

PART II
TOURING WITH SPORT PSYCHOLOGY

CHAPTER 4
JOURNAL ENTRY III
SPORT PSYCHOLOGY MUSEUM

There is nothing noble about being superior to some other person. The true nobility is in being superior to your previous self.

Hindu Proverb (in Lesyk, 2001, p.14)

The principal is competing against yourself. It is about self-improvement, about being better than you were the day before.

Steve Young (in Lesyk, 2001, p.14)

DB: I am aware that you visited a sport psychology museum as part of your tour with sport psychology. Could you please tell me why you found it necessary to visit a sport psychology museum?

LH: As I am working in a narrative metaphor, understanding the history of sport psychology is important in understanding the present construction of sport psychology, which will be done in the subsequent chapters of this research report. It is important therefore not only to understand my own history as a person but also that of sport psychology as an academic endeavour. I think the above-mentioned quotations at the beginning of this chapter encapsulate

something of why it is necessary to take cognisance of the history of sport psychology. If I understand my own history, the “self” of yesterday, I shall be able to improve on the “self” of today and the “self” of tomorrow. I am of the opinion that my understanding of the history of sport psychology could enhance my understanding of the present construction of sport psychology. In other words, the “now” of sport psychology can be better understood by taking the “past” of sport psychology into account and will in my opinion significantly influence the “future” construction of sport psychology. It for this reason that I decided to attend a sport psychology museum.

DB: I now understand something of why you visited a sport psychology museum. Could you please tell me more about this sport psychology museum that you visited?

LH: I would like to be your guide through the sport psychology museum that I visited.

When I started studying the history of sport psychology as portrayed in sport psychology literature, it was like entering the foyer of the museum. I found that this museum had four halls-of-fame, each for the USA, Europe, Australia and SA. I became aware that each hall-of-fame had its own distinct character.

In this museum the history of sport psychology is traced back to the 1890s. This is contrary to popular belief, which states that sport psychology only started in the 1980’s. The 1980’s can be seen as a period in which sport psychology experienced tremendous growth (McCullagh, 1995). I would like to tell you more about my experience in each of these halls-of-fame.

DB: Could we start of by talking about the United States of America’s hall-of-fame?

LH: As I walked through this hall-of-fame, I became aware that it had four walls and a trunk stood at the exit. The four walls represented different time periods

in the history of the USA's sport psychology and mainly the work of men was portrayed against these walls. The contributions that women had made to the USA's sport psychology were kept in the trunk at the exit. In a special edition of TSP in 1995, which dealt with the history of sport psychology, the contributions of males were dealt with in various articles while the contributions of females were dealt with in one separate article.

The following questions arose within me while looking at this hall-of-fame: "Why are the contributions that women have made to the USA's sport psychology dealt with separately?" and "What must happen in society that the contributions that women have made, are also portrayed on the walls of the USA's hall-of-fame and are not stacked away in a trunk near the exit of the hall-of-fame?" I believe that the answers to these questions lie somewhere in how society has constructed itself socially: males are treated as the dominant gender and females as the subservient gender.

The inequality regarding the contributions of males and females in the USA's hall-of-fame made me think of an experience in my own life that I would like to tell you about:

On 31 May 2003 I attended my two children's fete at their primary school. The only sport that was being played at the fete on that particular day was rugby. The merry-go-round was set-up on the netball fields. As we were sitting on the grass watching the rugby and enjoying refreshments, I asked my daughter, Hannelize, what she thought about the fact and how it made her feel that only rugby was being played at the fete. She responded by saying: "It's bad". Although this is a very small example, I think it portrays so much of what is happening in sport and sport psychology.

What is important to me is that we in SA must not write the same kind of history for sport psychology as depicted in the USA's hall-of-fame. We have a constitution that requires the acknowledgement of all people in general and more specifically for woman, people with disabilities and previously disadvantaged people. Hopefully we will construct a sport psychology that makes the contributions of males and females of equal importance.

The Triplett era (1885-1935)

The first wall in the USA's hall-of-fame is the Triplett era that ran from about 1885 to 1935 (Davis, Huss & Becker, 1995; Mahoney & Suinn, 1986). I would like to introduce you to the people who are portrayed on this wall.

In 1889 Norman Triplett linked sport and psychology. He directed his research for his master's degree, at Indiana University, to the area of competition and was interested in the effect of other competitors on the performance of an athlete (Anshel, 1997; Brewer & Van Raalte, 2002; Mahoney & Suinn, 1986). His research concerned cycling. He had the participants in his research project participate under three conditions: the first condition was that a cyclist would race without a pacemaker or other competitors, the second condition was that the cyclist would race with pacemakers who set the pace for the cyclist and the third condition was that the cyclist would compete against other cyclists, i.e. competitors. The results of his study showed that a cyclist performed at a much higher level in the presence of pacemakers and other competitors (Davis *et al.*, 1995; Potgieter, 1997). The work that Triplett had done could be seen as "classical research" in the area of social and sport psychology (Halberstadt & Ellyson, 1990; Iso-Ahola & Hatfield, 1986). Triplett did his PhD at Clark University on "The psychology of conjuring deceptions", which was published in the "American Journal of Psychology" in 1900. In 1901 he accepted a position at the Kansas State Normal School where he was head of the Department of Psychology until 1931 when he retired. Triplett died in 1934.

In 1895 Fitz of the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard University (HU) attempted to apply physiological and psychological processes to the field of education (Davis *et al.*, 1995; Mahoney & Suinn, 1986). He established the first physical education laboratory in North America and was head of the Department of Anatomy, Physiology and Physical Training from 1891-1899 and focused his research on action time. He tried to establish how quickly an individual would react to an object that was suddenly disclosed to him/her in an unexpected position. Based on the results, he stated that an individual with a

quicker reaction time than others would most probably do better in sports like tennis and fencing (Wiggins, 1984). The results of his research were published in the “Psychological Review” (Davis *et al.*, 1995).

At the Iowa College, Davis was also doing research in which he was trying to apply psychological principles to the world of sport. He focused his research on the area of transfer training, in which his research participants were asked to raise a 5-lb dumbbell by flexing the arm at the elbow. It was expected from the participants to do this with the left and right arms. The participants were then asked to raise only the dumbbell with their right arm for two to four weeks. The results indicated that not only did the right arm increase in size and strength but so did the left arm. This phenomenon was called cross-education, which was later coined transfer of training. The work of Anderson in this same era confirmed the work of Davis (Davis *et al.*, 1995). Davis published his results in the “Studies from the Yale Psychology Laboratory” (Kroll & Lewis, 1970).

There were also other areas of research interest during the birth of sport psychology, for example, in the areas of motor learning and personality development. Prominent researchers in the field of motor learning were Starch, Cummings and Murphy, while in the area of personality development there was the work of Schiller-Spencer. Other researchers within the field of personality development were Fitz who stated that through play one could prepare for life and Patrick who formalized a theory that certain forms of play (e.g. running, wrestling, jumping) are more popular to spectators as these allowed spectators to test higher brain functions in a world that was becoming more complex every day. Hermann saw play as a means to develop life-long habits and Kellor was of the opinion that play developed a strong body and a healthy mind. Scripture, the director of the psychological laboratory at Yale University, did the most outstanding work during the beginning of sport psychology regarding personality development. His work was methodologically sound as it was based on numerous case studies. He found that there were remarkable improvements in self-control and general behaviour in people who participated in sport (Davis *et al.*, 1995).

The informal years (1895-1935)

The second wall in the USA's hall-of-fame portrayed work from the Victorian era. It overlapped a lot with the Triplett era and roughly covers the period from 1895-1935. However, the difference was that sport psychology was now being written about in popular magazines of the day.

Despite the above-mentioned work by various people interested in sport psychology, there were not many academic journals during this period in which research findings could be published. There was the journal "Mind" founded by Brain in 1876, Wundt founded "Philosophische Studien" in 1881 and Hall founded the "American Journal of Psychology" in 1897. Ironically, despite the slow emergence of academic journals, there was a tremendous growth in cultural magazines during the Victorian era. This was due to the drop in publication costs after World War I. Examples of these cultural magazines are: "Cosmopolitan", "Forum", "Harper's Weekly", "Ladies Home Journal", "The Nation", "The North American Review" and "Popular Science Monthly". These cultural magazines published many pieces of work regarding traditional psychology and sport psychology that were written mainly by athletes, educators, journalists and physicians (King, Raymond & Simon-Thomas, 1995).

A regular topic that was covered in these cultural magazines was the profiles of elite athletes. With regards to this topic, there were two schools of thought. On the one hand, there was the school that believed that success in sport could be predicted and was guaranteed by an athlete having a certain head volume, skull topography and body type. On the other hand, there was the school of thought that was of the opinion that an athlete's success in sport was more about the athlete's desire to succeed than about predetermined physical characteristics. Other topics that were dealt with in these cultural magazines were, for example, the role of concentration in performance, the importance of physical training by the athlete, as well as the role of nutrition in training and the danger of tobacco

for the athlete (King *et al.*, 1995). In the colonial period, physical fitness was the consequence of hard labour while in the Victorian era attaining physical fitness was seen as a recreational activity. A lot of magazine coverage in the Victorian era was also given to the notion that exercise and sport benefit health (Spears & Swanson, 1978). Furthermore, the topic of age was also written about in these magazines with special focus on the role of sport in the moral and personality development of younger people participating in sport, including women. Another topic that was written about in these magazines was the participation of people of various cultures in sport (King *et al.*, 1995).

The Griffith era (1920-1940)

The third wall in the USA's hall-of-fame, with the exception of a few people, was dedicated to mostly one person. Many of the expositions in the museum were about people who had showed an interest in sport and sport psychology. However, one person who dedicated much of his career to sport and sport psychology was Coleman Griffith. He is regarded internationally as the father of sport psychology (Gould & Pick, 1995; Hays, 1995; Mahoney & Suinn, 1986).

Griffith was born on 22 May 1893 and received his PhD (Psychology) in 1920 from the University of Illinois (UI)(Gould & Pick, 1995). Griffith presented the first course in sport psychology, at the UI in the USA in 1925, which was named the "Psychology of Athletics". Furthermore, he did research at the "Research in Athletics Laboratory" at the University of Illinois. In his research endeavours he made use of experiments, observations and interviews as research methods. Some of the experiments that Griffith did were, for example, on the effect of physical exercise on learning, the effects of emotions and anxiety on learning, the effect of will-power on learning, the methods of teaching football, as well as the relationship between exercise, learning and resistance to disease. Griffith also made use of observation as a research method and the "Research in Athletics Laboratory" became a centre for various types of observation, namely: the gathering, compiling and interpretation of

records for different practice fields, observing the shifting of moods and temperament of athletes, surveying athletic aptitude and talent, as well as observing athletes for special physiological and psychological problems. Another research method that Griffith made use of was interviewing and his 1924 interview with the hall-of-fame football player Harold “Red” Grange is an example of interviewing as a research method. Griffith published over 40 articles between 1919-1931 (Gould & Pick, 1995). In 1926 he wrote the first book in sport psychology entitled “The Psychology of Coaching” and in 1928 he wrote “The Psychology of Athletics” (Murphy, 1995; Potgieter, 1997; Williams & Straub, 1998).

It was not just in the field of training and research that Griffith made a contribution to sport psychology. He strongly advocated that sport psychology should make a positive but realistic contribution to the field of sport, as can be seen in the following words (Griffith in Gould & Pick, 1995, p.403):

A great many people have the idea that the sport psychologist is a sort of magician who is ready, for a price, to sell his services to an individual or one group ... It is supported that he is merely waiting until he can jump into an athletic field, tell the old-time successful coach that he is all wrong and begin to expound his own magical and fanciful theories as to proper methods of coaching, the way to conquer overconfidence ... The sport psychologist is not proposing any revolutionary changes in the world of athletics ... all that we ask is that we be forgiven for our vague and technical language and that we be given a chance to work out slowly and carefully the principles that are used in competition that is not of muscle only but of alert minds as well.

Furthermore, he always emphasised the interplay between research and practice in sport psychology as well as the interdependent relationship between traditional and sport psychology. His work did not only focus on performance enhancement but he had a very strong view that sport contributed to the personal development of people, as he states (Griffith in Gould & Pick, 1995, p.403):

Mere exercise of the body ... [does] not meet the call that is upon us for the development of human personalities. To speak of “physical training” makes us guilty

of a serious understatement of the facts ... Physical training, organized play and vigorous competition concern a person and they lead to growth in certain of the most desirable qualities of that person.

Others who were also making contributions to sport and sport psychology during the same time as Griffith were Berry from HU who in 1927 wrote the book “The Philosophy of Athletics, Coaching, Character, with the Psychology of Athletic Coaching”, Ragsdale from the University of Wisconsin who in 1930 wrote “The Psychology of Motor Learning”, Miles from Stanford University who in 1928 published the article “Studies in Physical Exertion I: A Multiple Chronograph for Measuring Groups of Men” in the journal “American Physical Education Review” and in 1931 published the article “Studies in Physical Exertion II: Individual and Group Reaction Time in Football Charging” in the journal “Research Quarterly”, as well as the article “Studies in Physical Exertion III: Effect of Signal Variation in Football Charging”, which he co-authored with Graves and was published in the journal “Research Quarterly”. At the University of Iowa, McCloy did research on personality in sport, which was published in the article “Character Building through Physical Education” in the journal “Research Quarterly” in 1930 (Gould & Pick, 1995).

The formal years (1950-1980)

The fourth wall in the USA’s hall-of-fame of the museum depicts the growth period of sport psychology in the USA, which began in the 1950s and carried on until the 1980s. On this wall are portrayed the expansion of sport psychology literature, the emergence of sport psychology programmes, the establishment of sport psychology organisations, as well as the creation of sport psychology journals. Furthermore, attention is also paid to the expansion of sport psychology services and research methodologies used in the field of sport psychology (Landers, 1995).

In the first section of this wall I found some of the literature that was published during this time. In 1951 Lawther wrote “Psychology of Coaching” (Landers, 1995; Murphy, 1995; Williams & Straub, 1998), Johnson wrote “Science and

Medicine of Exercise and Sport” in 1960, Cratty wrote “Motor Behaviour and Motor Learning” in 1964, Ogilvie and Tutko wrote “Problem Athletes and How to Handle Them” in 1966, while in 1967 Beisser wrote “The Madness in Sport”. As I moved along this wall I came across some literature that was written in the 1970s. Vanek and Cratty wrote “Psychology of the Superior Athlete” in 1970, Martens wrote “Social Psychology and Physical Activity” in 1975, Nideffer wrote “The Inner Athlete” in 1976 and Carron wrote “Social Psychology of Sport” in 1980 (Landers, 1995).

From the birth of sport psychology in the 1920s, sport psychology has been associated historically with departments of physical education, kinesiology and leisure studies. Even in the 1950s training and research in sport psychology was still done predominantly from within physical education departments (also known as departments of kinesiology, movement sciences, human performance and sport sciences), which focused mainly on mental skills and motor learning (Hays, 1995; Williams & Straub, 1998). In 1990 this still seemed to be the case as there were 102 training institutions in the USA offering sport psychology and only 10 of those institutions offered sport psychology in their psychology departments (LeUnes & Hayward, 1990). In these sport science departments, cognitive-behaviour thinking and practice has been the dominant psychological paradigm employed in the field of sport psychology with a very strong emphasis on life skills, presented in a didactic manner (Hays, 1995).

In the 1960s clinical/counselling psychology entered the field of sport psychology and focused on personology and the management of the elite athlete (Hays, 1995). The introduction of sports television and sponsorships opened the door for clinical/counselling psychology to enter the field of sport, as television and sponsorships put athletes, coaches and administrators in sport organisations under enormous pressure to perform and sport psychologists were called in to help deal with the psychological problems that arose from these pressures (Murphy, 1995). During the last two decades sport psychology’s affiliation with the profession of psychology has strengthened (Petrie & Diehl, 1995). Although clinical/counselling psychology entered the world of sport in the 1960s and the

affiliation between clinical/counselling psychology and sport psychology has strengthened, very few psychology departments offer sport psychology training (Potgieter, 1997).

In the 1960s sport psychology organisations started developing within the growing field of sport psychology (Hays, 1995). In 1965 sport psychology was formalised with the establishment of the ISSP in Rome (Landers, 1995; Mahoney & Suinn, 1986; Potgieter, 1997). In 1967 the NASPSPA was established in the USA (Landers, 1995; Mahoney & Suinn, 1986; Murphy, 1995) and in Canada the Canadian Society for Psychomotor Learning and Sport Psychology was formed in 1969 (Landers, 1995). The AAASP was established in 1985 (Hays, 1995; Potgieter, 1997) and in 1986 the APA formed the Division of Exercise and Sport Psychology (Division 47)(Hays, 1995).

During this time various academic journals were also launched. Prior to 1969 sport psychology research was published in the “Research Quarterly”, which is now called the “Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport”. In 1969 the “Journal of Motor Behaviour” and “Medicine and Science in Sport and Exercise” were established. The IJSP was founded in 1970 and the “Journal of Sport Psychology” in 1979 but was re-named the JSEP in 1988 (Brewer & Van Raalte, 2002; Landers, 1995). TSP and the JASP were respectively established in 1987 and 1989 (Brewer & Van Raalte, 2002; Murphy, 1995; Potgieter, 1997).

Towards the end of this wall I discovered that it was during this time that there was also an expansion of research methodologies in sport psychology, as well as in sport psychology services. In the field of research more and more sport psychology researchers were not only using laboratory research as a way to do sport psychology research but they were also using field research more and more. The article “About Smocks and Jocks” that was written by Martens (1979) was fundamental in making sport psychology researchers aware of the fact that sport psychology research should not be limited to laboratories but should also be done out on the field where sportspeople practice sport. There

was also an expansion of the delivery of sport psychology services to athletes, coaches and administrators. For example, Ogilvie and Tutko made use of the Athletic Motivation Inventory (Landers, 1995), Suinn introduced the Visuo-Motor Behaviour Rehearsal technique to the world of sport, which is a combination of relaxation and imagery and was found to be effective in enhancing athlete performance (Landers, 1995; Noel, 1980), while Nideffer made use of the Test of Attentional and Interpersonal Styles (Nideffer, 1976). In 1976 sport psychology services were receiving a lot of attention and were part and parcel of the Montreal Olympic Games. Today these services are delivered to athletes, coaches and administrators on a part-time or full-time basis (Landers, 1995).

The contribution of women

As I came to the exit of this hall, I became aware of a trunk standing at the exit. In this trunk the contribution of women to the history of sport psychology was stored. I picked up a piece of paper that was lying in this trunk, which had two questions on it. The first question was: “Do women have a place in the history of sport psychology?” My immediate reaction was “Yes”. The second question was a bit more difficult to elicit an immediate response from me: “Do women have an equal place in relation to men in the history of sport psychology?” I was not so sure and I realized that I could not mention one female who has made a contribution to the history of sport psychology. I came to the conclusion that women and women’s issues are seldom addressed in journals and books and not in the same way as that of men (Gill, 1995). It seems that women’s contributions were less acknowledged because of a male dominated society.

Gill (1995) refers to various women who contributed to sport psychology in the 1950s to 1970s. In the 1950s Skubic made a great contribution to the field of sport psychology. She worked predominantly in the field of Little League Baseball and Middle League Baseball and her work was published in the form of articles in the “Research Quarterly” journal in 1949, 1955 and 1956. In the 1960s there were Metheny, Clifton and Smith, as well as and Ulrich. Metheny

published the chapter “Symbolic Forms of Movement: The Feminine Image in Sports” in the book “Connotations of Movement in Sport and Dance”, which was written in 1965. The work of Metheny was very focused on gender issues in sport. In 1963 Clifton and Smith worked on self-concept in sport and published their work in the “Perceptual and Motor Skills” journal, while in 1968 Ulrich published the “Social Matrix of Physical Education”, which introduced a very strong social perspective to the area of sport psychology. As I looked at the material that was in this trunk, I came to realize that a woman who made a major contribution to the field of sport psychology was Dorothy Harris. She received her PhD from the University of Iowa and in 1972 she organized a research conference on “Woman in Sport”. In the same year she published the book “Involvement in Sport: A Somatopsychic Rationale for Physical Activity” and in 1973 she was the co-author of the book “The Athlete’s Guide to Sports Psychology: Mental Skills for Physical People”. Harris was also the first female president of NASPSPA (1974-1975). Other women who made a contribution to sport psychology during the 1970’s were Malumphy who studied the personality of women athletes and whose work was published in “Quest” in 1970, Layman who published a chapter “Reaction: Aggression in Relation to Play and Sports” in the book “Contemporary Psychology of Sport” in 1970, Griffin who worked on stereotypes and whose work was published in “Quest” in 1973, as well as Gerber, Felshin, Berlin and Wyrick, who published “The American Woman in Sport” in 1974 (Gill, 1995).

It is not only within the areas of research and training that women made a contribution to sport psychology but also within sport psychology organisations. In 1969 Geron was a member of the Executive Committee of the ISSP. In 1993 Geron received the ISSP’s Distinguished International Sport Psychologist Award (Kenyon & Grogg, 1970). It is noteworthy to mention that the ISSP has never had a female president since 1965 and that Division 47 (Exercise and Sport Psychology) of the APA has had only male presidents since its formation in 1986. The AAASP, established in 1985, elected Williams, a female president for the term 1993 to 1994. Another female president, Scanlan, followed her for the term 1994 to 1995. NASPSPA has had numerous female

presidents: Harris (1974-1975), Spirduso (1976-1977), William (1978-1979), Scanlan (1981-1982), Roberts (1986-1987), Gill (1989-1990) and Clark (1992-1993). In 1993 NASPSA had a 46% female membership and in 1995 AAASP had a 41% female membership (Gill, 1995).

Women have also played a significant role in the major sport psychology journals. Gill was editor for the JSEP from 1986 to 1990. In 1992 Vealey became the editor of TSP and Duda of the JASP (Gill, 1995). It must be noted, however that all three these journals have more men than women on their editorial boards (Duda, 1991; Gill 1992).

