

# "It's psychology Jim, but not as we know it!": the changing face of applied sport psychology practice

Christopher Wagstaff, University of Portsmouth

## 1 **Abstract**

2 Applied sport psychology has developed substantially in recent decades, and there  
3 exist a multitude of views regarding how contemporary practices can be best defined and  
4 conceptualized. In this paper, we reflect on these developments and draw from a growing  
5 body of literature on professional development, in an attempt to provide clarity on the  
6 expanding roles and responsibilities of the applied sport psychology practitioner. In so doing,  
7 we acknowledge the recent diversification of applied sport psychology practices, with an  
8 emphasis on competencies relating to: working with more diverse performance populations  
9 (e.g., in business, military, healthcare, education, and the performing arts); engaging in  
10 organizational psychological practices; positive youth development; promoting life skills; and  
11 mental health and counselling support provisions Further, we offer suggestions for the future  
12 of applied sport psychology education and training, in an effort to contribute to the  
13 profession's continued journey toward maturation. This includes discussion surrounding the  
14 possible implementation of multi-supervisory pathways, extended placement opportunities  
15 and engagement in post training practices within specialist performance domains, in an effort  
16 to aid the development of more diverse competencies which reflect the multiplicity of current  
17 practice.

18 *Keywords:* sport psychology, performance psychology, professional competence, professional  
19 development, training, qualification.

20

21

22

23

24

25 **“It’s psychology Jim, but not as we know it!”: The changing face of applied sport**  
26 **psychology practice**

27 The field of applied sport psychology (ASP), is an emerging profession, characterized  
28 by continual change and evolution. ASP was once considered a sub-discipline of kinesiology  
29 (see Vealey, 2006) and a tool for the amelioration of psychological dysfunction amongst  
30 athletic populations (see Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966). Nevertheless, contemporary ASP practice is  
31 increasingly characterized by a spectrum of clientele, roles, services, and competencies.  
32 Indeed, scholars have attested to an “increasing appetite” for sport psychology services  
33 outside the confines of traditional athletic support provision (e.g., Barker, Neil, & Fletcher,  
34 2016, p. 3). Moreover, scholars have also pointed to a movement toward: working with more  
35 diverse performance populations (e.g., in business, military, healthcare, education, and  
36 performing arts; Barker et al., 2016); integration of organizational psychological practices  
37 (e.g., Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009; Wagstaff, 2017); fostering positive youth development  
38 (e.g., Holt & Nelly, 2011); promotion of life skills (Gould & Carlson, 2008); and mental  
39 health support (e.g., Roberts, Faull, & Tod, 2016).

40 Acknowledgment of the recent diversification of ASP provision has been further  
41 evidenced by Division 47 (Exercise and Sport Psychology) of the American Psychological  
42 Association, who advocated that sport psychology should be conceptualized as a sub-  
43 discipline of performance psychology; that is a domain of study and practice concerned with  
44 the identification, development and execution of skills and abilities required to achieve  
45 excellence within a series of diverse performance domains (Portenga, Aoyagi, Balague,  
46 Cohen, & Harmison, 2011). While the inclusion of performance psychology within  
47 professional titles is yet to be fully embraced by all regulatory and organizing bodies, there is  
48 a body of evidence to support the view, that sport psychology as we know it, is changing.  
49 Consequently, we find ourselves at a crossroads within our profession, one which hints

50 towards a changing expertise of the sport psychologist and a need for a reassessment of key  
51 professional competencies, which may be reflective of new trends within contemporary  
52 applied practice.

53           Given these apparent developments in ASP, the aim of this paper is to chart the  
54 changes within applied practice and identify implications for the future of our profession.  
55 Specifically, we: (1) take a historical perspective to illustrate the change in the  
56 representation/description in the professional practice literature of what ASPs do, and what  
57 the profession comprises; (2) discuss examples from applied practitioners' own professional  
58 experiences of the roles/challenges ASPs presently encounter in the profession; (3) consider  
59 the ability of current ASP training and practice guidelines to cater for this role change; and,  
60 (4) offer recommendations for the future training and supervision to better prepare and  
61 inform ASP's wishing to undertake work of this nature.

62           By taking stock of emergent scholarship in the areas of professional development and  
63 training, professional identity and competence expansion, it is hoped this commentary will help  
64 facilitate an enhanced understanding and awareness among ASPs and organising bodies alike,  
65 regarding the changing nature of our profession. We also hope to chart changes in applied  
66 practice to more accurately depict the work we do and provide a vision for future ASP  
67 development that will enable the profession to flourish.

## 68 **Historical Perspectives on ASP**

69           While historical perspectives on sport psychology can be traced back to the scientific  
70 practices of the 19th Century (cf. Terry, 2011), the birth of applied practice is largely  
71 attributed to several pioneering laboratories. In 1920 Carl Diem founded the world's first

72 sport psychology laboratory at the Deutsche Sporthochschule in Berlin. Two further labs  
73 were established in 1925: one by A. Z. Puni at the Institute of Physical Culture in Leningrad  
74 and the other by Coleman Griffith at the University of Illinois where he published the first  
75 sport psychology book titled *The Psychology of Coaching* in 1926. Of these pioneers, it is  
76 perhaps the work of Griffith that is most commonly regarded as the forefather of our  
77 profession. Griffith was an American psychologist who emphasized the need for greater  
78 integration of research and practice of psychological principles within the sport domain  
79 (Gould & Pick, 1995). Prior to the Griffith era, sport psychology was commonly dismissed  
80 by scholars as something of a trivial pursuit, yet by the 1930s increasing interest in the  
81 application of psychological principles within sport settings enabled the field to begin to gain  
82 credibility as a domain of scientific study (Gould & Pick, 1995).

83         During the field's formative years, a number of associations and societies were  
84 founded around the world which provided an early forum for siloed scholars and practitioners  
85 to meet. For instance, the International Society of Sport Psychology (ISSP, 1965), the North  
86 American Society for the Psychology of Sport and Physical Activity (NASPSPA, 1967), and  
87 the European Federation of Sport Psychology (FEPSAC, 1969) were all fundamental to early  
88 professional development in this domain. Nevertheless, it was not until the 1980s that  
89 substantial interest in the practical application of sport psychology emerged. During the  
90 1980's, an increasing number of organizations, including the U.S. Olympic Committee,  
91 began employing ASPs in an attempt to facilitate the systematic implementation of PST in  
92 athlete populations (Landers, 1983; Silva, 2001).

93           Despite this use of sport psychology, there were evident tensions surrounding  
94           presumed divergent backgrounds of practitioners trained in the disciplines of psychology  
95           (clinical and problem oriented) and kinesiology (performance orientated; Aoyagi, Portenga,  
96           Poczwardowski, Cohen, & Statler, 2012; Ryba & Wright, 2005). As such, societies including  
97           the British Association of Sport Sciences (BASSS, 1984) and the Association for Applied  
98           Sport Psychology (AASP, 1986) were inaugurated in an attempt to facilitate scientific  
99           advancements and establish clear criteria relating to effective applied practice and  
100          professional accountability.

101           During the early 1990s, applied practice remained largely associated with the  
102          implementation of psychological skills and coping strategies for use within training and  
103          competition (Landers, 1983; Vealey, 1988). Several prominent practitioners during this era  
104          (e.g., Ravizza, 1990; Bull, 1995) also conceptualized their role in relation to dealing with  
105          performance and personal issues, through the utilization of PST interventions, and in some  
106          way reinforcing the perception that ASPs are ‘shrinks’ (see Van Raalte, Brewer, Matheson, &  
107          Brewer, 1996; Bastos, Corredeira, Probst, & Fonseca, 2014). Despite a principal focus on  
108          PST and the cognitive determinants of athletic performance, this era also represented a period  
109          of significant epistemological diversification, whereby an enhanced understanding of the  
110          idiosyncratic nature of the athletic experience would prove beneficial for shaping the identity  
111          of ASP practice (Vealey, 2006).

