

**A TOURING JOURNAL WITH SPORT PSYCHOLOGY**

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Promoter  
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**DECLARATION**

I, Lourens H. Human, hereby declare that this research report is my own work and that this work has not been submitted at any other tertiary institution for any degree.

Lourens H. Human

Date: 09/03/2005

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

To Dave, for being a mentor in life.

To my father, for introducing me to sport, to Monja for re-introducing me to sport, as well as to Hannelize and Henk for playing.

## OPSOMMING

Hierdie navorsingsverslag is 'n narratief oor my ervarings met sportsielkunde. Ek het die “toer” en “joernaal” metafore gebruik in die konstruering van hierdie narratief.

Voor ek op toer met sportsielkunde gegaan het, het ek myself as navorser bekend gestel (hoofstuk 2, joernaalinskrywing I). Daarna het ek die navorsingsprobleem, vraag en doelstelling(e) uiteengesit (hoofstuk 3, joernaalinskrywing II).

My toer met sportsielkunde het hierna in aanvang geneem. Ek het 'n sportsielkunde museum besoek, om meer uit te vind oor die geskiedenis van sportsielkunde (hoofstuk 4, joernaalinskrywing III). Hierna het ek besoek afgelê by 'n sportsielkunde biblioteek om meer uit te vind oor die veld van sportsielkunde (hoofstuk 5, joernaalinskrywing IV). Ek het ook 'n sportsielkunde kongres bygewoon om meer te leer van nagraadse opleiding in sportsielkunde in Sielkunde Departemente (hoofstuk 6, joernaalinskrywing V). Na die kongres het ek 'n sportsielkunde departement in Australië besoek om na 'n nagraadse opleidingsprogram in sportsielkunde te kyk (hoofstuk 7, joernaalinskrywing VI). Op die laaste deel van my toer het ek 'n sportsentrum in Suid-Afrika en 'n sportinstituut in Australië besoek, om te sien tot watter mate sportsielkunde in praktyk beoefen word (hoofstuk 8, joernaalinskrywing VII).

Na my toer met sportsielkunde het ek dit wat ek op die toer geleer het, geneem en die MA (Voorligtingsielkundekursus) aan die Universiteit van Pretoria, Suid-Afrika, aangepas. Hierdie kursus is gewysig en bestaan tans uit drie kern modules en twee keuse modules. Die kern modules is fundamentele sielkunde, voorligtingsielkunde en loopbaansielkunde. Die keuse modules is gemeenskapsielkunde en sportsielkunde. Die sportsielkunde module bestaan uit die volgende kursusse: sportsielkunde, sportbestuur, sportsosiologie en oefensielkunde. Die Beroepsraad vir Sielkunde by die Health Professions Council of South Africa het hierdie module aan die einde van 2003 goedgekeur (hoofstuk 9, joernaalinskrywing VIII). Laastens, het ek ook aandag gegee aan die impak van my ervarings met sportsielkunde op my identiteit as 'n sielkundige (hoofstuk 10, joernaalinskrywing IX).

### **Sleutelbegrippe**

Voorligtingsielkunde, terapeutiese sielkunde, kognitiewe-gedragsterapie, sistemies-narratiewe terapie, loopbaansielkunde, studiemetodes, beroepskeuses, sportsielkunde, sportbestuur, sportsosiologie, oefensielkunde

## SUMMARY

This research report is a narrative on my encounter with sport psychology. I used the metaphors of “touring” and “journal” to guide the construction of this narrative.

Before embarking on my tour with sport psychology, I introduced myself as researcher (chapter 2, journal entry I) and stated the research problem, question and goal(s) (chapter 3, journal entry II).

I then went on a tour with sport psychology. I visited a sport psychology museum to learn more about the history of sport psychology (chapter 4, journal entry III) and a sport psychology library to learn more about the field of sport psychology (chapter 5, journal entry IV). I also attended a sport psychology conference to become better acquainted with postgraduate sport psychology training in Psychology Departments (chapter 6, journal entry V). I also visited a sport psychology department at a university in Australia, to witness the delivery of a postgraduate training programme in sport psychology (chapter 7, journal entry VI), as well as a sport centre in South Africa and a sport institute in Australia, to see how and the extent to which sport psychology was practised (chapter 8, journal entry VII).

After my tour with sport psychology I took what I had learnt and adapted the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme at the University of Pretoria, South Africa. This led to the programme having three core modules and two elective modules. The core modules are fundamental psychology, counselling psychology and career psychology. The elective modules are: community psychology and sport psychology. The sport psychology module consists of the following courses: sport psychology, sport management, sport sociology and exercise psychology. The Professional Board of Psychology at the Health Professions Council of South Africa approved this module at the end of 2003 (chapter 9, journal entry VIII). Finally, I also looked at the influence of my experience with sport psychology on my identity as a psychologist (chapter 10, journal entry IX).

**Key terms**

Counselling psychology, therapeutic psychology, cognitive-behaviour therapy, systemic-narrative therapy, career psychology, study methods, career guidance, sport psychology, sport management, sport sociology, exercise psychology

**INDEX**

Chapter 1	1
Research position and method	
<b>PART I</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>BEFORE TOURING WITH SPORT PSYCHOLOGY</b>	
Chapter 2	31
Journal entry I	
Where did it begin?	
Chapter 3	43
Journal entry II	
Problem, question and goal(s)	
<b>PART II</b>	<b>70</b>
<b>TOURING WITH SPORT PSYCHOLOGY</b>	
Chapter 4	71
Journal entry III	
Sport psychology museum	
Chapter 5	93
Journal entry IV	
Sport psychology library	
Chapter 6	121
Journal entry V	
Sport psychology conference	
Chapter 7	143
Journal entry VI	
Sport psychology department	
	viii



Chapter 8		170
Journal entry VII		
Sport centre and sport institute		
<b>PART III</b>		<b>192</b>
<b>AFTER TOURING WITH SPORT PSYCHOLOGY</b>		
Chapter 9		193
Journal entry VIII		
MA (Counselling Psychology) programme		
Chapter 10		208
Journal entry IX		
Does it end here?		
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>		<b>210</b>
<b>APPENDIX</b>		<b>243</b>
Appendix A	Request Letter	
244		
Appendix B	Invitation Letter	248
Appendix C	Letter of Approval	250

## ABBREVIATIONS AND DESCRIPTIONS

<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Description</b>
AAASP	Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology
AASPA	Australian Applied Sport Psychology Association
ACE	Athlete Career Education
AIS	Australian Institute of Sport
APA	American Psychological Association
APS	Australian Psychological Society
AU	Argosy University
AUSPIN	Australian Society Sport Psychology Interest Network
BASES	British Association for Sport and Exercise Sciences
BPS	British Psychological Society
BU	Boston University
CA	Chartered Accountant
CMTR	Canadian Mental Training Registry
CPSD	Centre for Psychological Services and Development
DPSE	Doctor of Psychology (Sport and Exercise)
EdD	Education Doctorate
FSU	Florida State University
GBR	Graduate Basis for Registration
HPC	High Performance Centre
HPCSA	Health Professions Council of South Africa
HU	Harvard University
IJSP	International Journal of Sport Psychology
ISSP	International Society of Sport Psychology
JASP	Journal of Applied Sport Psychology
JFKU	John F. Kennedy University
JSEP	Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology
KPA	Key Performance Area
LEAP	Life Enhancement through Athletic and Academic Participation
MA	Master of Arts

MEd	Master of Education
MPSE	Master of Psychology (Sport and Exercise)
MS	Master of Science
MSU	Mankato State University
NASPSPA	North American Society for the Psychology of Sport and Physical Activity
NIAS	Northern Inland Academy of Sport
NSC	National Sports Congress
NZ	New Zealand
PBP	Professional Board of Psychology
PEG	Performance Enhancement Group for Injured Athletes
PhD	Philosophy Doctorate
PsyD	Psychology Doctorate
PUCHE	Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education
RAU	Rand Afrikaans University
SA	South Africa
SACOS	South African Council on Sport
SANROC	South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee
SASC	South African Sports Commission
SASI	Southern Australia Institute of Sport
SDUIS	San Diego University of Integrative Studies
SISA	Sport Information and Science Agency
SPAANZ	Sport Psychology Association of Australia and New Zealand
SPS	Sport Psychological Services
SRC	Staanvas Rehabilitation Centre
SUN	Stellenbosch University
TSP	The Sport Psychologist
TUT	Tswane University of Technology
UA	University of Arizona
UC	University of California
UI	University of Illinois
UK	United Kingdom
UM	University of Manitoba
UMC	University of Missouri-Columbia

UMS	University of Memphis
UMT	University of Montana
UNT	University of North Texas
UP	University of Pretoria
UQ	University of Queensland
USA	United States of America
USOC	United States Olympic Committee
USQ	University of Southern Queensland
UW	University of Washington
UWA	University of Western Australia
VCU	Virginia Commonwealth University
WAIS	Western Australia Institute of Sport

## CHAPTER 1 RESEARCH POSITION AND METHOD

It is dawn; the early morning fog has not yet lifted. Before the sun breaks the horizon hundreds of athletes throughout the world begin their day as they have in the past, as they will continue to do in the future. This ritual is repeated everyday, on the beaches, the countryside, the mountains, gymnasiums, swimming pools and tracks. The already great and those who aspire to be, share the same dream, the pursuit of excellence.

Bud Greenspan (in Lesyk, 2001, p.12)

I am intensely aware of the fact that a very specific cultural discourse is dominant in informing the writing of a research report in the science of psychology. It expects that a research report should have chapters on introduction, theoretical position, research methodology and results, as well as conclusions and recommendations (American Psychological Association [APA], 2001). The writing of this research report will not be informed totally by this cultural discourse, not because I want to be different but because the research position and method I have adopted for the research, that of narrative, requires a different way of thinking about, conducting and writing of the research.

The research position and method in a research project, such as mine, can be compared to the position that a player has, in for example, team sports like rugby and netball as well as the actions that the position requires. In both these team sports there are various positions, 15 positions in rugby and seven positions in netball. The players take up certain positions and from those positions they participate in a game of rugby or netball. For example, if a rugby player plays flyhalf, it is expected of him/her to carry out certain prescribed actions on the field, which are different from the actions expected from a rugby player playing fullback. The same principle applies to netball as a team sport. The actions expected from a netball player playing in the position of goal shooter are very different from those expected from one who has the position of goal defence.

To conclude, similar to the importance of the position of a player in sport, so is clarity on my position as a researcher essential for a research project. It determines

where I stand and what I do, what my thinking is, also called conceptualisation and what actions will follow from my thinking, also seen as the methodology followed in the research project. Just as in team sport where a player can assume only one position and make a contribution to the whole game from that position, I shall also assume only one position from which I shall endeavour to make a contribution to the whole research “game”. I would now like to tell you more about my research position as well as the actions that will follow from my position.

## **POSITION**

### **Narrative metaphor**

The research position and method I have taken up for this research project falls within the field of narrative psychology, in which the narrative metaphor is paramount (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

The narrative metaphor can be seen as an alternative root metaphor in psychology, to the more paradigmatic metaphors in psychology, such as “people as computers”, “people as laboratory rats”, “people as machines”, “people as onions” and the “naïve scientist” (Monk, Winslade, Crocket & Epston, 1997; Sarbin, 1986). The narrative metaphor can be seen as a basic, perhaps the most basic mode of human understanding and the primary scheme by which human existence is rendered meaningful (Edwards, 1997; Polkinghorne, 1988). As Johnson (1993, p.11) states:

There is abundant empirical evidence that narrative is a fundamental mode of understanding, by means of which we make sense of all forms of human action. There are various types of narrative structure that play a role in how we understand actions ... narrative is not just an explanatory device but is actually constitutive of the way we experience things.

The narrative metaphor allows people to make sense of their everyday experiences and to see their lives as a narrative unfolding through time (history) and in space (culture)(Doan, 1998; Zimmerman & Dickerson, 1994).

## **Experience and narrative**

Everyday life can be very chaotic and does not always greet us in an orderly manner (Ochs, 1997; Woods, 1991). As people, we often have experiences that cause disequilibrium in our lives or are idiosyncratic in nature and then we employ narrative to try and make sense out of those experiences (Carr, 1986; Crossley, 2000; MacIntyre, 1981; Ochs, 1997; Sarbin, 1986; Zimmerman & Dickerson, 1994). On the one hand experience is possible because we are embodied and on the other hand we are able to narrate our experiences, in various ways. Therefore, experience has to do with embodiment and narrative. There is no waging war between body and mind, as some philosophical positions claim but only embodied and narrated experience. We are able to experience because we have anatomy and physiology (embodiment) as well as our ability to construct narratives about our experiences (Harré, 1999; Human, Liebenberg & Müller, 2001). We can have experiences because we have the ability to language those experiences (Anderson & Goolishian, 1988; Eagleton, 1983). We do not have direct access to experience; only to the way people talk and write about experience (Riessman, 1993). Narrative is seen as the way “human beings think, perceive, imagine and make moral decisions” (Sarbin, 1986, p.6). It is the means by which “people organize their experience in, knowledge of and transactions within the social world” (Brunner, 1990, p.35) and it is “a way of organizing episodes, actions and accounts of actions in time and space” (Sarbin, 1986, p.9). Furthermore, we narrate experiences which we are unaware of, on a passive level and which we are acutely aware of, on an active level. We also narrate our whole life in the form of a narrative about life (Carr, 1986; Crossley, 2000).

Narratives, for example, allow people to make sense of experiences of happiness, as well as experiences of sadness. A good example from South Africa (SA) occurred during the Truth and Reconciliation Commission proceedings, when people were allowed to narrate their experiences of the apartheid ideology in their lives. People who enforced the apartheid ideology narrated their experiences, as well as those who were on the receiving end of the enforcement of the apartheid ideology. Furthermore, narratives, for example, allow athletes to make sense of excellent performance experiences on the sporting field as well as experiences characterized by

disappointment, such as sports injuries, or not being selected for provincial and/or national squads. In 1996 Penny Heyns won two golden medals in swimming at the Atlanta Olympic Games. She was the first South African athlete to have won gold at the Olympic Games in 44 years. She made sense of that experience by on the one hand narrating it as the highlight of her career but, on the other hand, seeing it as a shallow victory because she felt that God was not central in her life (Heyns, 2003).

The following narrative is an example from my own life, which demonstrates how people can make sense of their experiences through narrative:

In December 2002 my daughter Hannelize (8yrs) and my son Henk (6yrs) were on holiday in the Cape. I phoned them one evening to hear how they were doing. I spoke to Hannelize first, who at a stage during our telephone conversation said: “Pappa, we visited the hospital today”. I asked her: “Why?” She responded by saying: “That’s Henk’s story”. So, she had taken it upon herself to introduce the story of going to the hospital, to me. When it was Henk’s turn to talk to me, he told me the following story: “Hannelize and I were on our way to the beach when I decided to climb into a tree. She decided that I was wasting time and pulled on my towel that was hanging out of the tree. Unfortunately, she did not just pull the towel out of the tree, she also pulled me out of the tree. I fell onto the ground and broke my arm. We then went to the hospital where a doctor attended to me and put my arm into a cast”.

This narrative is an illustration of what Henk did with his experience. He told a story about it, he narrated it. Hannelize introduced the story and Henk told it in a certain way. He articulated his experience about his decision to climb into a tree that he had fallen out of the tree, that a doctor had put his arm into a cast and that he was “ok”. His narrative was shaped by temporality, as well as by constructing the narrative in such a way that he conveyed the message to me that he was “ok”.

### **Experience, narrative, history and culture**

The narratives that people use to make sense of their experiences are shaped through time (history) and in space (culture); they are constructed historically and culturally (Coyle, 2000; Gergen, 1997, 1998, 2001; O’Hanlon, 1994; Paré, 1995; Willig, 2001; Zimmerman & Dickerson, 1994). The narrative metaphor I am using in this research



project, on the one hand draws on phenomenological psychology and, on the other hand, it embraces constructionist psychology. Therefore, human experience, human experience and embodiment, human experience and temporality, as well as human experience as a culturally constructed phenomenon are important within the narrative metaphor (Butt, 1999; Crossley, 2000). The following metaphor from music explains how a narrative is shaped historically and culturally.

A present narrative is always constructed with past and future in mind, or shall I say, with a memory of “a” past and an imagining of “a” future (Paré, 1995). When composing music a composer places a note on a certain scale on the music bar. He/she does so not just by taking the position of the current note into account but also by taking the previous notes and the notes to follow into account. A melody is shaped therefore not just by a present note but also by past and future notes and their sequential relationship to one another. This is the historical dimension of a narrative, which primarily draws on phenomenological psychology (Brueggemann, 1981, 1985, 1993; Carr, 1986; Crossley, 2000; Edwards, 1997; Müller & Laas, 2000; Ochs, 1997).

