete
352 participants across the study is depicted in a CONSORT flow diagram in Figure 1.

353 **Quantitative Data Analysis**

354 A series of mixed-design (3 time points x 2 conditions) ANOVAs were conducted to
355 analyze the study hypotheses. There were no significant main effects for the study variables
356 across time, except for psychological needs thwarting. Contrasts revealed that psychological
357 needs thwarting scores were significantly higher at follow-up compared to post-intervention,
358 $t(60) = -3.22, p < .01, d = -0.37$ CI [-0.56, -0.18] and follow-up compared to baseline, $t(60) = -$
359 $2.40, p = .02, d = -0.28$ CI [-0.48, -0.09]. There were no significant main effects for condition,
360 or any significant time x condition interactions across the study variables (see Table 2 for
361 descriptive statistics and a summary of results).

362 **Observational Data Analysis**

363 Intra-rater reliability analyses were conducted and revealed acceptable consistencies
364 between the scores of the two raters ($\hat{\alpha} = .84, 95\%$ CI [0.58, 0.97]). Both raters were blind to
365 the aims of the study and the experimental condition to which the coaches belonged. A mixed-
366 design ANOVA revealed no main effects for time or condition, or any significant time x
367 condition (2x2) interactions (see Table 2 for descriptive statistics and summary of results).

368 **Qualitative Data Analysis**

369 Coaches identified a number of benefits and barriers related to the intervention. Implicit
370 within these comments were recommendations for future interventions. Below we discuss the
371 themes that emerged from the interviews, providing descriptions and examples of each (see
372 Table 3 for a summary of the content analysis).

373 **Intervention benefits.** Coaches identified five benefits of the workshops: the
374 opportunity to share ideas in a group setting, enhanced insight, affirmation of current coach
375 practices, application of skills beyond rowing, and practical skill use. Coaches expressed the
376 value of the group-based nature of the workshops and how sharing opinions, ideas, and

377 perspectives helped facilitate learning. Most coaches commented that they rarely met with
378 fellow coaches to discuss their practices and that the workshops benefitted from encouraging
379 question asking, discussion, and debate. As an example, one coach stated:

380 You got to hear about other peoples' perspectives. Whether you agreed or disagreed,
381 they're still coaching in that style, they still have that point of view. That helps you
382 make better decisions when you're working with your athletes and it helps you
383 understand your colleagues better when you're coaching with them.

384 Coaches also reported that their insights about their coaching practices were enhanced
385 through their participation in the workshops. Coaches commented that they typically did not
386 engage in self-reflection and that the workshops offered a unique opportunity to examine their
387 practices, why they engaged in particular behaviors, and the athlete outcomes they were
388 targeting through their coaching. As one coach stated:

389 What was interesting was to take a step back and evaluate how much my coaching fits
390 into the different styles and ways of coaching. It was good taking a step back and
391 looking at the research that I could apply to my coaching.

392 Coaches also identified that the workshops affirmed their current coaching practices.
393 Although such perspectives are supported through athletes' responses to the questionnaires at
394 baseline (e.g., athletes' perceived their coaches as largely autonomy-supportive), they may also
395 explain why some coaches did not report adopting new skills following the workshops. That is,
396 coaches already believed they possessed the skills being discussed in the workshops and, as
397 such, had little room for improvement in these areas. As an example of coaches' perceptions of
398 their knowledge, one coach stated, "[the workshops] affirmed some of my beliefs and
399 approaches. It was a reflection of my value system and what I've been trying to do."

400 Coaches identified that the skills that were presented in the workshops were applicable
401 to settings outside of sport. Coaches reported using the skills in their home and work lives. "I
402 liked the content emails where you provided a little snapshot or case study. I've passed them

403 onto my own clients from a business sense.” One coach mentioned that he continued to
404 practice the behaviors discussed in the workshops at follow-up. This coach stated: “I really
405 liked the idea about developing autonomy on the water. I was playing with that today actually.”
406 While this is a benefit of the intervention, the limited reference to the application of workshop
407 skills by the other coaches raises questions about why autonomy-supportive behaviors were not
408 more readily adopted (see below for further discussions).