112           By the late 1990s, through widespread dissemination of knowledge through  
113          publications such as *The Sport Psychologist* (TSP, 1987) and the *Journal of Applied Sport*  
114          *Psychology* (JASP, 1989), it became evident that ASPs had begun to diversify their  
115          competencies beyond the application of PST. For example, Hardy, Jones and Gould (1996),  
116          acknowledged that athletic performance was increasingly influenced by the complex

117 organizational environment in which athletes operate. In addition, as part of a USOC funded  
118 program of research exploring athletes and coaches' perceptions of factors affecting Olympic  
119 performance, Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, Medbery and Peterson (1999) noted that peak  
120 performance was "a complex and delicate process" (p. 371), influenced by a range of social  
121 and organizational factors, which had seemingly remained underexplored within applied  
122 research and practice.

123         At the turn of the 21st Century, concerns surrounding the absence of systematic  
124 educational outreach programs and job market opportunities were considered to be a  
125 significant threat in relation to the future growth and development of the sport psychology  
126 profession (Silva, Conroy, & Zizzi, 1999). Consequently, organizing bodies such as AASP  
127 stated their intention to move beyond the domain of sport performance and, in sync with  
128 Seligman's (1998) positive psychology agenda, sought to promote a psychology of  
129 excellence, from which the principles of peak performance could be applied to non-athlete  
130 populations (Gould, 2002). In one of the two dedicated special issues of JASP examining the  
131 psychology of excellence, Gould (2002) emphasized the need for greater diversification of  
132 sport psychology principles within wider performance domains, in order to further develop  
133 the applied field. In turn, this resulted in greater theoretical dissection of the practices  
134 exhibited within the domains of business (Ievleva & Terry, 2008; Jones, 2002), performing  
135 arts (Hays, 2002), and the military (Ward et al., 2008), whereby sport psychology principles  
136 were highlighted as having a strong degree of transferability across these diverse performance  
137 domains.

138         Justification for the utilization of sport psychology principles within other  
139 performance contexts was further strengthened through the identification of inherent  
140 associations between the psychological characteristics of elite athletes (e.g., attentional  
141 control and emotional regulation) and performers within other domains such as medicine, the

142 military and music (e.g., Fiore & Salas, 2008; Pecen, Collins, & MacNamara, 2016).  
143 Similarly, within the domain of business, the application of ASP practices was believed to  
144 present great promise in relation to the development of psychological attributes such mental  
145 toughness, motivation and cohesion within the workplace (Jones, 2002; Weinberg &  
146 McDermott, 2002). Additionally, as well as being highlighted as a resource to aid the  
147 amelioration of workplace stress and burnout (Gordon, 2007), scholars also posited that the  
148 application of mental skills commonly employed within athletic settings (e.g., positive self-  
149 talk, imagery and emotional control) could be effectively utilized within corporate settings, to  
150 enhance the working practices of managers, leaders and work teams (Foster, 2002). More  
151 recently, the *Journal of Change Management* published a two-part special issue dedicated to  
152 using sport and performance psychology in the management of change (see Barker et al.,  
153 2016)

154           In addition to the increased diversification of ASP practices, the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup>  
155 Century also marked a growing appreciation for the role organizational psychology; a domain  
156 of study which integrates research foundations in social psychology and organizational  
157 behavior, to address the emotional and motivational aspects of organizational life and  
158 promote practices which contribute to performer productivity, satisfaction and wellbeing  
159 (Wagstaff, 2017). In recognition of the ever-changing landscape within sport, the role of  
160 organizational influences were becoming increasingly noted within post millennium research  
161 and practice. For example, Woodman and Hardy (2001) highlighted a multitude of  
162 organizational issues (e.g., finances, team atmosphere and coaching styles) that were found to  
163 impact upon elite athletes in the build up to major competition. Jones (2002) later reflected on  
164 the substantial organizational issues faced as a practitioner, and Fletcher and Hanton (2003)  
165 subsequently reported a growing number of performers seeking the aid of ASPs in an effort  
166 to cope with these organizational demands.

167 Fletcher and Wagstaff (2009) reviewed six lines of enquiry relating to organizational  
168 psychology in elite sport and proposed that acknowledgment of various cultural and climatic  
169 factors within the sporting environment was required to better inform the quality of ASP  
170 practice. These sentiments were also echoed by Fletcher and Arnold (2011) who proposed  
171 that ASPs should develop knowledge of organizational practices in order to provide more  
172 efficacious support to both athletes and management staff, in relation to helping them deal  
173 with demands which extend beyond athletic performance (e.g., positively influencing cultural  
174 and managerial practices).

175 More recently, researchers have conducted applied research to better understand the  
176 organizational factors promoting optimal functioning within elite sport landscapes (e.g.,  
177 Wagstaff, Fletcher, & Hanton, 2012). This research agenda has been labelled positive  
178 organizational psychology in sport (POPS; Wagstaff et al., 2012). In concordance with the  
179 POPS agenda, Wagstaff and colleagues (2012) concluded that theory and practice within elite  
180 sport contexts offered great promise in relation to promoting optimal functioning and greater  
181 psychological capital. Wagstaff and Larner (2015) extended these sentiments and outlined  
182 how ASPs knowledge of four core dimensions of organizational practice; emotions and  
183 attitudes in sport organizations, stress and wellbeing in sport organizations, behaviours in  
184 sport organizations, and environments in sport organizations, could help enhance the quality  
185 of work life of those who operate within this domain. Collectively, the emerging research and  
186 practice of organizational psychology in sport has highlighted the value of ASPs working to  
187 promote well-being and functioning at various levels of the structures within sports  
188 organizations.

### 189 **Current Perspectives on ASP**

190 As we reflect on the current state of ASP practice, we find a profession in which the  
191 sport psychologist is regarded as not only a facilitator of performance enhancement and



192 custodian of performer well-being, but an architect of cultural excellence (Eubank, Nesti, &  
193 Cruickshank, 2014). With growing requests for ASPs to advise on elite sport climates  
194 (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009), as well as other diverse performance domains (e.g., military,  
195 performing arts, high risk occupations; Portenga, Aoyagi, & Cohen, 2017), the creation and  
196 sustainment of a high performance culture has now come to be regarded as a key function of  
197 ASP practice (Henriksen, 2015; McDougall, Nesti, Richardson, & Littlewood, 2017). As  
198 such, the work of the modern sport psychologist has become increasingly dependent on both  
199 the procurement of cultural and socio-political skills and knowledge of organizational  
200 psychology practices associated with topics such as attitudes, fairness, motivation, stress and  
201 leadership (Eubank et al., 2014; Cruickshank & Collins, 2015; Wagstaff, 2017).

202         The scope of current practices requires ASPs to adopt a more flexible and free ranging  
203 role, whereby micro-level PST provision might be complemented by engagement in macro-  
204 level performance, organizational and management practices (Collins & Cruickshank, 2015).  
205 This macro-level also necessitates active engagement in a multitude of working alliances with  
206 various organizational stakeholders (e.g., performance directors, coaches, administrators and  
207 support staff), who operate across various levels of a high-performance organization  
208 (McDougall et al., 2015). Eubank and colleagues (2014) suggested satisfactory fulfilment of  
209 this wider social provision requires the adoption of roles similar to that of human resources  
210 managers and occupational psychologists, in an effort to improve communication, reduce  
211 conflict and promote a culturally congruent view of performance excellence. Consequently,  
212 ASPs must quickly establish a cultural appreciation of the complex social hierarchies, micro-  
213 political structures and cultural dynamics which exist within various levels of a high  
214 performance landscape (McCalla & Fitzpatrick, 2016; McDougall et al., 2015; Mellalieu,  
215 2016; Nesti, 2016).