It is noteworthy that in this hall-of-fame the contribution of people of colour was absent. This made me think of South Africa's own history and how people of colour were and are still, marginalized. For many years people of colour were not allowed to participate with or against white people in the world of sport and even today South Africa's developmental teams are mainly for people of colour (chapter 3).

DB: You have told me about the history of sport psychology in the United States of America. At the beginning of our conversation you also mentioned that you would like to tell me about the history of sport psychology in Europe. What did you learn from your visit to the sport psychology museum regarding the history of sport psychology Europe?

LH: The one country in Europe that had an impact on me was Germany. I think this is because politics has always had such a direct influence on sport in that country in the same way that politics and sport have gone hand in hand in SA. The situation in Germany can be divided in pre-1945 and post-1945. The pre-1945 saw a united Germany while the post-1945 saw a divided and later united Germany: East Germany and West Germany from 1945-1990 and united as Germany in 1990 (Nitsch, 1992).

In 1920 the German Higher School for Physical Exercise was established in Berlin. This institution was orientated exclusively towards the implementation and development of sport science. The founders of sport psychology in Germany were Schulte and Sippel who did a lot of research in sport psychology from within the field of experimental psychology that led to numerous publications in the field of sport psychology. Until 1933 research in the field of sport in Germany was done in an interdisciplinary way with contributions from the medical, biomechanical, pedagogic, psychological and sociological fields. In 1936 the National Socialist party came into power, which led to the transformation of the German Higher School for Physical Exercise to the Reich Academy for Physical Exercise in Berlin. This was done due to growing indoctrination of National Socialism as well as anti-intellectualism and which saw sport science and sport psychology lose its significance and replaced by a focus on sport practice. The influence of politics on sport was very evident with the rise of National Socialism in Germany. From 1920 to 1939 Germany was a united country that changed dramatically as a result of World War II, which lasted six years (1939-1945). Hereafter, Germany was divided into East Germany and West Germany until 1990 (Nitsch, 1992).

In 1947 the German College for Sport was established in Cologne in the Federal Republic of Germany, as a replacement for the German Higher School for Physical Exercise that was disbanded in Berlin in 1936. In 1965 the first professorship in sport psychology was founded at this college. People such as Heidemann, Fröhlich, Ulrich and Nitsch have held this position. In 1950 the German College for Body Culture was established in Leipzig in the German Democratic Republic. In 1965 Kunath was awarded the first professorship for sport psychology at this college. It was only during the 1960s that sport psychology started gaining momentum again as can be seen in the fact that 1000 students enrolled in 1966 at the German College for Sport in Cologne in the Federal Republic of Germany and this number grew to 6000 students in 1989. There was also a growth in membership of the German Sport Federation in the Federal Republic of Germany, from three million members in 1950 to 21 million members in 1989, which placed a greater demand on the need for sport

science and sport psychology. In 1970 the Federal Institute for Sport Science was established in Cologne in the Federal Republic of Germany with the 1972 Olympic Games in Munich in mind and in the same year the Committee for German Physical Educators was established in Münster, also in the Federal Republic of Germany. Other milestones that were accomplished between 1945-1990 was the establishment of a working group for sport psychology in the Federal Republic of Germany under the leadership of Feige who was succeeded by Rieder, Nitsch and Hackfort. In 1978 a book series “Concern: Psychology and Sport” saw the light, in 1986 practice-based advanced training in sport psychology started and in 1987 the journal “Sportpsychologie” came into being (Nitsch, 1992).

In 1990 East Germany and West Germany united as Germany. This was not just a political unification but also a sport unification and subsequently a unification of sport disciplines such as sport science and sport psychology (Nitsch, 1992).

The history of sport psychology is not only interesting regarding Germany but also with regards to the larger Eastern Europe. Prior to 1990 with the fall of the Berlin wall and the collapse of communism, the countries in Eastern Europe focused a lot on performance enhancement of elite athletes because sport excellence was seen as a propaganda tool for the countries of Eastern Europe and all the work that was done in the area of performance enhancement was made possible by large government funding (Williams & Straub, 1998).

The first person that showed interest in sport psychology in Eastern Europe was Lesgaft who, in 1901, described the possible psychological benefits of physical activity. In 1920 an Institute for Physical Culture was established in Moscow and Leningrad respectively and sport psychology can be traced back to them (Vanek & Cratty, 1970). In the 1970s the Institute of Sports was established in Leipzig to prepare Eastern Europe athletes for the 1976 Olympic Games. The institute of sports was a 14-acre sport laboratory that employed 900 people, over half of whom were scientists. They applied techniques that were used by Eastern Europe cosmonauts on Eastern Europe athletes such as self-regulation

training and psychic self-regulation (Garfield & Bennett, 1984). Another aspect that struck me about sport psychology in Eastern Europe was the narrow focus of sport psychology research. The reason was that the governments of the different countries set out five-year plans regarding sport psychology research areas and sport psychology research had to align itself with these plans in order to receive funding. The research predominantly focused on performance enhancement (Salmela, 1984).

DB: You have mentioned that Germany made an impact on you. Why would this be?

LH: The Germany hall-of-fame made me acutely aware of the sometimes narrow relationship between politics and sport, how the political situation in a country can influence the world of sport and how the world of sport very often reflects the political situation in a country. In our previous conversation I described the relationship between apartheid politics and sport in SA that politics dictated to sport and that sport reflected the political situation in SA. There was a time when SA was divided politically and so was sport. This division was based on racial grounds. Later political parties got together and so did sporting bodies in SA. At present we have a democratic SA with numerous political parties and unification in sport is in progress (chapter 3). While walking through the Europe hall-of-fame it was especially the history of sport and sport psychology in Germany and the broader Eastern Europe that struck me. In this country and region, politics influenced sport in very significant ways and sport reflected very clearly the politics of the day. Sport was used for political propaganda on a large scale and many sport psychologists were part of using sport psychology for the political propaganda.

I am of the opinion that sport psychologists can play a very important role in rebuilding SA through the medium of sport. I think that if we allow ourselves to see sport psychology not only as useful for performance enhancement but also as a medium to address the personal development of people, then sport psychology can play an important role in rebuilding SA. We have already

experienced what sport can do for SA when we contemplate the 1995 rugby World Cup that was won by SA. After being divided for so many years that moment was not just about winning the World Cup, it was symbolic of unification when Nelson Mandela in his number six Springbok jersey handed over the trophy to the captain of the Springbok team, Francois Pienaar. In 2003, eight years later, the Springboks were once again in the lime-light before leaving for the rugby World Cup in Australia. This time the focus was not on nation building but on the division that is still present in sport due to racism. The problem reflected in the controversy between Geo Cronjé and Quiten Davids. I think we all realize that sport can unite or divide and it can build or destroy. If sport psychologists want to make a meaningful difference in SA, sport is a medium that can be used to help rebuild SA.

DB: We have spoken about the United States of America and Europe. What did you learn about Australia during your visit to the sport psychology museum?

LH: I realized while walking through the Australian hall-of-fame of the museum that sport psychology is a fairly young discipline in Australia and has a very brief history. During the 1980's the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) and the South Australian Sport of Institute (SASI) were established; AIS in 1982 and SASI in 1983 (Morris, 1995). There were very few psychology departments at universities that had staff or courses in sport psychology, as sport psychologists and sport psychology were mainly situated within physical education departments, for example at the University of Queensland (UQ) and the University of Western Australia (UWA)(Abernethy, Bond, Glencross, Grove & Salmela, 1992). The curriculum in sport psychology at tertiary institutions was limited to courses at an undergraduate level or postgraduate diploma level. At various tertiary institutions, for example the UQ and the UWA, postgraduate programmes that focused on research into sport psychology were being run (Morris, 1995). However, there were no graduate programmes in applied sport psychology. Furthermore, during this time there was strong opinion that sport psychologists in Australia should be trained in physical education and

psychology (Bond, 1981). Qwen and Lee (1987) indicated that sport psychology has a very strong behavioural psychology foundation, while Glencross and Salmela (1981) state that sport psychology focuses mainly on skills acquisition.

In the 1990s there were three sport psychology interest groups functioning in Australia. They were the Australian Applied Sport Psychology Association (AASPA), the Sport Psychology Association of Australia and New Zealand (SPAANZ) and Australian Society Sport Psychology Interest Network (AUSPIN). Two of these interest groups created links with the APS and AUSPIN became the formal sport psychology interest group of the APS. In 1990 AUSPIN presented a symposium at the Annual Conference of the APS, which was also attended by members of AASPA and SPAANZ. At this symposium all three sport psychology interest groups formed one steering committee that in May 1991, applied to the Committee of the Division of Professional Affairs of the APS for professional board status. The inaugural meeting of the Board of Sport Psychologists was held in November 1991 at the First Asian South Pacific Association of Sport Psychology Congress in Melbourne. At this meeting a National Executive Committee was elected, which was re-elected in 1992 at the Annual General Meeting of the APS in Armidale and once again re-elected in 1993 at the Annual General Meeting of the APS on the Gold Coast. The Board of Sport Psychologists has the tasks of setting training standards, monitoring careers in sport psychology, establishing and maintaining professional standards, as well as promoting research in the field of sport psychology (Anshel, 1994; Morris, 1995). It is important to note that after the establishment of the Board of Sport Psychologists within the APS, Curtin University of Technology and Monash University in 1992, as well as the USQ and Victoria University in 1994 started running sport psychology masters programmes with research and applied focuses (Morris, 1995).

When I reflect on what I saw in the Australian hall-of-fame, I realize that it is important to situate sport psychology within national bodies, for example, the HPCSA. This implies that it does not matter if a psychology department at a university has a separate course in sport psychology on a postgraduate level, or

if sport psychology forms part of existing accredited clinical/counselling programmes with the HPCSA but it is necessary that an organization such as the HPCSA and the Psychological Society of South Africa are aware and support such training.

DB: Was there any information on the history of sport psychology South Africa in the sport psychology museum?

LH: The SA hall-of-fame was very empty and presented only the contribution of Dr. Danie Craven from SA as he had presented the first course in sport psychology at SUN in the 1960s (Potgieter, 1997). There was also a note on the hall-of-fame regarding the PhD (Sport Psychology) at SUN (SUN, 2002a, 2002b).

DB: How would you describe your experience of the sport psychology museum, which you visited?

LH: An aspect that struck me while leaving the museum was how big the USA's hall-of-fame was in comparison to the halls-of-fame of Europe, Australia and SA. My experience of this sport psychology museum can be described as one of astonishment. I wonder if this is due to fact that the USA has made the biggest contribution to sport psychology or does it have more to do with how the history of sport psychology is predominantly reported? I am not sure about this. When thinking back on my walk through this museum and how big the USA hall-of-fame is, I become aware of the USA's dominance in the world, politically, economically, militarily and even, it seems in the field of sport psychology. I am not sure if this is so good. Allow me to explain.

As a person growing up and living in SA, I was part of the apartheid SA for the first 30 years of my life. During this time the white minority group had the dominant voice regarding all spheres of life in SA. It has only been since 1994 that we began to embark on the democratic road in SA that we have started to allow all people in SA to have a voice. From time to time I am asked to lecture on the MTh-degree in Narrative Pastoral Counselling at the UP where I have the privilege to work with black ministers from various religious

denominations. It is during these times that I become aware of how much I have lost during the first 30 years of my life because I was never allowed to relate to black people and to get to know their history, culture and language(s). These ministers tell amazing stories of integrity, dedication, commitment, endurance and humiliation. I then realize how I was brought up to believe that as a white minority we were rich in the way we were being human and that any contact with a person of colour, other than the domestic workers in our homes, could only be detrimental to our so-called privileged way of being human. Today I realize how poor we actually were in our humanness. I do not think that it can ever be good when one person or group within a nation, or even one nation has such a dominant voice that other people and other groups within a nation or other nations are not heard. I do believe that richness lies in diversity and not in domination. Hopefully we can allow for a diverse contribution to sport psychology in SA.

Furthermore, allow me to comment on the phenomenon that sport psychology has been housed pre-dominantly in sport science departments over the years. I am of the opinion that when this is the case, the sport science discourse will always be the dominant discourse and the sport psychology discourse the alternative or subservient discourse. The core business of sport science departments is sport science and not psychology and/or sport psychology. Furthermore, the scope of sport psychology within sport science departments has been limited to cognitive-behaviour thinking and practice, with a very specific focus on the didactic education of life skills. I am of the opinion that when sport psychology is lectured from within sport science departments, the students who do take sport psychology are firstly students in sport science and secondly students in sport psychology.

If we want students to become sport psychologists (or should I say “sport PSYCHOLOGISTS” and not “SPORT psychologists”), I believe that they have to be trained in psychology departments. Firstly, because the core business of psychology departments is to train psychologists in the research and practice of psychology. Secondly, I hold the view that when psychology has its home in,

for example, an education department, an economic and management department or a sport science department, psychology is always the subservient discourse to, for example, the education discourse, the economic discourse or the sport science discourse. I also believe that psychology can make a difference in the world of sport in SA and that we have to start training sport psychologists in psychology programmes accredited by the HPCSA so that they can work in the world of sport as sport psychologists and not as sport scientists, as the latter do limited sport psychology training as part of sport science training.

DB: We have now had a conversation on your visit to the sport psychology museum. What will our next conversation going to about?

LH: In the next conversation we will discuss my visit to a sport psychology library, to learn more about the field of sport psychology as part of my tour with sport psychology.

CHAPTER 5
JOURNAL ENTRY IV
SPORT PSYCHOLOGY LIBRARY

All men dream but not equally. Those who dream by night in the dusty recesses of their minds wake in the day to find that it was vanity but the dreamers of the day are dangerous men, for they may act their dreams with open eyes to make it possible.

T.E. Lawrence (in Lesyk, 2001, p.61)

DB: In our previous conversation you mentioned that we were going to discuss your visit to a sport psychology library. Would you like to tell me more about how people gain entry to the sport psychology library?

LH: On arriving at the sport psychology library I went to the help desk. I asked the librarian: “Who is allowed to enter the sport psychology library?” and “What are the entry requirements for the sport psychology library?” She explained to me that the sport psychology library is open to all people and that it is a bit different to the clinical/counselling psychology libraries as the latter had very strict criteria for those who want access. Furthermore, she told me that there were some clinical/counselling psychology libraries that have a sport psychology section but that these libraries also have very strict entry requirements. She was unsure what these entry requirements were (Taylor, 1994).

DB: While walking through the sport psychology library, what did you learn about the aim(s) of sport psychology programmes?

LH: While I was paging through the sport psychology literature in the sport psychology library, it seemed to me that there were two cultural discourses that emerged regarding the aim(s) of sport psychology programmes. The one cultural discourse was a performance enhancement discourse, while the other cultural discourse was one on personal development. For example, the Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology (AAASP) (n.d.a) saw the aim(s) of sport psychology as:

The study of the psychological and mental factors that influence and are influenced by participation and performance in sport, exercise and physical activity and the application of the knowledge gained through this study to everyday settings. Sport psychology professionals are interested in how participation in sport, exercise and physical activity may enhance personal development and well-being throughout the life span.

As I proceeded to gather information from the sport psychology library I found that Division 47 (Exercise and Sport Psychology) of the APA (APA, 2002a) supported the aim(s) of AAASP and saw the aim(s) of sport psychology as:

The scientific study of the psychological factors that are associated with participation and performance in sport, exercise and other types of physical activity. Sport psychologists are interested in two main areas: (a) helping athletes use psychological principles to achieve optimal mental health and to improve performance (performance enhancement) and (b) understanding how participation in sport, exercise and physical activity affects and individual's psychological development, health and well-being throughout the life span.

The more time I spent on the aim(s) of sport psychology, the more I became aware of the emergence of the performance enhancement and personal development discourses (Fricker & Brockett, 2002). Potgieter (1997) says that sport psychology is not just about performance enhancement (e.g. goal setting, imagery and arousal control) but also includes working with the psychological dynamics of athletes suffering from injury, burnout and facing retirement from sport, while Hays (1995, p.33) states that "sport psychology addresses the ways in which the mind affects the body (in sport or exercise) and the ways in which physical activity affects the mind".

In my interaction with sport psychology literature I became aware that the aim(s) of sport psychology programmes seem to focus on performance enhancement and personal development. I think that traditionally many people see the dominant cultural discourse regarding the aim(s) of sport psychology programmes as the performance enhancement discourse and the personal development discourse as the alternative cultural discourse. As a South African,

I am of the opinion that a sport psychology programme should train students for performance enhancement as well as personal development in a sport context. In this way students can be trained to be sport psychologists who are able to assist athletes in enhancing their performance, as well as to use sport to develop peoples lives.

As I was walking along the rows of books in the sport psychology library I also came across sport psychology literature, which stated that the aim(s) of a sport psychology programmes should be to train students within the researcher-practitioner model. This seems to be the dominant cultural discourse regarding a model for sport psychology training. For example, Tenenbaum, Papaianou and Samulski (2002) are of the opinion that a training programme in sport psychology should take place within the researcher-practitioner model and should consist of a well-defined curriculum (theory and practice), a research project, as well as supervision. This view is shared by Anderson, Van Raalte and Brewer (2001) who state that for sport psychologists to practice sport psychology competently, they need to undergo specialized training in sport psychology theory and should also receive supervised practical training. Potgieter (1997) is of the opinion that sport psychology consists of two components. On the one hand there is the academic component, which aims at enhancing theoretical knowledge within the field of sport psychology and on the other hand there is a practical component through which services are rendered to athletes and coaches. Both these components should be reflected in a sport psychology programme.

I also came across very interesting sport psychology literature regarding the quality of sport psychology programmes. According to Gardner (2001) the sport psychologist who wants to work in the sport environment should remember that when a medical doctor performs poorly in a sport context, the sport organisation usually replaces the medical doctor but the sport organisation always retains its relationship with the world of medicine. However, when a sport psychologist performs poorly, the sport organisations tends to get rid of the sport psychologist as well as the psychology profession within that

organisation, even if only temporarily. It is important, therefore that the training of sport psychologists through sport psychology programmes should be of a very high standard so that sport psychologists can make a valuable contribution to a sport organisation.

The role of ethics in psychology in general and specifically in sport psychology is becoming more and more important and in my opinion should be a fundamental aspect of sport psychology programmes. Gardner (2001, p.34) states, “as an ever-increasing number of sport psychologists enter the professional sport domain, many questions may arise concerning the differing ways to effectively and ethically work with elite athletes”. Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) state that ethical standards should be applicable to research and practice and have as an aim the protection of those athletes who receive psychological services and/or participate in research. Furthermore, it is important that sport psychologists be aware of national and international guidelines regarding ethics (American Psychological Association [APA], 2003; Australian Psychological Society [APS], 2004; British Psychological Society [BPS], 2003; Psychological Society of South Africa [PsySSA], 2004).

After studying the aim(s) of sport psychology programmes, I reflected on what I had learnt from the sport psychology literature regarding the aim(s) of sport psychology programmes. In my opinion it seems that the following could be seen as viable aim(s) for a sport psychology programme: Sport psychology programmes should train students within the researcher-practitioner model under supervision to become ethical sport psychologists who are able to do personal development and performance enhancement work of a high standard within a sport organisation.

I propose the following specific aim(s) regarding sport psychology programmes:

- A training model for sport psychology based on the researcher-practitioner model.

- ❑ A training model preparing students in sport psychology for performance enhancement and personal development work of a high quality within an ethical professional framework.
- ❑ A training model with compulsory supervision that forms the backbone of all training, be it as a researcher and/or practitioner.

DB: While you were walking through the sport psychology library, were you able to find any information on research within sport psychology programmes?

LH: There was a lot of information regarding sport psychology research and it seems as if quantitative and qualitative research have a place in sport psychology programmes (Tenenbaum *et al.*, 2002). The writing of a research proposal, the conducting of a research project, as well as the writing of a research report seems to be an important part of a training programme in sport psychology. For example, this was the case with students at the University of Washington (UW) who, after their clinical psychology training specialised in sport psychology and besides their theoretical and practical training, had to do research in the field of sport psychology (Leffingwell *et al.*, 2001).

While paging through the sport psychology literature on research I came across the work of Singer and Burke (2002), as well as Biddle, Markland, Gilbourne, Chatzisarantis and Sparkes (2001) who inform that research within the field of sport psychology has traditionally been done from a quantitative research approach, more specifically within the framework of cognitive psychology and that it has been laboratory-centered and experimental in nature. They indicate that one of the main reasons is to establish sport psychology as an acceptable and credible science in university settings. Furthermore, they also indicate that it seems as that major sport psychology journals, such as the JASP, TSP, IJSP and JSEP, tend to publish research that has been done from a quantitative approach, although these journals recently seem more open to research done from a qualitative approach. Schutz and Gessaroli (1993) indicate that there have been calls for greater methodological diversity within the world of sport psychology, Streat and Roberts (1992) have called for the greater use of

qualitative methods, while Sparkers (1998) and Streaan (1998) indicate that more attention should be placed on raising awareness regarding the diversity of qualitative research methods. Martens (1987) also pleads that the world of sport psychology should move from an orthodox way of viewing knowledge, where objectivity is the name of the game, to a more heuristic approach to knowledge, where the focus is more on experience. Despite all these calls for change, change in the world of sport psychology, in my opinion, seems to be slow. Morris (in Biddle *et al.*, 2001) analysed the publication trends in the JSEP between 1979 and 1998 and found, for example that only 1,3% of papers published in the JSEP were qualitative in nature, while 15,5% of the papers published in this journal had a strong psychometric content. Biddle (1997) did a similar study and also analysed the publication trends in the JSEP and the IJSP between 1985 and 1994 and found that only 6% of the articles in these two journals were qualitative in nature. Culver, Gilbert, Trudel (2003) researched the distribution of quantitative and qualitative articles published in the JASP, the JSEP and TSP between 1990 and 1999. They found that of the 485 articles published in these journals during this time, 401 (83%) were quantitative and 84 (17%) were qualitative in nature.