409 **Intervention barriers.** Coaches also identified four barriers to adopting the autonomy-
410 supportive behaviors discussed in the workshops including, restrictions on time, relapsing into
411 previous coaching practices, limited understanding of the workshop materials, and a
412 dissonance between the workshop content and the performance context. Although only noted
413 by one coach, most coaches (not just those interviewed) appeared to be hindered by time
414 demands. The majority of coaches ($n = 17$) were employed in fulltime work and/or had family
415 commitments outside rowing. Further, and in support of this point, during informal discussions
416 between the lead researcher and the coaches, coaches often stated that their resources were
417 stretched across large athlete cohorts and that additional coaching staff were needed to
418 unburden their coaching workload. Coaches also believed that, while they engaged in
419 autonomy-supportive behaviors immediately following the workshops, they reverted to their
420 original coaching practices over time. As one coach remarked, “I think I have a default style.
421 Because work is so busy, you try something new for a few weeks, then you become lazy and
422 go back to how you were before”.

423 During the interviews, coach also revealed, often unknowingly, that they had
424 misinterpreted aspects of the workshops. An example of this theme was a coach who believed
425 that autonomy-supportive coaching meant forfeiting ‘honest’ feedback, when, in reality,
426 coaches who prescribe to autonomy-supportive coaching practices provide frequent, non-
427 controlling feedback to foster perceptions of competence and strong coach-athlete

428 relationships. This coach said: “Sometimes I would give controlling feedback. [The athletes]
429 prefer the honesty rather than me just being polite”.

430 Finally, coaches identified that the workshops did not appear specifically tailored to
431 rowing, but were instead a generic program designed for any sports. One coach stated, “I
432 suppose a bit more time to relate examples from a rowing setting would have been useful”.

433 **Discussion**

434 The aim of the current study was to evaluate the effectiveness of an autonomy-
435 supportive intervention in fostering psychological needs satisfaction for the development of
436 mental toughness in a sample of adolescent rowers. Our hypotheses were not supported.
437 Athletes’ did not perceive coaches as displaying more autonomy-supportive behaviors and less
438 controlling behaviors following exposure to the intervention. Additionally, athletes’
439 perceptions of psychological needs satisfaction and mental toughness did not increase
440 following the intervention. Further still, athletes’ perceptions of psychological needs thwarting
441 did not decrease following the intervention. These findings indicated that the intervention was
442 not successful in altering coach behaviors, hence a lack of support for the other hypotheses in
443 our study. Indeed, the only significant finding to emerge from the study was an unexpected
444 increases in athletes’ perceptions of psychological needs thwarting. This change occurred
445 regardless of experimental condition, suggesting that these findings were not a result of the
446 intervention and more likely a consequence of extraneous variables not directly examined in
447 this study. Increases in land-based training (e.g., weights/ergometer training) over the course of
448 the study may explain this unexpected finding. That is, coaches increased land-based training
449 as the study progressed because of safety concerns following the commencement of the winter
450 season. Some researchers have proposed that land-based, compared to water-based training,
451 undermines the interests and enjoyment of junior rowers (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin,
452 2007), which may explain the increase in perceived psychological needs thwarting amongst
453 participants.

454 There are various possible reasons why the intervention was unsuccessful in altering
455 coaches' behaviors. Based on athletes' perceptions of coach behavior (both autonomy-
456 supportive and controlling), as well as coaches' observed behaviors, it might be suggested that
457 the coaches may have were already engaging in autonomy-supportive and avoiding controlling
458 behaviors prior to the intervention (contextual barriers may also be a reason for a lack of
459 compliance; see discussions below). Hence, future studies need to select coach participants that
460 would benefit most from an intervention similar to that used in the current study. It is also
461 worth addressing potential barriers to implementing autonomy-supportive interventions in
462 sport. Researchers and practitioners could consider the barriers identified by coaches in the
463 current study. Although autonomy-supportive interventions are suggested to be most effective
464 when they consist of a theory-based instructional period (Su & Reeve, 2011), the delivery of
465 such content should be conducted in innovative and appropriate ways (for futher reading, see,
466 Mahoney, Gucciardi, Gordon, & Ntoumanis, in press). Researchers could devise creative and
467 innovative approaches for supplementing and facilitating the communication of this complex
468 knowledge such as replaying recorded coach-athlete interactions that demonstrate autonomy-
469 supportive or controlling coach behaviors, as well as conducting role-plays and practical
470 examples during workshops. Such approaches should be specifically tailored for individual
471 sports (e.g., rowing role-plays for rowing coaches) so as to highlight the relevance and
472 application of autonomy-supportive behaviors in context. The fidelity of tailoring interventions
473 to the intended audience could be used to assess coach compliance (Nelson, Cordray,
474 Hulleman, Darrow, & Sommer, 2012). While meaningful, such approaches are demanding on
475 resources and, as such, were not able to be implemented within the current study.