A present narrative is not just shaped by history but also by culture. The culture a person is living in also constructs the telling of a present narrative (Paré, 1995). A composer who composes music does so by taking cognisance of when the music is going to be played, where it is going to be played, for what reason it will be played, as well as the cultural discourse informing the event. Composing music for the Rugby World Cup would be completely different from composing music for a presidential inauguration. Furthermore, when music is composed the composer indicates what instruments are best suited to play a part in the composition and in so doing he/she indicates what musical language best suits the composition. This is the cultural dimension of a narrative and draws on constructionist psychology (Brueggemann, 1981, 1985, 1993; Brunner, 1990; Crossley, 2000; Edwards, 1997; Müller & Laas, 2000).

I would like to tell you about a sport injury experience from my own life and I shall use this experience to enhance the explanation of a narrative being constructed historically and culturally:

In June 2003, one Saturday morning, I played squash with my brother-in-law. While we were playing it felt as if my right calf muscle was going to cramp. I was a bit concerned about this as I had torn that specific calf muscle in March 2000 and received eight weeks rehabilitation for that sport injury. I was afraid of tearing the calf muscle again, as this could influence my future participation in squash. Despite this, I kept on playing and at one stage of the game I felt a terrible sting in my right calf muscle. It felt as if someone had thrown a dart into that calf muscle. I immediately knew that I had torn my calf muscle again. I asked my brother-in-law to take me to a doctor, which he did. I told the doctor what had happened in detail and also told him that I had torn the same calf muscle in March 2000 when I had not sought the advice of a doctor immediately but had waited two days before I did so. This resulted in a four-week rehabilitation process with a physiotherapist during which the blood crust that had formed under my skin had to be broken down and I also had to undergo a further four-week rehabilitation process during which the physiotherapist helped to strengthen my calf muscle. Furthermore, as this was the second time the same calf muscle had torn, I felt quite desperate that it should not have a profound influence on my playing squash in future and I conveyed this concern to the doctor as well. The doctor gave me a Voltaren injection for the pain and told me to put ice on the calf muscle for as long as I could, on that Saturday. I went home with my brother-in-law and briefly told my sister what had happened. I also told her that the doctor said I had to put ice on the calf muscle for as long as I could, on that Saturday. This I did. I sat in front of the television watching sport all day with an ice pack on my calf muscle, which at the end of the day had a significant positive influence on the rehabilitation of the calf muscle because the ice kept the blood from coagulating and forming a blood crust under my skin, as was the case in the first sport injury.

I would now like to explain to you how a narrative is constructed historically and culturally.

□ Experience, narrative and history

One of the major characteristics of a narrative is that it depicts a temporal transition from one state of affairs to another. The constructing of a narrative in the present is always done with a past in mind. It is important to note that it is “a” past and not

“the” past, as past-lived experiences can be narrated in various ways. The past is not fixed but is always told in a certain way in relation to the present construction of a narrative. The telling of a past is never a telling as it really happened, as it was experienced by someone, it is merely the construction of a past in the form of a narrative. Therefore, within the narrative metaphor, there is not just one past but many “pasts”. There is not just one telling of the past but numerous ways that the past can be constructed through language in relation to the telling of a narrative in the present. The telling of a past experience implies an activity, an ongoing human activity, where the past-lived experiences of people can be narrated in various ways to either support and/or contradict the construction of a present narrative (Larner, 1998; Ochs, 1997). The quotation “before the sun breaks the horizon hundreds of athletes throughout the world begin their day as they have in the past, as they will continue to do in the future” (Lesyk, 2001, p.12) at the beginning of this chapter, encapsulates temporality in the life of an athlete. Every practice session in the present and every game in the present are done with a past in mind, or, should I say, with a past playing out.

Let me explain how a narrative is shaped historically by referring to the narrative regarding my sport injury:

When the doctor saw me in his consulting rooms, I started by telling him what had happened that Saturday morning while playing squash with my brother-in-law on the squash court. I told him that at first it just felt as if my right leg’s calf muscle wanted to cramp and then while playing a game of squash I experienced a terrible burning pain in my calf muscle, as if someone had thrown a dart into my calf muscle. I then started telling him about the previous time in March 2000 when I had also torn the same calf muscle. I narrated that experience in a certain way to the doctor by telling him that I did not go to a doctor immediately and waited for two days before I did as I thought the injury would heal by itself and that with the current sport injury I had sought the advice and help of a doctor immediately. I was narrating the past as “I” being irresponsible, while at present “I” was being responsible. I was trying to tell him through the construction of my narrative that with the past sport injury I was irresponsible and did not take the sport injury seriously as I thought it would heal on its own, while I was being extremely responsible with the current sport injury by seeking his advice and help immediately because I was serious about the rehabilitation of the sport injury. I need not have told him about the March 2000 sport injury at all as I do not think it would have made a difference to the way he treated me. I did

however need to narrate the past sport injury in relation to the present sport injury. There had been a change in my personal narrative regarding sport injuries, as I had moved from the “irresponsible me” to the “responsible me”.

The constructing of a present narrative is not only done with a past in mind but is also done with a future in mind. Just as there is only telling of “a” past and not “the” past, so is there only a telling of “a” future and not “the” future. There are “futures” and not “the” future. As the telling of a past draws on peoples past-lived experiences and these past-lived experiences are constructed through language in such a way that they either support and/or contradict the constructing of a present narrative, so does the telling of a future draw on peoples imagined experiences, the not yet lived experiences - the yet to be realized experiences. A narrative that is constructed in the present therefore is not only the culmination of a past but also includes a future. The past-lived experiences and the future imagined experiences are both constructed in language and culminate in the contradiction and/or support of the constructing of a present narrative (Larner, 1998; Ochs, 1997). The quotation “before the sun breaks the horizon hundreds of athletes throughout the world begin their day as they have in the past, as they will continue to do in the future” (Lesyk, 2001, p.12) at the beginning of this chapter, once again encapsulates temporality in the life of an athlete. Every practice session in the present and every game in the present are not only done with a past in mind but also with an imagined future.

To explain the above, I once again want to take you back by referring to my sport injury:

The narrative that I was constructing in the presence of the doctor was not just being informed by my past sport injury, or construction thereof, it was not just being informed by the medical discourse within which the current conversation between the doctor and I was taking place, it was profoundly influenced by the way in which I was constructing my future, with or without squash. I was constructing myself as the responsible squash player who after sustaining a sport injury had immediately sought the advice of a doctor, as I was not yet ready to construct a future in my imagination without squash. I was not ready for my narrative to change from a squash player in the present to a squash spectator in the future. The construction that I was a responsible squash player who had just sustained a sport injury, was not only informed by my past-lived experience of a sport injury but also by my future imagined experiences of still being able to play squash.

The present is a fusion between the past and future (Heidegger, 1962), where we “explicitly consult past experiences, envisage the future and view the present as a passage between the two” (Carr, 1986, p.74). The notion of time within a narrative, is human time, not clock time; it is existential time, not physical time (Heidegger, 1962; Ricoeur, 1988). “We experience ourselves in the present time world but with a memory of the past and an anxiety for the future” (Ochs, 1997, p.191). A narrative brings past-lived experiences and future imagined experiences into present consciousness (Abel & Stokoe, 2001; Ochs, 1997). A present narrative is a construction of an experience and not the expression of an experience. It is a version of an experience and is not equal to an experience (Carr, 1986). Carr (in Woods, 1991) states:

Extraneous details are not left out but they are pushed into the background, saved for later, ranked in importance. And whose narrative voice is accomplishing all this? None but our own, of course. In planning our days and our lives we are composing the stories or the dramas we will act out and which will determine the focus of our attention and our endeavors, which will provide the principles for distinguishing foreground from background.

However, the construction of a narrative in the present is not only shaped by history, past and future but also by culture.

□ Experience, narrative and culture

When a person has an experience and that experience is narrated, the culture that he/she lives within has a profound influence on the constructing of a present narrative (White, 2000). According to Cushman (1995, p.17-18):

Culture is not indigenous “clothing” that covers the universal human; rather it is an integral part of each individual’s psychological flesh and bones ... the material objects we create, the ideas we hold and the actions we take are shaped in a fundamental way by the social framework we have been raised in.

A culture is made up, for example, of ideas, symbols, rituals, people, heroes, places, institutions, metaphors and discourse. Culture is not mechanistic and static but is organic and flexible, continuously changes over time and varies greatly from place to place (Cromby & Nightingale, 1999). It has to do with the basic assumptions of a community, which influence the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of that community and which manifest in for example rituals, symbols and processes (Weisner & Millet, 2000). Furthermore, culture creates a community identity that distinguishes one community from another and it also contributes to the construction of the identity of the members of a community. It also guides the members of a community with regards to acceptable and unacceptable behaviour within a specific community (Werner, 2003). This research project is situated within the academic community of the University of Pretoria (UP) in general and specifically within the Department of Psychology, which will have an influence on how I narrate my experience of sport psychology<sup>1</sup>. I am, after all, not doing this research project for a magazine like “Sports Illustrated”. Narrating my experience of sport psychology for this magazine would be completely different due to a different culture.

The influence of culture on the constructing of a narrative can be seen by referring again to my sport injury:

The morning I tore my calf muscle, my brother-in-law immediatly took me to the doctor, where I saw him in his consulting room. The consulting room of a medical doctor forms part of the medical discourse that informs the dominant way of practicing medicine in Western society. The consulting room can be seen as a cultural institution, where a doctor consults and treats the patient. The narrative that I constructed within this consulting room was also shaped by my awareness that I was in a doctor’s consulting room and this shaped my narrative about my sport injury. I did not tell the doctor about my work, as I was not there to discuss my work but I told him about my sport injury, as I needed him to treat the sport injury. It was not only the cultural institution of a consulting room that shaped my narrative regarding the sport injury but I was in conversation with a cultural figure, the medical doctor and this also shaped the construction of my narrative regarding the sport injury.

One of the most important aspects of culture and for this research project is discourse. The term discourse has come to the fore as part of the emergence of the

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<sup>1</sup> In this research report the term “sport psychology” will be used in a broad sense to incorporate the fields of sport and exercise psychology.

postmodern world that we find ourselves in (Epston, 1998; Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997). I do not think it is possible to narrow discourse down to one single definition. On the one hand, this could be because each person has his/her own definition of what discourse is, or, on the other hand, this could just be because discourse does not allow for one a-historical, a-cultural and uniform definition. It does not play or function by the positivist rules. Discourse can refer to language use, or to the communication of beliefs, or to the interaction in social situations. Discourse is about talk and text in context. Discourse is not only about the spoken word but also about the written word. In both talk and text there are users. In talk we have a speaker and a listener while in text we have an author and a reader. In both talk and text, context is important as context has an influence on the construction of talk and text (Van Dijk, 1997a). Discourse is seen as a cultural phenomenon as people engage in conversation at a specific time and place, with specific people and for a specific reason (Epston & White, 1992). Within this matrix of time, place, people and reason, conversation is created and discourse is created, which can be seen as language in action. This means that language does things (Cromby & Nightingale, 1999; Lea & Auburn, 2001; Van Dijk, 1997b). Life is experienced within language and how we experience is given meaning within the parameters of our language. The language we grow up with specifies or constitutes the experience we have (Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997).

The term discourse operates on different levels. It functions on macro and/or micro levels. On the one hand, the term discourse has a more abstract or general meaning when it refers to the macro discourses in society regarding phenomenon, for example, on age, race, gender and sexuality. I would like to refer to this as cultural discourse. On the other hand, the term discourse can have a more concrete or specific meaning when it is used on a micro level and refers to personal or conversational discourse (Van Dijk, 1997a). It is important to note that cultural discourses inform personal and conversational discourse and have lead to different research traditions. The influence of cultural discourses on the personal discourse of people is often studied through discourse analysis within the Foucauldian tradition (Carabine, 2001; Coyle, 2000; Powers, 1996; White, 1995; Willig, 2001), while the influence of cultural discourse on conversational discourse is studied through discursive analysis (Horton-Salaway, 2001; Willig, 2001).

Cultural discourses have been described as “regimes of truth” (Lowe, 1991, p.43) and can be seen as a “public process of conversation” and/or “systematic and institutionalised ways of speaking/writing” (Lowe, 1991, p.45). This way of describing a cultural discourse refers to the macro-linguistic worlds that we live in. Parker (1992, p.245) describes a cultural discourse as “sets of statements that construct objects and an array of subject positions”. These cultural discourses are created and sustained by various people in society, such as music writers, newspaper reporters, film producers and through various mediums such as the electronic and printed media as well as the spoken and written word (Monk *et al.*, 1997). Cultural discourses are found all around us, for example, there are cultural discourses on gender, racism, abuse, violence, governments, policy, buildings and cities (Cromby & Nightingale, 1999; Powers, 1996; Swain, 2000; Thorp, 1992), which afford us ways-of-being. They dictate how a person should think, feel and act in relation to another person within a given situation (Willig, 2001). The cultural discourse that will predominantly inform my experience of sport psychology will be the researcher-practitioner discourse, as postgraduate training in professional psychology is mainly done within this discourse (Beyers, 1981; Raimy, in Phares, 1992).

Cultural discourses are not descriptive and passive but are active, constructed and constructive (Coyle, 2000; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997; Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997) and consequently have a dual nature. On the one hand, they are constructed by society and, on the other hand they construct society. They are, therefore, constructed and constructive. An analogy to the world of sport is a game of squash. In a sport like squash, players, coaches, umpires and administrators get together and construct the rules that should govern a squash game. Through this social process squash rules are constructed. In the playing of a game of squash by squash players the rules become constructive in that they dictate how the game should be played. Cultural discourse can be seen as language in action as, on the one hand, cultural discourses are constructed by society while on the other hand, they afford people ways-of-being. They afford people positions and/or subjectivities and they dictate how we should think, feel and act in relation to ourselves and to other people in a given situation (Van Dijk, 1997a, 199b; Willig, 2001).



The constructed and constructive nature of a cultural discourse, of language in action, can be illustrated by using the analogy of a glass of water (Willig, 2001, p.7):

The same phenomenon or event can be described in different ways, giving rise to different ways of perceiving and understanding it, yet neither way of describing it is necessarily wrong. An obvious example of this is the choice between describing a glass of water as “half-full” or “half-empty”; both descriptions are equally accurate, yet one of them provides a positive, optimistic gloss on the situation (‘half-full’), whereas the other emphasizes absence and lack (‘half-empty’).

On sustaining my sport injury in June 2003, cultural discourses informed my way-of-being and the way in which I narrated my experience of the sport injury:

I am of the opinion that there were two discourses that informed my way-of-being that Saturday morning in June 2003. The one was the medical discourse and the other was a family discourse. While I was in the consulting room with the doctor my way-of-being was predominantly informed by the medical discourse as I was the patient and the doctor was the expert. I was in need of his expert medical knowledge and he was releasing his long earned expert knowledge to me, at a price. The discourse was dictating to me that “I do not know” and that the “doctor knows”. When I arrived at my sister’s house with the help of my brother-in law, the medical discourse was not in the foreground but rather a family discourse. This discourse allowed me to tell my sister what had happened on the squash court; that I had been to see a doctor and that he had advised me to put ice on the calf muscle. This I did with the help of my sister that day. The family discourse did not allow me to seek any expert knowledge from her nor did it allow her to give any expert advice, rather, it allowed me to ask for her support, which she gave.

Within any given cultural context there are dominant and alternative cultural discourses regarding a specific phenomenon and it is these cultural discourses that have a shaping effect on peoples personal narratives (Redwood, 1999; Van Dijk, Ting-Toomey, Smitherman & Troutman, 1997; White & Epston, 1990). Due to the existence and function of dominant and alternative cultural discourses, certain experiences that people have will become part of their personal narratives that are told and re-told and can be seen as the privileged knowledge and practices in their lives, while other experiences that they have do not become part of their told personal narratives. These experiences remain untold and become the subjugated knowledge

and practices of their lives, which can be seen as marginalized knowledge and practices (Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997; White & Epston, 1990). Cultural discourses prescribe certain ways-of-being in the world of which there can be dominant and alternative ways-of-being in the world. Cultural discourses prescribe subject positions which, when taken up, have implications for subjectivity and experience. Gergen (1994) states that our identities, our ways-of-being are the achievement of discourse rather than cognition. For example, from within the biomedical discourse, those who experience ill health occupy the subject position of “patient”, which locates them as the passive recipient of expert care within a trajectory of cure (Willig, 2001). During my encounter with sport psychology I shall try to understand which cultural discourses are dominant and which are alternative, within the discipline of sport psychology.

To elaborate on the analogy of squash. The game of squash can be played as a singles-game or as a doubles-game. I assure you that singles-squash and doubles-squash are completely different. The rules are different, the communication on the court is different, the scoring is different, the way you move on the court is different and sometimes the sporting equipment that you need is different in that doubles-squash sometimes requires protective glasses. The cultural discourses informing singles-squash and doubles-squash are very different and afford a squash player different ways-of-being when he/she is playing singles-squash versus doubles-squash.

The dominant and alternative cultural discourses that circulate in society afford people different ways-of-being. As cultural discourses make available dominant and alternative ways-of-being, they are strongly implicated in the exercise of power (Willig, 2001). In postmodernism power is seen as a relational phenomena with the dominant cultural discourses having more power than the alternative cultural discourses and the resistance to power taking place where the power exists, in relationships (De Beaugrande, 1997; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997; Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997).