It seems therefore that in sport psychology research quantitative discourse is the dominant discourse, while qualitative discourse is the alternative discourse. Why is this the case? Duquin (1994, p.290) says that we live in a “society where power relations are reproduced by maintaining the legitimacy of scientific knowledge (to the exclusion of other forms of knowledge) and by vesting material power and institutional authority in small groups of primarily white males who claim expertise”. After becoming aware of what seemed to be the dominant and alternative cultural discourses regarding sport psychology research, I became more interested in how sport psychology perceives the difference between these two cultural discourses. “What is quantitative research about in sport psychology?” and “What is qualitative research about in sport psychology?”

Gill (2001) and Whaley (2001) mentioned that the preferred paradigm for quantitative research in sport psychology is based on logical positivism, which means that the researcher strives for complete objectivity when doing research, has a reductionist stance towards phenomenon, believes that human behaviour can be quantified and searches for one truth that lies outside of the researcher. Hall (1996) says that quantitative research in sport psychology is categorical in nature, which emphasizes difference between people and very easily gives biological or socialization explanations for these differences. Too little is made of how identities are historically and culturally constructed, which is the appeal of feminist theory. Oglesby (2001, p.377) states that quantitative research in sport psychology is based on a mechanistic worldview and describes this worldview as:

The core metaphor manifesting this worldview is that of a clock. The universe, the world, is seen as a “thing” composed of “parts”. The laws that underlie the workings of the mechanisms can be best discerned by the inductive, linear, traditional experimental method. Parts of the mechanism under study are isolated and subjected to differing conditions. Function is demonstrated by results of the testing. The adequacy rests on important foundational assumptions of the process. Among them are the following: the analytic independence of the parts (components) of a phenomenon under study, an analogous independence of the observer/scientist from the phenomenon under study, the need for the observer to control all elements under examination as well as the conditions to be applied, value-free stance vis-à-vis the experiment.

As already mentioned, Singer and Burke (2002) also indicate that qualitative research approaches are slowly but surely, penetrating the world of sport psychology. The research that is done from this position is not guided by cognitive psychology but by social psychology, it is not done in a laboratory but in the field, it is not experimental in nature but tries to understand behaviour within everyday sport settings and has as its aim the development of practical knowledge, which will serve primarily the athlete. In this regard Hall (1996, p.78) states that “what goes on in academe, at least as far as feminism is concerned, should be directed to producing the kind of knowledge wanted and needed by those outside academe who are working for social change”. Oglesby

(2001, p.377) is of the opinion that quantitative research is informed by an organicist worldview, which is described as follows:

The key metaphor is that of a plant. The universe, the world, is seen as a phenomenon unfolding in a process of dynamic change. There is an organic unity and interdependence of elements. Principles, or laws of a differing science, have emerged to explain and account for behaviour within this organicist worldview (of which the three main concepts are) identified as multiculturalist, contextualist and constructivist. (The organicist worldview) discounts the notion of an objective, separate and value-free observer/ scientist ... eschew concepts of control, domination and manipulation ... give equal import to the role of analysis and synthesis in the process of inquiry and affirm the importance of wide-ranging collaboration and cooperation in the scientific enterprise ... the absolute separation of observer/observee is called into doubt, (and) human beings are seen as always and continuously engaged in constructing personal; reality.

I realized while walking through the sport psychology library that there are those who have criticized the dominant research position in sport psychology. It was Martens (1979) who raised the most prominent critique regarding the dominant epistemology and methodology used in sport psychology research. He was of the opinion that the dominant epistemology in sport psychology was logical positivism, which was operationalized in behaviourism, which allowed laboratory experiments to be the dominant research method in sport psychology. He stated that the scientific research canons of logical positivism and laboratory experiments in psychology in general and specifically in sport psychology, was being doubted by a growing number of behaviour scientists. He was of the opinion that just like other research epistemologies and methodologies, logical positivism and laboratory experiments had their inadequacies. Firstly, laboratory studies could be seen as isolated psychological studies in which a few variables were manipulated to determine the effects of X on Y. If X was manipulated in such a way that it brought about significant change in Y, then X caused Y to change. This could be seen in a directional model of causality, which did not always account for the complexities of real life situations. Secondly, the populations that were sampled to participate in laboratory experiments were often unrepresentative of those in real life

situations to whom behaviour scientists wished to apply the findings of the laboratory experiments. Thirdly, the assumptions that behaviour scientists made that laboratory experiments and real life situations were equivalent, needed serious challenge. This assumption of equivalence was too easily accepted by behaviour scientists.

Furthermore, he said that it was time that a new scientific paradigm be developed in sport psychology but he was not sure what the new scientific paradigm should look like. In the first place, behaviour scientists working in the field of sport psychology should spend much more time observing, describing and theorizing about sport. Too much time and energy has been spent on testing psychological theory with the aim of establishing scientific respectability of the psychological theory. The testing of psychological theories had become the dominant goal and not the building of psychological theory from observing and describing sport. I think that the approach has been too one directional: from theory to practice; and not interactional enough: from theory to practice and back from practice to theory. In the second place, research based on the new scientific paradigm should not focus only on research through laboratory experiments but should also allow researchers to walk out onto the field and into the gymnasium with sportspeople. The use of field studies should receive just as much attention, if not more, than laboratory experiments. He states that sport psychologists should trade their “smocks” for “jocks”. In the third place, the research done in the field of sport psychology has to be relevant to sport. He asks the question: “Have you not wondered why sport psychology, as we know it, has had little to no influence on the world of sport?” (p.95). He then answers this question by stating that it is “because our insights have not been challenging, the issues that have been studied have not been critical and our data are not convincing to the vital issues in sport” (p.95). He states that what is keeping research in the field of sport psychology irrelevant is that problems are being manufactured and not formulated. Also, methodological tools are being selected because they have the scientific stamp of approval and not because they have been logically and theoretically derived from a problem and because quantification has to be achieved at all cost. In the fourth place, the new

scientific paradigm has to allow behaviour scientists to view people as human beings who are not only always reacting to their environment but who are constantly interacting with their environment and who can even change their environment. He states “sport psychology will surely be a healthier field when we recognize that the internal psychological processes that occur when people engage in sport must be understood within the social context of sport” (p.96). This implies that human behaviour in general and sport behaviour specifically (thinking, feeling and acting), must be understood by sport psychologists in the sport context, which is part of the broader cultural context, of sportspeople. This can be made possible by the epistemology and methodology of, for example, social constructionism.

While in the sport psychology library I wondered what possible focus areas could be in sport psychology research. Chartrand and Lent (1987) made suggestions regarding research that could form part of a sport psychology programme. The following are examples of this research: integration of sports counselling and sport psychology, comparing the different counselling needs of various sports, athletic self-concept, imagery, self-talk, value and goal clarification for athletes, athletic retirement, coping with stress related to performance, as well as drug and alcohol abuse.

As a South African working as a sport psychologist in the sport context of the UP, I am slowly becoming aware of indigenous topics that could be researched. For example, on a daily basis I see adolescent black South African’s being taken from shacks in Soweto and placed into national training squads. Should we, as sport psychologists, not be interested in how these adolescents cope with this change and still be able to compete at a top level with other athletes? Should we, as sport psychologists, not be interested in how adolescent black South African’s cope with the pressure of their sport on the one hand and family pressure on the other hand, when it is expected of them to earn a living through sport and provide for their families with the earnings from sport?

DB: Did you find anything on theory and practice while reading sport psychology literature?

LH: After I had gone through the sport psychology literature regarding the aim(s) and research in sport psychology programmes, I moved along to a shelf in the sport psychology library that contained sport psychology literature regarding the theory and practice that should form part of a sport psychology programme.

While I was reading through the sport psychology literature on this library shelf I became aware that a sport psychology programme should draw its theory and skills from various disciplines. It is like a rugby-training group that uses the services of a biokineticist to enhance their fitness levels and a netball coach to improve their ball handling skills. Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) state that a sport psychology programme should train prospective sport psychologists to acquire competencies regarding theory and skills from psychology, sport psychology, as well as sport and exercise science. This view was supported by the Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology (AAASP)(n.d.b), as can be seen in the following statement:

To promote the development of psychological theory, research and intervention strategies in sport psychology. AAASP provides a forum for individuals who are interested in research and theory development and in the application of psychological principles in sport and exercise. In order to accomplish these goals, AAASP incorporates information and expertise from exercise and sport sciences and from psychology.

Many of the authors that I met in the sport psychology library saw the field of sport psychology as a specialist area. The APA defined a specialist area as (American Psychological Association [APA], 2002b):

An area of psychological practice, which requires advanced knowledge and skills through an organized sequence of education and training. The advanced knowledge and skills specific to a speciality are obtained subsequent to the acquisition of core scientific and professional foundations in psychology.

Tenenbaum, *et al.* (2002) saw sport psychology as a specialist area in both psychology and sport and exercise domains. Andersen *et al.* (2001), as well as Leffingwell *et al.* (2001, p.531) support this view when they state that “the changing mental health climate has prompted clinical and counselling psychology programs to address new areas of specialization, one of which is sport psychology”. As sport psychology is seen a specialist area, Meyers *et al.* (2001) are of the opinion that most employment within the field of sport psychology requires a doctoral level qualification. This means that a sport psychologist should have a doctoral level qualification in sport science, with extensive training in clinical and/or counselling psychology, or a doctoral level qualification in clinical and/or counselling psychology with extensive training in sport science.

For example, at the UW students who entered the clinical psychology programme were trained in five areas. These are personality, psychological assessment, psychopathology, psychotherapy and community psychology. After this initial training students were encouraged to specialize in a specific area, like for example sport psychology, neuropsychological assessment, addictive behaviours, behavioural medicine or public health. If students chose to specialize in sport psychology such training entailed didactic course work, supervised practicum activities and supervised research. The content of the work included the social psychology of sport, developmental aspects of sport competition, motor development, human motor control and applied sport psychology. These subjects were lectured by the Department of Psychology. Students could also take subjects like sport history, biomechanics and exercise physiology, which were offered by other departments and not by the Department of Psychology. As part of these students involvement with the Sport Psychological Services (SPS) in the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at the UW, students also received training in cognitive-behaviour skills, such as imagery and relaxation training (Leffingwell *et al.*, 2001).

Theory

The theoretical basis of a sport psychology programme should contain knowledge regarding theories, research, assessment and ethics. In relation to theory, a sport psychology programme should consist of psychological theories, as well as theories from sport and exercise science. Examples of psychological theories are: the history of psychology and sport psychology, the philosophical foundations of psychology and sport psychology, biological basis of human behaviour, human development, personality functioning, abnormal behaviour, human behaviour within a social context, the impact of culture on human behaviour, psychotherapeutic models, as well as sport management and administration (Tenenbaum *et al.*, 2002). The training in career planning and development was also of utmost importance (Hinkle, 1994). The following could be seen, in the literature, as examples of theories from the field of sport and exercise science: human anatomy, exercise physiology, motor learning, skills acquisition and neuromuscular processes, biomechanical basis of motor skills, nutrition in sport, sport medicine and coaching methods. Furthermore, a sport psychology programme should also have a sound theoretical basis regarding research methodology (e.g. designs, sampling, data, reliability, validity and statistics), psychological assessment (e.g. administration, scoring, interpretation, feedback and report writing) and ethics (e.g. ethical standards, confidentiality and record keeping)(Tenenbaum *et al.*, 2002).

In the field of psychological theories, it seems that the theories on human development and cognitive-behaviour theory were the more prominent theories lectured in sport psychology programmes and used by sport psychologists (Andersen *et al.*, 2001; Cox, Qiu & Liu, 1993; Feltz, 1992; Gardner, 2001; Murphy, 1995; Singer, 1992). Gill (2001, 366) stated that “by definition, psychology focuses on individual behaviour, thoughts and feelings” and is, in essence, individualistic in nature. Murphy (1995) stated that when reading sport psychology literature (e.g. books) one is struck by the uniformity of that literature in that the authors take a mental skills approach to working with

athletes, which is based on cognitive-behaviour thinking and practice. Murphy (1995, p.6) stated that the basic assumption of this approach was:

The mental skills approach assumes that sport performance is managed largely by athletes' thought processes and emotional states. Athletes are taught these 'effective' ways of cognitively managing their performance in the expectation that these methods will lead to better performance.

From my visit to the sport psychology library it seems that feminist theory is the subjugated theory in sport psychology. In contrast to the mainstream theories in sport psychology that are categorical in nature and focus on internal cognitive processes (cognitive psychology), feminist theory views human behaviour as relational (social psychology). It has as assumptions that gender is relational and intertwined with race and sexuality. Furthermore, it states that relationships involve power, privileged oppression within a cultural context, it is action orientated in its endeavour to end oppression and focuses not only on personal change but also on social change (Bredemeier, 2001; Gill, 2001; Greenleaf & Collins, 2001; Hall, 2001; Krane, 2001; Roper, 2001; Semerjian & Waldron, 2001). Kappeler (1992, p.382) describes feminism as a perspective grounded in (a) recognition of woman's oppression and (b) a commitment to work toward ending the oppression", while Oglesby (2001, p.374) saw feminism as:

Feminism, as a philosophy and worldview, is not a creation of rabid female proponents seeking unilaterally to cleanse the world of all things male. It exists as a potential antidote to our "masulinist" culture ... Feminism, as a worldview, s necessary to bring a semblance of balance, justice and exclusivity to our global culture.

Tricket, Watts and Birman (1994) are of the opinion that diversity has challenged the foundations of psychology and has caused a paradigmatic crisis within psychology. The advocacy that psychology needs to move to a position of understanding people in context, in the culture that they live in and away from the dominant cultural discourse in psychology in understanding human behaviour that emphasizes biology, internal cognitive processes and experimental designs. Brown (2001) says that just as athletes need to do "cross-

training” as part of their training programme, sport psychologists need to do theoretical and practical “cross-training”. By this he means that sport psychologists should expose themselves to the field of clinical/counselling psychology and clinical/counselling psychologists should expose themselves to the sport psychology. In so doing sport psychologists can enhance their theoretical and practical competence.

Practice

According to Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) it is not just important that a sport psychology programme should have a sound theoretical basis, it should also have a sound skills-base, regarding knowledge of and competency to implement interventions, as well as to facilitate communication amongst various parties, for example, athletes, coaches and administrators.

It seems that a sport psychology programme should train students in interviewing skills, programme development and implementation, as well as making use of literature to deliver sport psychology services. Sport psychology interviews can focus on sport related issues, for example, the enhancement of sport performance or they can focus on personal problems in the lives of the sportspersons (Taylor & Schneider, 1992). In relation to programme development and implementation, the sport psychologist can, for example, conduct a workshop in which they present a programme on goal setting or confidence building to sport coaches and administrators (Halliwell, 1990; Smith & Johnson, 1990) and literature in the form of newsletters can also be used to deliver sport psychology services, as was the case at the UW where literature in the form of “The Mental Edge” was distributed to sportspeople and sport coaches in which relevant topics on sport psychology were addressed (Leffingwell *et al.*, 2001).

The acquisition of a sound skills-base in a sport psychology programme can be done within the framework of an internship. At the UW students who were training to become sport psychologists, did an internship as part of their

training. These internships run over a period of nine or twelve months and students work 20 hours/week during their internship. During this internship the students, for example, did imagery and relaxation training (Leffingwell *et al.*, 2001). Sachs, Burke and Schrader (2001) indicate that the term internship might have different meanings. In the world of clinical/counselling psychology, an APA approved clinical/counselling programme, usually entailed a one-year full-time internship (2000h/y). These internships may entail sport psychology work, together with clinical/counselling training. However, when the word internship is used in the field of sport science, it usually refers to a supervised, applied experience. The duration was much shorter than the clinical/counselling internship and was usually called a practicum. Weingand, Richardson and Weinberg (1999) indicate to me that the two most important areas that should be addressed during an internship should be the intern as “person”, as well as the development of the knowledge and practice skills of the intern.

DB: Could you establish from your reading of sport psychology literature, if supervision is important within sport psychology programmes?

LH: After I had spent some time at the shelf that held literature pertaining to theory and practice in a sport psychology programme, I walked further along in the library and came across a shelf with literature regarding supervision in a sport psychology programme.

As already mentioned, at the UW students who have successfully completed the clinical psychology programme and who wished to specialize in sport psychology, did additional didactic coursework in sport psychology, received supervised practical training and did supervised research (Leffingwell *et al.*, 2001). In this programme, supervision of practical work and a research project seemed to be a fundamental part of the training programme. This view is supported by Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) who state also that supervision should form part of a sport psychology programme. According to them supervision should be “designed to provide the supervisee with guidance, an environment and opportunities that facilitate the development of competencies, which enable

the trainee to use his/her knowledge base in a professional and ethical manner” (p.16). Furthermore, they also identify several principles regarding supervision in sport psychology, which I have summarized as follows:

- Goal: Supervision should be about the acquisition of competencies regarding theory and skills related to sport psychology.
- Participants: Supervision takes place within the relationship between a supervisor(s) and supervisee.
- Time: The acquisition of competencies regarding theory and skills within the field of sport psychology should determine the time that a supervisor and supervisee spend together.
- Criteria: There should be set criteria for determining and measuring the accomplishment and mastering of competencies in relation to theory and skills within the field of sport psychology.
- Notes: It is recommended that notes be kept regarding the supervision by the supervisor and supervisee.

Holt and Stean (2001) state that supervision formed an integral part of clinical/counselling psychology training but the same cannot be said of sport psychology training in general. They argue that supervision in sport psychology should be about reflection regarding the student, student-athlete relationship, as well as student-supervisor relationship.

DB: Was there any information in the sport psychology literature regarding the partnership(s) that sport psychology has with clinical/counselling/educational psychology or the partnership(s) that Psychology Departments have with other academic/sport departments?

LH: As I walked further on through the library I learnt that sport psychology has been in partnership with other academic disciplines.

Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) are of the opinion that psychology, as well as sport science, are prominent partners in the domain of sport psychology. They state

that sport psychology “draws on scientific and practical knowledge in the psychology and sport and exercise domains but it consists of unique applications, which integrate psychological knowledge and substantive knowledge of the sport and exercise sciences” (p.2).

In a study done by Petrie and Diehl (1995) a questionnaire was sent to 500 male and 500 female psychologists who were registered as clinical psychologists with the APA in Division 12 (Clinical Psychology) of whom 248 men (n=248) and 241 women (n=241) responded. The mean age of the group that responded was 48 years, 94% were Caucasian, 3% were African American, 1% was Asian American, 1% was Hispanic and 1% was listed as “other” with regards to race. The participants in this study had various work settings: 43% worked in private practice, 26% worked in a hospital or medical setting, 18% worked in a college or university psychology department, 3% in a community mental health setting, 2% in a college or university counselling setting and 8% worked, for example, in a corporate setting. The goal of the questionnaire was to determine:

- ❑ The degree to which these professional psychologists had received training and supervision in sport psychology.
- ❑ To what extent these professional psychologists were involved in training, supervision, research and practice regarding sport psychology.
- ❑ These professional psychologists’ opinions regarding current issues in sport psychology, for example, academic training and title registration.

With regards to training: 99% of the group had a PhD in psychology, 94% of the group had the PhD in clinical psychology and 99% had licensure to practice as a professional psychologist. In this group 96% had no formal training in sport psychology and 99% had received no supervision in the area of sport psychology. Despite the lack of training in sport psychology, 22% of the group had consulted with an athlete or sport team, 46% had provided individual therapy to athletes and 8% had provided group therapy to athletes. Only 1% of the participants had taught a course in sport psychology, 2% had published an article concerning sport psychology issues, 2% had presented a paper at a sport

psychology conference, 3% had read sport psychology journals, less than 2% were affiliated with Division 47 (Exercise and Sport Psychology) of the APA and less than 1% were affiliated with the AAASP. The participants' involvement with the athletes and sport teams was on the level of performance enhancement (e.g. lack of competitive focus, motivational problems, performance anxiety and lack of confidence), as well as personal problems (e.g. marital and family problems). With regards to current sport psychology issues, 64% of these participants indicated that an interdisciplinary program involving psychology and sport science would offer the most comprehensive training in sport psychology, 42% considered sport psychology to be an interdisciplinary specialty, while 54% viewed sport psychology as a specialist field within psychology. Regarding the issue of title registration, 76% of the participants were of the opinion that the title "sport psychologist" be limited to those people licensed to practice psychology, 6% were against such limitations and 18% indicated that they did not have an opinion on this issue. I am of the opinion that if the same kind of study had to be done in SA, it would be found that although many psychologists work within the South African sport context, they have not been adequately trained in sport psychology but have been trained either in clinical, counselling, industrial, education or research psychology, which are currently the five registration categories provided by the HPCSA.

Hays (1995) states that training programmes in sport psychology should be multidisciplinary in nature. A training programme should be a combination of traditional psychology, sport psychology and sport sciences. She made the following suggestions with regards to interdisciplinary graduate training programmes in sport psychology:

- PhD (Sport Science), with extensive coursework in psychology.
- PhD (Psychology), with extensive coursework in sport science.
- APA accredited programme in clinical psychology (with extensive coursework in sport psychology and sport science).
- APA accredited programme in counselling psychology (with extensive coursework in sport psychology and sport science).

At the UW there exists a cooperative relationship between the Department of Psychology and the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics. The Department of Psychology offers a clinical psychology programme and when students have successfully completed this programme they can specialize, for example, in sport psychology. The Department of Intercollegiate Athletics has an SPS programme, which formed part of the Total Student Athlete Programme of the National Collegiate Athletic Association. Through the SPS the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics offered placements for students specializing in sport psychology, while the Department of Psychology through their general clinical psychology programme and their specialist sport psychology programme render services within the SPS at the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics (Leffingwell *et al.*, 2001).