476 **Practical Implications**

477 Although some barriers can be addressed by attending to workshop content, other
478 barriers reflect the contextual complexities of implementing autonomy-supportive
479 interventions. Based on our qualitative findings, coaches in the current study found time

480 pressures a barrier to implementing the autonomy-supportive behaviors. Controlling coach
481 behaviors are typically regarded by individuals such as coaches as a time-efficient approach to
482 communicating information and gaining compliance (Bartholomew et al., 2009). Although
483 some controlling coach behaviors may be more efficient initially (e.g., “you’ll keep doing this
484 until you straighten your back” is a more efficient statement than, “if you’re able to keep your
485 back straight, you may lengthen your stroke and move the boat faster”), they do not promote
486 sustained learning and may have associated long-term negative consequences (e.g., increased
487 negative affect).

488 In addition to time pressures, coaches also acknowledged that they reverted to previous
489 coaching styles following the intervention. Researchers have argued that individuals who are
490 predominately oriented towards being controlled by external directions and sanctions are less
491 likely to exhibit or, following an intervention, adopt autonomy-supportive behaviors (Reeve et
492 al., 2014). These orientations have been discussed as a “pressure from within” that inhibits the
493 adoption of autonomy-supportive behaviors (Reeve, 2009). Coaches’ motivational orientations
494 were not assessed in the current study, however, their resistance to adopt autonomy-supportive
495 behaviors may reflect well-learned behaviors that align with controlling orientations. Reeve et
496 al. (2014) suggested that individuals’ perspectives about the value of autonomy-supportive or
497 controlling practices is a result of cultural norms. As sport tends to value controlling over
498 autonomy-supportive coach behaviors (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003), it may be that, before
499 autonomy-supportive interventions are implemented, researchers need to address the barriers
500 perpetuated by these culture norms.

501 **Theoretical Implications**

502 Altering the cultural value placed on controlling behaviors may take considerable time
503 and effort. Drawing on conceptual literature (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Reeve, 2009),
504 coaches may feel pressured to employ controlling behaviors because of demands imposed on
505 them. These pressures may emanate from above (e.g., the inherent power of their social roles

506 as coaches, the belief that coaches are responsible and accountable for athletes' performance)
507 or below (e.g., responding to passive athlete behavior). Researchers could address pressures on
508 coaches by developing strategies that help de-emphasize the power differential between
509 coaches and athletes; working with key stakeholders (e.g., parents, club executives, sport
510 governing bodies) to loosen the responsibility and accountability of coaches; highlighting and
511 providing examples of the differences between notions of control and structure;
512 communicating that while not intended, controlling behaviors further undermine athletes'
513 interests and engagement; and educating individuals that controlling coaching does not equate
514 to competent coaching. These recommendations are a meaningful starting point, but
515 researchers also need to acknowledge that certain pressures (e.g., the cultural value placed on
516 controlling behaviors) would require considerable effort and time to reduce (Reeve et al.,
517 2014). Part of this work might entail working with sport governing bodies to educate key
518 stakeholders, as well as coaches, about the coaching behaviors that are most likely to promote
519 positive athlete development and growth.