The following words by a student describes the imbalance in power due to dominant and alternative cultural discourses and the impact this imbalance can have on people's lives (Rich, in Maher & Thompson-Tetreault, 1994, p.1):

When those who have power to name and to socially construct reality choose not to see you or to hear you, whether you are dark skinned, old, disable, female ... when someone of the authority of a teacher, say, describes the world and you are not in it, there is a moment of psychic disequilibrium, as if you looked into a mirror and saw nothing.

The dominant cultural discourses privilege those versions of the world, which legitimise existing power relations and social constructions. Some cultural discourses are so entrenched that it is very difficult to see how we may challenge them. They have become "common sense". At the same time, it is in the nature of language that alternative constructions are always possible and that counter-discourses can and do, emerge eventually (Willig, 2001).

When talking about dominant and alternative discourses, I also need to take cognisance of deconstruction. "To deconstruct is to undo, not to destroy" (Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997, p.36). It can be seen as the process of analysing the "gaps, silences, ambiguities and power relations within discourses" (Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997, p.35). Deconstruction uncovers the hidden contradictions and repressed meanings in narratives and reveals the forms of social control induced by cultural discourse (Duquin, 1994). Lather (1991) says that deconstruction provides a corrective moment, it makes one safeguard against dogmatism and creates a continuous process in which we can demystify the realities that we have created. For example, the quotation: "Serious sport has nothing to do with fair play. It is bound up with hatred, jealousy, boastfulness, disregard of rules and sadistic pleasure in watching violence: in other words, it is war minus the shooting" (Orwell, in Lesyk, 2001, p.15) is a deconstruction of the quotation at the beginning of this chapter.

□ Narrative metaphor as research metaphor

I have chosen to situate this research project within the narrative metaphor as this will allow me to make sense of my experience of sport psychology, by narrating the

experience (Freedman & Combs, 1996, 2002). The narrative, or research report, will be shaped historically and culturally.

Originally, I wanted to approach this research project from a constructionist psychology perspective but what bothered me, just like a recurring sport injury, was the over emphasis of constructionist psychology on cultural discourse and how it constructs personal identities and relationships and in that, human experience seems to get lost (Augustinos & Walker, 1995; Burr, 1998; Cromby & Nightingale, 1999; Crossley, 2000; Jenkins, 2001). Cultural discourse became the player on the field and human experience the player on the bench.

The narrating of my encounter with sport psychology will allow me to contribute meaning and make sense of my experience (Ochs, 1997). The question can be asked: “Why is it important for me to make sense of my experience of sport psychology?”

Firstly, I have chosen to do this research project using the narrative metaphor, not just because I need to make sense of my own experience regarding my encounter with sport psychology but this meaning-making-process will also allow me to be congruent when I facilitate sport psychology training and research of future postgraduate students in sport psychology, as the aim of this research project is to establish a postgraduate sport psychology module in the Department of Psychology at the UP.

I want to explain the aspect of congruency by referring to a narrative from my own life:

I remember that when I was studying theology from 1985 to 1990 at UP, there were fellow students who used to exchange sermons amongst each other. One student would work out a sermon and preach it, where after it would be exchanged for another student’s sermon that would be used for preaching. I was never able to do this. I believed that if I did not experience the message of the sermon myself it would be unethical to preach that sermon to others. I believed that the message first had to make a difference in my own life before I could share it with others.

For this very same reason I need to become aware of my experience of sport psychology and narrate that experience before I am able to facilitate the training and research of future postgraduate sport psychology students. I believe that I have to discover my own excellence first before I can assist postgraduate students in sport psychology to discover their own excellence.

Secondly, the world of sport is a very action orientated world where people are usually doing some activity: athletes perform, coaches coach, umpires umpire and administrators administrate. Even the support staff, like doctors, physiotherapists, biokineticists and sport psychologists<sup>2</sup> are always doing something. The doctors are medicating athletes, the physiotherapists are rehabilitating athletes, the biokineticists are strapping athlete's muscles and the sport psychologists are presenting life and mental skills programmes to athletes. I am of the opinion that as sport psychologists we have to be with athletes before we do something to them, or should I rather say before we do something for and with them. As a sport psychologist I have to understand my own sporting experiences, before I can assist athletes in a process of understanding their own experiences in their pursuit of excellence. It is because of this that I have chosen to do this research project using the narrative metaphor as it will allow me to make sense of my own experience of sport psychology, which will allow me to, firstly, be with athletes and secondly, to do things with athletes and not do things to them. This, in itself, will allow me to work in a deconstructing way within a sport context.

Thirdly, in the narrating of my own experiences of sport psychology, I become ethical towards students, athletes and myself and I become responsible towards students, athletes and myself (Kierkegaard, 1987). As I was not formally trained in sport psychology my own sport psychology self comes into being through the narrating of my experience of sport psychology (Ricoeur, 1986). Crites (1996, p.162) says, "the more complete the story, the more integrated the self". The narrating of my experience of sport psychology in a complete as possible way, will allow me to

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<sup>2</sup> Although I am aware that there are various registration categories (e.g. clinical, counselling, educational, industrial and sport psychology) for psychologists, nationally and internationally, the term "sport psychologist", when used in this research report, refers to a psychologist working in a sport context, irrespective of his/her registration category.

develop an ethical, responsible and integrated sport psychology self. To me this means creating a sense of personal excellence.

## **METHOD**

The method that I have followed in the research project can be divided into the planning phase, the working phase and the reflecting phase.

### **Phase 1: Planning phase (Research proposal)**

The planning phase entailed the drafting of a research proposal, as well as getting approval for the research project from the Research Committee of the Department of Psychology, as well as from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities, at the UP. The planning phase was conducted in 2002.

### **Phase 2: Working phase (Research project)**

The working phase consisted of two phases. On the one hand I engaged with sport psychology and on the other hand Prof. Dave Beyers and I discussed my encounter with sport psychology. These two phases were conducted simultaneously and ran from 2002 to 2004.

#### **□ Phase 2a: Engaging sport psychology**

During this phase of the research project I read sport psychology literature, studied postgraduate sport psychology training programmes that are offered in Psychology Departments at various training organisations, visited the University of Southern Queensland (USQ) in Toowoomba, Australia that offered a Master of Psychology (Sport and Exercise)(MPSE) and a Doctor of Psychology (Sport and Exercise) (DPSE), as well as the High Performance Centre (HPC) of TuksSport (Pty) Ltd in Pretoria, SA and the Western Australia Institute of Sport (WAIS) in Perth, Australia.

#### **□ Phase 2b: Discussing sport psychology**

During the period that I was engaging with sport psychology (phase 2a), Prof. Beyers and I discussed my encounter with sport psychology<sup>3</sup>. He was the supervisor for this research project. Traditionally, the term “supervisor” has the meaning of “critical evaluator” in a research project. However, in this research project the term “supervisor” has dual meaning. On the one hand, it has the meaning of a “co-researcher”, while on the other hand, it also has the meaning of “critical evaluator”. As “co-researcher” my supervisor posed certain questions to me, which were informed by the researcher-practitioner discourse, while as “critical evaluator” my supervisor critiqued the research process. Within the field of narrative psychology it is possible for a person to have multiple identities (Abel & Stokoe, 2001; White, 1995, 2000; White & Epston, 1990) and it is for this reason that my supervisor assumed the identities of “co-researcher” and “critical evaluator” in this research project.

### **Phase 3: Reflecting phase (Research report)**

This phase entails reflecting on my experiences during the working phase, the research project and narrating those experiences in the form of a narrative, the research report. To write this narrative I shall employ two metaphors: touring and journal (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980):

#### **□ Metaphor 1: Touring metaphor**

I shall employ the touring metaphor to account for the temporal dimension of the research project, as well as the research report, as narrative. The tour with sport psychology will be divided in three parts: Part I: “Before touring with sport psychology”, Part II: “Touring with sport psychology” and Part III: “After touring with sport psychology”.

#### **□ Metaphor 2: Journal metaphor**

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<sup>3</sup> These discussions took place at the University of Pretoria (UP). The UP originated as the Transvaal University College in 1908. In 1930 the UP became a fully-fledged university and currently positions itself as an internationally recognized organisation with regards to teaching and research (University of Pretoria [UP], 2003a, 2003b).

I shall employ the journal metaphor to account for the cultural dimension of the research project, as well as the research report, as narrative. During my tour with sport psychology I shall make various entries into my journal. All these entries will be shaped by the researcher-practitioner discourse and will be constructed in the form of imaginative reflective conversations between Prof. Beyers and myself (Freedman & Combs, 1996, 2002).

In Part I: “Before touring with sport psychology”, I shall introduce myself as researcher (chapter 2, journal entry I) and state the research problem, question and goal(s)(chapter 3, journal entry II). In Part II, “Touring with sport psychology”, I shall visit a sport psychology museum (chapter 4, journal entry III), library (chapter 5, journal entry IV), conference (chapter 6, journal entry V), department (chapter 7, journal entry VI), as well as a sport centre and institute (chapter 8, journal entry VII). In Part III: “After touring with sport psychology”, I shall focus on incorporating what I learnt during my tour with sport psychology into the current Master of Arts (MA) (Counselling Psychology) programme at the UP (chapter 9, journal entry VIII), as well as how my encounter with sport psychology has influenced my identity as a psychologist (chapter 10, journal entry IX).

## **KNOWLEDGE**

There are many people who are of the opinion that knowledge has been viewed differently over time and divide time into the pre-modern, modern and postmodern eras (Barker, 1996; Edgar, 1995; Euben, 1997; Ozment, 1995; Smith, 1993).

### **Revealing knowledge**

In the pre-modern era knowledge was seen as something that belonged to God, it was “up there”. God revealed this knowledge only to chosen people who then captured this knowledge in various religious scriptures. The church became the custodian of God’s knowledge contained in the religious scriptures. These religious scriptures



were thus seen as containing knowledge that God deemed necessary for people to possess and to live by, as this knowledge would give them meaningful lives (Durrheim, 1997; Kvale, 1996; Mcloyd, 1997; Vorster, 1999).

### **Discovering knowledge**

In the modern era knowledge is viewed as “out there” or “in here”. Allow me to explain the notion of knowledge “out there”. Within this view reality is mainly seen as being outside of the observer, containing a-historical and a-cultural knowledge that is timeless and universal (Butchart, 1988; Dewar & Horn, 1992; Gergen, 1988; Greenwood, 1992; Kirk & Miller, 1986; Willig, 2001). The task of the scientific community is to discover this knowledge “out there”, by means of objective researchers, structured methodologies, as well as reliable and valid instruments (Durrheim, 1997; Kvale, 1996). The goal of research is to discover universal knowledge “out there”, so that it can be generalized to other contexts giving scientists the ability to predict and control future behaviour (Taylor, 2001). The results of this kind of research are published in scientific journals that contain knowledge about the world “out there” and which is supposed to be used to make the world a better place to live in (Freedman & Combs, 1996; Greenwood, 1992; Mcloyd, 1997). The work of the scientific community within the modern era seems mainly to be characterized by a realist ontology, positivist epistemology and empirical methodologies (Taylor, 2001; Willig, 2001). The dominant theory and practice of sport psychology is grounded within this way of thinking and working (Dewar & Horn, 1992; Semerjian & Waldron, 2001). In practical terms, if an athlete suffers from anxiety, a sport psychologist would view the athlete’s anxiety as “out there”, located within the athlete, on which the sport psychologist as objective observer, has no influence. The sport psychologist would measure the athlete’s anxiety, for example, with the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory (Martens, Vealey & Burton, 1990) and would primarily be interested in “how much” anxiety the athlete is experiencing, rather than in the athlete’s experience of the anxiety itself. Furthermore, the sport psychologist would use the results to diagnose the athlete, sometimes even seeing the athlete’s anxiety as pathological, plan an intervention and implement it.

Knowledge is also seen as “in there” during the modernist era. Within this view, which is subservient to the notion of knowledge being “out there”, reality is seen as within people. Furthermore, reality is seen as possessing knowledge that is historical and contextual and located within specific people, at a specific time and within a specific place. The role of the scientific community is to discover the knowledge “in there” (Du Plessis & Ferreira, 2000; Kirk & Miller, 1986; Krefting, 1991; Newman, 1997). In this approach, language is the focus of attention and the scientific community studies the language of people as a way of understanding the knowledge “in there”. The assumption is that people express their experiences in language, in narratives and if the scientific community wants to understand the experiences, they have to focus on the narratives that people tell about their experiences. The gathering and analysis of narratives is paramount in this approach (Cresswell, 1998). The narratives people tell are seen as describing their experiences and therefore, are passive and representational in nature (Wetherell, 2001). From this perspective a narrative is like a mirror, as it reflects and represents only the image of the person who is looking into the mirror (Lowe, 1991; Potter, 1996). The narrative a person thus tells about his/her experience reflects and represents only that person’s experience. In my opinion this approach is characterized by a relativist ontology, constructivist epistemology and descriptive methodologies. The role of the researcher changed from being an objective observer to that of subjective participant. It is important for the researcher to apply certain techniques to the research process, which will prevent the researcher’s subjectivity to interfere with the research results (Krefting, 1991; Sparkes, 1998). The goal of this kind of research is not to discover universal knowledge that can be generalized but to discover knowledge that is unique to a person and to put the focus on individual differences (Schurink, 1998). In practical terms when an athlete experiences anxiety, a sport psychologist working within this approach will ask the athlete to describe his/her anxiety, analyze the description of the anxiety and come to an understanding of the athlete’s anxiety. From this point of view the sport psychologist is more interested in the experience of anxiety itself than in the amount of anxiety the athlete is experiencing. Furthermore, the sport psychologist would also be aware that he/she is not an objective researcher

but a subjective participant in the research project and will act reflexively during the research project.

### **Constructing knowledge**

The postmodern era embodies a position that is critical of modernism (Bloland, 1995; Gergen, 1994). In postmodernism there is a movement from individual humanism to relational humanism (Gergen, 1995). There is also disbelief in universal systems of thought and practice, for example, in believing that science can make the world a better place (Greer, 1997; Lyotard, 1984). According to the postmodern position there are no “facts” but only interpretations - interpretations of “facts” (Greer, 1997). The postmodern era sees knowledge as being constructed “between people”, historically and culturally (Butchart, 1988; Dalos & Urry, 1999; Du Plessis & Ferreira, 2000; Greenwood, 1992; Magadla, 1996; Steyn, 1999). Therefore, the actual experience a person has and the narrative regarding that experience are never equal to each other (Pearce, 1989). The narrative is a particular construction of the experience and a particular version of the experience (Wetherell, 2001). The experience that a person has is private and physiological in nature, while the construction of the experience is public and linguistic in nature (Waddie, 1996; Wittgenstein, 1967). From this perspective, regarding the narrative metaphor, a narrative can be compared to a house. On the one hand, a house can be constructed with various materials and, on the other hand, a constructed house determines how the inhabitants can live. The house is therefore constructed and constructive. A narrative operates in much the same fashion as a person constructs it on the one hand and, on the other hand, it is constructive in the way that person lives because it affords that person a way-of-being (Lowe, 1991; Potter, 1996). There are different views on reality within the postmodern era. On the one hand, there are those who are of the opinion that reality only consists of the world that we discursively construct and that there is nothing beyond discourse. On the other hand, there are those who hold the opinion that there is a real world beyond discourse that is, reality is more than discourse, which we can know through our sensory apparatus (Cromby & Nightingale, 1999). The focus of science here is not on the discovery of knowledge as a product but rather on the process of how knowledge comes into being (Gergen,

1985, 1991; Gosden, 1995). There is a focus on the study of cultural discourses and how these shape the personal narratives of people as well as inform conversational narratives (Carbine, 2001; Horton-Salaway, 2001; Willig, 2001). The researcher is subjectively involved in the construction of knowledge, which can be seen as negotiated meaning within historical and cultural contexts and brought about through social action (Burr, 1995; Kotzé & Kotzé, 1997). In the postmodern worldview there is a relativist ontology, a constructionist epistemology and a hermeneutical methodology (Stotsky, 1993). If an athlete is suffering from anxiety, the sport psychologist working from this position will hold the view that the sport psychologist cannot know the athlete's experience of anxiety because it is a private experience. It is only when the athlete narrates his/her experience that it becomes a public experience and this narration is shaped through history and within culture.

The following example by Anderson (1990, p.75) is, in my opinion, a good illustration of knowledge being “out there”, “in there” and “between people”:

Three umpires are sitting around over a beer and one says, “There's balls and there's strikes and I call 'em the way they are”. Another says, “There's balls and there's strikes and I call 'em the way I see them”. The third says, “There's balls and there's strikes and they ain't nothin' until I call 'em”.

The first umpire sees reality as independent of him, as the “balls” and “strikes” can be called “as they are”. This implies that there is a reality (“balls” and “strikes”) that exists independent of the umpire and that the umpire can know this reality exactly “as it is”. This umpire can be seen as a positivist who perceives reality and the knowledge of that reality as being “out there”. The second umpire sees reality (“balls” and “strikes”) as being constructed by him as an individual because the “balls” and “strikes” are called as “he sees them”. This implies that the umpire as an individual constructs reality mainly through cognitive processes and that reality is dependent on the perceptual constructions of the umpire. This umpire can be seen as a constructivist with reality and the knowledge of that reality as being “in there”. The third umpire sees reality (“balls” and “strikes”) as being constructed amongst people and/or things” as the “balls” and “strikes” only become something when he “calls them something”. This implies that reality is constructed “between and among

people” by means of social processes and through language. This umpire can be seen as a constructionist who understands reality and the knowledge of reality as being “between and among people”.