216 ASP practitioner accounts of engagement in these macro-level processes are, at best,  
217 underreported and equivocal. As such, recent practitioner reflections that illuminate various  
218 cultural and climatic issues (McDougall et al., 2015) have substantial value. In support of this  
219 view, Schinke and Hackfort (2016) have recently drawn from the experiences of established  
220 practitioners in an attempt to illuminate the service delivery challenges in elite sport settings.  
221 Nesti (2016) also drew on his extensive experiences working in Premier League football to  
222 highlight key considerations surrounding the management of issues such as poor internal  
223 communication, interdepartmental conflict and role ambiguity. The salience of wider  
224 stakeholder support provisions was also noted by Mellalieu (2016), who emphasized the  
225 importance of working in collaboration with various support staff, in an attempt to identify  
226 and help remedy role-specific stressors. Additionally, with the growing medicalization and  
227 scientization of elite sport (Stewart & Smith, 2008), scholarship continues to acknowledge  
228 the importance of ASPs being able to operate effectively as part of a multidisciplinary team  
229 (McCalla & Fitzpatrick, 2016). Part of this multidisciplinary provision requires ASPs to  
230 establish ongoing working alliances with various sports medicine and science staff (e.g., S&C  
231 practitioners, nutritionists and physicians) in an effort to protect performer wellbeing and  
232 promote a synergistic view of athletic excellence (Arnold & Sarkar; 2015; McCalla &  
233 Fitzpatrick, 2016; Mellalieu, 2016). Furthermore, while the importance of effective  
234 multidisciplinary science and medicine support teams have been acknowledged and sought  
235 for some time (see Reid, Stewart, & Thorne, 2004), more recent scholarship proposes ASPs  
236 may be best positioned to ensure the continued positive functioning of these multidisciplinary  
237 teams, through a knowledge of group dynamics and personnel-related organizational  
238 demands (see, Chandler, Eubank, Nesti, Tod, & Cable, 2016).

239 To further illustrate the evolving nature of ASP practice, Terry and Si (2015)  
240 reviewed a body of literature which underlines the diverse challenges associated with ASP

241 support in the context of Olympic performance. Reflecting on his experiences of providing  
242 support to the Danish Olympic sailing team, Henriksen (2015) proposed that the challenges  
243 of service delivery are often accentuated by a multitude of unplanned events which exist  
244 beyond the scope of traditional ASP provision. This includes helping athletes to address  
245 family issues, media scrutiny and other private concerns which may be regarded as  
246 superfluous to athlete performance. Collins and Cruickshank (2015) noted similar  
247 experiences and proposed that ASP support should extend toward helping athletes in coping  
248 with the multitude organizational stressors they may encounter in the build up to Olympic-  
249 level competition. This includes the utilization of contingency planning strategies that seek to  
250 address issues pertaining to travel, accommodation, clothing and finance. This is a view  
251 further shared by Schinke, Stambulova, Trepanier and Oghene (2015), who, in providing  
252 support to the Canadian Olympic boxing team, suggested that the transition from training to  
253 competition is a process which requires athlete acclimatization to the complexities of major  
254 game contexts (e.g., tournament fatigue, rooming, international village and audience  
255 considerations). As such, within the context of contemporary practices, it is important ASPs  
256 familiarize themselves with these multifaceted demands, in order to obtain a clear view of the  
257 contextual demands and organizational stressors associated with elite level performance. By  
258 doing so, they may find themselves better positioned to facilitate more efficacious support,  
259 through client education and the use of contingency planning strategies.

260         When operating within high level performance environments, ASPs must remain  
261 cognizant of the barriers they may face when attempting to integrate themselves within an  
262 organization. For example, Nesti (2016) recalled the “often-experienced scepticism”  
263 surrounding ASP practices within sport. Elsewhere, Gardner (2016) noted the possibility of  
264 organizational resistance, should the sport psychologist fail to effectively establish their roles  
265 and responsibilities within an organization. Moreover neophyte practitioners appear to be

266 inadequately prepared for the requirements of this wider provisions, with Larsen (2017)  
267 recently reflecting that the practical challenges associated with attempting to integrate oneself  
268 successfully into an elite sport organization was like “bringing a knife to a gunfight” (p. 7),  
269 with a knife representing the practitioner's knowledge and experience and the gun  
270 representing the strong, ruthless and often volatile nature of elite sport and its demands. As  
271 such, when attempting to gain trust and develop credibility, ASPs must acknowledge,  
272 assimilate and ultimately influence the dynamic organizational culture that exists within this  
273 domain (Mellalieu, 2017; Nesti, 2016).

274         We believe issues relating to congruence and assimilation present a key consideration  
275 for the modern sport psychologist, particularly in relation to how their own practices may  
276 align with established cultural norms and expectations. Drawing on previous empirical  
277 perspectives, Schinke (2016) recommended that ASPs align themselves with the culture they  
278 are trying to influence or risk extinction. Yet, in an environment often dictated by a ruthless  
279 pursuit of excellence (cf. McDougall et al., 2015), such alignment can prove professionally  
280 and ethically problematic. McDougall and colleagues’ (2015) conducted a series of  
281 interviews with established practitioners and highlighted the tensions between organization  
282 and psychologist, particularly when required to conduct practices which are aligned with the  
283 expectations of the organization but not necessarily to their values as a practitioner.  
284 Consequently, ASPs must at times resist cultural assimilation, despite the risk of team  
285 alienation and possible employment termination (Gilmore, Wagstaff, & Smith, 2017;  
286 McDougall et al., 2015). Nesti (2016) proposed that while ASPs should be part of the culture,  
287 they must also be apart from it, ensuring that one’s support remains congruent with one’s  
288 personal beliefs, values and wider professional philosophy. Moreover, although engagement  
289 in broader organizational operations now reflects a key ASP function, ASPs must also ensure

290 the pursuit of cultural and performance excellence is not achieved at the expense of  
291 professional ethics and performer wellbeing.

292         When attempting to facilitate best care to athletic populations, recent ASP scholarship  
293 has increasingly advocated the importance of adopting a more holistic view of support  
294 provision (Friesen & Orlick, 2010; Gamble, Hill, & Parker, 2013). In addition to highlighting  
295 the importance of ASPs obtaining an understanding of individual differences such as  
296 sexuality, gender identity and spirituality (Gamble et al., 2013), scholars have also noted the  
297 increased utilization of ASP provision as a vehicle for the promotion of positive youth  
298 development (PYD; Holt & Neely, 2011). Within the extant literature, PYD is regarded as a  
299 strength based approach, which focuses on the ways in which children and adolescents may  
300 accrue experiences that promote optimal psychosocial development and positive systematic  
301 change (Holt & Neely, 2011; Lerner, Brown, & Kier, 2005). As well as providing continued  
302 opportunities, for psychological, social and intellectual growth (Fraser-Thomas Côté &  
303 Deakin, 2005), PYD also has been shown to aid in the facilitation of a series of life skills  
304 (Hermens, Super, Verkooijen, & Koelen, 2017).