LeUnes and Hayward (1990) did a study regarding the place of sport psychology in 147 APA accredited clinical psychology programmes. In this study 69% of the clinical psychology programme directors participated of whom 51% stated that they could identify faculty members who had an interest in sport psychology and 85% indicated that they would support faculty members if they wanted to pursue a career in sport psychology. Furthermore, 39% saw sport psychology as a specialist area in psychology, 30% cited physical education as the home of sport psychology, while 31% saw it as an area that belonged to both psychology and physical education. Petrie and Watkins (1994) did a similar study and surveyed 61 APA accredited counselling psychology programmes regarding the place of sport psychology within counselling psychology programmes. In this study 87% of the programme directors responded to the survey, which found that 67% of students in these counselling psychology programmes were interested in sport psychology and that 65% of these directors thought that the best sport psychology training would be done in an interdisciplinary manner.

DB: I am also interested to hear if you met other library users while walking around the library?

LH: After I had completed my tour through the shelves of the sport psychology library, I walked along and met some fellow sport psychology library users. We started talking about the role(s) and service(s) of sport psychologists.

Role(s)

It seems that the proposed model to do sport psychology training falls within the researcher-practitioner model (Tenenbaum *et al.*, 2002). This means that the sport psychologist would after completing his/her sport psychology training, on the one hand, be able to fulfil the role of a researcher and, on the other hand, the role of a practitioner. The AAASP (n.d.a) saw the roles of the sport psychologist as: teacher, researcher and practitioner. As trainer the sport psychologist does training in sport psychology with students who are interested in the field of sport psychology, as researcher the sport psychologist does research in the field of sport psychology and as practitioner the sport psychologist practices sport psychology within a sport context.

Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002, p.9-10) made the following statement regarding the working position and approach that should be taught in a sport psychology programme:

These competencies are drawn on the knowledge-base of the discipline that is theoretically and empirically-based, anecdotal and a result of the vast experience of others. These competencies depend strongly on diagnosing correctly the needs and problems, establishing professional relationships, exploring interventions and finding alternative methods in case of unsuccessful outcomes ... Competency in the provision of psychological service to clients assumes a strong knowledge-base in the theory and practice of various interventions and the implementation of treatment, service, or help to active clients in sport and/or exercise. This competency requires knowledge in gathering data via different communication channels (interviews, psychological tools, observations, unobtrusive techniques and others) and set a reliable diagnosis on any encountered psychological state. It requires the use of this data for the designing,

provision and evaluation of psychological intervention/ treatment to be implemented with individuals, groups, organizations, or any other possible combination among them.

The above-mentioned quotation requires the training of sport psychology students to adopt the expert-position when working with athletes as researchers and practitioners. The sport psychologist as researcher has ultimate authority to decide with whom, how and where research will be conducted. As practitioner, the sport psychologist gathers information, makes a diagnosis, plans and implements an intervention and also evaluates that intervention (Duquin, 1994; Whaley, 2001). This expert-position that many professionals (e.g. sport psychologists) in the sport world hold so dear, often does not allow athletes to have a voice of their own. Duquin (1994, p.290) states, “competitive sports rely almost solely on the expertise of coaches, referees, trainers and sport scientists, including sport psychologists ... females need never voice, indeed are not expected to voice, an account of their physical and emotional experience as subjects in sport”. To illustrate the point I am trying to make about the impact of the expert-position on athletes, I recall the words of Olympic gymnast Kathy Rigby on why she remained silent about her 12-year battle with anorexia and bulimia: “I was not able to grow up, because my coach did it for me. He talked for me, he thought for me” (Flatow in Duquin, 1994, p.290).

Service(s)

The discussions that I had with the other sport psychologists in the sport psychology library, was not only about the role(s) of the sport psychologist but also concerned the service(s) that they render. For example, Voight and Callaghan (2001) tell me that 53% of the National Collegiate Athletic Association Division I universities made use of sport psychology services, while 47% did not make use of any sport psychology services. What are these services?

Leffingwell *et al.* (2001) say that 43% of the problems that sportspeople experience are performance related, 42% of their problems could be seen as

personal problems and that 15% of problems were initially seen by the sportsperson as performance related but turned out to be also personal problems. Sport psychologists can therefore do performance enhancement work with sportspeople and can also address the personal problems of sportspeople through therapy and therefore do development work with sportspeople. Gardner (2001) is of the opinion that the sport psychologist has the following services to render as a practitioner: performance enhancement, clinical/counselling services, as well as psychological testing. Psychological testing entails the selection of potential elite athletes, neurological testing in the case of a sport brain injury, as well as testing for personality (16 Personality Factor Questionnaire) and interpersonal styles (Nideffer Test for Attentional and Interpersonal Style)(Neff, 1990). Hinkle (1994) states that sport psychology and sports counselling professionals were concerned about the development as well as the athletic performance of athletes with whom they worked. AAASP (n.d.a) states that, as practitioners, sport psychologists can render a variety of services. Examples of these services are: enhancing sport performance, dealing with the pressure of competition, assisting sportspeople in the rehabilitation process of a sport injury, enhancing sportspeople's satisfaction and enjoyment of sport, distributing information to people relating to sport and sport psychology and helping sportspeople use sport for personal development. The APA (2002a) states that the services of a sport psychologist are:

Helping athletes use psychological principles to achieve optimal mental health and to improve performance (performance enhancement) and understanding how participation in sport, exercise and physical activity affects an individual's psychological development, health and well being throughout the life span.

According to Danish, Petitpas and Hale (1993) sport psychology services involve performance enhancement, life skills training, organisational consultation, clinical/counselling interventions, as well rehabilitation. Meyers *et al.* (2001) and Seligman (1990) note that incorporating sport psychology services into a clinical/counselling psychology practice, did not just enhance the potential to acquire more income but also allowed the clinical/counselling

psychologist to work with athletes who were generally emotionally healthy people, who were motivated and wanted to achieve something in life.

Performance enhancement can be done on an individual basis or in a team format by making use of psycho-educational programmes (Halliwell, 1990). The main theoretical perspective in psychology that is applicable to performance enhancement is cognitive-behaviour psychology (Gardner, 2001). Hays (1995, p.35) states, “when people picture ‘sport psychology’, they often think of this aspect of the field”. According to her performance enhancement is often done through psychological skills training, which entails relaxation training, imagery, goal setting, concentration training and cognitive self-management. The underlying principle of psychological skills training is that “thoughts and feelings can inhibit optimal performance and likewise that certain mental skills, used effectively, can enhance optimal performance” (p.35). Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) see the following as examples of performance enhancement services: goal setting, visualization, concentration and relaxation. Hinkle (1994) draws a distinction between sport psychology and sports counselling and views performance enhancement as being part of sport psychology. Sport psychologists have been associated traditionally with the performance enhancement of the athlete and have not been adequately trained to deal with the psych-social difficulties of the athlete (Millslagle, 1988; Suedfeld & Bruno, 1990; Taylor, 1987). The sports counsellor would be more suited to deal with these problems, for example, personal, interpersonal and career-planning problems (Hinkle, 1994; Miller, Ogilvie & Adams, 2000; Smith & Johnson, 1990).

The sport psychologist can also deliver clinical/counselling services to sportspeople, sport coaches and sport administrators (Gardner, 2001). Neff (1990) says that the primary goal of the personal development services was to create a time and space for athletes to discuss personal problems that were not primarily performance related but where “the athlete often enjoys improved performance as a by-product of this intervention” (p.380) and adds, “having a personal relationship with the athlete often enhances the usefulness of the

mental skills training employed for enhancing performance” (p.380). Examples of personal development services given are: communication skills, time management, career planning and conflict resolution. Other interventions had to do with critical incidents such as critical intervention weight management, substance abuse, injury rehabilitation and suicide (Tenenbaum *et al.*, 2002). As already mentioned above, Hinkle (1994) draws a distinction between sport psychology and sports counselling and the delivering of personal development services to athletes was seen as sports counselling. According to Brown (1978) five to 15% of American athletes suffer from psych-social problems. Hinkle (1994, p.52-53) went further by stating that “although the disciplines of sport psychology and sports counselling have traditionally been distinct, the integration of these areas will be necessary for the effective continuity of associated services and interventions”. Hays (1995) states that doing psychotherapy with athletes is one of the roles sport psychologists can fulfil while working in a sport context. Morgan (1985) is of the opinion that although athletes tended to be psychologically healthier than people who do not participate in sport, by the time that they do go for psychotherapy, they exhibit severe psychopathology. However there seemed to be a substantial overlap regarding psychopathology between athletes and non-athletes. Mahoney and Suinn (1986), as well as Sherman and Thompson (2001), saw the typical presenting problems amongst athletes as depression, anxiety, eating disorders, substance abuse, the obsession to win and the fear of failure, as well as relationship and motivational concerns. Sundgot-Borgen (1994) reports that 1,3% of professional athletes met the DSM-IV criteria for anorexia and 8% for bulimia nervosa, while Johnson, Powers and Dick (1999) indicate that 13% of college athletes showed clinically significant problems. May (1986) says that psychotherapy with athletes is comparable to psychotherapy with non-athletes although athletes preferred to consult a sport psychologist who has a sound knowledge of sport and respected the role that it plays in the lives of athletes. In the article “Putting Sport Psychology Into (Your) Practice”, the incorporation of exercise as an intervention into psychotherapy is briefly discussed (Hays, 1995). There seems to be a positive link between a healthy body and a healthy mind, as the Greeks put it, “Mens sano in corpore sano” (p.34). It seems that

exercise can reduce anxiety and depression in people (Martinsen, 1990; Morgan & Goldston, 1987; Sime & Sanstead, 1987) and that exercise has a positive influence on body image, self-esteem and socialization (Auchus, 1993; Martinsen, 1990). Furthermore, it also seems that exercise is a very critical element in weight loss and control (Kirschenbaum, 1994) and also creates the opportunity for people to think differently when exercising, as exercising has an influence on the way people thought about things in their lives (Hays, 1995). The metaphors “frequency”, “intensity” and “time”, which were summarized in the acronym FIT and are found in the world of exercise and sport can be used in a meaningful way in the field of psychotherapy (Hays, 1995). Hays (1995, p.34-35) gives the following example of how the exercise metaphor of FIT (frequency-intensity-time) can be used in psychotherapy:

After a number of weeks of interpersonal engagement throughout her therapy sessions, a client reverted in one session to a markedly dissociative state. Although her initial response was to feel as if no progress had been made, the client was reassured by the observation that she dissociated less frequently (F), somewhat less intensely (I) and was able to come out of here trance more readily (T).

Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) believe that the services that should be delivered by sport psychologists should not just be related to performance enhancement and personal development but should also be aimed at the organisational level. Examples of these services are: leadership, team dynamics, communication processes and defining work responsibilities. Hinkle (1994) states that career planning and development is one of the important services that a sport psychologist can deliver to a sport organisation.

The services that the sport psychologist provides to sportspeople, sport coaches and sport administrators are “usually performed informally – on the sideline or in the locker room and rarely in the sport psychologist’s office. Team members, whether seeking help with a performance-based issue or a more personal concern, do not want to see themselves as patients” (Gardner, 2001, p.37-38). The conversation that struck me the most was the one that I had with Simons and Andersen (1995). They told me that the most important part of being a

sport psychologist was to “Know Thyself”, just as Socrates said 2500 years ago. Understanding your role(s), position(s) and service(s) are important but had very little significance if you do not know yourself.

DB: Did you learn anything from the sport psychology literature about who the clients of a sport psychologist are?

LH: As I was leaving the sport psychology library I started wondering about the clients of sport psychology services.

AAASP (n.d.a) view sportspeople (individuals and/or team), sport coaches and sport administrators as the clients with whom sport psychologists’ work. Leffingwell *et al.* (2001) state that sport psychologists work with individual sportspeople, sport coaches and sport teams. Gardner (2001) says that the clients of the sport psychologist can be found on various levels within the world of sport. They can be school athletes, college athletes, as well as professional athletes. Hays (1995) indicates that sport psychologists work with individuals and more specifically individual differences. As Eklund, Gould and Jackson (1993, p.46) state, “in our search for common characteristics of successful athletes, we must not overlook unique perspectives each athlete brings to his or her situation”. Tenenbaum *et al.* (2002) discern the clients of sport psychologists as people of all ages (children to elderly), athletes at various levels of competition (amateur to professional), as well people of different health status (healthy to handicapped). Neff (1990) observes athletes (individual and teams), coaches, management and other personal involved in the professional sport organisation, as clients of his work as a sport psychologist.

DB: How would you describe your experience of the sport psychology library, which you visited?

LH: The visit to the sport psychology library was very informative and therefore empowering. It was informative in a strange way as it was not so much that I discovered new information, as that old information was re-affirmed. I have always had an idea of what the discipline of sport psychology entails and my visit to the sport psychology library re-affirmed my position. It was like visiting Vereeniging High School that I attended as an adolescent. I hardly ever gain new information about the school when I visit the school but I do revisit old experiences. In that lies a lot of learning. So, visiting the sport psychology library was more a revisiting of previous sport experiences and encounters with sport psychology. I think sport psychologists should assist athletes in re-visiting previous experiences and should not bombard them with new information. By re-visiting our past-lived experiences we can rediscover something of our being-in-this-world.

BD: We have now had a conversation about your visit to the sport psychology library. What will our next conversation going be about?

LH: In the next conversation we will discuss a sport psychology conference, which I attended, in order to learn more about postgraduate training in sport psychology in Psychology Departments as part of my tour with sport psychology.

CHAPTER 6
JOURNAL ENTRY V
SPORT PSYCHOLOGY CONFERENCE

The most important thing is to love your sport. Never do it to please someone else. It has to be yours.

Peggy Fleming (in Lesyk, 2001, p.19)

I'm a firm believer in the theory that people only do their best at things they truly enjoy. It is difficult to excel at something you don't enjoy.

Jack Nicklaus (in Lesyk, 2001, p.19)

DB: I am aware that you attended a sport psychology conference as part of your tour with sport psychology. Please tell me more about this sport psychology conference that you attended?

LH: On arriving at the sport psychology conference I realized two conferences were running simultaneously. The one conference was for delegates from Sport Science Departments that run postgraduate sport psychology programmes and was the larger of the two conferences, as there are 88 masters' programmes and 44 doctoral programmes in sport psychology that are lectured from Sport Science Departments according to the "Directory of Graduate Programs in Applied Sport Psychology" (Sachs *et al.*, 2001). The other conference was for delegates from Psychology Departments that were running postgraduate sport psychology programmes and was the smaller of the two conferences, as there are 13 masters' and 17 doctoral programmes in sport psychology that have their home in Psychology Departments according to the "Directory of Graduate Programs in Applied Sport Psychology" (Sachs *et al.*, 2001). As the overall aim of this study is to develop and implement a postgraduate programme in sport psychology in the Department of Psychology at the UP, I decided to attend the conference for delegates from Psychology Departments.

At this conference there were delegates from FSU, University of California (UC), Mankato State University (MSU), Argosy University (AU), University of

Montana (UMT), University of North Texas (UNT), John F. Kennedy University (JFKU), San Diego University of Integrative Studies (SDUIS), Boston University (BU), University of Missouri-Columbia (UMC), University of Arizona (UA), University of Manitoba (UM), Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU), University of Memphis (UMS) and the UQ (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

While I was walking around at the sport psychology conference I asked the various delegates what programmes they were running at their training organisations. The following is a brief summary of what I learnt from the delegates. The FSU has an MS (Sport Psychology) and a PhD (Sport Psychology), UC has a PhD (Social Psychology)(Sport Psychology), MSU has an MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology)¹, AU has an MA (Sport Psychology)(Counselling Psychology) and a PsyD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology), UMT has an MS (Sport Psychology) and a PhD (Sport Psychology), UNT has a PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology), JFKU has an MA (Sport Psychology) and an MA (Counselling Psychology) (Sport Psychology), SDUIS has an MA (Sport Counselling) and a PhD (Sport Psychology), BU has a Master of Education (MEd)(Counselling Psychology) (Sport Psychology) and an Education Doctorate (EdD)(Counselling Psychology) (Sport Psychology), UMC has an MA (Counselling Psychology) (Sport Psychology) and a PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology), UA has a PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology), UM has an MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and a PhD (Clinical Psychology) (Sport Psychology), VCU has a PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology), UMS has a PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and UQ has an MPSE (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

¹ When a programme is indicated as a MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology), it is primarily a clinical psychology programme, with sport psychology as a module/course.

DB: I presume that you attended various conference papers while attending the sport psychology conference. Did you perhaps attend a paper that concerned selection criteria for students for a postgraduate programme in sport psychology?

LH: I was able to attend a conference paper that was presented on the selection criteria for postgraduate training in sport psychology programmes. Allow me to tell you what I learnt from this conference paper.

At the UC academic criteria and letters of recommendation are primarily used to select students for the PhD (Social Psychology)(Sport Psychology)(Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

The selection criteria at the UNT for the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) are academic ability, self-awareness, interpersonal poise, research ability and writing skills. A recommendation is that students who do apply for this course, be involved in sport and/or exercise (University of North Texas [UNT], 2002).

Entry into the MEd (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and EdD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at BU is academic ability, referee reports, as well as a strong involvement in sport and/or exercise (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

At the UMC the selection criteria for the MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) are academic ability and referee reports of applicants (University of Missouri-Columbia [UMC], 2002).

The UA has three selection criteria for the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme. These are academic ability, research interest and that students' career goals must be compatible with what the programme has to offer (University of Arizona [UA], 2002).

The selection criteria at the UM for the MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) are academic ability, referee reports of applicants and a statement by applicants regarding their academic and career goals. To obtain admission to the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme, students must have a MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) degree (University of Manitoba [UM], 2002).

At VCU entry into the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) is based upon academic ability, research experience, as well as referee reports (Sachs *et al.*, 2001). The selection criteria for the PhD (Clinical Psychology) (Sport Psychology) at UMS are academic ability, research experience, referee reports, a statement from the applicant stating his/her academic goals and research interest, as well as an interview with academic staff from the Department of Psychology (University of Memphis [UMS], 2002).

At the UQ the selection criterion for the MPSE programme is primarily academic ability (University of Queensland [UQ], 2002).

It seems from this conference paper that academic and research ability are important selection criteria for postgraduate programmes in sport psychology. Furthermore, it seems that the personal awareness and interpersonal sensitivity of students are also taken into account when selecting students for postgraduate programmes in sport psychology.

DB: I see from the sport psychology conference brochure that there was a paper presented on the aim(s) of postgraduate sport psychology programmes. Could you tell me more about this?

LH: The MEd (Sport Psychology) and EdD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) training programmes at BU are based on the researcher-practitioner model and aim at training students to become proficient researchers and practitioners (Boston University [BU], 2002a).

This is also the case in the MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UMC where students are trained according to the researcher-practitioner model so that they can do research and practice in a variety of settings, for example, schools, colleges, universities, clinics, hospitals, businesses and government (UMC, 2002).

The training model that is followed by the UA is also the researcher-practitioner model. A strong emphasis is placed on the interaction between research and practice at the UA, as research should inform practice and practice should inform research (UA, 2002).

At the UM the aim is to advance the knowledge base, research skills and applied capabilities, within the researcher-practitioner model, of students who wish to become sport psychologists (UM, 2002).

The goal of the MS (Sport Psychology) and PhD (Sport Psychology) at FSU is to produce professionals who are competent in the research and practice of sport psychology (Florida State University [FSU], 2002a).

The PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UNT aims at advancing psychology, as well as sport and exercise psychology through scientific inquiry. Furthermore, the programme trains students to do psychotherapeutic work with athletes, coaches and administrators and to develop, implement and evaluate programmes for psychological skills training. This programme also trains students to promote participation in exercise with the aim of life-long health and wellness (UNT, 2002).

At JFKU the MA (Sport Psychology) and MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) aim to train students to become outstanding sport psychology professionals (John F. Kennedy University [JFKU], 2002a).

The MA (Sport Counselling) and PhD (Sport Psychology) programmes at SDUIS aim to train students to be able to assist athletes to be more effective in their personal and professional lives (San Diego University of Integrative Studies [SDUIS], 2002).

The aim of the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the VCU focuses on five levels. The first level can be seen as the general goal of the programme, which is to give students a broad psychological base as well as the necessary support to acquire research, practice, leadership and personal competencies. The second level relates to training the students within the programme to acquire and develop their research skills as well as to apply these research skills in a multicultural society thus allowing them to develop into competent researchers. The third level focuses on training students to become competent practitioners by facilitating a process in which they have a good understanding of the approaches within counselling psychology as well as providing them with the opportunity to develop and become proficient in their own theoretical approach to helping people. The fourth level has to do with leadership. The programme also aims at helping students to become leaders in the field of research and practice within a multicultural society. Lastly, the fifth level focuses on personal development, which entails personal and interpersonal awareness of the students as well as their professional development (Virginia Commonwealth University [VCU], 2002).

The aim of the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UMS is to train students to become sport psychologists who work in a professional manner, both in practice and research as trained within the researcher-practitioner model (UMS, 2002).

The MPSE at UQ consists of course work, practical training and research, with the aim of preparing students for research and practice in the field of sport and exercise psychology (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UQ, 2002). Furthermore, it also aims at training students to obtain professional membership as a member of the APS (UQ, 2002).

After attending this conference paper on the aims(s) of postgraduate training in sport psychology, I was left with the sense that the aim of such a programme had very much to do with training postgraduate students in sport psychology to become researchers and practitioners within the field of sport psychology.

DB: I am interested to know more about the conference paper on sport psychology research. What was this conference paper all about?

LH: I must say that, unfortunately, this was a very boring conference paper. It seems that research forms an integral part of all the training programmes in which sport psychology is lectured on a postgraduate level. The following sport psychology programmes all have a research component as part of the programme: FSU (FSU, 2002a, Florida State University [FSU] 2002b, 2002c), UC (Sachs *et al.*, 2001), MSU (Sachs *et al.*, 2001), AU (Sachs *et al.*, 2001), UMT (Sachs *et al.*, 2001), UNT (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UNT, 2002), JFKU (John F. Kennedy University [JFKU], 2002b, 2002c, 2002d; Sachs *et al.*, 2001), SDUIS (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; SDUIS, 2002), BU (Boston University [BU], 2002b; Sachs *et al.*, 2001), UMC (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UMC, 2002), UA (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UA, 2002), UM (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UM, 2002), VCU (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; VCU, 2002), UMS (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UMS, 2002), UQ (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UQ, 2002).