## **QUALITY**

In any research project, qualitative or quantitative, the aspect of quality seems to be an important one (Krefting, 1991; Kvale, 1995, 1996; Sparkes, 1998). The quality aspect of research can be viewed according to the replication principle, the parallel principle or can be viewed from a constructionist perspective (Sparkes, 1998).

### **Quality principles**

#### **□ Replication principle**

As psychology has historically been linked predominantly with the positivist epistemology of the natural sciences, quantitative research has been the privileged form of research within psychology, as well as in sport psychology. The criteria that has been applied to evaluate the quality of quantitative research, has been reliability, validity and generalizability (Kvale, 1995, 1996; Sparkes, 1998). As qualitative research grew, the replication principle came into being that states, “one set of criteria should be applied to all forms of scientific research” (Sparkes, 1998, p.365). This means that the same criteria that are applied to evaluate the quality of quantitative research, namely reliability, validity and generalizability, should be replicated to the field of qualitative research (Sparkes, 1998).

#### **□ Parallel principle**

As many researchers saw fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research, the parallel principle came into being (Agar, 1986). This means that there is a set of criteria for quantitative research, namely reliability, validity and

generalizability, as well as a set of criteria for qualitative research, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability, which all aim to enhance the trustworthiness of qualitative research (Krefting, 1991; Sparkes, 1998). The parallel principle has been taken so far as to state that there are criteria that are applicable to enhance the quality of quantitative and qualitative research but that these criteria should be translated differently for quantitative and qualitative research because of their different philosophical underpinnings. These criteria are truth-value, applicability, consistency and neutrality. Truth value is translated as credibility in qualitative research and as internal validity in quantitative research; applicability as transferability in qualitative research and as external validity in quantitative research; consistency as dependability in qualitative research and as reliability in quantitative research and neutrality as confirmability in qualitative research and as objectivity in quantitative research. In qualitative research there are strategies that can be employed to adhere to each of the criteria. For example, concerning the criteria of credibility: the researcher can employ the strategies of member checking and peer examination; in the case of transferability: the researcher can employ the strategies of dense description and nominated sampling; for ensuring the criteria of dependability: the researcher can employ the strategies of stepwise replication and code-recode data analysis; and lastly, the criteria of confirmability can be addressed when the researcher employs the strategies of triangulation and reflexivity (Guba in Krefting, 1991). The main critique against the parallel perspective regarding the quality of qualitative research is that it has its “roots and origins in positivist assumptions, which means that they continue to play in the friendly confines of the opposition’s home court” (Sparkes, 1998, p.374).

#### □ Constructionist principle

Today many researchers are calling for alternative criteria to evaluate the quality of research and are rejecting the replication principle and parallel perspective. As Wolcott (1994, p.366-369) states:

What I seek is something else, a quality that points more to identifying critical elements and wringing plausible interpretations from them, something one can peruse without becoming obsessed with finding the right or ultimate answer, the correct version, the Truth ... And I do not accept validity as valid criteria for judging my work. I think we have laboured far too long under the burden of this concept that might have been better left where it began, a not-quite-so-singular-or-precise criterion, as I once believed it to be for matters related essentially to tests and measurement. I suggest we look elsewhere in our continuing search for and dialogue about criteria appropriate to qualitative researchers' approaches and purposes.

Criteria that are being proposed to enhance the quality of qualitative research are craftsmanship, communicative value and pragmatic validity (Kvale, 1995, 1996). The criterion of social agreement is proposed as a viable alternative criterion for enhancing the quality of qualitative research. This means that what the researchers and participants agree upon can be seen as true and trustworthy (Smith, 1989). There are researchers that are of the opinion that validity within qualitative research is more personal and interpersonal and is not methodological. Validity therefore has more to do with researcher sensitivity as well as researcher skills (Reason, 1981). Furthermore, there is the criterion of catalytic validity where one aim of the research process is to empower the participants by altering their consciousness so that they can change their reality (Lather, 1986). For many researchers the criterion of social change is used for evaluating the quality of qualitative research. The research process has to lead to some form of social change in society for it to be quality research. An example of such a research outcome would lead to the empowerment of females in a male dominated sport world (Krane, 1994).

### **Enhancing quality**

As I am using the narrative metaphor to guide this research project, the enhancing of the quality of this research project in my opinion falls within the constructionist perspective. Allow me once again to use an example from sport to describe my

understanding of enhancing the quality of this research project. In 1995, the Rugby World Cup was hosted in SA one year after the first democratic elections were held. The South African rugby team won the tournament by beating New Zealand (NZ) 12-9 in the final game. What made it such a memorable game? Was it the fact that we beat NZ in the dying moments of the game because of Joel Stransky's drop goal? Yes! But it was not just that. In fact it was much more. In my opinion there were three factors that made it an incredible game. Firstly, each of the players knew what position they were playing in and played from that position. There was congruence between assuming the position and performing that position. Secondly, there was interaction between the players and spectators. The players played in such a way that they got the spectators enthusiastically involved in the game and the spectators cheered in such a way that it influenced the performance of the players. There was therefore interaction between players and spectators. Thirdly, the game had social value. Although we won the game against NZ the winning had broader implications than just beating NZ. After the game the political captain, Nelson Mandela and the rugby captain, Francois Pienaar, both stood on the podium wearing their number six Springbok jerseys. As a country we had gone through fundamental political changes and the unity between black and white was symbolized in Nelson Mandela and Francois Pienaar. Thus, in this research project I shall strive to construct congruency, engagement and social value in order to enhance the quality of this research project. As this research project is guided by the narrative metaphor, criteria from the replication principle and parallel perspective are not applicable to this research (Riessman, 1993).

Firstly, congruency has to do with me as the researcher being as true as possible to the narrative metaphor that I have chosen to guide this research project and report. To return to the above-mentioned example from sport: just as each player knew their position and played according to that position, so too have I chosen a certain research position and I shall conduct the research from that position.

Secondly, I shall also strive to construct interaction throughout the research process by narrating my experience of sport psychology in such a way that it will keep you as the reader and myself as the narrator engaged in the narrating process. Just as there



was engagement between the players and spectators in the final game of the 1995 Rugby World Cup, which made it an unforgettable experience, so shall I try to construct engagement between you, the reader and me, in how I narrate my experience of sport psychology.

Finally, concerning quality enhancement, to me the most important aspect regarding the quality of the research project is social value. I am of the opinion that, at the end of the day, research should lead to some form of social change. SA did win the 1995 Rugby World Cup but it was not just a victory on the scoreboard, it was also a victory for the nation that resulted in the political and Springbok captains standing side-by-side on the podium. I intend to use this research to implement a postgraduate module in sport psychology in the Department of Psychology at the UP. This will allow students to train in this area and to work as fully trained sport psychologists in the sport context of SA.

In this chapter I have stated that my research position and method falls within the field of narrative psychology. In the next chapter I shall address the history of sport in my own life, as well as the development of my own career and how sport and psychology became teammates in my life.

**PART I**  
**BEFORE TOURING WITH SPORT PSYCHOLOGY**

**CHAPTER 2**

**JOURNAL ENTRY I**  
**WHERE DID IT BEGIN?**

Remember that you engage in sport because it enhances your life. You owe it to yourself and to those who care about you to do your best. You cannot do more. Win or lose you're still the same person and life goes on. It is your chosen commitment and struggle towards excellence that makes you a better person, not your win-loss record.

Jack Lesyk (in Lesyk, 2001, p.6)

**DB<sup>1</sup>: To help me understand where you are coming from, would it be possible for you to start by telling me something about the role sport has played in your life?**

LH<sup>2</sup>: As far back as I can remember sport has always been an integral part of my life. It has always in some way enhanced the quality of my life. At certain stages it has been more present than at other stages. At certain stages it has been present in a very informal way, like playing cricket as a young boy in the open veld next to the house I grew up in; while at other stages it has occupied a very formal position such as my participation in athletics, rugby, squash, swimming and volleyball in Standard X in 1981. I would like to tell you about some of my experiences with sport.

When I think back on how sport and I became formally acquainted with one another, the first memory that comes to mind was the day my father took me to the squash courts of the Union Steel Corporation in Vereeniging in 1971. I was in Grade II. I can still remember being without squash shoes and holding onto a wooden squash racquet that was as long as I was tall - and I was not very tall. The squash court felt overwhelmingly enormous to me and I remember feeling lost on it. The smell of perspiration filled the air, a smell that I would later in life learn was characteristic of squash courts all over the world. I have played squash in Scotland, England, Germany and Australia and in all these countries I experienced the familiar smell of squash-court-perspiration. I still remember what my father looked like on that day. He wore squash shoes, white socks,

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<sup>1</sup> DB is the abbreviation for Prof. Dave Beyers, the supervisor for this research project.

<sup>2</sup> LH is the abbreviation for Lourens Human, the researcher in this research project.

white shorts and a white shirt with the collar turned up. This was my father's squash trademark, a turned up collar. I never understood why he wore his shirt that way and I also never asked. Squash is the sport that I have been involved in for the longest period of time. As I have said, I started playing in 1971 when I was eight years old. At high school I received provincial colours for squash in Standard IX and X. I remember playing squash on my own for hours in the courtyard of our house with an old wooden squash racquet. I used to play against myself, practising all kinds of shots. Over and over I would practice serving the squash ball. Over and over I would practice my forehand and backhand. I used to imagine that I had an opponent whom I was playing against and I also had imaginary spectators following the squash game. Besides my solitary courtyard squash games, I also spent a lot of time alone, as well as with my father on the squash court practising a game that would become an integral part of my life. While telling this narrative about squash in my life, I realize how important the roles of repetition and imagination were in the process I went through while I was learning to play squash. The saying "practice makes perfect" comes to mind regarding the importance of repetition in any sport. Furthermore, when I think back on how I used my imagination to see myself playing, to create opponents, as well as to allow spectators into my world, I also became aware of anxiety creeping into my world and I realize too that I hardly ever allow myself to create that imaginary world as an adult. It was so powerful to use it in my playing and sport as a young boy and I wonder why I have allowed it to become marginalized in my life. Perhaps this research project is in a way the resurrection of my imagination but this time with the focus on training psychology students to become sport psychologists.

I also remember that as a young boy my father bought me the records of the late Gerhard Viviers. These were recordings of Springbok rugby games that Gerhard Viviers was the commentator for. I used to play these records over and over again and always assumed the role of either Dawie de Villiers, who played scrumhalf for the Springboks, or Mannekin Roux, who played centre for the Springboks. In the lounge of our house I used to enact the commentary of Gerhard Viviers regarding these two rugby players. When I was playing for the

Springboks as Dawie de Villiers, I used to get the rugby ball at the back of the scrum and using a typical Dawie de Villiers dive pass the ball to the flyhalf and when I was playing the game as Marnetjies Roux, I made thumping tackles on my opponents. At this young stage of my life I was still completely unaware that these two positions, scrumhalf and centre, would be the two rugby positions that I would play during my participation in rugby in primary and high school. In primary school I played scrumhalf from Standard I-V and in high school I played centre most of the time. Now and then I played flyhalf or fullback. While I was playing to the commentary of Gerhard Viviers, I constructed imaginary games and I very often placed my family as supportive spectators next to the field. Today, when I look back at my Springbok rugby games in our lounge, I realize how much I learnt regarding the game of rugby by doing scrumhalf dive-passes and centre tackles over and over and realize once again the importance of imagination and repetition in sport.

Another experience that enters my world when I think about my involvement in sport was when I was in Standard V in 1976 in Peacehaven Primary School, Vereeniging. This was a very small primary school with only 340 pupils. There were only 17 boys from which a first rugby team could be chosen. So there were 15 of us in the team and we had two reserves. We had a coach, Mr. Kip Vermeulen, whom we all adored. Although he was strict, he believed in us and I believe he used the sport of rugby to develop us as young boys. He was also our Afrikaans teacher and in his spare time he wrote short stories that were broadcast over Afrikaans Radio at 19:20-19:30 every evening of the week. When I look back on his involvement in our lives, I realize today that we as youngsters were one of his short stories that he was developing through sport. We won the rugby league that year - the first time in the history of Peacehaven Primary School. The last game we played in the 1976 season was against Roostuine Primary School. It was the final. We had won all our games during that season and so had Roostuine Primary School. We had only one chance to win the league and become the first team to do so in the history of Peacehaven Primary School. I remember how Mr. Vermeulen had asked that all the tables and chairs of one classroom be removed and the gymnastic mats be carried into

the classroom. Mr. Vermeulen had arranged that we spend the whole morning lying down on the gymnastic mats in preparation for the rugby game. We were also given honey to eat for energy for the game. I learnt from this that nutrition and pre-game preparation were important when participating in sport. We played Roostuine Primary School that afternoon on their home ground. It was only very late in the game that Melville Goosen, our flyhalf, got the ball and ran down the sideline to score a try in the corner. In those days a try counted only four points. The conversion was unsuccessful but it did not matter as we had won the game 4-0. In a way we had so few, only 17 young boys to choose from to play for the first team but that did not get us down. We had a coach who saw us as young people whom he believed in and he helped us believe in ourselves. To him we were not machines who had to win so that he as a coach could take the pride and glory. Instead, he used sport to develop us and he taught us that you can achieve so much with so little. From time to time I still bump into Mr. Vermeulen. I still have an enormous amount of respect for him and gratefulness for what he taught me about life through the sport of rugby.

**DB: What sport experiences did you have later on in your life, for example in high school?**

LH: One of the most memorable experiences I had during my high school years was when I was in Standard X. I played in the centre position for the first rugby team of Vereeniging High School. During the season we lost a game against Vereeniging Technical High School, which meant that as a first team we had to hope that Vereeniging Technical High School would lose a game, which would open up the possibility that we could play in the final of the first team league. This never happened because Vereeniging Technical High School did not lose a game that year and went on to win the first team league. However, our second team was still in the running to win the league but had to play against Three Rivers High School to win the league. Well, Three Rivers High School and Vereeniging High School were archenemies. You could lose all your games but you never lost against Three Rivers High School. This was the cultural discourse informing our way-of-being as high school sports people. It was the

final game of the season and if our second rugby team won this game they would not only win the league but would also beat Three Rivers High School. I was taken from the first team and asked to captain the second team for that game as we were allowed two first team players to play for the second team. The week prior to the game our biology teacher, Mr. Jorrie Jordaan, kept on telling us that we did not have a chance to win the game as he had gone to watch Three Rivers High School practice and it looked very impressive. I decided that no matter what, Three Rivers High School would not win the game and I was not going to lose the last rugby game that I played for my high school. Saturday arrived. We won the game 12-4. It was one of the most amazing experiences I have ever had. I learnt what the value was of having a goal and achieving it. I learnt about determination and what it meant to go out there and play with every inch of my being.

There are many more experiences that I would be able to share with you regarding the role of sport in my life. To me sport has always been part of my life and I cannot imagine my life without it. Sport represents a time and place where all aspects of my being come together and sport has also taught me a lot about living life. It has always had an enhancing effect on my life and allows me to experience moments of excellence. I am still involved in the sport of squash.

**DB: Through the above narratives you have given me some insight into the role sport has played in your life. Would it be possible for you to tell me about the unfolding of your career?**

LH: In primary school I always wanted to become a dentist. I do not know why. In high school I was on the Chartered Accountant (CA) route for most of the time. I think this was because my best friend, Snyman Pieters, wanted to become a CA. By the time I got to Standard X, I decided I wanted to study engineering at a Technikon. At that time of my life I believed that I would not be able to pass university and so I opted for Technikon. I applied for a bursary at Gencor Mining (Pty) and I was successful. I had to work for six months in a mine, do

my two years military training and then go to Technikon for my first academic block. So, after I completed Standard X, I went off to Stilfontein Gold Mine in the Western Transvaal. I worked there for six months as a learner engineer and hated every moment of it. I then did my military service from June 1982 to June 1984. This was a very meaningful time in my life. I spent a lot of time in Angola and Mozambique and learnt a lot about life and death. It would be fair to say that this was the time when I grew up. I also received a “Dear Johnny” while I was in Mozambique, an experience that changed my life. A “Dear Johnny” is a letter that your girlfriend sends to tell you that she is breaking up with you. I dropped the engineering idea and decided to study theology. While I was studying theology I realized that my being there had nothing to do with a divine calling but was the way I had chosen to deal with the hurt of receiving a “Dear Johnny”. I often wonder why I kept on studying theology after I had realized the reason for studying it. I do not know. Maybe it shows the strength of the religious discourse in SA that I kept on doing something while I knew I did not want to become a minister. Maybe the answer lies somewhere in the words of my friend Thinus Gerber who studied theology with me. I once asked him, while he was studying to become a CA after completing his theology studies, if, he was 18 years old and had to make a career choice, he would study theology again. He answered: “For the development of being a person, “yes”; for money in the bank, “no”. I went on to complete my theology studies at postgraduate level. While studying theology I started doing psychology as well and also went on to complete a MA (Counselling Psychology) at the Rand Afrikaans University (RAU) and a MA (Industrial Psychology) at Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education (PUCHE). I started working for the Department of Labour in 1992 as a vocational counsellor and after completing my MA (Counselling Psychology) as a counselling psychologist. Thereafter I joined the Department of Psychology at the UP in 1998. I suppose I could stop here as this is a very brief overview of my professional development. This is only one narrative of my professional development - a very chronological and factual one. During all the time I have spent studying at university there were a few moments that I experienced meaningful learning that I believe profoundly shaped the way I see myself as a



person and as a psychologist today. To me, these moments were characterized by experiencing a shift in meaning regarding the way I see myself and the world around me. I would like to share some of these moments with you.