305         Within the context of current research and practice, life skills represent a collection of  
306 personal assets, characteristics and skills which can developed and transferred from sport to  
307 non-sport settings (Gould & Carson, 2008). For example, through participation in sport-  
308 related activity, children and adolescents are provided with opportunities to develop a  
309 multitude of skills in the areas of communication, stress management, leadership and moral  
310 development (Gould & Carlson, 2008). Consequently, the emergence of life skill  
311 programmes such as Going for the Goal (GOAL; Danish et al., 1992) and Sports United to  
312 Promote Education and Recreation (SUPER; Danish, Fazio, Nellen, & Owens, 2002)  
313 providing a promising avenue for extended holistic ASP support provisions. Nevertheless,  
314 life skills education is still regarded as a relatively nascent domain of ASP practice (Fortin-

315 Guichard, Boudreault, Gagnon, & Trottier, 2018). Therefore, continued exploration and  
316 practitioner led accounts of how ASPs help facilitate the development of life skills both  
317 directly (e.g., through consultancy) and indirectly (e.g., through coach and stakeholder  
318 awareness and education) may be warranted, in an effort to promote future best practice  
319 within this domain.

320 As well as the promotion of life skills, ASPs must also understand how the socio-  
321 contextual characteristics of specific sports environment may negatively impact the mental  
322 health of athletes who perform within it (e.g., Roberts, Faull, & Tod, 2016). While the  
323 prevalence of mental health issues in sport remains subject to contention (Uphill, Sly, &  
324 Swain, 2016), there exists a growing evidence base to suggest that high-level sporting  
325 participation does indeed put individuals at risk of developing mental health issues such as  
326 depression and anxiety (e.g., Hughes & Leavey, 2012), eating disorders (e.g., Martinsen &  
327 Sundgot-Borgen, 2013), and substance abuse (e.g., Reardon & Creado, 2014). Consequently,  
328 ASPs who desire to work with high performing athlete populations must develop  
329 competencies aligned with the identification, diagnosis, prevention and support of mental  
330 health issues.

331 Currently, societies (e.g., AASP, BPS) advise that practitioners develop a reliable  
332 support network consisting of clinically trained professionals, who may be called upon  
333 regarding issues of referral. Nevertheless, Roberts, Faull and Todd (2016) recently  
334 highlighted the “blurred lines” associated with practices which involve providing support to  
335 athletic populations experiencing mental health issues. Whilst, clinical referral may represent  
336 an idealised resource for ASPs to utilize, the authors are quick to highlight that on occasion,  
337 circumstances may necessitate ASP roles and responsibilities akin to those of a clinical  
338 psychologist. To elaborate, Roberts et al. proposed that fear of stigmatization, cost of private  
339 counselling and NHS waiting lists may leave ASPs in a precarious position, by which they

340 may feel professionally and ethically obliged to support the athlete until a more appropriate  
341 form of care can be facilitated. The authors concluded by advising ASPs to engage in a  
342 continuous process of education and training, in an attempt to acquire appropriate clinical  
343 competencies (cf. Aoyagi et al., 2012).

344         Whilst performance enhancement continues to be regarded as a salient component of  
345 ASP provision (see Brown & Fletcher, 2017), the development of psychotherapy, counselling  
346 and mental health related competencies remains a central topic of discussion within  
347 contemporary scholarship (e.g., Sebbings, Hassmen, Crisp, & Wensley, 2016; Watson, Way,  
348 & Hilliard, 2017). Currently, organising bodies such AASP and APA have a large number of  
349 clinically-trained members, and there are many jobs in intercollegiate sport that combine  
350 clinical and performance enhancement responsibilities. For example, the recent and rapid  
351 expansion of the “Big Sky” group in the United States, highlights the important role  
352 psychologists can play in providing mental health and psychological care support provisions  
353 to high-level and elite athletic programs. Nevertheless, it could be argued that the attainment  
354 of a fully developed clinical skillset may be unrealistic when one considers the current  
355 purview of most ASP training pathways.

356         In an effort to bridge the gap between clinical and traditional ASP practices, Eubank  
357 (2016) suggested that ASPs should look toward the attainment of competencies which enable  
358 them to adopt a “counselling middle ground”, whereby they are able to help provide support  
359 to athletic populations through the display of effective listening and empathic skills (e.g., the  
360 display of unconditional positive regard and non-judgement), commonly associated with  
361 practices within counselling psychology. Whilst we acknowledge the development of

362 counselling-based competencies have been readily advocated in both research (e.g., Roberts  
363 et al., 2016) and organizing body training legislation (e.g., Katz & Hemmings, 2009), it is  
364 important to consider the ways in which ASPs are looking toward developing these  
365 competencies within the remit of current practices. Eubank (2016) suggested one possible  
366 avenue as the adoption of a “system approach” (cf. Rotheram, Maynard, & Rogers, 2016),  
367 whereby ASPs are provided with opportunities to work in collaboration with a clinical  
368 psychologist, to develop first-hand experience of initiating, monitoring and evaluating  
369 support provisions to athlete populations experiencing mental health issues.

370           Through engagement in this collaborative process, ASPs may be able to obtain  
371 competencies relating to not only the possible treatment of mental health issues, but also key  
372 client facing counselling skills that would be conducive toward ensuring positive therapeutic  
373 outcomes. Conversely, in accordance with existing professional practicing guidelines (e.g.,  
374 APA, British Psychological Society; BPS) ASPs should always operate within their  
375 boundaries of competence. The question however, of whether this competence should extend  
376 to more clinical-based provisions remains one of contention. Therefore, whilst some scholars  
377 may advocate engagement in practices which may be conducive toward the attainment of  
378 clinical competencies, others urge caution. For example, Shearer, Mellalieu and Shearer  
379 (2011) suggested that whilst knowledge of clinical disorders may be advantageous in the  
380 treatment of subclinical performance issues experienced by athletes with psychological  
381 disorders, the actual treatment of clinical issues should be the responsibility of those who  
382 have been sufficiently trained (i.e., clinical psychologists). Nevertheless, the authors



383 acknowledge that collaboration between sport and clinical psychologist may be key toward  
384 facilitating the highest levels of client support. As such, both parties should ensure they  
385 clearly understand their respective roles in the therapeutic process and ensure there is  
386 congruence between their overarching philosophy of practice and approach toward client  
387 support (Shearer et al., 2011).

### 388 **Current Training and Certification Standards**

389         Given the increasing diversification of ASP practices, Aoyagi and colleagues (2012)  
390 postulated that the future of the applied profession would be dependent on the successful  
391 acquisition of a series of key competencies. These included competence in: (a) the  
392 psychology of performance; (b) mental health counselling; (c) consulting psychology; and (d)  
393 a performance specialty domain (e.g., sport, performing arts, business, high-risk occupations;  
394 p. 36). In recognition of these competencies and the broad expanse of ASP roles and  
395 responsibilities highlighted within this review, it appears that the current scope of ASP now  
396 far exceeds traditional PST practices.

397         As alluded to previously, ASPs are now required to operate across levels of an  
398 organizational structure, with multiple stakeholders and support athletes in matters often  
399 unrelated to sport performance (e.g., personal and clinical issues). Additionally, ASPs are  
400 now commonly requested to work with performers in non-sport domains (e.g., military,  
401 medicine and performing arts) and engage in more holistic support provisions (e.g., life skills  
402 and mental health). Consequently, professional bodies might question the extent to which  
403 ASPs exhibit the necessary competencies required to deliver these services. For example,  
404 within existing organising body legislation (e.g., APA, AASP, BPS), explicit reference to the  
405 development of broader competencies highlighted within this review, has remained largely  
406 absent from the trainee literature, thus further perpetuating confusion surrounding the true

407 nature of ASP practice. As such, criticism has been directed toward current training and  
408 development documentation, with scholars advocating a need to better regulate ASP activities  
409 that may not only be conducive to ongoing ASP development but also the professional  
410 integrity of the applied field (see Fletcher & Maher, 2013; Portenga et al., 2017; Winter &  
411 Collins, 2016).