At FSU research forms an integral part of the MS (Sport Psychology) and PhD (Sport Psychology) programmes (FSU, 2002a, 2002c). The research entails drafting a research proposal, conducting research and writing a research report. All the research that is done in sport psychology at FSU is done under research supervision (FSU, 2002c).

An integral part of the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the VCU is the research project. Although it is not a rule, students are expected to finish their research training before they are allowed to start with their internship. This means that when a student starts with his/her internship, their theoretical and research training has been completed (VCU, 2002). The reasons

for this are that “completing a dissertation while on internship is burdensome and few can accomplish it. Putting off completion of the dissertation until after internship can result in delays in employment, lower salaries and even failing to complete the dissertation” (VCU, 2002, p.14).

At the UMS the students in the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme do their research in neuropsychology and behavioural neuroscience, child and family studies, or psychopathology and psychotherapy. Those students who are interested in sport psychology, also focus their research in one of these areas in combination with sport psychology, for example, doing research on families in which sport plays a pivotal role. Students are only allowed to start with their internship once their research proposals have been approved by the research committee of the Department of Psychology (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UMS, 2002).

In my experience of training postgraduate students in counselling psychology at the UP from 1998-2004 the theoretical and practical training receives much more attention than the research project that the students have to do to obtain the MA (Counselling Psychology) degree. Although the training takes place within the researcher-practitioner model, of which 50% of the training is theoretical and practical and 50% of the programme concerns the research project, I am of the opinion that discourse on being a practitioner is the more dominant discourse in the Department of Psychology than the discourse on being a researcher. At this conference I had the same experience in that the discourse on being a practitioner was receiving much more attention than the discourse on being a researcher.

DB: I wonder if you could tell me more about the conference paper that you attended on the theory and practice in sport psychology programmes?

LH: For practical reasons, I would like to do this by referring firstly to the theoretical training and secondly to the practical training.

Theory

At FSU students who do sport psychology postgraduate training receive intensive training in sport psychology theory. They take subjects in psychology (personality psychology and social psychology), counselling psychology (individual and group counselling), research psychology (quantitative and qualitative research), as well as sport psychology and movement sciences (sport psychology, exercise psychology, sport psychometrics and sport physiology) (FSU, 2002c).

In the MS (Sport Psychology) and PhD (Sport Psychology) programmes at the UMT students are predominantly trained in developing and implementing life skills programmes, as well as performance enhancement consulting (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

The PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UNT has two programme components. One is the counselling psychology component and the other is the sport and exercise psychology component. Within the counselling psychology component students do courses such as assessment, human development, psychopathology, personal counselling and multi-cultural counselling. The sport and exercise psychology component entails sport psychology, sport sociology and exercise psychology (UNT, 2002).

JFKU offers an MA (Sport Psychology) and an MA (Counselling Psychology) with various specialization fields. These are addiction studies, child and adolescent therapy, couple and family therapy, conflict resolution, cross-cultural counselling, expressive arts therapy, as well as sport psychology (JFKU, 2002d). The MA (Sport Psychology) and MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at JFKU consist of the following courses: counselling psychology, cross-cultural psychology, psychopathology, sport psychology, sport sociology, psychology of coaching and ethics in sport (JFKU, 2002b, 2002c, 2002d).

At SDUIS the following courses can be taken in the MA (Sport Counselling) and PhD (Sport Psychology) programmes. On the one hand there are psychology courses, such as counselling psychology, cross-cultural counselling, ethical issues in counselling and research psychology. On the other hand there are sport psychology courses, such as the introduction to sport psychology, assessment in sport psychology, performance enhancement in sport, business principles in sport and career planning in sport (SDUIS, 2002).

At BU students can do an MEd (Sport Psychology) or EdD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programmes. The courses that can be taken in these programmes are psychological testing, human development, counselling theory and practice, cross-cultural perspectives, sport and exercise psychology, as well as research methodology (BU, 2002a; 2002b).

At the UMC, students who take the MA (Counselling Psychology) have to choose one of the following subspecialty areas: community counselling, sport psychology, career counselling, student affairs, rehabilitation counselling and school counselling. Regardless of the specialization field, all the students who take the MA (Counselling Psychology) do foundations of psychology and foundations of counselling psychology. Those students who do the MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) also do sport psychology as it relates to athletes and teams. Furthermore, students who also do the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) require additional course work in counselling psychology, as well as in sport psychology (UMC, 2002).

The Department of Psychology at the UA has a PhD (Clinical Psychology) programme with majors in clinical psychology, cognitive psychology, developmental psychology, psychobiology, policy and law. In this clinical psychology programme students who are interested in working within a sport context can take sport psychology as a subspecialty and do course work, an internship and a research project in sport psychology. This then leads to a PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology)(UA, 2002).

The MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programmes at the UM offers various courses. These are general psychology (biological basis of behaviour, cognitive-effective basis of behaviour, individual basis of behaviour and the social basis of behaviour) and clinical psychology (assessment, psychopathology, intervention and professional issues). Furthermore, the programme has three areas of specialization, namely community psychology, therapeutic psychology (family therapy) and sport psychology. The sport psychology is situated within a behaviourist paradigm (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; UM, 2002).

At the VCU students firstly do the MS (Counselling Psychology) programme in which they do the following psychology and counselling psychology courses: biological basis of behaviour, learning and cognition, design of psychological experiments, statistics in psychological research, as well as ethical principles in psychology. The counselling psychology courses are personality, psychopathology, psychotherapy, career counselling, psychological measurement, psychological interviewing, as well as community psychology. After completing the MS (Counselling Psychology) programme, students can apply for the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) in which the students do additional theoretical training. The courses that they do as part of the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) are developmental processes, such as adolescent development, adult development, social development and cross-cultural development, as well as contemporary developments in counselling psychology, social psychology, the evolution of psychological systems, the assessment of intelligence and the assessment of personality (VCU, 2002).

The PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme at the UMS has courses such as the biological basis of behaviour, cognitive-affective basis of behaviour, individual basis of behaviour, social basis of behaviour, psychopathology, foundations of clinical psychology, clinical assessment and clinical psychotherapies (UMS, 2002).

At UQ students take courses at the School of Human Movement Studies and the School of Psychology for the MPSE. These courses are interdisciplinary perspectives, counselling and consultation, sport and exercise psychology, psychological skills training, organizational psychology and professional issues (UQ, 2002).

I gleaned from this conference paper on the theoretical training in postgraduate sport psychology that there is a wide range of modules/courses that can be taken by students and that each training organisation has its own modules/courses. There seems to be no core programme that is followed by all the training organisations, which is most probably understandable as they are all situated in different contexts. What is interesting to note, is that sport psychology is in partnership with other forms of psychology, for example, clinical/counselling psychology.

Practice

From this paper on the theory and practice of sport psychology, it seems that practical training forms an integral part of postgraduate sport psychology training. The presenter of this paper gave the following examples of practical training in postgraduate sport psychology programmes.

Students who do the PhD (Sport Psychology) at FSU are expected to do an internship within a sport context. This can be done either with a sport team from FSU or with athletes and/or teams outside the FSU context (FSU, 2002c).

At AU students do 500 hours practical training as part of their MA (Sport Psychology)(Counselling Psychology) and for the PsyD (Clinical Psychology) (Sport Psychology) they do 500 hours practical work in a sport setting and 2000 hours practical work in a clinical setting (Argosy University [AU], 2002; Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

The MS (Sport Psychology) and PhD (Sport Psychology) programmes at the UMT require students to do practical work with athletes and teams in high schools and college settings (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

The PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UNT requires a one-year internship as part of the programme. This internship entails work in a counselling and sport setting (UNT, 2002).

At the JFKU students who do the MA (Sport Psychology) and MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) do an internship. These internships are in programmes such as the Performance Enhancement Group for Injured Athletes (PEG), the Life Enhancement through Athletic and Academic Participation (LEAP), as well as within JFKU Summer Camps (John F. Kennedy University [JFKU], 2002e).

The students at BU who do the EdD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) do a practical placement in the second year of their EdD and a one-year internship in their third year (BU, 2002b).

Students who do the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UMC need to do a one-year internship as part of the programme requirements (UMC, 2002).

At the UA there are sport psychology internships available at the university's Athletic Department. These internships are 400 hours long and focus on mental skills training as well as life skills programmes. Other internships also exist at, for example, substance abuse centres, fitness and wellness centres, as well as in the corporate environment (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

Students who do the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UM do a one-year internship as part of their training programme, as well as practical work in the subspecialty field of sport psychology, from a behaviourist paradigm (Sachs *et al.*, 2001, UM, 2002).

At the VCU students do practical work as part of their training in the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology). In the first, second and third year of the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) students do practical work at VCU's Counselling Services as well as at the Centre for Psychological Services and Development (CPSD). In the fourth year of the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) students do practical work in his/her particular field of interest, for example, at the Life Skills Centre, where sport is used to develop the life skills of adolescents. In the fourth year, students are required to do up to 20 hours practical work per week (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; VCU, 2002). After completion of their theoretical and practical training, as well as a research project, students do a one-year supervised internship with an organisation that is accredited by the APA (VCU, 2002).

The students who do the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology programme at the UMS, do a one year internship as part of their training (UMS, 2002).

At UQ students do a supervised internship and externship as part of the MPSE. The internship focuses on providing students with a supervised practical experience within the university. There are two externships, the one is in a sport and exercise setting and the other in a non-sport and non-exercise setting (UQ, 2002).

Overall, it seems that training in sport psychology focuses on theoretical and practical training.

DB: Were you able to attend a conference paper on the role of supervision in postgraduate sport psychology training programmes?

LH: There was a paper on the role of supervision in postgraduate sport psychology training programmes. The presenter of this paper stated that it played an important role in sport psychology training and mentioned the following sport psychology training institutions where supervision is important.

The students who do the MA (Sport Psychology) and MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the JFKU receive supervision in the practical work that they do on the PEG, the LEAP, as well as at JFKU Summer Camps (JFKU, 2002e).

This is also the case at the UM. The students who do the MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at the UM receive supervision for the practical work that they do in the field of sport psychology. They work very closely with a lecturer in the Psychology Department who works with a provincial sports team (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

At the VCU all theoretical and practical training in the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme, is done under supervision of the Department of Counselling Psychology. It is important to note that supervision also forms an integral part of a student's research project (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

At the UMC supervision forms an integral part of the one-year internship that students do as part of the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) (UMC, 2002).

The students who do the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme at the UMS, do a one year internship under supervision as part of their training (UMS, 2002).

The internship and externship that the students do at UQ during the MPSE are done under close supervision (UQ, 2002).

Supervision, therefore, forms an integral part of postgraduate training programmes in sport psychology.

DB: You also attended the conference paper on partnership(s) that sport psychology has with clinical/counselling/educational psychology or partnership(s) that Psychology Departments have with other academic/sport departments?

LH: The paper that was presented saw sport psychology as being in partnerships with clinical, counselling and educational psychology and also the importance of having a partnership between a Psychology Department and various other departments in a training organisation.

The first part of the paper was devoted to the relationship between sport psychology on the one hand and clinical, counselling and educational psychology on the other hand. The presenter of this conference paper mentioned various training organisations where these partnerships exist.

FSU offers an MS (Sport Psychology) and PhD (Sport Psychology) that are located in the Educational Psychology Programme in the Department of Educational Psychology and Learning Systems. There is thus a partnership between educational psychology and sport psychology at FSU (FSU, 2002a).

MSU has an MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme that is primarily a clinical psychology programme, which allows students to take sport psychology as a subject (Sachs et al., 2001).

AU has an MA (Sport Psychology)(Counselling Psychology) programme with a partnership between sport psychology and counselling psychology while the PsyD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) entails a partnership between clinical psychology and sport psychology (AU, 2002; Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

UNT offers a PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and therefore there is a partnership between counselling psychology and sport psychology in this programme (UNT, 2002).

At JFKU there is a partnership between counselling psychology and sport psychology in their MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) (JFKU, 2002d).

The MEd (Counselling Psychology) (Sport Psychology) and an EdD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) at BU involves a partnership between counselling psychology and sport psychology (BU, 2002b).

The presenter of this paper indicated that in 1996 the UA moved their postgraduate programme in sport psychology from the Department of Exercise and Sport Science to the Psychology Department. In this PhD (Clinical Psychology) programme students who are interested in working within a sport context can also take sport psychology, which then leads to a PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology)(UA, 2002). Therefore, there exists a partnership between clinical and sport psychology at UA.

The UM has a MA (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology). In these programmes there is a partnership between clinical psychology and sport psychology (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

At VCU there exists a partnership between counselling psychology and sport psychology in the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology), although sport psychology is defined in a very broad sense in that it focuses on using sport as a medium to teach life skills to adolescents (Sachs *et al.*, 2001; VCU, 2002).

The second part of this conference paper focused on the partnership between a Psychology Department, which has sport psychology as a programme and other departments in training organisations. The following are examples that were mentioned by the presenter of this conference paper:

The UC offers sport psychology as part of its PhD (Social Psychology)(Sport Psychology). There is a close working relationship between the Psychology

Department at the UC and the International Centre for Talent Development, which is multidisciplinary in nature and strives to advance talent in various areas, for example, sport, music and art (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

AU has a MA (Sport Psychology)(Counselling Psychology) and PsyD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) that are housed in the School of Professional Psychology, which has a partnership with the Faculty of Exercise and Sport Science (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

At the UNT there exists a partnership between the Department of Psychology that runs the PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) in conjunction with the Centre for Sport Psychology and Performance Excellence (UNT, 2002).

BU offers an MEd (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) and EdD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology), which are situated in the Department of Developmental Studies and Counselling in the School of Education and the programmes are run with the support of other departments within the university (BU, 2002b).

A partnership exists between the Department of Psychology and the Athletic Department at the UA as students in the PhD (Clinical Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme who take sport psychology as a subspecialty, do internships within the Athletic Department (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

At the UQ the MPSE is run jointly by the School of Human Movement Studies and the School of Psychology (Sachs *et al.*, 2001, UQ, 2002).

The PhD (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme in the Department of Counselling Psychology has partnerships with VCU Counselling Services and the CPSD, where students do practical work relating to, for example, personal counselling and career guidance (VCU, 2002). There is also

a partnership with the Centre for Life Skills where students use sport to teach to and enhance the life skills of adolescents (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

From this conference paper I learnt that postgraduate sport psychology does not exist in isolation but is in partnership with other forms of psychology, for example, clinical, counselling and educational psychology. Furthermore, Psychology Departments that offer postgraduate sport psychology programmes often do so in partnership with other academic/sport departments.

DB: Were you able to meet some of the other conference delegates at this sport psychology conference?

LH: I also had the opportunity of speaking to some of the conference delegates between conference papers. I was interested to know what they thought the role (s) and service(s) of a sport psychologist should be. The following were some of the ideas they shared with me.

Role(s)

There seemed to be a great amount of consensus amongst the conference delegates regarding the roles that a sport psychologist should be able to fulfill, namely that of researcher and practitioner (Sachs *et al.*, 2001). This view was shared by the conference delegates from BU (BU, 2002b), FSU (FSU, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c), AU (AU, 2002), VCU (VCU, 2002) and UMS (UMS, 2002). To me this linked up with the conference paper that I attended on the aim(s) of sport psychology programmes, where it was also stated that a sport psychology programme should train students within the researcher-practitioner model.

Service(s)

The conversations that I had with the conference delegates regarding the role(s) and service(s) of a sport psychologist working in a sport context made me aware that there is a close link between the role(s) and service(s) of a sport

psychologist. As the primary roles were identified, in my conversations with other conference delegates, as those of researcher and practitioner, the primary services of a sport psychologist would be sport psychology research and practicing sport psychology in a sport context. I would like to share the views that were shared with me by some of the conference delegates.

The conference delegate from FSU said that a sport psychologist should be able to teach sport psychology, conduct research in the field of sport psychology, as well as deliver sport psychology services to individual athletes and sport teams within the context of sport organizations (FSU, 2002a, 2002b; Sachs *et al.*, 2001)

The conference delegate from AU shared the view of the conference delegate from FSU; the former conference delegate also added that as a sport psychology practitioner, the services of a sport psychologist should entail performance consulting, mental health consulting, as well as exercise/wellness consulting. The sport psychologist should be able to deliver these services in a variety of settings such as colleges and universities, exercise/wellness facilities and sport medicine facilities (Sachs *et al.*, 2001).

According to a conference delegate from SDUIS a sport psychologist should be able to develop and implement sport psychology programmes for the sporting community (SDUIS, 2002).

The conference delegate from BU saw personal counselling and sport consultation as the services that a sport psychologist should be able to render within the world of sport (BU, 2002b).

The conference delegate from VCU shared an interesting view with me in that a sport psychologist should fulfil the role of researcher and practitioner. As researcher they should be able to deliver research services that are culturally sensitive and as practitioners they should be able to deliver, for example, personal counselling and career guidance services (VCU, 2002).

From the talk with other conference delegates, I gained the impression that the primary roles of a sport psychologist working in a sport context are those of researcher and practitioner. As researcher the sport psychologist delivers research services in the field of sport and as practitioner the sport psychologist primarily delivers counselling and sport psychology services.

DB: Were you able to find out from the other conference delegates who are the clients of a sport psychologist?

LH: While I was attending the sport psychology conference, I asked some of the conference delegates if they would be prepared to share their views with me regarding whom they saw as the clients of sport psychology services. The conference delegate from FSU was of the opinion that the clients of sport psychology services are individual athletes and sport teams within sport organizations (Sachs *et al.*, 2001). The conference delegate from the SDUIS held the same view as the FSU conference delegate (SDUIS, 2002).

The focus is evidently narrowed and I wonder why coaches and administrators are not seen as possible clients? I wonder why spouses and families are not seen as possible clients? Maybe the answer lies somewhere in the emphasis that sport psychology has placed on cognitive-behaviour thinking and practice. In my opinion the world of sport psychology is too individualistic in how it has been constructed and the view that the world of sport is a system in which everyone is in constant interaction with one another, is still, I believe, a novelty.

DB: Could you describe your experience of this sport psychology conference that you attended?

LH: My visit to this sport psychology conference was extremely boring. I attended one paper after another and I have to say I did not learn anything new. It was a sort of “been there, heard that” experience. I started wondering if this is not the experience many athletes have of the work that sport psychologists do with them? I believe that many sport psychologists present wonderful “Power Point”

presentations on various topics to athletes but never involve the athletes and their experiences in their work. These sport psychologists bring science as a body of knowledge and practices to athletes and present science as the dominant and privileged body of knowledge and practices. It seems that sport psychologists are hardly ever interested in the knowledge and practices imbedded in the experiences of athletes. Is this the reason why athletes so often doubt the value of sport psychology?

DB: We have now had a conversation on the sport psychology conference that you attended. What is our next conversation going to be on?

LH: In the next conversation we shall discuss my visits to a sport psychology department at the USQ, in Toowoomba, Australia, in 2003. The aim of this visit was to view this university's MPSE and DPSE as part of my tour with sport psychology.

CHAPTER 7
JOURNAL ENTRY VI
SPORT PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT

I think my mental preparation for the marathon helps me in my training. Usually I imagine certain points in the race; catching someone, pulling away from someone, or the finish of the race. If you haven't done your mental homework in training then you don't have anything to fall back on.

Margaret Groos (in Lesyk, 2001, p.59)

DB: You also had the opportunity to visit a Psychology Department at a university abroad, which presented postgraduate training in sport psychology. Please tell me more about this?

LH: I visited the USQ in Toowoomba, Australia, from 10 February 2003 to 9 March 2003, 13 April 2003 to 11 May 2003 and 14 September 2003 to 18 October 2003. I decided to visit this university as they offered two postgraduate programmes in sport and exercise psychology and I wanted to visit at least one university outside of SA that offered such programmes. Furthermore, Prof. Terry from the USQ invited me to visit the USQ (Appendix B).

On my arrival in 2003 at the USQ in Australia, Prof. Terry, Head of Sport and Exercise Psychology at this university welcomed me. We had an informal conversation about the place of psychology, as well as sport and exercise psychology in Australia and SA. He also informed me that the USQ has two postgraduate programmes in sport and exercise psychology. These were the MPSE and DPSE programmes.

DB: Was it possible for you to find out anything about the selection criteria for these postgraduate programmes in sport psychology?

LH: Applicants had to adhere to certain criteria to become part of one of these programmes. The selection criteria for these programmes were academic achievement, personal ability, interpersonal skills, research ability as well as a

professional requirement (University of Southern Queensland Handbook [USQH], 2003b, 2003f).

Prospective students had to demonstrate their academic achievement by being in possession on an APS accredited four-year honours programme. A four-year honours programme allowed entry into the MPSE and DPSE programmes. The personal ability of an applicant to successfully undertake the professional and research components of the programmes was determined by means of two referee reports and a panel interview with the staff of the Department of Psychology at the USQ and this was used to assess the interpersonal skills of an applicant. The research ability of an applicant was determined by the academic marks achieved by an applicant in research psychology courses, as well as by a letter of recommendation from the applicant's previous research supervisor. To enter the MPSE or DPSE programmes the criterion of professional provisional registration was required of an applicant, with the Psychologists Board of Queensland. The registration was necessary for students to do practical work in the field of sport and exercise psychology (USQH, 2003b, 2003f).

DB: It is my understanding that you were able to attend some classes and practical work. Could you please tell me more about this?

LH: During my visits to the USQ I found that there were various lecture halls for the MPSE and DPSE programmes. There were lecture halls for aim(s), research, theory and practice, supervision and partnership(s) regarding the MPSE and DPSE programmes. Allow me to tell you more about these.