**DB: What are those meaningful learning moments, which you believe, have shaped you as a person?**

LH: The first of these learning moments took place when I was busy with my second year of theology studies in 1986. The subject was systematic theology. At that stage I was still very absorbed in the positivist notion of one truth being out there and of one way of understanding God. I suppose I could describe myself as being a supporter of fundamental theology. In the subject systematic theology we had a guest lecturer, Dr. Cornel du Toit who was lecturing us on work that was foreign to the reformed theology tradition. You can imagine how resistance flourished between lecturer and students. Then, one day he made the following comment: “Remember, your way of viewing the world is like a candle. Your candle is only able to light up a small part of the room and not the whole room. It is extremely dangerous to think that your candle is the only candle and that your candle can light up the whole room. We need to put all the candles together to light up the whole room”. These words have stuck with me since that day. His words sounded so different from the traditional language within the religious community that I was part of, which stated that there was only one truth, only one candle for all of us. I do believe this was the start of my conversion from positivism to constructionism.

Three years passed before another learning moment entered my life. This was in my fifth year of theology studies. Until then I had been trained predominantly in structural analysis of Biblical texts, which entailed a 10-step approach to analysing any text. This way of analysing texts was strongly informed by positivism as I was taught that I had to look for the truth within the text and that I, as the reader of the text, had no impact on the text or brought nothing to the text. I guess the 10-step analytical approach was the psychometry of theology as its aim was to enhance the objectivity of the reader. Accordingly, there was an

essential truth in every text, which I as a reader, had to discover. This I could only do if I was objective, which was established by means of a 10-step analytical approach. How powerful can you not be when you are part of a select community that has access to a 10-step analytical approach, which will allow you to discover the one true and real meaning of a text? I even had the arrogance to buy into the cultural discourse that the message I was discovering was the word of God. Fortunately this stopped when Prof. Jurrie le Roux walked into the class in my fifth year of study at the Faculty of Theology when he began with the following words: “Well, my method is that I don’t have a method. The text will take us where it wants us to go. We won’t take the text anywhere. It isn’t about method, it is about reading. The more you read, the more you will be able to see and hear the text”. I learnt anew that I, as the reader of a text, was myself a text. When reading a text there were two texts interacting with each other that created yet another text. I felt as if I was being redeemed from the sins of positivism. I started realizing that it is impossible to keep myself out of any conversation, be it with a living or written text. It became more important to understand my assumptions, biases and prejudices when interacting with a text than to try and keep them out of my interaction with a living or written text and then to call that objectivity. It is here that objectivity received a permanent “injury” in my life for which I am grateful.

I do believe that the two experiences I have written about had a profound impact on my life. However, nothing could prepare me for the radical impact of the credo of Prof. Wilhelm Jordaan (Jordaan, 1992). I came across the credo of Prof. Jordaan three years after my experience with Prof. Le Roux. I started reading the credo and I could feel how my horizon and that portrayed in the credo started overlapping. It was as if this credo was my credo, as if someone had climbed into my world, looked around and wrote a credo about it. I experienced a very intense catharsis that day in 1992. In the credo of Prof. Jordaan he portrays his experiences of God in a phenomenological way. As a child he was taught to experience God as the One that had to be feared. As he grew up, he became aware that he had to pretend to have a relationship with God, which caused him to participate in all the religious rituals of the religious

community in a very incongruent manner but this allowed him a place within his family and society. As life progressed he experienced himself as an outsider beyond the religious community and someone who could not answer his children's questions about God and referred them to his wife for answers. It was only later on in his life that he started experiencing God as involved in his life in a very mysterious manner, which he did not always need to understand. Reading this credo was my final conversion from positivism to constructionism. I was freed from the notion that there is one God and only one true story about God. There may be one God, I am not always sure but I have many narratives about that one God. I shifted from believing that there "is one God and only one true narrative about Him/Her" to believing that there "is one God but I don't know if my narratives about Him/Her have anything to do with Him/Her". There are times in my life when I experience God as totally absent, while at other times I experience God as present. There are times when I experience Him/Her as known, while at other times He/She can be so unknown. I think the most meaningful moment while reading this credo was the realization that it is "ok" to have more than one narrative about God and that these narratives will always have an inherent tension amongst one another. I translated this to many areas of my life in that I started realizing that any of my experiences can be narrated in various ways and that the narrative is shaped by history and culture.

The last experience that I would like to share with you occurred at the end of my postgraduate training in psychology at the RAU. The final exam of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme was an oral based on my personal and science philosophy. This was one of those situations, which meant that if I failed I would have to redo all my postgraduate training. I chose to explain my personal philosophy by using the two religious metaphors of the crucifixion and resurrection. Please note, I do not see crucifixion and resurrection primarily as historical events but as metaphors that inform and shape life. I believe that life is about experiences, which we choose to narrate as either crucifixion or resurrection experiences. The dominant religious discourse regarding crucifixion and resurrection state that they have a linear relationship to one

another, firstly the crucifixion and secondly the resurrection. When I view the crucifixion and resurrection as primarily historical events, they do have a linear relationship. But when they are seen as metaphors, more circular and more interactional, where the one metaphor needs the other to exist, everything changes because the crucifixion and resurrection exist simultaneously in my life. The exam taught me that I have many experiences everyday and depending on my history and culture, I can narrate those experiences as crucifixion or resurrection experiences. For me to be more whole, the crucifixion and resurrection metaphors need to be part of who I am. These metaphors do not ask for moral value judgement but for a binary relationship in my life. I often wonder if people in the helping professions have not constructed the helping professions in such a way that we keep people living crucified lives and do not want to allow them to live resurrected lives, as this might put us out of work. Caputo (1993) says as a person he cannot say anything about God but as a theologian he has to make a buck. Maybe as a person I help people live resurrected lives but as a psychologist I often wonder if I was not predominantly trained to keep them crucified because I have to make a buck?

During all the years I spent at university I was given so much information and I learnt so little. Fortunately, there were moments people shared some of their experiences with me and then I learnt so much. This has shaped the way I see myself as a person and as a psychologist. I do believe learning takes place when experiences are shared as I have experienced in my own life. I have experienced it in the six years I have been training counselling psychology students and I hope to train students who are interested in sport psychology in the same way. Athletes have a huge amount of experiences to share. We do not have to insist on bestowing our privileged scientific knowledge on them in an effort to enhance their performance. Maybe they have more to teach us than what we have to teach them. Perhaps the time has arrived that we train students to become sport psychologists who believe that athletes have a lot to offer and as sport psychologists we can assist them to bring forth the richness of their experiences so as to not always blur their experiences with our so-called expert knowledge.

**DB: I now have a clearer picture of the role of sport in your life, as well as the unfolding of your career. How did it happen that sport and psychology became teammates in your life?**

LH: I started working at the UP in May 1998. At the end of that year the Head of the Department of Psychology asked me if I would co-ordinate the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme. I was surprised because I had been working in the Department of Psychology for only eight months. I agreed. In my opinion I inherited a very fragmented MA (Counselling Psychology) programme. The programme was like a sport team without a goal. It had no idea what it had to achieve, let alone how it wanted to achieve what it had to achieve. It took me five years to re-build the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme with the help of those involved in the programme. The programme grew from having its focus primarily on the career psychology field to a programme with four core modules, namely fundamental psychology, counselling psychology, career psychology and community psychology.

I have always realized that I cannot see myself as being a psychologist whose working environment is limited to an office. I started asking myself the following question: “How can I be a psychologist and also work outside?” I concluded that the world of sport would allow me such opportunity. If I could work as a psychologist within a sport context, I would be able to allow sport and psychology to be teammates in my life. I also wanted to take the goal further. I wanted to train students in the same position as I, to be sport psychologists thereby allowing both sport and psychology to remain part of their lives. With this in mind I decided to use as a research project for a Philosophy Doctorate (PhD) in psychology the development and implementation of a programme in sport psychology to be lectured on a postgraduate level in the Department of Psychology at the UP. To me, the PhD research project can be seen as a unique outcome in my life (Freedman & Combs, 2002; White & Epston, 1990) because it will allow me to re-write my

sport and career narratives. Through this re-writing I shall enter the world of sport not just as an athlete but also as a psychologist.

**DB: So this is your narrative of where you are today. Can I say that you have come to accept the “resurrection” experience of sport and your career and that they have become teammates in your life, for now and the future?**

LH: Yes. In my opinion “crucifixion” and “resurrection” can be seen as experiential metaphors for all spheres of life, be it religion, politics, career or sport. As people, we all experience “crucifixion” and “resurrection” times in various areas of our lives. In this conversation I have told you about some of my sport experiences and what sport has meant to me as a person. I have also shared with you those moments during my training at university that I experienced as meaningful learning moments, which have shaped the way I conduct myself as a person and as a psychologist. I also briefly described how sport and psychology became teammates in my life. The coming together of my career and sport in my life is a “resurrection” experience for me.

**DB: In this conversation you have allowed me a glimpse of your world regarding sport and your career and how you chose the topic of your research project. What will our next conversation concern?**

LH: In our next conversation we shall be talking about the research problem, question and goal(s) of my research project, as part of my tour with sport psychology.

**CHAPTER 3**  
**JOURNAL ENTRY II**  
**PROBLEM, QUESTION AND GOAL(S)**

A goal is created three times. First, as a mental picture. Second, written down to add clarity and dimension. And third, when you take action towards its achievement.

Gary Blair (in Lesyk, 2001, p.40)

You must have long-range goals to keep you from being frustrated by short-range failures.

Charles Noble (in Lesyk, 2001, p.44)

**DB: A research project usually emerges when a researcher becomes aware that there is some kind of a problem. How would you describe the research problem pertaining to your research project?**

LH: Allow me to answer your question by referring to the history of sport in SA, the Sport Information and Science Agency (SISA), the South African Sports Commission (SASC), international trends in sport psychology training, the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) and professional psychology training at the UP.

**DB: Would you like to start by telling me more about how you see the history of South African sport? How do you relate the history of South African sport to your research problem?**

LH: In SA the first democratic elections were held in 1994. The country embarked on a new road, which was characterized by political, economic and social changes. The world of sport did not escape the changes that occurred in SA. I would like to look at the development of sport in SA over the years and how the face of sport has changed.

### **Being divided within South African sport**

In 1956 the National Party, the government of the day, introduced apartheid legislation into the world of sport in SA. This led to black sport organisations being established with the aim of promoting non-racial sport within their communities. It would seem that white people in SA did not want to affiliate with these organisations and therefore these competitions were held only amongst people of colour. In 1959 the South African Sports Association was established. This organisation was the first national sport organisation for people of colour and, because they were strongly opposed to apartheid legislation, affiliates of this body were banned from leaving SA and participating abroad. In 1963 the South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee (SANROC) was created to advance the ideals of people of colour outside the borders of SA. The work of SANROC led to the exclusion of SA from the Olympic Games in 1964, as well as from the Olympic Movement in 1970 (Archer & Bouillon, 1982).

In 1971 the South African government instituted a multi-national sports policy, which allowed all people of SA to compete against one another at an international level with the prerequisite that there had to be other international athletes participating in these competitions. The South African people of colour could then participate as representatives of their own national group (i.e. traditional homeland) but not as representatives of SA (Brickhill, 1976). In 1973 the South African Council on Sport (SACOS) was established and highlighted the racial segregation in sport. Furthermore, SACOS intensified the campaign of prohibiting international tours to and from SA (Archer & Bouillon, 1982). By the mid-1970s South African sport was isolated from the international sporting community. The SACOS era came to an end by the early 1990s due to its over-involvement in the private lives of its members and the organisation's inability to attract substantial support from black people (Roberts, 1988).



It would seem therefore that for a very long time South African sport was divided along racial lines and it was no more than a reflection of the political and economic division so apparent in the country at that stage. On the one hand there were sport organisations for white people and on the other hand there were sport organisations for people of colour. In this era it was as if sport enhanced the racial division between South Africa's people and that it was not being used as a tool for nation building.

During my entire schooling career in SA (1970-1981) I never once participated in sport against people of colour. I participated in athletics, rugby, squash, swimming and volleyball and my opponents were always white people. The racial discourse of the time did not only inform the political arena I grew up in but also whom I was allowed to participate against in sport. I was allowed however to have contact with people of colour through the church that I belonged to. The contact, however, had to do with youth outreach programmes when we would, as young white people, go and tell young people of colour that we had "the answer" and that they should change and follow our lifestyle. Similar to the world of sport, the religious discourse that was informing my life at that stage was one of segregation. Ironically, when I did my national service in the South African Defence Force (1982-1984) I was expected to eat, sleep, bath and fight with people of colour in Angola and Mozambique. I was just not allowed to play with people of colour, to play any kind of sport with or against them.

Today, my own children have the privilege of practising sport with and against people of colour and of participating in sport with all the people of SA. To watch them be part of the new SA in this way has made me realize how much I lost by not being allowed to get to know people of colour. On the contrary I was always told to be afraid of "them". I believe it is a privilege for my children to grow up in a SA where they are exposed to all its different cultures.

### **Getting together within South African sport**

In the late 1980's and early 1990's the National Sports Congress (NSC) was established. The NSC complemented the work of SACOS but the two organisations were in constant conflict due to the fact the NSC had a strong relationship with the Mass Democratic Movement, while SACOS was of the opinion that sport and politics should not be mixed and that the liberation of sport in SA should be done via organisations that were politically non-aligned (Roberts, 1989). The conflict between the NSC and SACOS intensified as the NSC started talks with white sport organisations and SACOS would not engage in negotiations with white sport organisations until apartheid had come to an end. However, the Interim Committee of the National Sports Council was of the opinion that the NSC could benefit from the talks with white sport organisations and started moving toward unification within South African sport and that unity should be attained before the end of the old political era and the beginning of a new political era. This would enable sports organisations to address the development of South African people through sport as the new political era dawned upon SA. The unification process has not been without its problems and many of the current problems that are being experienced seem to be due to the fact that during the unification process the needs and demands of people of colour were not adequately addressed (Nauright, 1997).

### **Being united within South African sport**

In 1994 the Ministry of Sport and Recreation was established in SA. The Ministry of Sport and Recreation, the National Olympic Committee of South Africa, the South African National Recreation Council and the NSC were seen as important role players within South African sport. Despite the unification within South African sport that had come to the fore after the 1994 democratic elections, numerous problems within the world of sport are still encountered.

**DB: We have discussed South African sport as being divided, as getting together and as being united. What do you see as the current major problems in South African sport?**

LH: One of the major problems seems to be the different philosophical views regarding the development of sport. The Department of Sport and Recreation has identified development as one of its priorities. This is in accordance with the government's Reconstruction and Development Programme (National Department of Sport and Recreation [NDSR], 1995). On the one hand, development can be described as "dependency in development". This view on development holds the position that people of colour have to be educated to adopt the practices of white people if they want to improve and succeed in sport and therefore the relationship between people of colour and white people remains a "one-up one-down" relationship regarding development in sport (Crush, 1995). On the other hand, development can be described as "independence in development", which links very closely with the Black Consciousness philosophy on development. In this philosophy, development is seen as liberating people of colour from dependence on white people and is viewed as a process whereby people of colour move from dependence on white people to independence from white people (Boshoff, 1998). Unfortunately, it seems as if the "independence in development" philosophy is the alternative cultural discourse and the "dependence in development" is the dominant cultural discourse within South African sport at this stage. This becomes very apparent when one views how and for whom current developmental programmes are constructed.

The two different philosophies on development can be identified at ground level particularly in the way development programmes are run. At this stage in SA, development programmes are implemented for people of colour with the aim of developing them to the same level as white sportspeople. Furthermore, even when people of colour have attended predominantly white private schools, received good coaching and financial support, they are still referred to as "developmental players" (Bey, 2000; Rich, 1999). The

“developmental” tag is not so readily bestowed upon white inexperienced players in a particular sport who have not received adequate coaching and who are socio-economically disadvantaged. It seems as if these kinds of developmental programmes keep the legacies of the past alive by, on the one hand, putting predominantly people of colour into developmental programmes with the aim of developing them to the standard of white sportspeople while, on the other hand, predominantly white sportspeople participate at an international level (Miller, 2001). It seems therefore that sports development currently still has a very strong race connotation to it and that we have not yet reached the position where development is perceived as imperative for all the sportspeople of SA, irrespective of gender or race.