### 412 **Recommendations for Future Training and Practice**

413 From the perspective of trainees, procedures are required which reflect the  
414 multiplicity of current practice to ensure that service delivery competence can be attained.  
415 Jooste, Kruger, Steyn and Edwards (2016) proposed competence in ASP relates to “a  
416 candidate’s overall capability to perform critical work-tasks in a defined setting” (p. 2).  
417 Accordingly, in light of the apparent contextual divergence of current ASP practices, a  
418 trainee’s capability to perform these tasks may be increasingly dependent on exposure to a  
419 variety of performance settings (e.g., sport, military and performing arts) which reflect the  
420 expansion of ASP provision.

421 Currently, within clinical and counselling psychology pathways, trainees are provided  
422 with placement opportunities which are reflective of the context-specific demands of their  
423 chosen profession. Yet, in ASP, long term and experience-rich opportunities are seldom  
424 afforded to trainees, resulting in calls for extended networking and supervisory provision  
425 which may enable prospective professionals to obtain a greater breadth of applied  
426 experiences (McEwan & Tod, 2015). Further, Marsh, Fritze and Shapiro (2017) promoted the  
427 use of multiple supervisor pathways throughout the training process, stating that multiple  
428 supervisors can enable those in training to obtain numerous perspectives on ASP. The  
429 introduction of such a pathway could enable trainees to benefit from the theoretical and  
430 experiential expertise of a number of seasoned professionals, who in turn may possess a  
431 number of idiosyncratic consulting styles and domain specific skills (e.g., non-sport related

432 performance enhancement or counselling skills expertise). These idiosyncrasies may also  
433 extend to each supervisor's approaches to consultancy (e.g., cognitive, behavioural and  
434 humanistic) therefore allowing trainees to develop deeper insights and make more informed  
435 decisions regarding their own therapeutic preferences.

436         In their exploration of the issues affecting future certification standards in ASP,  
437 Watson and Portenga (2014) posited that, "the profession of sport psychology is often viewed  
438 to be only as strong as the services that are provided by its practitioners" (p. 262). As such,  
439 governing bodies are duty bound to ensure they develop practitioners who possess the  
440 necessary service delivery competence to deliver services which reflect the continued  
441 evolution of the applied field. As noted previously, a key constituent of this enduring  
442 developmental process is the supervisor. Therefore, in addition to the evolution of neophyte  
443 training procedures, the future credibility of the ASP profession may well depend on  
444 safeguarding the quality and content of supervisory provisions. We concur with Aoyagi et  
445 al.'s (2012) proposed reconceptualization of ASP competencies and have noted in our own  
446 respective practice that trainees have a need to extend their expertise (e.g., mental health  
447 provision and multicultural practices; cf. Foltz et al., 2015). Although, we acknowledge and  
448 appreciate the academic credentials of those in supervisory positions, we also feel it pertinent  
449 to question the contextual intelligences of those offering such provision. Specifically, current  
450 organizing body legalisation seemingly equate one's capacity to supervise as a result of time  
451 spent in the profession. For example, current BPS guidelines stipulate that for one to become  
452 a supervisor, an individual must obtain two years professional experience following their  
453 Health Care Professions Council (HCPC) registration. Whilst this period of professional  
454 practice may seem a reliable indicator of an individual's readiness and capability to  
455 supervise, one could argue that professional development is by no means a linear process and

456 as such, we must look toward breadth as well as depth of experience as a measure on one's  
457 competence to supervise.

458         It has recently been suggested that supervision should be considered a specific  
459 competency within ASP and in attempting to develop this competence, the profession should  
460 acknowledge practices currently employed within other psychology disciplines, specifically,  
461 the introduction of meta-supervision provisions (Marsh et al., 2017). Within the context of  
462 ASP, meta-supervision is regarded as “supervision of supervision” (Barney, Andersen &  
463 Riggs, 1996; p. 208). The service itself acts as a quality control mechanism, in which  
464 experienced supervisors guide and support neophyte supervisors through the dynamic  
465 processes underpinning effective practice (Andersen, Barney, & Waterson, 2016). In a  
466 similar vein to the proposed trainee supervision pathway, the implementation of a  
467 hierarchical supervisory system, whereby less experienced supervisors may call upon the  
468 support of more established professionals, particularly when faced with situations or  
469 challenges which may be outside their realm of professional expertise (e.g. work within a  
470 specific performance domain). By doing so, aspiring supervisors can acquire more robust  
471 context-specific competencies, which in turn will enable them to be better equipped to deal  
472 with the diverse challenges faced by this current generation of neophyte practitioners.

473         While the possible implementation of extended supervisory processes represents a  
474 promising avenue of future exploration, we must also consider the practicality of such an  
475 approach. For example, Winter and Collins (2016) have recently acknowledged that the field  
476 of ASP is continually growing. As such, in attempting to acquire multiple competencies,  
477 ASPs may sacrifice opportunities for specialisation in favour of opportunities for more  
478 diverse applied experiences. Indeed, efforts to acquire an array of competencies in different  
479 domains could potentially dilute the quality of ASP practice. Consequently, we urge caution  
480 before readily adopting an approach to ASP training and education which promotes the

481 acquisition of multiple performance psychology informed competencies and reiterate our  
482 recommendation to expand service delivery competencies, supervisory provisions and  
483 contextual expertise in order to satisfy the idiosyncratic needs of those we provide support to.  
484 Should we rely too heavily on the use of “off the shelf” interventions that are not tailored for  
485 the respective performance domain and client needs, we will ultimately fail the client,  
486 practitioner and hinder the credibility of our profession.

487           Consideration should also be given to how we define and measure competence within  
488 ASP practice. For example, Collins, Burke, Martindale and Cruickshank (2015) recently  
489 proposed a departure from competency-based approaches in ASP, suggesting that the  
490 acquisition of competencies does not necessarily equate to competence and instead, we must  
491 seek to develop “*expertise*”, that is expertise should be obtained via a process by which  
492 prospective sport psychology professionals are able to develop both the theoretical and tacit  
493 knowledge required to deal with complex and often unpredictable performance environments.  
494 Conversely, Fletcher and Maher (2013) highlighted that the role of the ASP, is one which  
495 necessitates active engagement in a process of lifelong learning. As such, we as a profession  
496 must first and foremost work towards the development of knowledge, skills, abilities and  
497 behaviours (obtained through education via theory and case study use and activities such role  
498 play and experiential learning) which enable the acquisition of contextual intelligence or  
499 practical knowledge required to satisfy minimum threshold competencies (in accordance to  
500 organizing body training legislation) and demonstrate ASPs ability to engage in effective,  
501 ethical and safe practice. From here, we must acknowledge that competence is a continuum  
502 and as such, opportunities to develop more functional and robust competencies must be  
503 afforded to licensed ASPs as well as those undertaking the accreditation process (Fletcher &  
504 Maher, 2013).