Lecture hall 1: aim(s)

In this lecture hall the aim(s) of the MPSE and DPSE programmes were being lectured. I entered this lecture hall and from what was being said by the lecturer standing in the front of the lecture hall, it seemed that one of the aims had to do with membership of the APS, as well as entry into the College of Sport Psychology of the APS. Furthermore, the programmes also had as an aim to

prepare students to apply for positions that required a higher degree in psychology, e.g. academic posts in Psychology Departments, as well as to apply their knowledge and skills to assist people who engaged in sport and exercise activities to achieve their potential in these areas. Another objective of these programmes was to prepare students to contribute to psychology, as well as sport and exercise psychology as a profession by taking an active role in the theoretical and practical development of psychology, in general and sport and exercise psychology specifically. A further aim of the programmes was to educate students in identifying research topics, as well as how to do the research in an ethical way and publish the research findings (University of Southern Queensland Handbook [USQH], 2003c, 2003g).

Lecture hall 2: research

In the MPSE and DPSE students received training in conducting a research project. The MPSE and DPSE programmes had a course in advanced research techniques, which entailed quantitative and qualitative research. In the quantitative section of the course, students were introduced to the technique of structural equation modelling and were trained in its use for a variety of uncomplicated multivariate research designs. The AMOS package was used for this purpose. In the qualitative section of the course, students were introduced to qualitative research approaches. Particular emphasis was placed on understanding the various stages of conducting qualitative research, from theoretical orientation, research question formulation through to analysis and interpretation. The intention of both sections of the course was to provide MPSE and DPSE students with skills that they could use in their own research dissertations (University of Southern Queensland Handbook [USQH], 2003d, 2003h).

The following were the courses that formed part of the research component of the MPSE programme (USQH, 2003d):

□ Project A (MPSE)

In this project it was expected that a student should prepare to undertake a supervised research project by completing a literature review, determining a methodology and obtaining the required ethical approval for the research project.

□ Project B (MPSE)

This was the second of two courses that contributed to the research component of the MPSE. The course consisted of an individual empirical project in a selected area of psychology, of relevance to a student's chosen specialisation. Under the supervision of a staff member, a student had to design the study based on a review of appropriate literature, collect and analyse data and write a report normally of 9,000 to 15,000 words (but not exceeding 20,000 words). It was expected that the report of the project would be of sufficient standard to be accepted for publication in an academic journal.

The following were the courses that formed part of the research component of the DPSE programme (USQH, 2003h):

□ Project A (DPSE)

This course involved selecting a topic and supervisor, conducting a thorough literature review and developing a detailed thesis proposal that critically summarised the current substantive, practice and research methodology issues. A student had to exhibit competence in conducting a thorough literature search using various databases, identifying pivotal issues, formulating appropriate research questions and hypotheses derived from theory and empirical findings and designing methods appropriate to investigating the research question(s). A written report (up to 8,000 words) had to be submitted to the supervisor.

□ Project B (DPSE)

This course involved conducting the first study as outlined in the research plan submitted in research project A (DPSE). A student was expected to conduct the study, report on the findings and provide a critical examination of the research plan. Based on these considerations a student was expected to make any modifications necessary to the proposed research plan and prepare to continue with the second study in research project C (DPSE).

□ Project C (DPSE)

This course involved conducting the second study as outlined in the research plan submitted in research project A (DPSE). A student was expected to consider the implications of the findings of research project B (DPSE) for the second study, conduct the study, report on the findings and critically examine the outcomes in terms of the overall research objectives.

□ Project D (DPSE)

This course involved the completion of the research component as outlined in the proposal submitted in research project A (DPSE) and conducted in the studies in research project B (DPSE) and C (DPSE). A student was expected to exhibit competence in using the appropriate analytical procedures to examine the hypotheses guiding the research programme, reporting and integrating the results of the studies completed, critically examining the findings in terms of theoretical underpinnings of the research, previous findings, methodological issues and directions for future study. When required, it was also expected that a student would use qualitative and quantitative techniques to triangulate sources of evidence and substantiate the thesis arguments. A written report (up to 30,000 words) had to be submitted for examination and an oral presentation of findings was required. The quality of the dissertation had to meet the standard of a good-refereed academic journal in its field.

I realized that regarding the training of postgraduate students in research, the quantitative discourse was the dominant discourse informing the way research was done in sport and exercise psychology at the USQ. This was evident in that only one student in the MPSE and DPSE programmes in 2003 was doing her research project within the qualitative discourse, while 12 students were doing their research projects within the quantitative discourse.

Firstly, I think the notion of time played an important role in quantitative research being the dominant research approach over qualitative research. On numerous occasions students mentioned to me that they were doing quantitative research as they were of the opinion that it was easier than qualitative research and that it was not as time consuming as qualitative research. Therefore, doing research from a quantitative perspective would make it more possible for them to finish their degrees within the prescribed time limit. It seems that the message that quantitative research is not as time consuming as qualitative research was also being conveyed by various lecturers to students and in so doing students were being influenced in doing quantitative rather than qualitative research.

Secondly, I think that the research interests and approaches of lecturers also had a significant influence on quantitative research being the dominant way research was done in sport and exercise psychology at the USQ. Students were encouraged to choose research topics that fell within the research interests of lecturers, as can be seen in the “2003 Psychology Postgraduate Handbook” (Terry & Bramston, 2003, p.34):

Decide on a research topic without regard for faculty interests or any serious consideration of who will supervise you. Review the literature on your topic and all related (albeit not quite relevant) topics. Make photocopies of all articles that look interesting. These activities will give you the comfortable feeling that you are making progress. If you make it this far, write your thesis proposal. Ignore all guides for preparing proposals; they will just confuse you. Learn to live with anxiety - it will help you understand your clients should you ever graduate. Persuade faculty members to supervise your thesis or to serve as committee members, even though they know nothing about your topic. Do not be discouraged when they recoil in horror.

Terry and Bramston (2003, p.34-35) also state the following:

See if there is a study just waiting to be done or an issue needing investigation than can be handled in a master's thesis. One of the most common and regrettable misconceptions is that the student must come up with an original research topic on his or her own and then find a supervisor. Even if you are able to come up with a thesis topic on your own, few faculty members are willing to supervise a thesis that is not directly related to their own research.

In my opinion the impact of this “forced” process of getting students to do research can be seen in an informal conversation I had with a DPSE programme student. I asked him what he was doing his research on. He informed me of his topic and I then asked him how he had come about choosing that topic. He told me that a lecturer had told him to do this for this DPSE-degree. I then asked him if he could choose any of the icons in sport and exercise psychology across the world who could be his research supervisor and if he could choose any research topic that he would like to do research on, who would that person be and what would the topic be. He answered me by saying “I do not know. I cannot answer your question. It's a very good question”. This answer left me astonished and amazed. How is it possible that a DPSE programme student could not even think of a research topic that was of his own making and come up with a possible supervisor? I got the impression that this phenomenon is not limited to this student but that many students had just taken research topics that had been handed down to them as this would on the one hand save them time so that they could finish their degrees as quickly as possible and also they would not have to think about the research question, problem, goal and process.

Furthermore, in one of the assignments that the MPSE and DPSE programmes students got to do in the course “Sport and Exercise Psychology: Research and Theory”, they were asked to critique a research article of their choice. The lecturer of this course provided the students only with guidelines on how to critique a quantitative research article. I wonder if this kind of behaviour on the part of the lecturer did not also convey a message that quantitative research is more important than qualitative research?

Lecture hall 3: theory and practice

To obtain the MPSE-degree students have to pass 16 units: eight coursework courses (eight units), three practicum courses (three units), two research courses (4 units) and one elective (one unit)(USQH, 2003d) and the DPSE-degree was obtained by passing 24 units: nine coursework courses (nine units), one practicum course (seven units), four research courses (seven units) and one elective (one unit)(USQH, 2003h).

The following courses were presented in the MPSE and DPSE programmes as part of the coursework (USQH, 2003d, 2003h):

- Professional practice: issues and skills (MPSE and DPSE)

This course focused on discipline knowledge and professional competencies. Students examined the assumptions, values and social skills, which they brought into their professional practice. Building on these, students developed their professional knowledge and competencies (interviewing, report writing, presentation skills).

- Individual assessment (MPSE and DPSE)

This course aimed at providing students with a broad understanding of approaches to assess individual behaviour through the use of standardised tests. Furthermore, students developed expertise in skills pertinent to general clinical practice.

- Individual intervention (MPSE and DPSE)

This course addressed principles and practice of cognitive-behaviour therapy in relation to common psychological problems such as anxiety, depression and other maladaptive reactions related to physical illness, stressful events and lifestyles.

□ Advanced individual intervention (DPSE)

This course built on the basic principles and practices of cognitive-behaviour therapy in relation to common psychological problems of anxiety, depression and other maladaptive reactions to acute and chronic illness. It provided students with opportunities to acquire skills from other therapeutic orientations that complement cognitive-behaviour therapy.

□ Group and organisational principles (MPSE and DPSE)

This course aimed at providing students with an understanding of the theories of group and organisational processes and experience in applying these processes to the area of group facilitation and organisational consultation. Students were given practical experience in strategies and techniques for enhancing a group's effectiveness, as well as techniques for diagnosing organisational problems and developing solutions to these problems.

□ Sport and exercise psychology: research and theory (MPSE and DPSE)

This course covered the theory and methods of sport and exercise psychology. Theory and research into psychological factors that affected the behaviour of the individual athlete and sport teams were discussed. Although the focus of sport psychology has been on the elite performer, emphasis was placed on the applicability of theory and research in this branch of the discipline to sport and exercise participants across the whole community.

□ Sport and exercise psychology: theory and practice (MPSE and DPSE)

This course examined current research and practice in applied sport and exercise psychology. There was a blend of theory and practice with emphasis on the latter. Models of applied psychology were examined and students were provided with a broad range of psychological techniques applicable to sport and exercise.

□ Sport and exercise psychology: professional practice (MPSE and DPSE)

This course examined the range of psychological services sport psychologists may be asked to perform and how professionally prepared and culturally aware they were to meet these demands. Emphasis was placed on examining target populations other than “mainstream elite athletes”. Students were required to examine their personal biases, assumptions and professional boundaries in providing psychological services to clients (individuals, groups, organisations) across different cultural dimensions, including ethnicity, gender, sexuality, age, mental and physical ability, religion, sporting role and marital/family structure.

□ Elective (MPSE and DPSE)

In this course students could focus either on directed readings in professional psychology or on courses from the Master of Psychology (Health) programme.

Besides the coursework that students did as part of the MPSE and DPSE programmes, they were also expected to undergo practical training. The theoretical and practical training were done according to the researcher-practitioner model and students received individual and group supervision for their practical work. The practical work was done in a counselling setting, for example, Student Services at the USQ, as well as in a variety of sport contexts, for example, rugby, soccer, hockey, netball, swimming and dance. The following courses were presented in the MPSE and DPSE as part of the practicum (USQH, 2003d, 2003h):

□ Practicum 1 (MPSE and DPSE, 350 hours)

This practicum was designed to provide students with a structured situation in a counselling agency in which appropriate psychological skills could be developed to increase levels of competency. It gave a student the opportunity to examine applied problems from a theoretical perspective and to then apply theoretically derived interventions.

□ Practicum 2 (MPSE and DPSE, 350 hours)

This practicum course provided students with a structured situation in which to develop knowledge and skills within their chosen field of specialty. While the objectives were similar to practicum 1, the level of independent practice and the application to specialist areas further challenged the students to broaden and diversify beyond their responsibilities in the first placement.

□ Practicum 3 (MPSE and DPSE, 350 hours)

Assessment of a student's development in practicum's 1 and 2 would determine areas in which the student was capable of independent practice within a structured setting. Students who had interests in areas in which they had not had the opportunity to train, would be able to address some of their time to that area if an appropriate setting was available.

□ Advanced practicum (DPSE, 500 hours)

This course prepared a student for entry into the profession at a senior level with particular identifiable expertise. A student had to complete the required hours under the supervision of a practitioner with recognised expertise in the area. The practicum could involve more than one setting as the student could choose to broaden competencies in individual as well as organisational level of delivery in the area of specialty.

With regards to the students training as practitioners it seems that the cognitive-behaviour discourse was the dominant discourse that was informing the training

of students at the USQ. Although they were being exposed to various subjects, the dominant way of working was from the cognitive-behaviour paradigm. During my visits to the USQ, I attended various sport and exercise psychology classes of Prof. Terry and the dominant school of thought in these classes was cognitive-behaviour thinking and practice. In some of the conversations that I had with some of the students in these classes, I realized that very few of them had been exposed to, for example, systemic thinking and practice. I wonder why there is still such a dominant focus on the individual in the world of sport via the cognitive behaviour paradigm, while sport organisations function as systems, with relationships, for example, between athletes and coaches, athletes and administrators and administrators and coaches?

The aspect of the MPSE and DPSE that interested me a lot was the combination of clinical/counselling psychology and sport and exercise psychology. The MPSE and DPSE had approximately a 50% clinical/counselling psychology component and a 50% sport and exercise component. This division in the programme did not only relate to the theoretical component of the MPSE and DPSE but also to the practical component. Students in the MPSE and DPSE programmes did practical training in clinical/counselling settings, as well as in sport and exercise settings. Examples of clinical/counselling practical placements were Student Services at the USQ and Toowoomba Base Hospital, while examples of sport and exercise practical placements include the Queensland netball team and a private practice of a sport physiotherapist in Toowoomba. To me there is an advantage of having clinical/counselling psychology and sport and exercise psychology in one programme because this allows students to be trained in psychotherapeutic work in the sport context as well as in psycho-educational work in the sport context.

Lecture hall 4: supervision

At the USQ the supervision of MPSE and DPSE played an important role. Students received one-hour individual supervision per week and two hours group supervision per week. The focus of supervision was on discussing case

studies from the various practical settings that students worked in, as well as to integrate theory and practice (Mr. Steve Christensen, personal communication, September 17, 2003).

Lecture hall 5: partnership(s)

The MPSE and DPSE fell within the Department of Psychology, which was part of the Faculty of Science at USQ (USQ, 2003b, 2003f). These courses did not have any formal links with other departments at the USQ but did have very strong links with various sport organisations where students did practical work, for example, the Northern Inland Academy of Sport (NIAS)(Mr. Steve Christensen, personal communication, September 17, 2003).

DB: Did you have the opportunity to speak to some of the students at the University of Southern Queensland, as well as to sport psychologists who did their training at the University of Southern Queensland?

LH: I had the opportunity to speak to five students and four sport psychologists while at the USQ. After I had spoken to each one of them, I wrote a reflecting letter to each one (White & Epston, 1990), telling them what I had learnt from them regarding their training in sport and exercise psychology.

□ Students

▪ Student 1

Conversation: 22 April 2003, 10h30-11h30, USQ

A,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to thank you for the conversation we had on 22 April 2003 at the USQ and I would like to use this letter to reflect on our conversation.

In the conversation we had we spoke about various aspects regarding your training in sport and exercise psychology at the USQ. The theme that struck me most during our conversation and which I would like to apply in the development and implementation of a postgraduate programme in sport psychology at the UP in SA was the theme of “balance”. As a psychology student-in-training you mentioned to me that training in theory and practice was important to you and that you felt that in a sport and exercise psychology training programme there should be a balance between the amount of theoretical training and time spent with regards to practical training. You mentioned to me that theoretical training allowed you to gain more knowledge and practical training more experience regarding the field of sport psychology. In this process of gaining knowledge and experience regarding the field of sport and exercise psychology, you allowed yourself to grow as a future sport psychologist. Furthermore, it seemed to me that the theme of balance was also important in the way you viewed yourself as a future sport psychologist. You mentioned that you would like to be a sport psychologist who is balanced regarding your personal and professional life, in that there should be a time and space to accommodate both of these in your world. I think you were trying to tell me something of the importance of boundaries in your life, which I myself also see as very important when working as a sport psychologist, as I believe this is a healthy way for me to be sensitive towards people.

I want to thank you for what I was able to learn from you as a psychology student-in-training and I hope that the sport and exercise psychology programme that I develop and implement at the end of the day, will also be a balanced one and make students aware of the importance of being a balanced person and sport psychologist.

- Student 2

Conversation: 22 April 2003, 18h00-19h00, USQ

B,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to thank you for the conversation we had on 22 April 2003 at USQ. I would like to use this letter to reflect on our conversation.

As I remember we discussed some of the positive and negative experiences you had regarding your theoretical and practical training, as well as supervision at the USQ. When I think back on our conversation the theme of “position” comes to mind. I am referring here to that part of the conversation where we spoke about being a technique-sport psychologist of an experiential-sport psychologist. You explained to me that you saw the technique-sport psychologist as someone who has goals and applies psychological interventions to achieve those goals, while the experiential-sport psychologist does not always have these clear set of goals but rather prefers to work in the here-and-the-now. If I remember correctly you saw yourself much more as an experiential-sport psychologist in future, who prefers to work in the here-and-the-now but you sometimes felt that the programme at the USQ was in subtle ways communicating to you that the preferred way of being a sport psychologist, was to be a technique-sport psychologist, a message you felt was also being communicated to you by the APS. Despite this, it seemed to me that you had made a decision to be an experiential-sport psychologist when you graduate in future, who preferred to work in the here-and-the-now, as this would allow you to be more congruent with whom you are as a person. I would like to say that I admire you for standing up against these subtle persuasions to gravitate towards the dominant discourse to be a technique-sport psychologist in the world of sport and exercise psychology. I do believe that athletes will pick up on this courage of yours and this might even be the most valuable lesson they learn from you as a person that is, to be yourself in a world that is always in subtle ways trying to change us.

Thank you for what I learnt from you as a psychology student-in-training, which is that a sport and exercise psychology programme should allow psychology students-in-training to find their own position as a sport psychologist, even if that position is not within the mainstream of psychology. In doing so I am of the opinion that we shall keep the psychology profession

healthy, not by subtly forcing everyone to be the same but by encouraging people to be different.

- Student 3

Conversation: 23 April 2003, 10h00-11h00, USQ

C,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to write you a letter regarding the conversation we had on 23 April 2003 at USQ. Allow me to thank you for taking the time to have a conversation with me regarding your training in sport and exercise psychology at the USQ.

In our conversation we discussed various aspects regarding your training in sport and exercise psychology at the USQ. We spoke about theory, practice, research, supervision, time and assessments. The word that comes to mind when I think of our conversation is “safety”. I wonder if you were in our conversation trying to tell me that for you to be able to learn it is important that the learning takes place within a safe learning environment. In this regard you mentioned to me, for example that something like supervision should be built on trust, for you to be able to share your experiences with fellow students and supervisors. You also told me that you thought it is important that a sport and exercise psychology programme as a whole should be set against the background of a safe learning environment for students, as this would possibly enhance the learning process of these students. It is as if safety and learning go hand in hand for you and limited time is very often an enemy of this safety and therefore also of your own learning process. Furthermore, the university’s emphasis on getting students through the system as quickly as possible, puts a lot of pressure on lecturers and students and at the end of the day takes away a lot of what is needed to create a safe learning environment for you.

I think the aspect of safety, which came to the fore in our conversation, is very important in the training of professional psychology, where students are very

often expected to share who they are with others. I would like to thank you for reminding me of this important aspect regarding the training of psychology students and I shall actively seek to implement this value in the sport and exercise psychology programme which I am developing and hope to implement in the near future at the UP in SA.

- Student 4

Conversation: 25 April 2003, 14h00-15h00, USQ

D,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to thank you for the conversation that we had on 25 April 2003 at the USQ and would like to make use of this letter to reflect on our conversation.

In our conversation we had we spoke about various aspects regarding your training as USQ in sport psychology. I would like to emphasize one or two things from our conversation that I think are important in the development and implementation of a sport and exercise psychology programme. The first aspect that comes to mind is that of teaching styles. You mentioned in our conversation that during your training you had been exposed to various teaching styles. On the one hand, some lecturers followed a more technique-orientated teaching style while, on the other hand there were lecturers who adhered more to an experiential way of teaching. You saw the exposure you had to both these teaching styles as very valuable during your training, as you felt it enriched your training in sport and exercise psychology. The second aspect that comes to mind is that your training in sport psychology put you on a route of “discovery”. It seemed that during your theoretical and practical training you discovered many things that you might not have expected to discover. You discovered that counselling psychology and sport and exercise psychology are not separate from one another but what you learn in the one area could be used in the other area. Furthermore, during your practical training you discovered that sport psychologists have a much broader task than is traditionally seen as

the role of a sport psychologist, being primarily performance enhancement with athletes. You realized that part of your work would be to understand and address organisational issues when working as a sport psychologist, especially when these organisational issues have a profound impact on athletes. Another aspect of your discovery was realizing that theory and practice have a way of defining their own relationship with one another, in that practice does not always follow theory but very often precedes it.

To me the most important aspect that I shall take with me regarding the research that I am doing, is the aspect of discovery. I do believe that a postgraduate programme in any form of psychology, should not only be about the parting of information by lecturers to students but should also allow students to embark on a road of discovery.

- Student 5

Conversation: 23 April 2003, 11h00-12h00, USQ

E,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to on the one hand thank you for the conversation we had on 23 April 2003 at USQ and on the other hand to use this letter to reflect on our conversation.

We spoke about a few aspects of your training in sport and exercise psychology at the USQ and the one thing that struck me most in our conversation was the aspect of “empowerment”. You told me that prior to doing your DPSE you had not previously been exposed to counselling psychology. The training in counselling psychology that you went through in the programme was a very empowering experience for you. It was not just the theoretical or practical training that was empowering but also the coming together of the theory and practice. Maybe this is why you have not yet had the same experience regarding your training in the sport and exercise psychology side of the programme. You mentioned to me that the sport and exercise psychology was still very textbook

bound and a bit divorced from “real life” situations but that you were, in yourself busy with a process of bringing sport and exercise psychology theory and practice together. I wonder if the marriage of theory and practice in sport and exercise psychology will also create the sense of empowerment you experienced with your counselling psychology training? I think it most probably will. You also mentioned that you saw research as an important aspect of your training and the work that you will one day do as a sport psychologist, as it allowed you to evaluate whether your work had an empowering impact in the lives of athletes. The one thing I think could be an enemy and threat to your experience of empowerment, is the fact that most of the practical work is done free of charge, which very often leads to students-in-training either being underutilized or misused. At a stage during our conversation you said that it would be great if the USQ could be lifted up and place somewhere else, where there would be more significant opportunities for doing practical work during training. It seemed to be that the practical side of the programme sometimes could keep you from creating a sense of empowerment for yourself.