Although sport organisations within SA seem to be unified, it appears as if unification has not yet been attained amongst sportspeople within SA (Miller, 2001). There still seems to be a lot of inequality amongst people of colour and white people, which manifests itself in the form of direct and indirect discrimination within South African sport. On the one hand, direct discrimination can be seen as “unequal treatment amidst unequal circumstances” that is, people of colour do not have the same training equipment, level of coaching and financial support as white people. Unfortunately, in the process of correcting historical imbalances, people of colour have become part of developmental programmes and quota systems that are prolonging past inequalities. On the other hand, indirect discrimination can be seen as “equal treatment amidst unequal circumstances”. Within this form of discrimination people of colour can now compete against white people but people of colour do not always have the same facilities as white people, do not always have access to quality coaching and often still do not receive the same financial support as white South African sportspeople (Essed, 1991).

Another problem in South African sport is the level of unawareness amongst elite athletes of the psychological skills that they use in their sport. Whitton and Schomer (2002) conducted a research project involving 30 elite athletes in the Western Cape. The aim of the research was to establish which psychological

skills these elite athletes used and where they acquired these psychological skills. The psychological skills that were most often used by these athletes were goal setting (90%) and imagery (80%), while those least often used were autogenic training (25%) and cue words (14%). The athletes indicated that they would like to learn more about arousal control (100%), goal setting (100%) and imagery (100%), while they were not interested in learning more about autogenic training (71%) and rituals/routines (50%). Furthermore, 33% of these athletes learnt about psychological skills by attending workshops, seeing a sport psychologist or consulting with a coach, 50% relied on informal self-directed sources, while 17% utilized a combination of both. In this research project the researchers also tried to determine how aware these athletes were of the psychological skills that they were using and which part of their psychological preparation needed improvement. Regarding the psychological skills used, the researchers found that 73% of the athletes were not aware of what exact psychological skills they were using while 27% were found to be aware of their psychological skills utilization. The research also indicated that 90% of these athletes were unaware of which aspects of their psychological preparation needed improvement while only 10% were aware of which aspects of their psychological preparation needed improvement. This research project concluded that although these elite athletes were making use of psychological skills, the quality of application of these psychological skills needed upgrading and so too did awareness regarding their psychological skills utilization and improvement.

South Africa's sport has moved over the years from being divided, to getting together, to being united. Although South African sport can today be seen as united, it is not without teething problems. These problems seem to be related to different philosophical views regarding development, as well as how and for whom developmental programmes are constructed. Furthermore, it seems that discrimination is still alive with regards to sporting facilities, quality coaching and financial support for sportspeople. Elite South African sportspeople seem to be making use of psychological skills but the majority seem to be unaware of exactly which skills they are using and which aspects of their psychological

preparation need improvement. Problems like these that can also be addressed from within the field of sport psychology and therefore it has become important that students be trained in sport psychology so that they can address these problems from a sport psychology point of view.

**DB: You mentioned the South African Sport Commission at the beginning of our conversation. How do you relate the South African Sport Commission and your research problem to each one another?**

LH: The SASC was established in 1998 under the South African Sports Commission Act (Act 109 of 1998)(South African Sports Commission [SASC], 2002). The Education and Training sub-unit of SASC has as its vision “the establishment of a world-class network in education and training to maximise capacity building in sport, recreation and facility management in South Africa” (SASC, 2002, p.6).

Within this sub-unit there are the following Key Performance Areas (KPA’s) (SASC, 2002, p.6-15):

- KPA 1: Ensuring the availability of key sport and recreational training material.
- KPA 2: Establishing a network of service-providers for education and training in sport, recreation and facility management.
- KPA 3: Managing and monitoring of training programmes to ensure effectiveness.
- KPA 4: Accumulating and disseminating of education and training-related information.

Through the actualisation of the above-mentioned KPA’s, SASC wishes to establish a position where they are “at the cutting edge, providing a service of excellence. Training will provide this service. It will be an investment into the human potential that serves sport and recreation in South Africa” (SASC, 2002, p.16).

In my opinion the current situation in professional psychology in SA is not in a position to make a fundamental and meaningful contribution to the work of the Education and Training sub-unit of SASC as there is minimal professional training in sport psychology at tertiary institutions where students can be trained via professional psychology programmes in sport psychology to work as researchers and practitioners in the field of sport. By establishing such programmes in sport psychology, students can be educated in sport psychology theory through course work, do sport psychology internships, undertake sport psychology research and receive supervision that is sensitive to the sport context. I am of the opinion that in this way tertiary institutions will be able to deliver students who have been trained to work as sport psychologists and it will not be necessary to make use of clinical, counselling or educational psychologists for sport psychology work for which they have not always adequately been trained.

**DB: In what way do you see your research problem and the Sport Information and Science Agency having any connection with each other?**

LH: The SISA was established on 23 November 1995 because “historically there has been an absence of an effective and coordinated resource base capable of providing sports science and technology services to South African sportspeople” (Basson, 2000, p.4). Furthermore, Basson (2000, p.2) states that “scientific support services, rooted in basic beliefs and values contributing to a safe, healthy and fair sports experience and promoting mass sports participation and enhancing performance quality, has become an essential component of modern day sport”.

According to Basson (2000, p.4) the aim of SISA is:

The establishment, coordination and application of a world-class information, scientific and technological resource base, with skills, capabilities, facilities and equipment to provide services to athletes, coaches, technical officials and administrators, enabling them to accelerate the rate of sports development and enhance the quality of performance at all levels.

The SISA has established a network of 19 accredited institutes based at tertiary institutions that are able to deliver professional services to sportspeople in various areas (Basson, 2000). These areas are “health and safety, physical and motor capability analysis, mechanics of movement, physiology and training of movement, nutritional and psychological assistance and sociology” (Basson, 2000, p.3).

Within the SISA strategic framework there are five KPA’s (Basson, 2000, p.5-9). These are:

- KPA 1: Health, Safety and Sports Medicine.
- KPA 2: Sports Science.
- KPA 3: Technical Development Aids.
- KPA 4: Research and Information Management.
- KPA 5: Mass Screening and Sport-Scientific Talent Identification.

The field of psychology in general and more specifically sport psychology form part of KPA 2. The other subdisciplines that form part of KPA 2 are biomechanics, nutrition, sociology and physiology. The aim of KPA 2 is to assist athletes and coaches in the physical and mental preparation necessary for participation in sport, especially on a competitive level (Basson, 2000).

Regardless of these structures, training in sport psychology is underdeveloped in SA and it has become imperative that students are trained in sport psychology on a theoretical and practical level and receive adequate supervision if sport psychology wants to make a valuable contribution to sport in SA. Sport psychology research and practice in my opinion can make a valuable contribution to the work of SISA if it could be established as an autonomous psychology within the South African context and not be treated as an “add on” to other forms of psychology.



**DB: You have constantly been referring to problems pertaining to the South African context. How do First World countries see sport psychology training? Is it possible that their way of doing things could highlight problems in the South African context?**

LH: Allow me to refer to the United States of America (USA), Canada, Australia and the United Kingdom (UK). These are the countries that I believe have a profound influence on South African sport.

### **United States of America**

Training to become a sport psychologist in the USA can be done via sport science, also called kinesiology, exercise science or movement science, or it can be done along the psychological route (McCullagh & Noble, 2002; Taylor, 1994).

Students, who choose to follow the sport science route to become sport psychologists, enter by enrolling in an undergraduate programme in sport science. These undergraduate programmes usually consist of courses such as exercise physiology, biomechanics, motor behaviour, sport sociology, sport and exercise psychology, as well as the history and philosophy of sport. After completing their undergraduate studies in sport science, students can enrol in postgraduate programmes in sport science. At this level they firstly do a masters level programme in sport science, which is then followed by a PhD. The PhD is in sport science, with specialization in sport psychology. The PhD programme can have a research and/or applied focus and consists of courses like research methodology and statistics as well as advanced courses in motor behaviour, biomechanics, exercise physiology and sport sociology. Furthermore, a substantial part of the PhD programme is devoted to courses in sport psychology. Students who have been trained in sport science departments and not in psychology are technically not allowed to call themselves psychologists as the practice of psychology and the title of psychologist is protected by state and provincial law and reserved for those students who have been trained in

psychology (Taylor, 1994). They may apply, however, to the Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology (AAASP) for membership if their training meets all the AAASP requirements and can then be certified as a “Certified Consultant, AAASP” (McCullagh & Noble, 2002). Taylor (1994) states that 41% of the AAASP members come from a sport science background. To register as a “Certified Consultant, AAASP” candidates have to comply with the following requirements (Murphy, 1995):

Compulsory criteria:

- ❑ A doctoral degree.
- ❑ Courses in sport psychology.
- ❑ Courses in biomechanics or exercise physiology.
- ❑ Courses in the philosophical, historical, motor and social bases of sport.
- ❑ Courses in psychopathology and the assessment of psychopathology.
- ❑ Courses in the counselling theory and practice (supervised).
- ❑ Courses in research design, statistics and psychological assessment.
- ❑ Knowledge of skills relating to sport and exercise.
- ❑ Knowledge of professional and scientific ethics.

Additional criteria:

(At least two of the following four criteria)

- ❑ Knowledge of the biological bases of behaviour.
- ❑ Knowledge of the cognitive-affective bases of behaviour.
- ❑ Knowledge of the social bases of behaviour.
- ❑ Knowledge of individual behaviour.

The primary employment opportunities for students who have completed their PhD in sport science, with specialization in sport psychology, are academic positions where they do teaching and research, as well as delivering sport psychology services that do not entail therapeutic work with athletes but have a

more educational character for example performance enhancement of athletes (McCullagh & Noble, 2002; Meyers, Coleman, Whelan, & Mehlenbeck, 2001).

Another route to becoming a sport psychologist can be taken by following the psychology route. These students begin by enrolling for an undergraduate course in psychology with the aim of attaining a broad understanding of the content, concepts and research methods within the field of psychology. After completing undergraduate training in psychology, students can commence with postgraduate training in psychology, which may for example be in biological, developmental, cognitive, social, clinical, counselling and organisational psychology. Students who want to specialize in sport psychology usually first do their training in clinical/counselling psychology and specialise in sport psychology as part of their clinical/counselling training programme. Entry into clinical/counselling psychology programmes is extremely competitive as only a few places exist in these programmes. Students obtain either a PhD in clinical/counselling psychology or a Psychology Doctorate (PsyD) in clinical/counselling psychology. The PhD has a strong research focus while the PsyD has an applied focus. The specialisation in sport psychology, in a clinical/counselling course requires that these students acquire adequate knowledge and skills from sport science departments. After successfully completing the PhD/PsyD in clinical/counselling psychology, students are eligible by state and provincial law to be licensed to practice psychology and use the title psychologist and thereby make the services they deliver to the community reimbursable (Taylor, 1994). The students who build sport psychology as a specialisation field into their clinical/counselling programmes can join Division 47 (Sport and Exercise Psychology) of the American Psychological Association (APA)(American Psychological Association [APA], 2002a). According to Feltz (1992) Division 47 (Exercise and Sport Psychology) of the APA was created as a speciality area within the APA. Alternatively, students can apply to AAASP for membership if they adhere to all the AAASP membership requirements. Taylor (1994) states that 46% of the AAASP members come from a psychology background. Employment opportunities for students who have completed their PhD/PsyD in clinical/counselling

psychology and sport psychology can be found in academic settings and private practice, for example (McCullagh & Noble, 2002; Meyers *et al.*, 2001). In private practice these professionals can, incorporate sport and exercise interventions into their clinical/counselling psychology practices, for example (Hays & Smith, 2002; Meyers *et al.*, 2001).

In 1983 the Sports Medicine Council of the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) established a registry with three categories for sport psychology: clinical/counselling sport psychologists, educational sport psychologists and research sport psychologists. From 1983-1995 a total of 67 sport psychologists were listed on this registry (Zizzi, Zaichkowsky & Perna, 2002) and in 1995 AAASP and USOC formed a certification partnership by which “all AAASP-certified consultants who are also members of the APA are considered to have met the criteria for acceptance to the registry” (Zizzi *et al.*, 2002, p.463).

### **Canada**

In 1987 the Canadian Registry for Sport Behavioural Professionals, which was part of the Canadian Association of Sport Science, was instituted. The register was designed to provide a list of names of qualified professionals who could deliver services to the sport community. This register was very much the same as that of USOC and also had three categories: licensed sport psychologists, sport educators/counsellors and sport researchers. In 1994 the Canadian Mental Training Registry (CMTR) replaced this register. In 1999 there were 26 members on this register. These members work on mental training with coaches and athletes to enhance their performance. The members that are on this register do not do psychometric testing with the aim of diagnosing psychiatric disorders, nor do they do psychotherapy with athletes or provide them with drugs of any kind. The Registry Review Committee is a subcommittee of the High Performance Sport Committee of the Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology and states the following as criteria for admission to the CMTR: academic training in the knowledge base of mental skills, as well as a supervised internship in the application of mental skills. Furthermore, a person

must have experience in participating in sport, either as participant and/or coach and have favourable client evaluations regarding mental skills consulting (Zizzi *et al.*, 2002).

### **Australia**

In a conversation that Prof. Peter Terry (Head of Sport and Exercise Psychology) and I had during 2003 at the USQ in Australia, he told me that there are two ways of becoming a psychologist in Australia. The one way is called “four plus two” and requires a person to do a three-year bachelors degree in psychology, followed by a one-year honours degree in psychology. After this the person can do a two-year supervised internship with a registered psychologist. The other way is by doing a three-year bachelors degree in psychology followed by a one-year honours degree in psychology and then by a two-year masters degree in psychology. The two-year masters degree can be done, for example, in clinical, counselling, community, organisational and sport psychology. Any one of these two routes leads to registration as a psychologist with the Psychologist Registration Board in a state in Australia (Prof. Peter Terry, personal communication, February 17, 2003). People who have completed six years training in psychology and want to practice psychology and use the title psychologist are legally bound to register as a psychologist with the Psychologist Registration Board in the state that they wish to work in.

In addition they can apply for membership to the Australian Psychological Society (APS)(Australian Psychological Society [APS], 2002d). Associate membership is given to those with four-year university training in psychology and full membership to those with six-year university training in psychology (Australian Psychological Society [APS], 2002a, 2000c). Psychologists can specialise in various fields of psychology after the initial six-year training by undergoing a two-year supervised internship with a registered psychologist in one of the specialist areas. The areas of specialisation are: clinical, community, counselling, educational and developmental, forensic, health, organisational, sport and clinical neuro-psychology. After completing the two-year supervised

internship, a person can apply for membership to join a College of Psychologists in the area of specialisation, for example the College of Sport Psychologists (Australian Psychological Society [APS], 2002b).

It therefore seems that generalist membership with the APS as a psychologist is granted after six years university training and specialist membership as a psychologist via the Colleges of Psychologists is granted after a further two-year supervised internship with a registered psychologist in a specialist area.

### **United Kingdom**

In the UK there are three routes that can be followed in becoming a sport psychologist. The first route is via the British Psychological Society (BPS), the second is through the British Association for Sport and Exercise Sciences (BASES) and the third route is a combination of the BPS and the BASES.

The BPS route entails that students do “a first degree in psychology that carries the Graduate Basis for Registration (GBR) with the BPS and eligibility for chartered status” (Cockerill, 2002, p.421). It takes four years to do a BPS accredited first degree in psychology with GBR. After obtaining this degree, students can enrol for a BPS accredited postgraduate degree in clinical, counselling, education, forensic, health, occupational or neuro-psychology. The postgraduate training runs over a period of three years and after successful completion of this degree a person can register in one of the BPS Divisions, for example the Division for Clinical Psychology or the Division for Counselling Psychology (British Psychological Society [BPS], 2001a). Psychologists who have an interest in sport psychology and are registered in any of the BPS Divisions, can join the Sport and Exercise Psychology Section of the BPS (British Psychological Society [BPS], 2001b), which was established in 1993 (Cockerill, 2002).

The second route is via the BASES. To be accredited as a full member of the BASES, a person must hold a first degree at honours level in sport science or a

related field and a higher degree in sport science or related field, must have participated in sport and exercise conferences and workshops and must have been involved in Continuous Professional Development. Accreditation can be in one of the following fields: biomechanics, physiology, psychology or interdisciplinary. Furthermore, within these fields a person can apply for research and/or scientific accreditation (British Association of Sport and Exercise Science [BASES], 2000). To be accredited as a researcher, a person must have done research and published articles in the field of sport psychology. To be accredited in the support category, a person must be able to demonstrate that s (he) has sufficient scientific knowledge in the field of sport psychology and must have undergone supervised experience in the field of sport psychology over a period of six years (Zizzi *et al.*, 2002).

The third route is to be registered as a clinical and/or sport psychologist with the BPS and to be a member of the BASES (Cockerill, 2002).