505           Given the diverse facets of ASP practice highlighted in this review, we call for  
506 professional bodies and societies to continue to regularly revisit and update competency  
507 frameworks to ensure they best reflect the increasingly diverse nature of current practice. In  
508 line with this recommendation, AASP (2017) recently announced a new professional  
509 credential and certification mark in the form of a Certified Mental Performance Consultant  
510 (CMPC) accreditation pathway. The creation of this new title and pathway were the result of  
511 a Job Task Analysis (JTA) conducted by AASP, whereby evidence based accounts of ASP  
512 practices were obtained in an effort to identify the salient knowledge, skills and work  
513 activities that embody the diverse nature of contemporary ASP provision. While the merit of  
514 this emergent CMPC pathway is yet to be fully examined, the accreditation itself does  
515 highlight a series of competencies which are akin to those mentioned throughout this review  
516 (e.g., working with non-sport populations and addressing issues which extend beyond athletic  
517 performance).

518           In addition to advocacy for updated competency profiles, we also recommend the  
519 need for increased opportunities for specialization, following the attainment of baseline  
520 competencies. More specifically, we believe it would be advantageous for ASPs to seek  
521 opportunities to develop competence in specialist domains. Depending on each ASPs  
522 preference and personal philosophy of practice (e.g., performance enhancement or  
523 counselling orientated) this may include: seeking supervision and placement opportunities  
524 within non-sport domains; engaging in professional development activities which enable the  
525 acquisition of a human resources and or organizational and occupational psychology skillset;  
526 proactively engaging in government and community based programmes to help facilitate  
527 positive youth development and key life skills; and, collaborating with clinical professionals  
528 to develop competence in mental health support and counselling psychology.

## 529 **Concluding Remarks**

530           In this commentary paper we have charted changes within ASP practice, highlighted  
531 the multitude of roles and responsibilities adopted by contemporary ASPs and identified  
532 implications for the future of the applied profession. In doing so, we have made  
533 recommendations and the expressed views on the changing landscape of ASP scholarship. In  
534 sum, it is evident that sport psychology as we know it is indeed changing and it is crucial that  
535 professional bodies and societies acknowledge these changes and proactively update  
536 competency profiles, education and training pathways, and recommended curricula to ensure  
537 they best reflect the nature of current service provision. In attempting to dissect the complex  
538 nature of this provision, we are reminded that as psychologists we often create individualized  
539 models of our world (maps) which inform the nature of our professional practices.  
540 Nevertheless, “the map is not the territory” (Korzybski, 1933, p. 58), and scholars must  
541 acknowledge the idiosyncrasies of modern day ASP provision (territory) through active  
542 engagement in activities which promote a collaborative understanding of contemporary  
543 practices.

544           While the emergent literature offers illumination of the challenges associated with  
545 ASP, we must now provide pathways for continued professional maturation and evolution.  
546 This may include an increased emphasis on evidence-based accounts of ASP experiences.  
547 Not only would these accounts help provide a greater sense of clarity in regard to challenges  
548 associated with modern practice, it may also prove beneficial in helping to develop new  
549 certification standards and competency profiles which are required to help facilitate the  
550 development of truly well-rounded practitioners (Portenga et al., 2017; Poczwardowski,  
551 2017). Furthermore, in recognition of the continued evolution of ASP practice, it may be  
552 beneficial for other key organising bodies to engage in JTA procedures, in an effort to create  
553 a more coherent picture of what characterises and delimits ASP in the modern era. By doing  
554 so, we may find ourselves in a position by which we may be able establish a clearer

555 professional identity; one which not only reflects the diverse nature of contemporary practice

556 but also enables the facilitation of positive holistic performance and wellbeing provisions at

557 an individual, team and organizational level.

558



559  
560  
561  
562  
563  
564  
565  
566  
567  
568  
569  
570  
571  
572  
573  
574  
575  
576  
577  
578  
579  
580  
581  
582

References

Andersen, M. B., Barney, S. T., & Waterson, A. K. (2016). Mindfully dynamic meta-supervision: The case of AW and M. In J. G. Cremades & L. S. Tashman (Eds.), *Global practices and training in applied sport, exercise, and performance psychology: A case study approach* (pp. 330-340). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Association for Applied Sport Psychology (2017, September 10). *Certification program updates*. Retrieved from: <http://www.appliedsportpsych.org/certified-consultants/certification-program-updates/>

Aoyagi, M. W., Portenga, S. T., Poczwardowski, A., Cohen, A. B., & Statler, T. A. (2012). Reflections and directions: The profession of sport psychology past, present, and future. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 43*, 32-38. doi:10.1037/a0025676

Barker, J. B., Neil, R., & Fletcher, D. (2016). Using sport and performance psychology in the management of change. *Journal of Change Management, 16*, 1-7. doi:10.1080/14697-017.2016.1137149

Barney, S. T., Andersen, M. B., & Riggs, C. A. (1996). Supervision in sport psychology: Some recommendations for practicum training. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 8*, 200-217. doi:10.1080/10413209608406477

Brown, D. J., & Fletcher, D. (2017). Effects of psychological and psychosocial interventions on sport performance: A meta-analysis. *Sports Medicine, 47*, 77-99. doi:10.1007/s 40-279-01-6-0552-7

Chandler, C., Eubank, M., Nesti, M., Tod, D., & Cable, T. (2016). Personal qualities of effective sport psychologists: Coping with organisational demands in high performance sport. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 47*, 1-31. doi:10.7352-IJSP2016.47.297

583 Collins, D., Burke, V., Martindale, A., & Cruickshank, A. (2015). The illusion of competency  
584 versus the desirability of expertise: Seeking a common standard for support professions  
585 in sport. *Sports Medicine*, *45*, 1-7. doi:10.1007/s40279-014-0251-1

586 Collins, D., & Cruickshank, A. (2015). The P7 approach to the Olympic challenge: Sharing a  
587 practical framework for mission preparation and execution. *International Journal of*  
588 *Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *13*, 21-28. doi:10.1080/1612197X.2014.982677

589 Cruickshank, A., & Collins, D. (2015). Illuminating and applying “the dark side”: Insights  
590 from elite team leaders. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *27*, 249-267. doi:10-  
591 .1080/10413200.2014.982771

592 Danish, S., Fazio, R., Nellen, V., & Owens, S. (2002). Teaching life skills through sport:  
593 Community-based programs to enhance adolescent development. In J. Van Raalte & B.  
594 Brewer (Eds.), *Exploring sport and exercise psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 269–289).  
595 Washington DC: APA Books.

596 Danish, S. J., Mash, J. M., Howard, C. W., Curl, S. J., Meyer, A. L., Owens, S., & Kendall,  
597 K. (1992). Going for the goal leader manual. *Richmond, VA: Virginia Commonwealth*  
598 *University, Department of Psychology*.