I would like to thank you for what I was able to learn from you as a student-in-training in sport and exercise psychology. I think a postgraduate programme in sport and exercise psychology should at all times, strive to create experiences of empowerment to all students, during theoretical and practical training.

□ Sport psychologists

▪ Sport psychologist 1

Conversation: 22 April 2003, 09h00-10h00, USQ

A,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to write you a letter regarding the conversation we had on 22 April 2003 at USQ. Thank you for making time to share your experiences with me regarding your training in sport and exercise psychology, as well as your experiences as a practicing sport psychologist.

When I think back on our conversation there are two things that come to mind. The one is “network” and the other is “position”. Allow me to elaborate on these two aspects a bit more. If I remember correctly you referred to different learning spaces during your training in sport and exercise psychology. There was classroom learning, supervision learning, as well as informal learning, which took place amongst lecturers and peers outside the formal classroom and supervision settings. It struck me that you experienced the informal learning spaces as the most valuable in your training as a future sport psychologist. It would seem that this learning space was more conducive for thoughts to be exchanged and moulded and where skills could be “judged” for their worth in working with athletes. It was also within this learning space that you were able to build up a network with fellow students, which today has become a network of colleagues, which seems to have a supportive function in your role as a sport psychologist. I further remember from our conversation that you acknowledged that theory had a place in training but that it should not be forced down on athletes but rather be adapted to fit every unique situation when working with athletes. In this regard you mentioned one lecturer saying, “if you only have a hammer, you will treat all athletes as nails”. It seemed to be that you very much identified with this statement, as it embodies something of your philosophy regarding the use of theory in your work as a sport psychologist that is that theory should not be applied as rigid truth to all situations but rather as a flexible tool which could be helpful in working with athletes. In our conversation we also spoke about how you view yourself as a sport psychologist. I became aware of the emphasis you place on being aware of who you are as a sport psychologist, as well as having respect for the experiences of athletes. In this regard you shared a story with me in which an athlete whom you had worked with chose to see his/her athletic process as climbing up a mountain. You showed respect towards this athlete by sticking to that metaphor and used theory to facilitate that athletes climbing process and not to replace it with scientific knowledge and practices. I must say I very much myself identify with that way of practicing psychology and admire you for that.

I think that both the aspects of “network” and “position” are very important within the context of a postgraduate programme in any form of psychology, be it clinical, counselling educational, industrial or sport and exercise psychology. In my opinion a sport and exercise psychology programme should in one way or the other allow students-in-training to build a support network for the future when they will be practicing as sport psychologists. Furthermore, it should also challenge and facilitate the process whereby students-in-training find their own positions as future sport psychologists. I will do my utmost to apply what I have learnt from you in the programme I plan to implement at the UP in SA.

- Sport psychologist 2

Conversation: 26 April 2003, 11h00-13h00, USQ

B,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to once again thank you for the conversation we had on 26 April 2003 via the Internet (Yahoo Messenger). I would like to make use of this letter to reflect on the conversation we had on that day.

As I mentioned to you at the end of our conversation, two metaphors came to mind during our conversation. The one was “searching” and the other was “preaching”. We started off our conversation by you telling me something of your process in finding a suitable training institution in sport and exercise psychology for you. After a lot of searching you finally decided to pursue your training, for various reasons, at the USQ. During your training some of the learning spaces allowed you to continue with your searching process, not for a suitable place to study but rather the searching of theoretical paradigms, practical skills and yourself as a person. Unfortunately, there were also learning spaces that were blind and deaf to this searching process of yours. These spaces were filled with preaching theory and practice and the more you tried to introduce your searching into these spaces, the blinder and deafer these spaces became to your searching. It came to a point where you considered leaving the

USQ but in some way found it in you to stay on and complete your studies. Maybe at the end of the day it will not just be your theoretical knowledge and practical skills that will benefit the athletes that you work with but rather your determination to continue the journey and complete it. I believe that this experience you had, would make you sensitive to the searching process of athletes, allowing them that process and not displacing it too easily and quickly with scientific teaching.

I once again realized during our conversation how important it is for us as sport psychologists to be sensitive towards the searching processes of others and to allow others the space to do just that. When we start preaching our scientific paradigms and skills too quickly and easily we could be doing more harm than good. I also learnt from you that people have the inherent ability to stand up against preaching, which does not allow them the space to do their own searching. I hope that the programme that I shall implement at the UP in SA, will allow students to search the theory, explore practical skills, as well as discover themselves.

- Sport psychologist 3

Conversation: 2 May 2003, 21h00-22h00, USQ

C,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to once again thank you for the conversation we had on 2 May 2003 at USQ. I would like to make use of this letter to reflect on the conversation we had on that day.

In the conversation that we had you mentioned that you thoroughly enjoyed your training at the USQ. It was especially the practical work that you did with disabled athletes that you experienced as extremely challenging, as working with these athletes challenged you to work in an innovative way, which was very often not always in accordance with what mainstream psychology would expect you to do. The challenge of that experience of working with disabled

athletes did not only have to do with the disabled athletes but with the coaches as well. You were of the opinion that coaches working with disabled athletes could be divided into three groups. The first group was young coaches working with disabled athletes as a way of establishing themselves on their way to working with elite athletes. The second group you described as the older coaches who had been coaching for many years on various levels and were involved in the coaching of disabled athletes as part of their retirement coaching. The third group you saw as those coaches who were involved with disabled athletes because these were the athletes they wanted to coach, not because they were coaches on their way “up” or “down” and therefore using disabled athletes. You mentioned that it was a challenge to work with the “going up” and “coming down” coaches.

From our conversation I realized that it is important that a postgraduate programme in sport and exercise psychology should allow students to be challenged, as this will allow them to go about their work in innovative ways and not always fall into the traditional way of doing things. I believe that when we are challenged the possibility of growth is enhanced considerably.

- Sport psychologist 4

Conversation: 2 May 2003, 20h00-21h00, USQ

D,

I would like to make use of this opportunity to once again thank you for the conversation we had on 2 May 2003 at USQ. I would like to make use of this letter to reflect on the conversation we had on that day.

When I think back on our conversation I think about the various roles that you currently fulfil as a sport psychologist. Currently you work within the field of counselling psychology (personal counselling), career psychology (career guidance) and sport psychology (performance enhancement). The career guidance is done at Griffith University in Brisbane for two days a week with the first year students at this university. The remainder of the week is spent in your

private practice in Brisbane where you do personal counselling with people and performance enhancement with athletes. This variety within your work seems to suite your personality as a person. I remember thinking during our conversation that working in a variety of fields was most probably born within the postgraduate programme that you did at the USQ where you did practical training in career guidance at Student Services at the USQ, personal counselling at Student Services at the University of Queensland for Technology, as well as performance enhancement with dance students at this university.

I think that our conversation was valuable to me in that it made me realize that it is important that a postgraduate programme in sport psychology should in my opinion train students to be multi-skilled, especially in a country like SA. I think that it can only be to students' advantage if they are, for example, able to have a diverse private practice, like doing personal counselling, performance enhancement and career guidance.

DB: I was wondering if you were able to find out anything regarding the role(s) and service(s) of a sport psychologist during your visits to the University of Southern Queensland?

LH: In both the MPSE and DPSE programmes students were trained within the researcher-practitioner model. Those students who therefore completed their training at the USQ, should be able to interpret the roles of researcher and practitioner (University of Southern Queensland Handbook [USQH], 2003a, 2003e).

The sport psychology programmes at the USQ trained students who were to become sport psychologists to interpret the roles of researchers and practitioners. As researchers they were expected to be able to conduct research projects and as practitioners they were expected to be able to do therapeutic work, as well as develop and implement psychological skills training programmes in sport contexts (USQH, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c, 2003d, 2003e, 2003f, 2003g, 2003h).

DB: Who are the clients who should benefit from the services that are rendered by a sport psychologist who has been trained at the University of Southern Queensland?

LH: In this section I would like to tell you about two of my experiences that I had while I was in Australia, which might shed some light on who the clients of sport psychologists are. The one experience had to do with a sport psychologist working on a developmental level, while the other experience had to do with the work of a sport psychologist with elite athletes.

The first experience was on a trip that a colleague and I went on with Mr. Steve Christensen, a lecturer at the USQ and sport psychologist, who is a member of the APS. We went to the towns of Armidale and Tamworth about 500km west of Sydney in the state of New South Wales from 28 April 2003 to 1 May 2003. The aim of the trip was to conduct sport psychology workshops within the NIAS with adolescents (12-15 yrs). The NIAS is one of 10 regional academies in the state of New South Wales and focuses on the development of young Australian athletes so that they can make the transition to higher levels of competition and performance. The towns Armidale, Gunnedah, Glen Innes, Inverell, Moree, Narrabri, Tamworth and Tenderfield form part of NIAS (Northern Inland Academy of Sport, [NIAS], 2002). The sport psychology workshops were presented in conjunction with sport nutrition and sport medicine and focused on five topics: relaxation, visualization, concentration, communication and motivation. The people who attended the workshops in Armidale and Tamworth were athletes from various sporting codes (e.g. swimming, netball, track and field), parents and coaches. During this experience I learnt that sport psychology is not just about the athlete as the client of the sport psychologist but that parents and coaches are also involved as they attended the sport psychology workshops. It is interesting to note that prior to 2003 the sport psychology, sport nutrition and sport medicine workshops were held during athlete training camps but this changed in 2003 to evening workshops (18h00-21h00) to allow parents to attend the workshops as well.

The second experience was on 2 May 2003 when a colleague and I attended a netball game in Brisbane between the Queensland Firebirds and Melbourne Phoenixes. These two teams are two of the eight top netball teams in Australia and participate in the state league. The Melbourne Phoenixes won the netball league in 2002 and had five Australian netball players in their team. I attended this netball game with Michael Lloyd, a sport psychologist working via the Queensland Academy of Sport with the Queensland Firebirds. He is also a member of APS and works on a weekly basis with Queensland Firebirds where he does individual and team work with the netball players. He also works with the coach and manager of the team. On the evening of the game between the Queensland Firebirds and Melbourne Phoenixes he was available to the players, coach and manager before and after the game. I learnt from him that his work mainly entails personal counselling and team building and from time to time he will do mental skills training with the team. He prefers to work on a continuous basis with the team, coach and manager and does not see his role as a motivator using five-minute “prep” talks to “psych-up” the team. His work is not just focused on the netball players as athletes but he also works with the coach and manager of the team, thus having a comprehensive approach to his work as a sport psychologist working with elite netball players.

DB: How would you describe your experience of visiting the Department of Psychology at the University of Southern Queensland, which offered a Master of Psychology (Sport and Exercise) and a Doctor of Psychology (Sport and Exercise)?

LH: I think I went to the USQ with the expectation, of finding a “new” kind of psychology that was used within the world of sport and which I did not know anything about. I was disappointed. I did not find a “new” psychology, only “old” psychology such as cognitive-behaviour thinking and practice that was applied in a different context, the sport context. I think my visit to the USQ was more an affirmation of the level of quality of training that we do in the Department of Psychology at the UP. Furthermore, I also came to the

realization that a training programme in professional psychology can be a combination of counselling psychology, as well as sport and exercise.

DB: We have now had a conversation on a sport psychology department that you visited. What will our next conversation involve?

LH: In our next conversation I would like us to focus on my visit to a sport centre in SA and a sport institute in Australia, to view how sport psychology is practiced, or not practiced as part of my tour with sport psychology.

CHAPTER 8
JOURNAL ENTRY VII
SPORT CENTRE AND SPORT INSTITUTE

If you're a champion, you have to have it in your heart. If you have the greatest coaches in the world, all the opportunities to play and the greatest equipment but you don't have it inside, you're not going to make it. On the other hand, if you don't have any of those luxuries but you have heart and courage and the guts to go out there and grid it out, then you'll make it.

Chris Evert (in Lynberg, 1993, p.6)

DB: I was told you paid a visit to the High Performance Centre of the University of Pretoria. Would you like to tell me more about your visit to the High Performance Centre?

LH: The HPC is situated on the premises of the LC de Villiers sport stadium of the UP and is run by TuksSport (Pty) Ltd. It was established in 2001 with the aim of providing sport science services to professional and recreational athletes. The HPC has an assessment centre, a sport science gymnasium, an auditorium, a learning centre and various forms of accommodation. A number of sporting codes have been identified for development within TuksSport (Pty) Ltd, as they have the potential to lend themselves to sustainable sporting careers nationally and internationally. These are rugby, soccer, netball, athletics, swimming, basketball, hockey, tennis, gymnastics, cricket and golf. There are various sporting facilities which form part of the HPC, for example, 16 rugby fields, three soccer fields, eight netball courts, one athletic track, one 50m swimming pool, one 25m swimming pool (heated), one indoor pool (heated), four basketball courts, six hockey fields, 18 tennis courts, one gymnastics hall and seven cricket ovals (High Performance Centre [HPC], 2003).

The HPC currently runs a sport school that has 100 pupils in the school who come from all over SA. There are 35 primary school pupils and 65 high school pupils. The school is non-traditional in its approach and currently has four sport academies: tennis, swimming, gymnastics and soccer. The athletes do sport in

the morning (06h30-10h30) and thereafter go to school (11h00-15h30). In the afternoon they do sport (16h00-18h00) and in the evenings they have time to study (19h00-22h00) (Mrs. Hettie de Villiers, personal communication, June 4, 2003).

For this research project I decided to focus on the sport school within TuksSport (Pty) Ltd and their need for psychological services within the sport school and within the Academy of Swimming and the Academy of Soccer. The Managing Director of TuksSport (Pty) Ltd, Mr. Fanus Engelbrecht, identified the sport school as the number one priority area in TuksSport (Pty) Ltd where psychological services had to be established and the Manager of the Academies of Sport at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd, Mr. Rocco Meiring, identified the Academy of Swimming and the Academy of Soccer as the academies where psychological services had to be established. It is for this reason that I had a conversation with the Manager of the Academies of Sport at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd, Mr. Meiring and with the school principal, Mrs. Hettie de Villiers. Furthermore, I also had a conversation with the swimming and soccer coaches, as well as with four swimmers and four soccer players. I also attended five of the life skills presentations that were held at the HPC for the athletes.

DB: Would it be possible for you to tell me more about the conversations you had with Mr. Rocco Meiring and Mrs. Hettie de Villiers?

Mr. Rocco Meiring

Manager: Academies of Sport @ TuksSport (Pty) Ltd

28 May 2003, 15h30-16h30

LH: In the conversation I had with Mr. Meiring, he told me that TuksSport (Pty) Ltd at the HPC currently had a life skills programme, which guest speakers, from outside the HPC, presented every Wednesday. He indicated that this was not very satisfactory as it made the life skills programme come across as very fragmented. Furthermore, the athletes that were attending the life skills

workshops were experiencing it as very boring because the whole classroom situation was being played out in these life skills workshops.

He stated that what he would expect from a sport psychologist at the HPC of TuksSport (Pty) Ltd was to develop and implement a generic life skills programme for all the athletes and also to develop and implement specific life skills programmes for specific sporting codes, for example, gymnastics, soccer, swimming and tennis. He is also of the opinion that these life skills programmes should be characterized by continuity and should be practical in nature and consequently the life skills should be presented in such a manner that the athletes do not feel that they are sitting in a classroom again and that the life skills programme should make a “real” difference to how they participate in their sport.

It was specifically the aspect of continuity that struck me in the conversation that I had with Mr. Meiring. I think continuity is crucial in the field of sport psychology, if it is to make a difference in the world of sport. I believe that, to date, sport psychology’s involvement has been very fragmented and limited to coming in and giving a motivational talk here and a goal setting talk there. I wonder how sport psychology would be different if sport psychologists would attend all the practices and games of athletes to observe athletes behaviour on the sport field and to assist coaches on-site? What would happen if sport psychologists moved away from being lecture-hall sport psychologists to on-site sport psychologists? In my opinion I think that the didactic educational discourse has been the dominant discourse informing the work of sport psychologists in the sport world to date and that the time has arrived that the experiential educational discourse be given a bigger voice that comes from sport psychologists working directly with athletes.

Mrs. Hettie de Villiers

Principal: Sport School @ TuksSport (Pty) Ltd

04 June 2003, 14h00-15h00

In the conversation that I had with Mrs. De Villiers she mentioned that the work of a sport psychologist in the sport school should in her opinion not just focus on the Academies of Sport but should also take place within the school context. She sees personal counselling, career guidance and life skills as areas where a sport psychologist can be of value.

The first service area that she mentioned was personal counselling. She is of the opinion that because the school was being run outside of the traditional teaching model, a lot of emphasis was being placed on the self-discipline of the pupils regarding their studies. The pupils were finding this adjustment difficult, as they were used to a lot of structure and guidance within the traditional teaching model. She therefore held the opinion that a sport psychologist could work on self-discipline of pupils in the school and as athletes on the field. Another aspect that she considers to be relevant is that of sub-groupings. The different sport academies do not mix with each other, which sometimes results in rivalry between them. This leads to groups only functioning inwardly and also creates isolation because these athletes do not interact with athletes from a different sporting code. A sport psychologist can address these issues by trying to facilitate not only in-group interaction but also inter-group interaction. Furthermore, a sport psychologist can also address aspects like racism, academic and sport pressure, as well as being away from home for long periods of time.

The second service area of concern is career guidance, which she thought should include aspects like study methods and time planning. As these pupils are being taught within a non-traditional school model, they were having difficulty with study methods, as well as how to plan and use their time effectively in relation to their school work and sporting activities. She also mentioned that doing career guidance with these pupils is also important, not only in relation to their sporting careers but also to their careers outside of the world of sport. This is important because not all these people will become professional athletes and even those that do, will only do sport for a limited time. It is important, therefore that they have an idea of their options regarding possible alternative careers.

The third service area that she identified as important is that of life skills. She sees life skills as not only being focused in the context of sport but also within the context of academic training. She is of the opinion that a life skills programme in the school should have a dual nature. On the one hand it should address academic aspects and on the other hand it should address sport issues. For example, if goal setting was to be a topic within a life skills programme, it should be applied to the field of sport and to the school context. In doing so, the life skills programme could be exactly what the name suggests, namely “life skills” - for school and sport.

DB: Did you have the opportunity to speak to some of the athletes at the High Performance Centre?

LH: Yes. I had a conversation with athletes in the Academy of Soccer, as well as in the Academy of Swimming.

Soccer Academy

SG (17yrs), TL (17yrs), CM (17 yrs) and AS (15 yrs)

01 September 2003, 19h00-20h00

In the conversation that I had with these four people, who had chosen soccer as their sport, they highlighted two aspects that they would expect from a sport psychologist working at the HPC. The first aspect would be to help them establish a social life within the limited time that they have due to the demands of their school and sport and the second aspect would be to change the way in which the life skills were presently being presented at the HPC.

According to them the people at the HPC focus on school and sport, of which sport takes up a significant part of their lives. They hardly have time for a social life and are of the opinion that they are losing contact with some of their friends due to this. During our conversation I was under the impression that these athletes were communicating “loss” to me, they were not just constructing themselves as being privileged because they were in the sport school at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd but they also constructed themselves as young people who were losing an integral part of growing up, namely a social life with friends. The fact that they were primarily just going to school and doing sport and having a very limited social life, made them feel that they were just like machines. The saying “all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy” also came to my mind during my conversation with these four people. I personally think that they are struggling with the fact that aspiring to become a professional athlete requires redefining a person’s life, even your social life.

Furthermore, they were also of the opinion that the life skills that is being presented at the HPC is a waste of time, as they have to sit and listen to a stranger present some or other topic to them in a didactic educational manner on a once-off basis and they felt that they were being bombarded with information, which was very often foreign to the context they live in. They are of the opinion that it would mean much more to them if a sport psychologist could be involved in their sport, for example, by attending soccer practice and games. It is within this context that they want a sport psychologist to be involved and work with them, in a sort of on-site working situation. I am of the opinion that these athletes would like to have a bigger say in their own sporting

careers and do not just want to be the passive recipients of knowledge bestowed upon them by an outside presenter.

After reflecting on this conversation I am of the opinion that these athletes are not experiencing acknowledgement, as they are young people who are having difficulty in coming to terms with the loss of a social life and the passive recipients of expert knowledge emanating from a life skills programme. In view of this I think a sport psychologist who is prepared to meet them on their level as pupils and athletes, who have chosen a difficult path of school and sport, professional sport, will be able to create a sense of acknowledgement with them.

Swimming Academy

NS (13 yrs), YduP (14 yrs), LeRP (16 yrs) and AF (15 yrs)

04 September 2003, 19h00-20h00

In the conversation with these four people who are all part of the swimming academy at the HPC, I found they are all of the opinion that a sport psychologist working in the field of sport should have credibility. When I asked them what they meant by credibility, they told me that the sport psychologist should not just have a good understanding of psychology but also have a good understanding of sport. They said that they found it extremely irritating when someone who was not involved in sport and who is overweight presented life skills to them. To them the message, which was being conveyed, through life skills had much more credibility when the messenger is credible. For them it is not necessary that a sport psychologist working with them had to have been a former provincial or national athlete but that the sport psychologist should practice what s(he) preached. So, if the sport psychologist tells them that dedication in life is good, they wanted to see the sport psychologist living a dedicated life and not just preaching it to them.

Furthermore, they would also like the sport psychologist to be approachable and accessible. In the world of sport coaches play an enormous role in the lives of

athletes, as athletes often spend much more time with coaches than what they do with their own family and friends, especially professional athletes. The swimming coach at the HPC is a Hungarian and can hardly speak English, which these athletes feel was a problem, as they did not really have a coach-athlete relationship. The coach did not always understand them and they do not always understand him. They are of the opinion that things athletes would normally share with their coaches, did not happen with this particular coach because of the language barrier. They feel that in this regard a sport psychologist can play a valuable role, if they needed someone to talk to about what is happening in their lives.