**DB: With these countries' backgrounds in mind regarding sport psychology training, how does South Africa compare as a so-called developing country?**

In SA the first course in sport psychology was offered at Stellenbosch University (SUN) headed by Dr. Davie Craven in the 1960's (Potgieter, 1997). At present the Department of Sport Science in the Faculty of Education at this university has a PhD in Sport Psychology. Registration as a psychologist is an admission requirement for this course (Stellenbosch University [SUN], 2002a). Prof. Justus Potgieter is the Head of the Department of Sport Science in the Faculty of Education at SUN (Stellenbosch University [SUN], 2002b) and one of the "sport psychologists"<sup>1</sup> at the SASC.

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<sup>1</sup> According to Mrs. Alta Pieters of the Professional Board of Psychology (PBP) in South Africa (SA), the term "sport psychologist" is a "public" term used in sporting communities, much in the same way as the term "pastoral psychologist" is used in religious communities. Both these terms do not have legal status with the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA), as the HPCSA currently only recognizes the following five registration categories for psychologists as legal: clinical, counselling, industrial, educational and research psychology (Mrs. Alta Pieters, personal communication, February 8, 2003).

On 6 January 2003 I sent an e-mail to Prof. Potgieter at SUN requesting him to participate in my research project. I was eager to learn about what the PhD (Sport Psychology) at this university entailed. He responded as follows (Prof. Justus Potgieter, personal communication, January 6, 2003):

We already have a PhD in sport psychology at Stellenbosch University. Only candidates who are registered as psychologists with the Health Professions Council of SA are eligible to register for this degree. So far 3 students have graduated. The fourth student plans to graduate at the end of this year. Thank you for asking for my input. However, I simply do not have the time to write an essay on the suggested topic at this stage.

I responded to his e-mail asking him for an interview between 27 January 2003 and 3 February 2003 at SUN. My request was only for one hour of his time regarding the topic of my research. Unfortunately he never replied. I found the lack of response strange, as Prof. Ben Steyn of UP honored him at the South African Congress on Sport Science as the “father of sport psychology” in SA. The congress was held at the HPC of Tuks Sport (Pty) Ltd from 30 September 2002 to 2 October 2002. It left me with the uncomfortable feeling that Prof. Potgieter believed that sport psychology was his “intellectual property” and that SUN had sole mandate regarding sport psychology in SA. I could not help it but I experienced him as a withholding “father”. The SUN PhD (Sport Psychology) programme still remains a mystery to me. However, I have given a voice to Prof. Potgieter in my research project, through the book “Sport Psychology. Theory and Practice”, which he published in 1997. It is interesting to note that I requested all the “sport psychologists” who are registered at the SASC to participate in this research project but no one responded to my request (Appendix A).

By contrast, the response of Prof. David Pargman of Florida State University (FSU) in the USA was overwhelmingly accommodating. I e-mailed him a letter asking permission to study the Master of Science (MS)(Sport Psychology) and PhD (Sport Psychology) programmes at his university. Although he was in



Europe at the time he responded with the following: (Prof. David Pargman, personal communication, August 23, 2002):

A colleague and I established such a program at my university, Florida State University, 30 years ago and by all means I should be pleased to assist you in any way possible. Feel free to use any materials of ours that might be helpful. Don't hesitate to let me know what you need and I will e-mail my assistant back home and ask that she forward what you require.

This positively different response that I received from Prof. Pargman makes my disappointment in the “silence” of Prof. Potgieter even greater. However, there are a few undergraduate courses in sport psychology at tertiary institutions in SA, as well as sport psychology programmes at honors level, for example, at the University of South Africa (University of South Africa [UNISA], 2002).

**DB: Now that you have given me an overview of what is happening in sport psychology, nationally and internationally, do you think sport psychology is a growing field?**

LH: It seems that sport psychology is a growing field within psychology and sport science. With regards to training programmes, there has been a 26% growth in training programmes over the last 15 years (Sachs & Burke, 1986; Sachs, Burke & Gomer, 1998). Various professional organisations have emerged over the years, for example Division 47 (Exercise and Sport Psychology) of the APA, the AAASP, the North American Society for the Psychology of Sport and Physical Activity (NASPSPA), as well as the International Society of Sport Psychology (ISSP)(APA, 2002a). Furthermore, numerous academic journals have seen the light, for example, the “Journal of Applied Sport Psychology” (JASP), the “Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology” (JSEP), “The Sport Psychologist” (TSP) and the “International Journal of Sport Psychology” (IJSP) (Meyers *et al.*, 2001).

It therefore seems that sport psychology is an established discipline in various countries across the world and that numerous sport psychology organisations

and journals have come into being over the years. There has also been an increase in the number of sport psychology training programmes across the world. In SA there is currently only the one PhD (Sport Psychology) programme at SUN. Certainly this cannot be sufficient for training psychologists to work in a sport context if we take into account that in 1999 33% of the adult population in SA and 60% of children participated in sport (Sport Information and Science Agency [SISA], 2000). I believe that it is therefore necessary to expand on the limited existing postgraduate training in sport psychology in SA.

**DD: To what extent do the five registration categories at the Health Professions Council of South Africa allow postgraduate sport psychology training to take place in South Africa?**

LH: The HPCSA is a statutory and autonomous body. It was established as a statutory body in terms of the Health Professions Act (Act 56 of 1974) and continues the work of the Ciskeian Medical Council, the Transkeian Medical Council, the South African Medical and Dental Council, as well as the Interim National Medical and Dental Council of South Africa. Furthermore it receives no funding from the government, the public or any other source. It is totally funded wholly by the professions that form part of the HPCSA (Health Professions Council of South Africa [HPCSA], 2000a).

The mission of the HPCSA is: “Protecting the public and guiding the profession”. The mission has two main areas of focus. The one focus is on protecting the public and the other is to guide the profession. The mission is put into practice by determining standards of professional education and training and ensuring that only those people who are registered with the HPCSA may practice in any of the health professions, which fall under the jurisdiction of the HPCSA. Registration with the HPCSA confers professional status and the right to command a reward for services rendered. Furthermore, the HPCSA sets and maintains fair standards of professional practice (Health Professions Council of South Africa [HPCSA], 2000b).

The following Professional Boards fall under the jurisdiction of the HPCSA (Health Professions Council of South Africa [HPCSA], 2000c):

- Dental Therapy and Oral Hygiene.
- Dietetics.
- Environmental Health Officers.
- Emergency Care Personnel.
- Medical and Dental.
  - Medical Technology.
  - Occupational Therapy and Medical Orthotics/Prosthetics.
  - Optometry and Dispensing Opticians.
  - Physiotherapy, Podiatry and Biokinetics.
  - Psychology.
  - Radiology and Clinical Technology.
  - Speech, Language and Hearing Professions.

Currently, within the South African context the Professional Board of Psychology (PBP) of the HPCSA has five registration categories for psychologists. These categories are: clinical, counselling, educational, industrial and research psychology. Psychology students who wish to become professional psychologists have to study up to a masters level in one or more of these directions. A master's level course is a two-year programme and after successful completion of such a programme, students can register in the category that they have been trained in. For example, a master's degree in counselling psychology leads to registration as a counselling psychologist. It is also possible to do more than one master's level programme and therefore a person can be registered in more than one category. The strict boundaries of these categories seem to prevent the development of other relevant areas of professional psychology, for example, sport psychology, neurological psychology and forensic psychology. Students who are interested in sport psychology usually do a master's degree in clinical/counselling psychology and then focus their research project on sport psychology. They have had no exposure to theoretical and practical training in sport psychology and therefore

receive no supervision within the field of sport psychology. Leffingwell, Weichman, Smit, Smoll and Christensen (2001) state that the mental health practice climate is changing and is prompting clinical/ counselling psychology programmes to address new areas of specialization within the field of psychology, of which sport psychology is one. Meyers *et al.* (2001) have revealed that sport psychology consultation can be an alternative and meaningful source of professional activity and income as opposed to the traditional activities and income generating practices of psychologists.

For the past five years the PBP within the HPCSA has worked on a proposal that the professional psychology situation should have a different demeanour as from 2004. These proposals entailed that the above-mentioned five registration categories at the HPCSA for psychologists would no longer be applicable. People who wanted to practice as psychologists in SA would firstly have had to complete a three-year bachelors degree in psychology as well as a one-year honours degree in psychology. Alternatively, students would have had to complete a four-year bachelors degree in psychology. Following this, students would have been required to do a one-year master's degree in psychology and a two-year doctorate in psychology. The doctorate would have consisted of course work, a research project (50% of the course), a one-year internship, as well as supervision. Students who would have successfully completed their doctoral degree in psychology would have been able to register as a psychologist with the HPCSA (Professional Board of Psychology [PBP], 2003a). Furthermore, the PBP (Professional Board of Psychology [PBP], 2003b, p.8) stated that:

A person will train as a psychologist or registered counsellor according to the specified core and derived competencies with a focus/bias towards a particular domain of practice, e.g. clinical, developmental, or organisational (in the case of psychologists) or a combination of domains, e.g. clinical/community, organisational/ counselling ... it is the prerogative of the respective universities to determine the domains of practice offered in training.

On 12 May 2003 Mrs. Alta Pieters from the PBP sent a letter to all psychologists in SA, stating that the register for psychologists with a MA qualification would close on 31 December 2006 and that as from 1 January 2007 the requirements to register as a psychologist would be an accredited doctoral degree in psychology, the completion of a 12 month approved internship, as well as the successful completion of the examination of the PBP (Mrs. Alta Pieters, personal communication, May 12, 2003). This decision was recalled by the HPCSA in a letter by Dr. Saths Cooper of the PBP on 16 September 2003. Due to changes in the educational system, the merging of educational institutions, as well as the ongoing discussions between the HPCSA and the Department of Health and Education regarding the promulgation of the regulations relating to the registration of psychologists, the status quo would be maintained. This means that the registration requirements at the HPCSA for a psychologist, remains an accredited master's level qualification in psychology, be it clinical, counselling, industrial, educational and/or research psychology (Dr. Saths Cooper, personal communication, September 16, 2003).

In my opinion, by limiting the registration to only five registration categories for psychologists at the HPCSA, the HPCSA restricts the possible expansion of working environments for psychologists in SA. As already mentioned, in 1999 33% of the adult population and 60% of children participated in sport in SA. In the same year the South African sport sector provided 34 325 full-time jobs, 6 140 part-time jobs and for 8 000 volunteer workers. In 1999 sport in SA accounted for 2% of the Gross Domestic Product, which was an estimated R795 million. This excluded the capital expenditure of R852 million, which brought the total contribution of sport to the South African economy in 1999 to R16 765 million (SISA, 2000). It seems self evident that sport psychology can play an important role in the world of South African sport and it becomes imperative that students should be properly trained to work within the variety of South African sport. In my opinion sport psychology can make a contribution to professional sport as well as developmental sport. On the one hand, the Olympic Games in Athens, 2004, once again reminds sport psychologists of the

role they can play, not just in the performance enhancement of athletes but also in establishing support structures for professional athletes. On the other hand, sport psychology should also play a prominent role in developmental sport, where the focus is more on using sport as a medium in the development of the people of SA.

**DB: Lastly, with regards to your research problem, could you tell me more about professional psychology training at the UP?**

LH: At present, post-graduate professional psychology training in the Department of Psychology at the UP is presented within the framework of the researcher-practitioner model. This means that students are, on the one hand, trained to be practitioners and, on the other hand, they are trained to be able to conduct scientific research within psychology (Beyers, 1981; Raimy, in Phares, 1992). Being trained as a practitioner usually implies theoretical and practical training and students receive supervision during their training. The focus areas for the theoretical training of the students are either clinical, counselling or research psychology. Practical training is done at various organisations that are accredited by the HPCSA and has either a very strong clinical, counselling or research character. Currently, students receive limited exposure to sport psychology at an undergraduate level and there are no postgraduate modules/courses in sport psychology in the Department of Psychology. Students at a postgraduate level who show an interest in sport psychology can do their research projects in sport psychology. In doing so they can gain knowledge of sport psychology but will lack the necessary theoretical and practical training, as well as supervision that normally forms part of a sport psychology training programme. In this regard Wilberg (in Bakker, Whiting & Van der Brug, 1990, p.3) says:

A distinction is made between recipient knowledge (knowledge borrowed from the parent discipline) and generated knowledge (which arises as a consequence of empirical work directly related to the field in question – in the present context ‘sport’). He warns about the danger of uncritically accepting recipient knowledge from the field

of general psychology for answering questions concerned with sport - they can, in the extreme, be misleading.

If Wilberg's statement is taken seriously then training should also be contextualized. For this reason, I believe that it is imperative to train students in professional sport psychology on a postgraduate level. It will enable them to work from an empowered position and as sport psychologists they can add value to sport in SA - at a developmental and professional level. Ryan (1981, p. iv) states, "both advances in performance and advantages in competition will have to come about along psychological lines".

**DB: We have covered a long distance, from the past to the present and we have had a lengthy discussion on the research problem. Based on your construction of the research problem, how would you now formulate your research question?**

LH: The research question I would like to pose is: "How are sport psychology training programmes constructed in sport psychology literature and in organisations that do sport psychology training?"

**DB: Now that you have stated your research question, how would you describe the research goal(s) of your research project?**

LH: I would like to do this by referring to a general goal, as well as various specific goals.

### **General goal**

The general goal of this research report will be to narrate my experience by means of the touring and journal metaphors regarding my encounter with sport psychology, with the aim of developing and implementing a postgraduate programme in sport psychology in the Department of Psychology at the UP.

### Specific goals

- Part I: Before touring with sport psychology
  - Chapter 2, Journal entry I:  
To introduce myself as researcher with specific reference to the role of sport in my life as well as the development of my career.
  - Chapter 3, Journal entry II:  
To state the research problem, question and goal(s) of this research report, as narrative.
  
- Part II: Touring with sport psychology
  - Chapter 4, Journal entry III:  
To narrate my experience of reading up on the history of sport psychology as portrayed in sport psychology literature by using the metaphor of a sport psychology museum.
  - Chapter 5, Journal entry IV:  
To narrate my experience of reading up on sport psychology programmes as portrayed in sport psychology literature by using the metaphor of a sport psychology library.
  - Chapter 6, Journal entry V:  
To narrate my experience of reading up on sport psychology programmes as portrayed in the programme overviews of training organisations that offer sport psychology training from within Psychology Departments across the world by using the metaphor of a sport psychology conference.
  - Chapter 7, Journal entry VI:  
To narrate my experience of a sport psychology training programme based on three visits to the USQ in Australia in 2003, where a MPSE and DPSE are presented by using the metaphor of a sport psychology department.
  - Chapter 8, Journal entry VII:  
To narrate my experiences of my visits to the HPC at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd in Pretoria, SA, as well as my visit to the WAIS in Perth, Australia.
- Part III: After touring with sport psychology



- Chapter 9, Journal entry VIII:  
To adapt the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme in the Department of Psychology at the UP by developing and implementing a module in sport psychology based on my touring journal with sport psychology.
- Chapter 10, Journal entry IX:  
To narrate the influence of my encounter with sport psychology on my identity as a psychologist.

**DB: Now that we have had spent time on the research problem, question and goal(s), I am looking forward to our next conversation. What will that be on?**

LH: Our next conversation will be on my visit to a sport psychology museum to view the history of sport psychology as part of my tour with sport psychology.

**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)<sup>1</sup>, 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).

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<sup>1</sup> 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”<sup>1</sup>.

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:

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<sup>1</sup> 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.



**PART III**  
**AFTER TOURING WITH SPORT PSYCHOLOGY**

**CHAPTER 9**

**JOURNAL ENTRY VII**

**MA (COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY) PROGRAMME**

I believe the single most significant decision I can make on a day-to-day basis is my choice of attitude. Attitude is that “single string” that keeps me going or cripples my progress. When my attitude is right, there’s no barrier too high, no valley too deep, no dream too extreme, no challenge too great for me.

Charles Swindol (in Lesyk, 2001, p.4)

**DB: Has your tour with sport psychology changed the way in which you see the training of psychology in general and sport psychology specifically? If so, how?**

LH: When I originally embarked on my tour with sport psychology I had the expectation that this tour would lead to a completely new postgraduate programme in professional psychology – a postgraduate programme in sport psychology. However, as the tour progressed I came to realize that this would not be possible. Allow me to explain.

Firstly, the current registration categories at the HPCSA for psychologists do not allow for a separate postgraduate training programme in professional sport psychology. Currently, there are only five registration categories for psychologists with the HPCSA, namely, clinical, counselling, industrial, educational and research psychology. There is no registration category for sport psychology. Therefore, having a postgraduate professional training programme in sport psychology, will not allow students to register as psychologists with the HPCSA because such a registration category does not exist (HPCSA, 2000c).

Secondly, I also realized during my visit to the sport psychology library that many postgraduate professional training programmes internationally are, for example, clinical/counselling training programmes with sport psychology as a module/course that students can take during their training (chapter 5, p.103-108). In the conversation we had on the sport psychology conference I attended, I told you about many Psychology Departments that were running programmes

in clinical/counselling/educational psychology with sport psychology as a module/course, which students could take as part of their training (chapter 6, p.128-134). My visit to the Department of Psychology at the USQ also made me realize that, although this university offered a MPSE and DPSE, both these programmes entailed training in clinical/counselling psychology as well as sport psychology (chapter 7, p.150-154).