520 As a broader recommendation, autonomy-supportive interventions may be more
521 effectively implemented and evaluated if greater efforts are made to collaborate with the
522 recipients of the intervention prior to its commencement. Recently, scholars have suggested
523 that researchers and key stakeholders (e.g., coaches) need to collaborate prior to the
524 development and implementation of behavior change interventions (Michie, West, & Spring,
525 2013). Researchers may even choose to follow current national guidelines for supporting the
526 involvement of industry and community groups (INVOLVE, 2013). For example, prior to the
527 commencement of interventions, coaches could be involved in identifying and prioritizing
528 what aspects they want to change, as well as offered the opportunity to comment on the
529 intervention material developed. The reason for this bottom-up – as opposed to the traditional
530 top-down – approach is to attend to the needs and values of individuals who participate in
531 behavior change interventions. Through collaboration, it is argued that individuals (e.g.,

532 coaches) will engage more in behavior change because their own psychological needs will be
533 nurtured (McLean & Mallett, 2011).

534

References

535

Bartholomew, K. J., Ntoumanis, N., Ryan, R. M., & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, C. (2011).

536

Psychological need thwarting in the sport context: Assessing the dark side of athletic

537

experience. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 33, 75-102.

538

Bartholomew, K. J., Ntoumanis, N., & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, C. (2009). A review of controlling

539

motivational strategies from a self-determination theory perspective: Implications for

540

sports coaches. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 2, 215-233. doi:

541

10.1080/17509840903235330

542

Bartholomew, K. J., Ntoumanis, N., & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, C. (2010). The controlling

543

interpersonal style in a coaching context: Development and initial validation of a

544

psychometric scale. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 32, 193-216.

545

Bell, J. J., Hardy, L., & Beattie, S. (2013). Enhancing mental toughness and performance under

546

pressure in elite young cricketers: A 2-year longitudinal intervention. *Sport, Exercise,*

547

and Performance Psychology, 2, 281-297. doi: 10.1037/a0033129

548

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human*

549

behavior. New York: Plenum.

550

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and

551

the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 227-268. doi:

552

10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01

553

Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2007). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced*

554

Nursing, 62, 107-115. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04569.x

555

Fraser-Thomas, J., Côté, J., & Deakin, J. (2007). Understanding dropout and prolonged

556

engagement in adolescent competitive sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 9, 645-

557

663. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2007.08.003

558

Gucciardi, D. F., & Gordon, S. (2011). *Mental toughness in sport: Developments in theory and*

559

research. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.

- 560 Gucciardi, D. F., Gordon, S., & Dimmock, J. (2008). Towards an understanding of mental
561 toughness in Australian football. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 20*, 261-281. doi:
562 10.1080/10413200801998556
- 563 Gucciardi, D. F., Gordon, S., & Dimmock, J. (2009). Evaluation of a mental toughness training
564 program for youth-aged Australian footballers: I. A quantitative analysis. *Journal of*
565 *Applied Sport Psychology, 21*, 307-323. doi: 10.1080/10413200903026066
- 566 Gucciardi, D. F., Gordon, S., Dimmock, J., & Mallett, C. J. (2009). Understanding the coach's
567 role in the development of mental toughness: Perspectives of elite Australian football
568 coaches. *Journal of Sport Sciences, 27*, 1483-1496. doi: 10.1080/02640410903150475
- 569 Gucciardi, D. F., Hanton, S., Gordon, S., Mallett, C. J., & Temby, P. (2015). The concept and
570 measurement of mental toughness: Test of dimensionality, nomological network and
571 traitness. *Journal of Personality, 83*, 26-44. doi: 10.1111/jopy.12079
- 572 Hagger, M. S., Chatzisarantis, N., Culverhouse, T., & Biddle, S. J. H. (2003). The processes by
573 which perceived autonomy support in physical education promotes leisure-time physical
574 activity intentions and behaviour: A trans-contextual model. *Journal of Educational*
575 *Psychology, 95*, 784-795. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.95.4.784
- 576 Hagger, M. S., Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., Hein, V., Pihu, M., Soós, I., & Karsai, I. (2007). The
577 perceived autonomy support scale for exercise settings (PASSES): Development,
578 validity, and cross-cultural invariance in young people. *Psychology of Sport and*
579 *Exercise, 8*, 632-653. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2006.09.001
- 580 INVOLVE. (2013). *Exploring the impact of public involvement on the quality of research:*
581 *Examples*. Eastleigh: INVOLVE.
- 582 Jones, G., Hanton, S., & Connaughton, D. (2007). A framework of mental toughness in the
583 world's best performers. *The Sport Psychologist, 21*, 243-264.
- 584 Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). The coach-athlete relationship: A motivational
585 model. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 21*, 883-904. doi: 10.1080/0264041031000140374