The conversation with these athletes left me with the experience of young people who are far away from their family and friends and who are experiencing their coach as being very distant. It is as if they are longing for a place where they can belong. They reminded me of four people drifting in a boat on the open sea, not having a place where they can feel safe and at home. As the one athlete said to me after the conversation: “When can we have such a talk again?”

DB: Did you have the opportunity to speak to some of the coaches at the High Performance Centre?

LH: I had the opportunity to speak to the swimming coach, Mr. Sandor Ban, as well as the soccer coach, Mr. Steve Haupt.

Mr. Sandor Ban

Swimming Coach: Academies of Sport @ TuksSport (Pty) Ltd

13 June 2003, 10h30-11h30

In the conversation that I had with Mr. Ban he identified a few areas in which he thought a sport psychologist could make a contribution in the field of swimming.

He stated that regarding the athlete; the sport psychologist can be involved in training and competition. One of the major problems in swimming is the monotony during training, as athletes swim for up to four hours at a time and very often become extremely bored during training. The sport psychologist can furthermore also play a role in preparing athletes for competition, by facilitating a process whereby athletes can adjust to the new competition circumstances. It is also important that the sport psychologist works with athletes who perform well during training and then do not compete to their full potential in competition, while other athletes do not perform well during training but blossom during competition.

He also mentioned that it is important for the sport psychologist to work with him as a coach and the impact that he has on athletes and the impact that they have on him. Another aspect that he mentioned is that the sport psychologist can also work with the families of the athletes, especially the parents. He informed me that the athletes spend most of their time with him due to long hours of training and very often parents become jealous of this. This jealousy has a bad influence on the parent-athlete and athlete-coach relationship.

Mr. Steve Haupt

Soccer Coach: Academies of Sport @ TuksSport (Pty) Ltd

20 June 2003, 12h30-13h30

The soccer coach, Mr. Haupt is of the opinion that psychology is a process and that a sport psychologist should be involved with a team on a continuous basis, in different ways.

He stated that a sport psychologist should be involved in the training sessions of a team, as this was very helpful to him as a coach. As a coach he looked at

training from a fitness and technical perspective, while a sport psychologist views what is going on during practice from a psychological perspective. He thought that the view of a sport psychologist is very important, as it can contradict what he was seeing, or support what he was seeing - “two is better than one”. Furthermore, he feels that a sport psychologist can be involved in the assessment of athletes, as well as game analysis, especially the psychological game analysis. The sport psychologist can also look at the relationship between the coach and athletes.

The sport psychologist can also be involved in the personal life of the athlete, for example, with difficulties in their family and problems with boyfriends and/or girlfriends. In the conversation that we had he mentioned that two soccer players had been caught stealing in the residence of the sport school and said that he was of the opinion that this was a good example where he thought a sport psychologist could get involved. He also made it clear that when a sport psychologist is seeing one of the soccer players for personal counselling, he would only expect the sport psychologist to notify him of this and give him some indication of how he as a coach should behave towards that soccer player, for example, telling him “to back down in practice a bit” if the soccer player was going through a difficult time. He is of the opinion that confidentiality was important in the relationship between a sport psychologist and athlete and that he as a coach wanted to respect that, as a breach of confidence had the tendency to complicate matters between all people involved.

DB: Who else did you speak to during your visit to the High Performance Centre?

LH: The HPC had a life skills programme running during 2003 and I had the opportunity to attend five of the life skills presentations. The reason why I attended these presentations was not so much to learn about the content of the life skills presentations but also to see how the life skills presentations were conducted. Allow me to tell you about the presentations I attended.

Presenter 1

Psychologist: Private practice, HPCSA

Theme: “Overcoming your fear of failure”

28 May 2003, 16h30-17h30

I attended a life skills workshop on “Overcome you fear of failure” that was presented at the HPC. This presenter is registered as a psychologist with the HPCSA, as well as with the SASC as a “sport psychologist”¹.

I do not want to go into the content of the workshop but I would rather like to say something of my experience of the workshop. I have never been so ashamed of being a psychologist as I was that day. I was sitting in that workshop hoping and praying that these young athletes would not ask me what work I do. The discourse that informed this workshop was the didactic educational discourse, where these young athletes sat in the auditorium at the HPC and the sport psychologist was doing a Power Point presentation on “Overcome your fear of failure”. She was the expert and they the passive recipients of her expert knowledge. These young athletes were totally disengaged from her presentation, were lying in their chairs and even had their own conversation going, which was accompanied by laughter every now and again. They were totally uninvolved and were communicating this through their body language and private conversation they were having. The sport psychologist responded to this by lecturing even more, which made the young athletes respond by sliding even further down their seats and stepping up the volume of their own conversation. At one stage during the life skills workshop the sport psychologist asked these young athletes to stand up and do a relaxation exercise, which they found very funny. I must say I also did. Why let these young athletes who are already lying in their seats and were totally relaxed, do a relaxation exercise? These young athletes were not doing what the sport psychologist was expecting from them and she responded with the words:

¹ As already mentioned in chapter 3, there is no legal term such as a “sport psychologist” in SA. The HPCSA has jurisdiction over the term “psychologist” and “psychology” and in 2003 a person could only register in one of the following categories with the HPCSA: clinical, counselling, industrial, educational and/or research psychology. The term “sport psychologist” is a public construction within the sporting community, just as the term “pastoral psychologist” is a public construction within a religious community and both these terms are not recognized by the HPCSA (Mrs Alta Pieters, personal communication, February 8, 2003).

“I talk and you do”. I realized that this sport psychologist was constructing a situation with these young athletes where her expert knowledge was the privileged knowledge and these young athletes had no voice in the whole presentation. To me it felt as if she was emotionally abusing these young athletes, by keeping them passive while they are usually very active as young athletes.

I wondered how different it would have been had she had asked them to tell a story from their own lives when they feared failure and how they overcame that fear of failure? What would have happened if she had told a story from her own life concerning her fear of failure and how she overcame it? Clearly, the presentation was failing, as the young athletes were not involved at all. I wonder if she dealt with that fear by lecturing more and more, by becoming even more of an expert? What would have happened if she admitted that to these young athletes and asked them how they thought it could be presented differently? Maybe they would have learnt much more if she had done just that. If something does not work, stop and change it.

Presenter 2

Consultant: Motivational speaker

Theme: “Being a super human being”

18 June 2003, 16h30-17h30

This life skills workshop was very different to the previous one on “Overcome your fear of failure”, which I attended. The speaker started off by sharing something of his own personal life story with the young athletes, which in itself was engaging. He told the young athletes how he was always told at school that he would never make it in life and that he even started believing that message. It was only when he was much older that he stood up against that message and took his own life back.

In this workshop the presenter told the athletes that nine months before they were born they all participated in their first race. They all were one of a million

of little sperms that participated in a race that entailed swimming to an egg cell and the little sperm that won the race got life as a medal. The presenter asked the athletes the following question: “How did they think they got it right to win that race? Together, the athletes and the presenter listed various attributes that made it possible for them to have won that race. Examples of those attributes were confidence, determination, endurance, motivation and potential. The presenter also told the athletes that all of the athletes most probably had various experiences during their lives, in which they were made to believe that they did not have these attributes anymore, or that they doubted the presence of those attributes in their lives, just as he as the presenter was made to believe that he would not make it in life by a teacher in his school. He asked them to stand up against that belief and to apply the “double D” principle in their lives. This “double D” principle stands for “discover” and “develop”. The presenter emphasized that the attributes that these athletes had mentioned, which assisted them to win the first race of their lives, were still part of who they were. These attributes just had to be rediscovered and developed, as many people had most probably told them that they did not have those attributes any more. This he said was rubbish and that they should never believe that message.

I experienced this life skills workshop as very empowering. The presenter used metaphors that allowed him to link with the athletes and he was also able to allow the athletes to relate to him, to share their thoughts, feelings and actions with him regarding the topic that was being discussed. In my opinion he had the position that he could learn from them and that they could learn from him. He was not there to teach them something but to be in a learning process with them.

Presenter 3

Psychologist: Private practice, HPCSA

Theme: “Goal setting”

20 August 2003, 09h30-10h30

I would like to share with you what I learnt from this life skills workshop on goal setting.

This presenter started off by telling the athletes about research that was done by Harvard Business School on goal setting. This research indicated that only 3% of students at Harvard Business School set goals for themselves on paper, while 97% of students did not do so. It was also found in this research that the 3% of students who did set goals on paper became much more successful in their careers than the 97% who did not set any goals. During this talk two thoughts visited me. The first was a quote that I once read. I cannot remember where I read it or who wrote it but it states: “S(he) who does not have a goal will attain nothing because s(he) had nothing specific that s(he) wanted to attain”. The second was a remark that Prof. Johann Coetzee, a lecturer at PUCHE, once made in class while I was doing my MA-degree in Industrial Psychology at this university. The remark he made also related to goal setting. He stated: “Road maps are on paper. Goal setting is done on paper”. I think that this is very true. If I want to explain to somebody how to get from A to B, it is much better to do it in words and on paper than just in words. If I just explain the directions from A to B in words the chances of that person getting lost are much higher than if I would have explained the directions in words and made a road map for that person. I wonder what will happen if we stop allowing coaches to be the sole goal setting agents in sport and allow athletes to set their own goals, on paper? I wonder how many athletes really have their own goals and how many just adopt the coach’s goals?

During the presentation of the life skills workshop the presenter made use of stories from his life, he made use of stories from the world of sport by referring to many sport heroes and he also introduced some information from the academic world regarding goal setting. I experienced this as meaningful and I was also aware that it allowed the athletes to participate in the workshop. I wonder what it would be like if a workshop could be held where the athletes were allowed to have a louder voice regarding their own goal setting, where we would allow the athletes voice to be the first voice we listened to and then we

introduced our own voice, the voices of heroes and the academic voice into the life skills workshop?

Presenter 4

Psychologist: Private practice, HPCSA

Theme: “Assertiveness”

27 August 2003, 09h30-10h30

This workshop was presented in a very practical way in that the presenter made use of a lot of role-play to help the athletes understand something regarding the difference between assertiveness, aggressiveness and submissiveness. The role-play allowed the athletes to participate in the workshop in a more active way, than just so sit and listen to theory regarding assertiveness.

What is interesting is that this presenter did not introduce himself to the group of athletes as a former national canoeist who has been honored in the hall-of-fame at the UP. Someone else only did this after he had presented the workshop. I wonder what difference it would have made to the workshop if the athletes had known this? I wonder how they interpreted this with regards to the topic of “assertiveness”? I have known this presenter for some time and have always experienced him as a humble but assertive person. I just wonder if these athletes might have interpreted the omission of the fact that he was a former national canoeist as being submissive? He was most probably one of the most assertive South African athletes that this country has had, as he competed at a time when SA sport was isolated from the rest of the world. The isolation of SA sport did not hold him back and through his assertiveness as a person he was still able to manage to compete at an international level. I wonder how the athletes would have responded if he had shared his personal story regarding assertiveness as a national canoeist with them?

During this presentation I once again became aware of how important it is to get these athletes involved in a life skills programme, be it by allowing them to express their opinions, share experiences from their lives through personal stories, or just allowing them to learn something by means of role play. In the

presentations by CM, DK and GV this was achieved in my opinion but not in the presentation by MC, which was more didactic in nature. The last presentation I attended was on time management.

Presenter 5

Consultant: MacSteel life skills programme

Theme: “Time management”

03 September 2003, 09h30-10h30

It was one of those workshops where the word “norm” came to my mind very often. The theme of the workshop was “time management” and I experienced the way in which the workshop was presented as very “normative”. By this I mean that I was left with the idea that there is only one way to do time management and that is the MacSteel life skills programme way. What the MacSteel life skills programme did not account for was that the sport school at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd is not a “normative” school. So, “normative” time management was presented in a not so “normative” school. Traditionally, scholars in SA go to school from 07h30 to 13h30 and then participate in cultural and/or sporting activities until about 17h00. At the sport school at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd the scholars train from 06h30 to 10h30, then they go to school from 11h00 to 15h30, then back to the sporting field from 16h00 to 18h00 and then they have to do their homework from 19h00 to 22h00. I experienced the workshop as being very “normative” in that it was presented as if there is only one way of doing time management, which is applicable to all people, in all places and at all times.

I wonder how different the workshop would have been, had the presenter presented a brief overview of what “normative” time management is and then had asked the pupils how time management would look like in a not so “normative” environment? I think this would have been much more helpful to them as they are all aspiring to become professional athletes and we all know that the world of a professional athlete is not a “normative” world as they do not always have the luxury of fixed routines and workplaces in which

“normative” time management can have a valuable role to play. I wonder if they would not have learnt much more if they were taught how to manage their time within the world of sport, which is not such a “normative” world?

DB: You did not only visit a sport centre in South Africa but also had the opportunity to visit a sport institute in Australia. Would you like to tell me more about this visit to a sport institute?

LH: I visited the WAIS from 08 September 2003 to 12 September 2003. A lecturer at the USQ, Mr. Christensen, arranged this visit on behalf of a colleague and myself as all three sport psychologists who were employed by WAIS had completed their MPSE at the USQ. The WAIS is situated in Western Australia, in the city of Perth.

The WAIS was established in 1983 and was the third of its kind in Australia following the establishment of the AIS in Canberra and the SASI in Adelaide. The reason for establishing the WAIS had to do with the fact that many national Australian athletes who were living in Western Australia had to leave their family, studies and work and relocate to the AIS in Canberra (Western Australia Institute of Sport [WAIS], 2003a).

Currently, the WAIS has the following sport programmes: athletics, baseball, volleyball, canoeing, cycling, gymnastics, hockey, netball, rowing, softball, swimming and water polo. Furthermore, there are individual scholarships in the following sporting codes: archery, athletics, badminton, volleyball, boxing, canoeing, cycling, diving, equestrian, gymnastics, hockey, ice skating, judo, sailing, pistol shooting, swimming, taekwondo, tennis, water polo and weightlifting (Western Australia Institute of Sport [WAIS], 2003b). There are various services that are delivered to athletes who are part of the WAIS sport programmes or who have individual scholarships at the WAIS, such as talent identification, coach-athlete services, Athlete Career Education (ACE), sports medicine, strength and conditioning, sport science, which include biomechanics, physiology, psychology and nutrition (Western Australia Institute of Sport [WAIS], 2003c).

I would like to focus on two of the services areas, namely ACE and psychology, as these two areas pertain to the work of a sport psychologist. The ACE programme is a national programme and is run by all State Institutes of Sport in Australia, for example, AIS, SASI and WAIS. The objective of the ACE programme is to enhance the personal growth of elite athletes by providing career guidance and education services to these athletes. Examples of the services that are delivered to elite athletes within the ACE programme are: personal counselling, career guidance and planning, sponsorship and networking, time management and goal setting, media presentation skills and job searching skills (Western Australia Institute of Sport [WAIS], 2003d). The psychological services that are offered within WAIS include assisting athletes and coaches with sport related issues, as well as with life issues that are not directly related to sport but may have an influence on the sport performance of the athlete (Western Australia Institute of Sport [WAIS], 2003e).

Regarding my own experience while visiting the WAIS, there were three significant issues that made a remarkable impression on me. Firstly, the work method of the two sport psychologists delivering psychological services to the athletes, secondly the importance of career guidance within the world of sport, which was also delivered by a sport psychologist and thirdly the absence of the voice of athletes.

Firstly, let me say one or two things regarding the work method of the two sport psychologists at the WAIS who deliver psychological services to the athletes at the WAIS. The one thing that I did appreciate about these two sport psychologists was their willingness to attend the training sessions of athletes on a regular basis. A colleague and I attended a gymnastics practice with one of the sport psychologists from 07h00 to 10h00 on 09 September 2003 and my colleague attended a rowing practice with the other sport psychologist at 05h30 to 07h30 on 10 September 2003. The one experience that I had found peculiar was while I was attending the gymnastics practice, one of the gymnasts who was being trained by his father, started crying. His father stood there like an

iceberg. I pointed this out to the sport psychologist who said, “that happens at least once a week, it’s sport”. Is this sport? Does a coach have the right to do this to an athlete? How much say does an athlete, especially a child or adolescent, have in allowing this behaviour? How much of what goes on in the world of sport are we as sport psychologists prepared to justify in the name of sport? Jason Lesyk (5yrs)(in Lesyk, 2001, p.11) says the following about sport: “Three things. Always do your best. Never quit. And have fun. Maybe ‘have fun’ should be number one”. Hopefully we as sport psychologists can learn from the five-year-old Jason Lesyk and assist athletes in experiencing their sport as still having fun. Furthermore, I experienced these two sport psychologists as using systems thinking in conceptualizing about athletes, coaches and support staff but intervening with cognitive-behaviour practices. I suppose there is not anything wrong with that I just wonder to whose benefit it really is? This became very clear when my colleague who had done an assignment for them with the female swimmers during the week, conceptualized the problem for them systemically and then proposed a systemic intervention, which involved these sport psychologists working with athletes and coaches at the same time and not individually. They were very uncomfortable with this suggestion and it was communicated to us in indirect ways that systemic interventions were not meant for the world of sport. As these two sport psychologists have been working in the field of sport for quite a while and see themselves as experienced, I in a way, doubted if the way that I work, which is more within the field of systemic and narrative thinking and practice, will be applicable in the world of sport. It was only when I started wondering about who benefited the most by these two sport psychologists’ way of working that the doubt crept out of my world. I personally think it gives them a lot of control over athletes and coaches, working individually with them but not working systemically with coaches and athletes.

Secondly, I would like to tell you something about the importance of career guidance within the field of sport. The ACE coordinator at the WAIS is a sport psychologist. I really found the work that she did with the athletes very insightful and I think very important. She is responsible for making athletes and

coaches aware that sport is not the only aspect of an athlete's life. Together with athletes she helps them plan their studies which they can do while they are busy building their sporting careers and she also helps athletes find work even if it is just part-time work when, for example, they are at a 10 week training camp at the WAIS in Perth preparing for competition. There is a very strong philosophy at the WAIS that athletes should have another career besides sport, even if it is part-time, as this will enable them to switch over to that career when their sporting career comes to an end, for what ever reason.

Thirdly, let me say something about the absence of the voice of athletes in the world of sport. The two sport psychologists asked a colleague with whom I visited WAIS if she would do a needs analysis regarding possible workshops that could be held with female swimmers. They suggested that she speak to the swimming coaches, physiologists and biokineticists. When she inquired why she could not speak to the female athletes themselves, these two sport psychologists were quite surprised. It is as if she had suggested the unthinkable, to speak to athletes, female athletes. It is as if this thought that if workshops were to be held for female swimmers, then maybe their opinions should be asked, as the workshops would be for them and be attended by them. I was just left with this incredible feeling that here are two male sport psychologists who are once again deciding what female swimmers problems are and how they had to be addressed. Another interesting experience that I had was attending a coaches meeting at the WAIS. It was interesting to see how the majority of coaches were only interested in the athletes as athletes and not in who they were as people, what studies they pursued or even what kind of work they did. This view of the athletes was so strong amongst the majority of coaches that the head of the WAIS at the end of the meeting said that he would just like to remind everybody that “the athletes were firstly people and secondly medallists”.

DB: What were the most important things that you learnt from your visits to the High Performance Centre and the Western Australia Institute of Sport?

LH: Allow me to answer this question of yours by referring to athletes and sport psychologists.

Athlete

I think that one of the most important things I learnt regarding athletes can be summarized in the words of the head of WAIS that “the athletes were firstly people and secondly medallists”. The world of sport is a world where everybody “knows” what athletes need. From coaches to administrators, from doctors to sport psychologists, from physiotherapists to biokineticists, everybody “knows”.

I experienced this when one of the “sport psychologists”, a male, told a SA national swimmer in front of other people at the HPC at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd that he knew what she needed. He said, “I know what you need, you need to see somebody and I have a name for you”. This remark he made was after reading about the South African national swimmers personal problems in the newspaper and not speaking one word to the swimmer.

As sport psychologists, I think that part of our work is to help athletes get a voice. I realized this at the HPC at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd when I saw young athletes make valuable contributions to life skills workshops, where presenters were willing to give the athletes time and space to voice their opinions, as well as with the input the female swimmers gave regarding the workshops that were planned for them. We have to work from a position that athletes have opinions and the ability to deal with their own problems and that our role should be to assist them in that and not to treat them as physical entities without brains.

Sport psychologists

Firstly, as sport psychologists who want to work in the field of sport, I think the most important aspect that we should be aware of is that we have to be credible.

If we expect athletes to apply goal setting in their lives, we should also be applying it to our lives. I think athletes are very sensitive to this and the credibility of the sport psychologists can make a huge contribution to the professional relationship between the athlete and sport psychologist.

Secondly, I am of the opinion that the traditional way of rendering sport psychology services to individual athletes and sport teams is not to present once-off life skills presentations but to be present in the lives of athletes, at practice and competitions. I think that the sport psychologist who wants to work in the field of sport in the future will have to be prepared to work on-site and not off-site. It will require sport psychologists to move from the consulting room to the sporting field, to work hands-on and on-site and from there back to the consulting room if necessary.

Thirdly, I think that the sport psychologist working in the world of sport has to assist athletes in realizing their potential. To add to the quotation at the beginning of this chapter, they should make athletes aware that ultra modern facilities such as those at the HPC of TuksSport (Pty) Ltd and the WAIS, will not give them what they do not have, it will only assist them in bringing out and developing the potential that they already have. They are the only people who can write their own life stories and ultra modern equipment cannot and will not do it for them.

DB: You have now told me how you experienced your visits to the High Performance Centre and the Western Australia Institute of Sport. Where do we go from here?

LH: In our next conversation I will like to take what I have learnt from my tour with sport psychology and adapt the current MA (Counselling Psychology) programme in the Department of Psychology at the UP with what I learnt during my tour with sport psychology.