599 Eubank, M. (2016). Commentary: Blurred lines: Performance enhancement, common mental  
600 disorders and referral in the UK athletic population. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *7*, 1709.  
601 doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01709

602 Eubank, M., Nesti, M., & Cruickshank, A. (2014). Understanding high performance sport  
603 environments: Impact for the professional training and supervision of ASPs. *Sport and*  
604 *Exercise Psychology Review*, *10*, 30-36. doi:10.1080/10413200.2011.559184

605 Fiore, S. M., & Salas, E. (2008). Cognition, competition, and coordination: The " why" and  
606 the " how" of the relevance of the sports sciences to learning and performance in the  
607 military. *Military Psychology*, *20*, 1-9. doi:10.1080/08995600701804764

- 608 Fletcher, D., & Hanton, S. (2003). Sources of organizational stress in elite sports performers.  
609 *The Sport Psychologist*, *17*, 175-195. doi:10.1123/tsp.17.2.175
- 610 Fletcher, D., & Maher, J. (2013). Toward a competency-based understanding of the training  
611 and development of applied sport psychologists. *Sport, Exercise, and Performance*  
612 *Psychology*, *2*, 265. doi:10.1037/a0031976
- 613 Fletcher, D., & Wagstaff, C. R. (2009). Organizational psychology in elite sport: Its  
614 emergence, application and future. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *10*, 427-434.  
615 doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2009.03.009
- 616 Foltz, B. D., Fisher, A. R., Denton, L. K., Campbell, W. L., Speight, Q. L., Steinfeldt, J., &  
617 Latorre, C. (2015). Applied sport psychology supervision experience: A qualitative  
618 analysis. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *27*, 449-463. doi:10.1080/10413200-  
619 .2015.1043162
- 620 Fortin-Guichard, D., Boudreault, V., Gagnon, S., & Trottier, C. (2018). Experience,  
621 effectiveness, and perceptions toward sport psychology consultants: A critical review of  
622 peer-reviewed articles. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *30*, 3-22.  
623 doi:10.1080/10413200.2017.1318416
- 624 Foster, S. (2002). Enhancing peak potential in managers and leaders: Integrating knowledge  
625 and findings from sport psychology. In R. L. Lowman (Ed.), *The California School of*  
626 *Organizational Studies handbook of organizational consulting psychology: A*  
627 *comprehensive guide to theory, skills and techniques* (pp. 212–231). San Francisco,  
628 CA: Jossey-Bass.
- 629 Fraser-Thomas, J. L., Côté, J., & Deakin, J. (2005). Youth sport programs: An avenue to  
630 foster positive youth development. *Physical Education & Sport Pedagogy*, *10*, 19-40.  
631 doi:10.1080/1740898042000334890

632 Friesen, A., & Orlick, T. (2010). A qualitative analysis of holistic sport psychology  
633 consultants' professional philosophies. *The Sport Psychologist*, *24*, 227-244.  
634 doi:10.1123/tsp.24.2.227

635 Gamble, R., Hill, D. M., & Parker, A. (2013). Revs and psychos: Role, impact and interaction  
636 of sport chaplains and ASPs within English premiership soccer. *Journal of Applied*  
637 *Sport Psychology*, *25*, 249-264. doi:10.1080/10413200.2012.718313

638 Gardner, F. L., (2016). Overcoming resistance from clients and stakeholders. In Schinke, R.  
639 J. & D. Hackfort (Eds.). *Psychology in professional sports and the performing arts:*  
640 *challenges and strategies* (pp. 38-50). London: Routledge.

641 Gould, D. (2002). Sport psychology in the new millennium: The psychology of athletic  
642 excellence and beyond. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *14*, 137-139.  
643 doi:10.1080/10413200290103455

644 Gould, D., & Carson, S. (2008). Life skills development through sport: Current status and  
645 future directions. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *1*, 58-78.  
646 doi:10.1080/17509840701834573

647 Gould, D., Guinan, D., Greenleaf, C., Medbery, R., & Peterson, K. (1999). Factors affecting  
648 Olympic performance: Perceptions of athletes and coaches from more and less  
649 successful teams. *The Sport Psychologist*, *13*, 371-394. doi:1041-3200/01

650 Gould, D., & Pick, S. (1995). Sport psychology: The Griffith era, 1920–1940. *The Sport*  
651 *Psychologist*, *9*, 391-405. doi:10.1123/tsp.9.4.391

652 Gordon, S. (2007). Sport and business coaching: Perspective of a sport psychologist.  
653 *Australian Psychologist*, *42*, 271-282. doi:10.1080/00050060701648167

654 Hardy, L., Jones, J. G., & Gould, D. (1996). *Understanding psychological preparation for*  
655 *sport: Theory and practice of elite performers*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

656 Hays, K. F. (2002). The enhancement of performance excellence among performing artists.  
657 *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 14*, 299-312. doi:10.1080/104132 00290103-572

658 Henriksen, K. (2015). Sport psychology at the Olympics: The case of a Danish sailing crew  
659 in a head wind. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 13*, 43-55.  
660 doi:10.1080/1612197X.2014.944554

661 Holt, N. L., & Neely, K. C. (2011). Positive youth development through sport: A review.  
662 *Revista Iberoamericana de Psicología del Ejercicio y el Deporte, 6*(2), 299-366.

663 Hughes, L., & Leavey, G. (2012). Setting the bar: Athletes and vulnerability to mental illness.  
664 *The British Journal of Psychiatry, 200*, 95–96. doi: 10.1192/bjp.bp.111.095976

665 Ievleva, L., & Terry, P. C. (2008). Applying sport psychology to business. *International*  
666 *Coaching Psychology Review, 3*, 8–18. doi:10.1080/21520704.2010.546496

667 Jones, G. (2002). Performance excellence: A personal perspective on the link between sport  
668 and business. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 14*, 268-281. doi:10.1080/10413-  
669 200290103554

670 Jooste, J., Kruger, A., Steyn, B. J. M., & Edwards, D. J. (2016). Essential competencies in  
671 contemporary applied sport psychology: Comparative perspectives from South Africa  
672 and the United Kingdom: Sport psychology. *African Journal for Physical Activity and*  
673 *Health Sciences, 22*, 1-32. doi:10.1080/14330237.2016.1219569

674 Katz, J., & Hemmings, B. (2009). *Counselling skills handbook for the sport psychologist*.  
675 Leicester: The British Psychological Society.

676 Korzybski, A. (1933). *Science and sanity*. New York: Institute of General Semantics.

677 Landers, D. M. (1983). Whatever happened to theory testing in sport psychology? *Journal of*  
678 *Sport Psychology, 5*, 135-151. doi:10.1123/jsp.5.2.135

679 Larsen, C. H. (2017). Bringing a knife to a gunfight: A coherent consulting philosophy might  
680 not be enough to be effective in professional soccer. *Journal of Sport Psychology in*  
681 *Action*, 8, 1-10. doi:10.1080/21520704.2017.1287142

682 Lerner, R. M., Brown, J. D., & Kier, C. (2005). *Adolescence: Development, diversity,*  
683 *context, and application (Canadian Edition)*. Toronto: Pearson Prentice Hall.

684 Marsh, M. K., Fritze, T., & Shapiro, J. L. (2017). Layers of oversight: Professional  
685 supervision, meta- supervision, and peer mentoring. In M. W. Aoyagi, A.  
686 Poczwadowski & J. L. Shapiro (Eds.), *The peer guide to applied sport psychology for*  
687 *consultants in training* (pp. 80-93). New York, NY: Routledge/Psychology Press.

688 Martinsen, M., & Sundgot-Borgen, J. (2013). Higher prevalence of eating disorders among  
689 adolescent elite athletes than controls. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise*, 45,  
690 1188-97. doi: 10.1249/MSS.0b013e318281a939

691 McCalla, T., & Fitzpatrick, S. (2016). Integrating sport psychology within a high-  
692 performance team: Potential stakeholders, micropolitics, and culture. *Journal of Sport*  
693 *Psychology in Action*, 7, 33-42. doi:10.1080/21520704.2015.1123208

694 McEwan, H. E., & Tod, D. (2015). Learning experiences contributing to service-delivery  
695 competence in applied psychologists: Lessons for sport psychologists. *Journal of*  
696 *Applied Sport Psychology*, 27, 79-93. doi:10.1080/10413200.2014.952460

697 McDougall. M., Nesti. M., Richardson. D., & Littlewood. M. (2017). Emphasising the culture  
698 in culture change: Examining current perspectives of culture and offering some  
699 alternative ones. *Sport and Exercise Psychology Review*, 13(1), 47-59.