- 586 Mahoney, J. W., Gucciardi, D. F., Gordon, S., & Ntoumanis, N. (in press). Psychological needs
587 support training for coaches: An avenue for nurturing mental toughness. In S. T.
588 Cotterill, G. Greslin & N. Weston (Eds.), *Applied sport and exercise psychology:
589 Practitioner case studies*: Wiley-Blackwell.
- 590 Mahoney, J. W., Gucciardi, D. F., Ntoumanis, N., & Mallett, C. J. (2014). Mental toughness in
591 sport: Motivational antecedents and associations with performance and psychological
592 health. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, *26*, 281-292. doi: 10.1123/jsep.2013-
593 0260
- 594 Mahoney, J. W., Ntoumanis, N., Mallett, C. J., & Gucciardi, D. F. (2014). The motivational
595 antecedents of the development of mental toughness: a self-determination theory
596 perspective. *International Review of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, *7*, 184-197. doi:
597 10.1080/1750984X.2014.925951
- 598 McLean, K. N., & Mallett, C. J. (2011). What motivates the motivators? An examination of
599 sports coaches. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, *17*, 21-35. doi:
600 10.1080/17408989.2010.535201
- 601 Michie, S., West, R., & Spring, B. (2013). Moving from theory to practice and back in social
602 and health psychology. *Health Psychology*, *32*, 581-585. doi: 10.1037/a0030205
- 603 Nelson, M. C., Cordray, D. S., Hulleman, C. S., Darrow, C. L., & Sommer, E. C. (2012). A
604 procedure for assessing intervention fidelity in experiments testing educational and
605 behavioral interventions. *Journal of Behavioral Health Services & Research*, *39*, 374-
606 396. doi: 10.1007/s11414-012-9295-x
- 607 Ng, J. Y. Y., Lonsdale, C., & Hodge, K. (2011). The Basic Needs Satisfaction in Sport Scale
608 (BNSSS): Instrument development and initial validity evidence. *Psychology of Sport and
609 Exercise*, *12*, 257-264. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2010.10.006
- 610 Ng, J. Y. Y., Ntoumanis, N., Thøgersen-Ntoumani, C., Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Duda, J. L., &
611 Williams, G. C. (2012). Self-determination theory applied to health contexts: A meta-

- 612 analysis. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 7, 325-340. doi:
613 10.1177/1745691612447309
- 614 Ntoumanis, N. (2012). A self-determination theory perspective on motivation in sport and
615 physical education: Current trends and possible future research directions. In G. C.
616 Roberts & D. C. Treasure (Eds.), *Motivation in sport and exercise* (Vol. 3, pp. 91-128).
617 Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- 618 Reeve, J. (2009). Why teachers adopt a controlling motivating style towards students and how
619 they can become more autonomy supportive. *Educational Psychologist*, 44, 159-175.
620 doi: 10.1080/00461520903028990
- 621 Reeve, J., Vansteenkiste, M., Assor, A., Ahmad, I., Cheon, S. H., Jang, H., . . . Wang, C. K. J.
622 (2014). The beliefs that underlie autonomy-supportive and controlling teaching: A
623 multinational investigation. *Motivation and Emotion*, 38, 93-110. doi: 10.1007/s11031-
624 013-9367-0
- 625 Su, Y. L., & Reeve, J. (2011). A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of intervention programs
626 designed to support autonomy. *Educational Psychology Review*, 23, 159-188. doi:
627 10.1007/s10648-010-9142-7
- 628 Tessier, D., Sarrazin, P. G., & Ntoumanis, N. (2010). The effects of an intervention to improve
629 newly qualified teachers' interpersonal style, student motivation and psychological need
630 satisfaction in sport-based physical education. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*,
631 35, 242-253. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2010.05.005
- 632 Weinberg, R., Butt, J., & Culp, B. (2011). Coaches' views of mental toughness and how it is
633 built. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 9, 156-172. doi:
634 10.1080/1612197X.2011.567106
- 635 Williams, G. C., & Deci, E. L. (1996). Internalization of biopsychosocial values by medical
636 students: A test of self-determination theory. *Journal of Personality and Social
637 Psychology*, 70, 767-779. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.70.4.767