700 Mellalieu, S. D. (2016). Working within professional rugby union. In R. J. Schinke & D.  
701 Hackfort (Eds.), *Psychology in professional sports and the performing arts: Challenges*  
702 *and strategies* (pp. 205-216). London: Routledge.

703 Mellalieu, S. D. (2017). Sport psychology consulting in professional rugby union in the  
704 United Kingdom. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action*, 8, 1-12. doi:10.1080/  
705 21520704.2017.1299061

706 Nesti, M. S. (2016). Working in professional football. In Schinke, R. J. & D. Hackfort (Eds.),  
707 *Psychology in professional sports and the performing arts: challenges and strategies*  
708 (pp. 192-204). London: Routledge.

709 Ogilvie, B. C., & Tutko, T. A. (1966). *Problem athletes and how to handle them*. London:  
710 Pelham Books.

711 Pecen, E., Collins, D., & MacNamara, Á. (2016). Music of the night: Performance  
712 practitioner enhancement work in music. *Sport, Exercise, and Performance*  
713 *Psychology*, 5, 377-395. doi:10.1037/spy0000067

714 Poczwardowski, A. (2017). Deconstructing sport and performance psychology consultant:  
715 Expert, person, performer, and self-regulator. *International Journal of Sport and*  
716 *Exercise Psychology*, 1-18. doi:10.1080/1612197X.2017.1390484

717 Portenga, S. T., Aoyagi, M. W., Balague, G., Cohen, A., & Harmison, B. (2011). Defining  
718 the practice of sport and performance psychology. *American Psychological*  
719 *Association*. Retrieved from: [http://www.apadivisions.org/division47/about/  
720 resources/defining.pdf](http://www.apadivisions.org/division47/about/resources/defining.pdf).

721 Portenga, S. T., Aoyagi, M. W., & Cohen, A. B. (2017). Helping to build a profession: A  
722 working definition of sport and performance psychology. *Journal of Sport Psychology*  
723 *in Action*, 8, 47-59. doi:10.1080/21520704.2016.1227413

724 Reardon, C. L., & Creado, S. (2014). Drug abuse in athletes. *Substance Abuse Rehabilitation*,  
725 5, 95-105. doi:10.2147/SAR.S53784

- 726 Reid, C., Stewart, E., & Thorne, G. (2004). Multidisciplinary sport science teams in elite  
727 sport: Comprehensive servicing or conflict and confusion? *The Sport Psychologist*, 18,  
728 204-217. doi:10.1123/tsp.18.2.204
- 729 Roberts, C., Faull, A. L., & Tod, D. (2016). Blurred lines: Performance enhancement,  
730 common mental disorders and referral in the U.K. Athletic population. *Frontiers in*  
731 *Psychology*, 7, 1067. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01067
- 732 Rotherham, M., Maynard, I., & Rogers, A. (2016). Using an integrated sport/clinical  
733 psychology approach to reduce anxiety and facilitate training adherence. *Sport &*  
734 *Exercise Psychology Review*, 12(2), 74-80.
- 735 Schinke, R. J., & Hackfort, D. (Eds.), (2016). *Psychology in professional sports and the*  
736 *performing arts: Challenges and strategies*. London: Routledge.
- 737 Schinke, R. J., Stambulova, N. B., Trepanier, D., & Oghene, O. (2015). Psychological  
738 support for the Canadian Olympic Boxing Team in meta-transitions through the  
739 National Team Program. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 13,  
740 74-89. doi:10.1080/1612197X.2014.959982
- 741 Sebbens, J., Hassmén, P., Crisp, D., & Wensley, K. (2016). Mental health in sport (MHS):  
742 Improving the early intervention knowledge and confidence of elite sport staff.  
743 *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 911. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00911
- 744 Seligman, M. E. (1998). What is the good life? *APA monitor*, 29(10), 2.
- 745 Shearer, D. A., Mellalieu, S. D., & Shearer, C. R. (2011). Posttraumatic stress disorder: A  
746 case study of an elite rifle shooter. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology*, 5, 134-  
747 147. doi:10.1123/jcsp.5.2.134
- 748 Silva, J. M. (2001). Current trends and future directions in sport psychology. In R. N. Singer,  
749 H. A. Hausenblas & C. M. Janelle (Eds.), *Handbook of Sport Psychology* (2nd ed., pp.  
750 823-832). New York: Wiley.



751 Silva, J. M., Conroy, D. E., & Zizzi, S. J. (1999). Critical issues confronting the advancement  
752 of applied sport psychology. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *11*, 298-320.  
753 doi:10.1080/10413209908404206

754 Terry, P. C. (2011). Applied sport psychology: Beware the sun, Icarus. In P. R. Martin,  
755 Cheung, F. M., Knowles, M. C., Kyrios, M., Littelfield, L., Overmier, J. B & J. M.  
756 Prieto (Eds.), *The IAAP handbook of applied psychology* (pp. 386-410). Oxford:  
757 Blackwell.

758 Terry, P. C., & Si, G. (2015). Introduction to the special issue on providing sport psychology  
759 support for Olympic athletes: International perspectives. *International Journal of Sport*  
760 *and Exercise Psychology*, *13*, 1-3. doi:10.1080/1612197X.2015.992162

761 Uphill, M., Sly, D., and Swain, J. (2016). From mental health to mental wealth in athletes.  
762 Looking back and moving forward. *Frontiers in Psychology*. *7*, 935. doi: 10.3389/  
763 fpsyg.2016.00935

764 Vealey, R. S. (1988). Sport-confidence and competitive orientation: An addendum on scoring  
765 procedures and gender differences. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *10*, 471-  
766 478. doi:10.1123/.10.4.471

767 Vealey, R. S. (2006). Smocks and jocks outside the box: The paradigmatic evolution of sport  
768 and exercise psychology. *Quest*, *58*, 128-159. doi:10.1080/0 0336297.2006.10491876

769 Wagstaff, C. R. D. (Ed.). (2017). *The organizational psychology of sport: Key issues and*  
770 *practical applications*. Abingdon: Routledge.

771 Wagstaff, C. R. D., Fletcher, D., & Hanton, S. (2012). Positive organizational psychology in  
772 sport: An ethnography of organizational functioning in a national sport organization.  
773 *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *24*, 26-47. doi:10.1080/10413200.2011.589423

774 Watson, J. C., & Portenga, S. T. (2014). An overview of the issues affecting the future of  
775 certification in sport psychology. *Athletic Insight*, *6*(3), 261-276.

- 776 Watson II, J. C., Way, W. C., & Hilliard, R. C. (2017). Ethical issues in sport psychology.  
777 *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 16, 143-147. doi:10.1016/j.copsyc.2017.05.008
- 778 Ward, P., Farrow, D., Harris, K. R., Williams, A. M., Eccles, D. W., & Ericsson, K. A.  
779 (2008). Training perceptual-cognitive skills: Can sport psychology research inform  
780 military decision training? *Military Psychology*, 20, 71-102.  
781 doi:10.1080/08995600701804814
- 782 Weinberg, R., & McDermott, M. (2002). A comparative analysis of sport and business  
783 organizations: Factors perceived critical for organizational success. *Journal of Applied*  
784 *Sport Psychology*, 14, 282-298. doi:10.1080/10413200290103563
- 785 Winter, S., & Collins, D. J. (2016). Applied sport psychology: A profession? *The Sport*  
786 *Psychologist*, 30, 89-96. doi:10.1123/tsp.2014-0132
- 787 Woodman, T., & Hardy, L. (2001). A case study of organizational stress in elite sport.  
788 *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 13, 207-238. doi:1041-3200/0