638 Wolf, M. M. (1978). Social validity: The case for subjective measurement or how applied
639 behavior analysis is finding its heart. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 11*, 203-214.

640

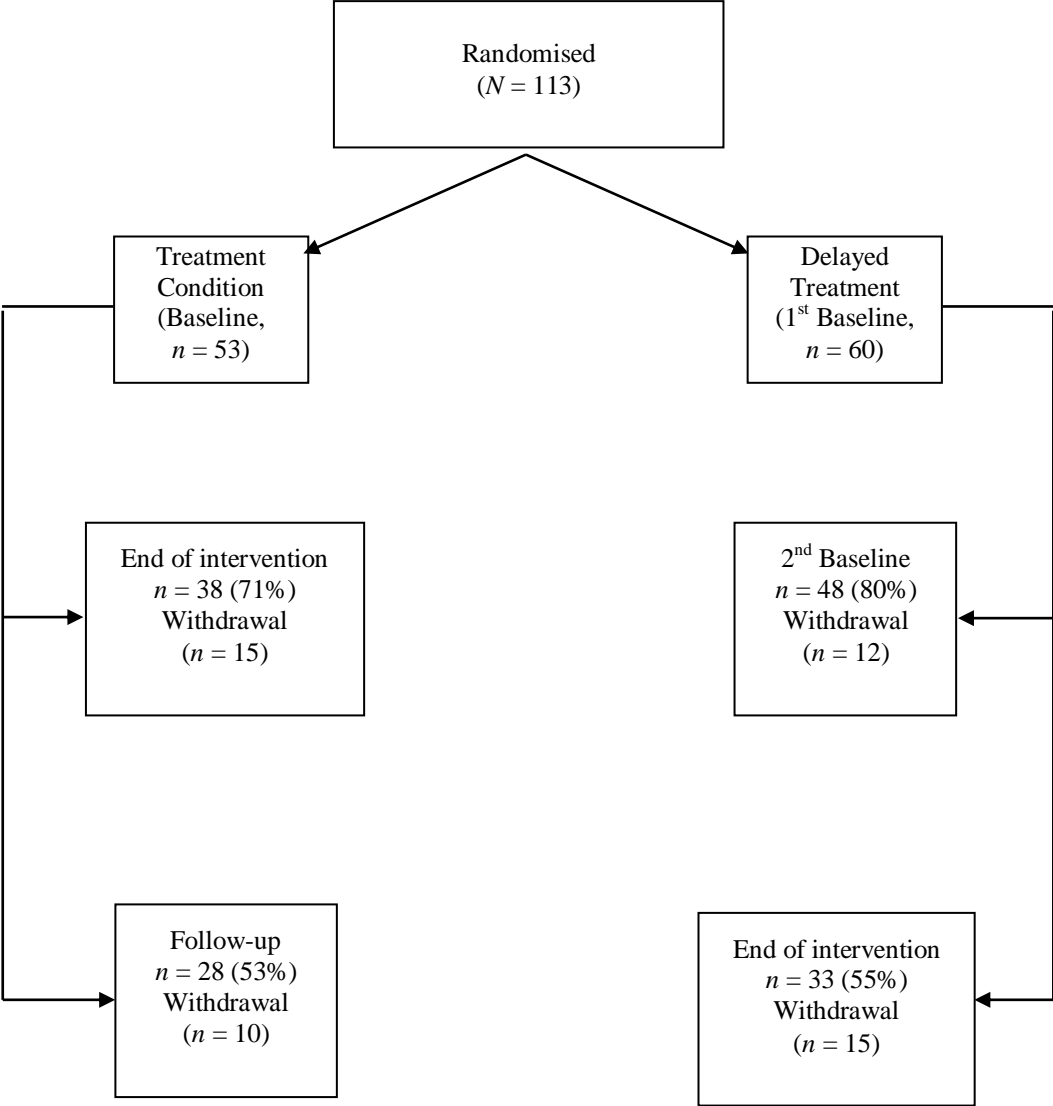


Figure 1. CONSORT flow diagram.

Table 1

Study Timetable for the Treatment and Experimental Groups

Week 1		Week 10		Week 19	
Treatment	Delayed	Treatment	Delayed	Treatment	Delayed
(Baseline)	(Baseline 1)	(Post-intervention)	(Baseline 2)	(Follow-up)	(Post-intervention)
Questionnaire package		Questionnaire package		Questionnaire package	
Demographic questionnaires				Coach interviews	
Coach observations				Coach observations	

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Results of the Mixed-Design ANOVAs

Variable and group	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		Time	Condition	Time x Condition
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$F (\eta_p^2)$	$F (\eta_p^2)$	$F (\eta_p^2)$
Perceived autonomy-supportive coaching							0.04 ^a (0.01)	0.50 ^a (0.01)	0.37 (0.01)
Treatment	5.24	1.14	5.26	0.98	5.14	1.33			
Delayed	5.34	1.21	5.38	1.06	5.45	1.23			
Perceived controlling coaching							2.97 ^b (0.05)	0.39 ^b (0.01)	0.09 (0.01)
Treatment	2.77	1.18	2.60	1.15	2.82	1.23			
Delayed	2.57	0.71	2.47	0.72	2.71	1.02			
Psychological needs satisfaction							0.14 (0.01)	0.23 (0.01)	0.38 (0.01)
Treatment	5.26	0.75	5.36	0.73	5.35	0.74			
Delayed	5.43	0.89	5.36	0.95	5.44	0.77			
Psychological needs thwarting							5.87* (0.10)	0.03 (0.01)	0.61 (0.01)
Treatment	2.58	1.07	2.38	0.97	2.76	1.18			
Delayed	2.47	1.07	2.47	0.99	2.90	1.16			
Mental toughness							0.05 ^c (0.01)	0.90 ^c (0.02)	0.36 (0.01)
Treatment	5.29	0.77	5.35	0.76	5.40	0.99			
Delayed	5.54	0.80	5.52	0.73	5.48	0.88			
Observed Coach behaviors							0.45 (0.01)	0.04 (0.01)	0.94 (0.03)

Treatment	4.33	1.06	4.18	0.57
Delayed	3.96	0.85	4.78	1.09

Note. Epsilon corrected *df* values, ^a*df* = 1.81, 106.92; ^b*df* = 1.70, 100.27; ^c*df* = 1.68, 99.17; where not otherwise specified, Time *df* = 2, 118, Condition *df* = 1, 59, Time x

Condition *df* = 2, 118; **p* < 0.01.

Table 3

Summary of Superordinate and Subordinate Themes, as well as Descriptions, Following Content Analysis

Superordinate theme and description	Subordinate theme	Description
Intervention benefits – Positive aspects of and reflections about the autonomy-supportive intervention	Group work	Group discussions and activities supported learning and enhanced understanding (4)
	Enhanced insight	Sharing ideas allowed for a deeper understanding of how coaches practiced their trade (3)
	Affirming	Workshops emphasized that current coaching behaviors were supported by research (2)
	Application beyond rowing	Use of skills from workshop outside coaching (2)
	Practical skill use	Use of skills from the workshop in coaching (1)
Intervention barriers – Obstacles that inhibited the adoption of autonomy-supportive behaviors	Limited comprehension	Coaches misinterpreted aspects of the workshops, especially notions of coach control and autonomy-support (3)
	Relevance to rowing	Coaches felt as though the workshop content was unrelated to rowing (3)
	Competing time demands	Coaches were unable to commit to the coaching behaviors suggested in the workshops because of time demands beyond rowing (2)
	Relapse to previous style	Reverted to previous coaching style (2)

Note. Number in parentheses denotes number of coaches who referenced the subordinate theme (total $n = 6$)