During one of my visits to USQ, Mr. Christensen, a lecturer at the Department of Psychology, told me the following story. He said there is a bird in Australia that builds its nest with blue chocolate papers. This bird does not use indigenous material to build its nest but foreign material. The nest looks very impressive but it does not “fit” in with the indigenous environment. The question can be asked: “Can this nest built from foreign material withstand the indigenous circumstances?” He added that when developing a postgraduate programme in sport psychology, one must be aware that just using foreign material may be problematic and one must also use indigenous material or adapt foreign material do suite local circumstances. Therefore, SA should not just take over sport psychology programmes from, for example, the USA, UK and Australia but should develop indigenous sport psychology programmes or adapt these foreign programmes to suite local circumstances. It is only then that a professional postgraduate training programme in sport psychology will be appropriately suitable (Mr. Steve Christensen, personal communication, September 17, 2003).

Based on what I have now told you, I came to realize that at present it will be best to adjust the existing MA (Counselling Psychology) programme to include a sport psychology module and not to establish a separate postgraduate professional training programme in sport psychology. In this conversation I want to integrate my sport psychology tour (chapters 4-8) into the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme (chapter 2, p.41-42).

**DB: You have been involved in the selection of students for the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme since 1998? Has your tour with sport psychology changed your view of selection in any way? If so, how?**

LH: The selection of students for entry to the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme has always been done by taking the following criteria into account: academic ability, practical experience, personal awareness and interpersonal sensitivity.

After my tour with sport psychology I still believe that these criteria are important (chapter 6, p.123-124; chapter 7, p.143-144) but I would like to add the criteria of research ability in future. It was my visits especially to the sport psychology library, conference and department that made me aware of the importance of this criterion. If we want to do postgraduate training within the researcher-practitioner model, then I think research ability should also be a selection criterion for entry to any postgraduate professional psychology programme (chapter 6, p.123-124; chapter 7, p.143-144). For example, I remember when I applied for entry to the MA (Industrial Psychology) at the PUCHE, I had to hand in a 10 page research proposal as part of their selection criteria.

Therefore, I am of the opinion that the researcher-practitioner training model should guide selection and that selection criteria should focus on the person, the person as researcher, as well as the person as practitioner. The following criteria are considered to be important:

- ❑ Academic ability.
- ❑ Practical experience.
- ❑ Personal awareness.
- ❑ Interpersonal sensitivity.
- ❑ Research ability.



**DB: The goal of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme at the University of Pretoria has always been to train students within the researcher-practitioner model. What influence has your tour with sport psychology had on this position?**

LH: My tour with sport psychology has not changed the position regarding the goal of postgraduate professional training in psychology. The visits I paid to the sport psychology library, conference and department have affirmed that the dominant training model for postgraduate professional training in psychology is done according to the researcher-practitioner model (chapter 5, p.93-97; chapter 6, p.124-127; chapter 7, p.144-145).

Therefore, the goal of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme will in future still be to do postgraduate professional psychology training within the researcher-practitioner model in accordance with the training standards and ethical code of the HPCSA (HPCSA, 2000c).

**DB: How has your tour with sport psychology changed your view regarding research in postgraduate professional psychology training?**

LH: My visits to the sport psychology museum, library, conference and department have affirmed my opinion of the importance of research in postgraduate professional training in psychology. If the goal of a postgraduate professional programme in psychology is to do training within the researcher-practitioner model, then such a programme should contain 50% researcher training and 50% practitioner training (chapter 5, p.97-102; chapter 6, p.127-128; chapter 7, p.145-149).

Unfortunately, from my own experience at the UP, I am of the opinion that although this is the intention with the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme it does not always materialize in practice. The practitioner discourse is in my opinion the dominant discourse and the researcher discourse the subservient discourse within the UP MA (Counselling Psychology)

programme. Once students have completed their practitioner training in the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme, they just want to get the research over and done with. We as lecturers abet this situation but I am not exactly sure how we do this. It may emanate from the way we talk about researcher-practitioner training and/or how we structure postgraduate professional training in psychology.

**DB: How has your tour with sport psychology changed your view regarding the theoretical training in postgraduate professional psychology training?**

LH: The MA (Counselling Psychology) programme currently consists of the following modules: fundamental psychology (developmental psychology, personality psychology, neuro-psychology, psychopathology, social psychology and professional practice), counselling psychology (cognitive-behaviour psychology and systemic-narrative psychology), career psychology (study methods and career guidance) and community psychology (community psychology theory and community psychology practice).

My tour with sport psychology brought me to a place where I realized that adding sport psychology as a module to the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme will broaden the scope of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme, as well as increase career options for students who have completed the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme. As coordinator of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme and in consultation with the executive committee of the Department of Psychology at the UP, the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme has been changed to consist of three core modules and two elective modules as from 2004. This is based on, for example, the clinical psychology programme at UW (chapter 5, p.104), the counselling psychology programme at UMC, the clinical psychology programme at UA, as well as the clinical psychology programme at UM (chapter 6, p.130-131).

The sport psychology module was submitted to the Educational Committee of the PBP at the HPCSA for approval in October 2003. This module was

formally approved on 7 November 2003 (Mrs. Alta Pieters, personal communication, December 4, 2003)(Appendix C)<sup>1</sup>. It can be said therefore that the research project has had social value (chapter 1, p.27-28). The core modules are fundamental psychology, counselling psychology and career psychology, while the elective modules are community psychology, as well as sport psychology. The sport psychology module is made up of the following courses: sport psychology, sport management, sport sociology and exercise psychology (chapter 5, p.105-107; chapter 6, p.129-132; chapter 7, p.150-152; chapter 8, p.179-185).

The theoretical component of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme, which accounts for 50% of the final mark for the MA degree in Counselling Psychology will be as follows:

#### **Fundamental psychology (Core module)**

The goal of this module will be to give students a fundamental understanding of human behaviour. Community and sport psychology students take this module. It will consist of the following courses: developmental psychology (e.g. Hook, Watts & Cockcroft, 2002; Louw, Van Ede & Louw, 1998), personality psychology (e.g. Hagan, Johnson & Briggs, 1997; Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2003), social psychology (e.g. Baron & Byrne, 2003; Pennington, Gillen & Hill, 1999), neurological psychology (e.g. Kolb & Wishaw, 1990; Lezak, 1995), psychopathology (e.g. Barlow & Durand, 1995; Carson & Butcher, 1992) and professional practice (e.g. Allan, 2001).

#### **Counselling psychology (Core module)**

The goal of this module will be to teach students how to interpret the role of practitioner in general and, more specifically that of therapist who can deliver therapeutic services to clients. Community and sport psychology students take

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<sup>1</sup> In 2003 the first five students were selected to do the MA (Counselling Psychology) (Sport Psychology) programme in 2004 at the UP. They were: Denise Frick (chess), Lekgowe Thipe (tennis), Stephan Potgieter (rock climbing), Louis van den Berg (cycling) and Theo Bezuidenhout (hockey).

this module. It consists of the following courses: cognitive-behaviour thinking and practice (e.g. Corey, 1996; Egan, 1994), as well as systemic-narrative thinking and practice (e.g. Freedman & Combs, 1996; White & Epston, 1990).

### **Career psychology (Core module)**

The goal of this module will be to teach students how to interpret the role of practitioner in general and, more specifically that of a facilitator who can deliver career guidance services to clients. Community and sport psychology students take this module. It consists of the following courses: study methods (e.g. Harding & Meldon-Smith, 1999; Wessels & Van den Berg, 1998) and career guidance (e.g. Ibarra, 2003; Petitpas, Champagne, Chartrand, Danish & Murphy, 1997).

### **Community psychology (Elective module)**

The goal of this module will be to teach students how to interpret the role of practitioner in general and, more specifically that of an educator who delivers psychological services through psycho-educational programmes to social communities. The community psychology module is an elective module and only those students who wish to specialize in community psychology take this module. It consists of two courses, namely community psychology theory (e.g. Dalton, Elias & Wandersman, 2001; Seedat, 2001) and community psychology practice, which is currently done through a HIV/AIDS programme at Kalefong Hospital in Soshanguve, Pretoria.

### **Sport psychology (Elective module)**

The goal of this module will be to teach students how to interpret the role of practitioner in general and, more specifically that of an educator who delivers psychological services through psycho-educational programmes to sporting communities. The sport psychology module is an elective module and only those students who wish to specialize in sport psychology take this module. It

consists of the following courses: sport psychology (e.g. Andersen, 2000; LeUnes & Nation, 2002), sport management (e.g. Parkhouse, 2001; Smith & Stewart, 1999), sport sociology (e.g. Phillips, 1993; Yiannakis & Melnick, 2001) and exercise psychology (e.g. Buckworth & Dishman, 2002; Marcus & Forsyth, 2003).

**DB: How has your tour with sport psychology changed your view regarding the practical training in postgraduate professional psychology training?**

LH: My tour with sport psychology has not so much changed my view of practical work as it made me realize that it is important that students who do professional postgraduate training in sport psychology, do, not only do theoretical training but also practical training in sport psychology (chapter 5, p.107-108; chapter 6, p.132-134; chapter 7, p.152-154). At present students who of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme do practical training in their MA 1-year in counselling psychology (4 h/w), career psychology (4h/w), community psychology (8 h/w). Students will do practical training in sport psychology (8 h/w) at Tuks Sport (Pty) Ltd in the Soccer and Swimming Academies.

The practical training during the MA I-year of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme will be as follows:

**Fundamental psychology (Core module)**

Fundamental psychology will form part of all practical training in counselling psychology, career psychology, community psychology, as well as sport psychology.

**Counselling psychology (Core module)**

Students will do practical training in counselling psychology at organisations that are accredited by the HPCSA, for example, Student Support at UP, Student Services at Tswane University of Technology (TUT) and at Staanvas

Rehabilitation Centre (SRC). It will be expected of students to do four hours per week practical training in counselling psychology.

### **Career psychology (Core module)**

Students will do practical training in career psychology at organisations that are accredited by the HPCSA, for example, Student Support at UP, Student Services at TUT and at SRC. It will be expected of students to do four hours per week practical training in career psychology.

### **Community psychology (Elective module)**

Students will do practical training in community psychology at Kalefong Hospital in Soshanguve, Pretoria, in a HIV/AIDS programme. It will be expected of students to do eight hours per week practical training in community psychology, as community psychology is seen as one of two fields of specialisation in the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme.

### **Sport psychology (Elective module)**

Students will do practical training in sport psychology in the Soccer and Swimming Academies at TuksSport (Pty) Ltd. It will be expected of students to do eight hours per week practical training in sport psychology, as sport psychology is seen as one of two fields of specialisation in the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme.

**DB: How has your tour with sport psychology changed your view regarding internships in postgraduate professional psychology training?**

LH: The internship will remain an integral part of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme. After students have completed their theoretical and practical training in the MA I-year, they will do a one-year internship (chapter 5, p.107-108; chapter 6, p.132-134; chapter 7, p.152-154). The internship will be

completed at an organisation that is accredited by the HPCSA, for example, Student Support at UP, Student Services at TUT, SRC and 1 Military Hospital. Students who have done the module in sport psychology will be able to work within the sport contexts of the internship organisations, for example, at UP and TUT.

**DB: How has your tour with sport psychology changed your view regarding supervision in postgraduate professional psychology training?**

LH: Supervision has always been an integral part of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme. My tour with sport psychology has also affirmed my understanding of the importance of supervision in a professional postgraduate training programme in psychology (chapter 5, p.108-109; chapter 6, p.134-135; chapter 7, p.154). At present all MA (Counselling Psychology) students receive one-hour individual supervision per week. The students who take the sport psychology module receive an additional one-hour group supervision, which specifically focuses on sport psychology.

**DB: How has your tour with sport psychology changed your view regarding partnership(s) between sport psychology and other areas in psychology (e.g. clinical, counselling and industrial psychology), as well as between Psychology Departments and other academic departments?**

LH: During my tour with sport psychology I became aware of the partnership(s) that sport psychology can have with other forms of psychology, for example, clinical/counselling psychology, as well as between academic departments, for example, the Department of Psychology and Sport Science (chapter 5, p.109-112; chapter 6; p.136-139; chapter 7, p.155; chapter 8, p.185-189).

I do not have any concerns should sport psychology be in partnership with other forms of psychology. It can be seen as a form of academic cross training (Brown, 2001). In the current MA (Counselling Psychology) programme, sport psychology is in partnership with fundamental psychology (developmental

psychology, personality psychology, neuro-psychology, psychopathology, social psychology and professional practice), counselling psychology (cognitive-behaviour psychology and systemic-narrative psychology) and career psychology (study methods and career guidance).

I do have a concern however regarding the partnership between the Department of Psychology and Sport Science. In my opinion undergraduate programmes can be structured in such a way that students can take psychology (e.g. sport psychology) and sport science subjects within the same programme. However, when postgraduate training is involved, I hold the position that students should specialize and train in either psychology and/or sport science but in separate programmes. If students want to become psychologists they should further their studies in psychology, while a student who wants to become sport scientist, should further his/her studies in sport science. A student who wants to be a psychologist and sport scientist needs to further his/her studies separately in psychology and sport science. Allow me to explain this by means of an example from my life. I am qualified in theology and psychology. The tendency in SA is to call people who have theology and psychology training, “pastoral psychologists”. This is a public term, which has been created within certain religious communities in SA. I reject this! I am a theologian (although not a practising one) and also a psychologist!

I have been involved in professional postgraduate training via the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme since 1998 at the UP. Experience has taught me that this training is hard work and that there is little time and space for anything else. I cannot see how sport science modules/course can form part of an already full-time MA (Counselling Psychology) programme. The question arises in my mind: “What psychology module/course will have to be left out to accommodate the sport science modules/courses?” I hold the opinion therefore that postgraduate training in psychology and sport science should be done separately and not one discipline should be seen as a kind of an “add-on”. It is also not a requirement of the PBP at the HPCSA that a psychologist working in



the sport context should also have been trained in sport science (HPCSA, 2000c).

**DB: How do you see the role(s) and service(s) of sport psychologists after your tour with sport psychology?**

LH: If professional postgraduate training is done within the researcher-practitioner model, as is the case in the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme at UP, then I am of the opinion that a sport psychologist should fulfil the roles of and deliver services as, researcher and practitioner.

As researcher, the sport psychologist should be able to plan a research project, conduct the research project and write a research report regarding the research project, within a sport context (chapter 5, p.113-119; chapter 6, p.139-141; chapter 7, p.167-168, chapter 8, p.185-189).

As practitioner, the sport psychologist should be able firstly to interpret the role of therapist and deliver therapeutic services to the sport community and, secondly, be able to fulfil the role of a facilitator by facilitating career guidance services within sport organisations and, thirdly, must interpret the role of educator by educating the sport community on issues relating to sport psychology, sport management, sport sociology and exercise psychology (chapter 5, p.113-119; chapter 6, p.139-141; chapter 7, p.167-168, chapter 8, p.187-189).

**DB: What has your tour with sport psychology taught you about the clients of a sport psychologist?**

LH: During my tour it was interesting to see that clients of a sport psychologist are perceived as individuals (athlete, coaches and administrators) and sport teams (chapter 5, p.119; chapter 6, p.141; chapter 7, p.167-168; chapter 8, p.185-189).

In my opinion a sport psychologist should be trained to work with individuals (athlete, coach and administrator), couples, families and sport teams. Couples and families should be included as clientele of the sport psychologist when necessary as athletes live in relationships be it with a boyfriend/girlfriend, spouse, parents or children. These relationships usually have a profound influence on the participation and performance of an athlete.

**DB: If you had to look back on your research project, what do you think can be seen as limitations of the research project?**

LH: Firstly, I would have liked to interview the 12 psychologists who were registered as “sport psychologists” at the SASC during 2002-2004. I did send a letter of invitation to each of them. Only Prof. Potgieter from SUN responded (chapter 3, p.60-61). I am very tempted to interpret the behaviour of these 12 “sport psychologists” but I shall leave that to the reader of this research report. I personally think they could have made a valuable contribution to this research project. Their possible contributions are therefore absent in this research project.

Secondly, I would have liked to view the PhD (Sport Psychology) programme of Prof. Potgieter at SUN. Unfortunately, as he was not prepared to participate in this research project, due to time constraints (chapter 3, p.60-61), I was unable to get hold of this PhD (Sport Psychology) programme. Once again, I do think that this programme would have made a valuable contribution to this research project. According to PBP (Mrs. Alta Pieters, personal communication, September 6, 2004) there are no other sport psychology modules that form part of accredited professional psychology programmes with the PBP in SA that I could have used in this research project.

Thirdly, although I had the opportunity to visit the USQ to view their MPSE and DPSE, I would have liked to visit a training organisation in Europe as well as in the USA. Unfortunately, this would have been very costly and due to financial constraints, I decided against such visits.

**DB: I would like to conclude with a last question regarding future of sport psychology in the Department of Psychology at UP?**

LH: As mentioned before the postgraduate module in sport psychology was officially approved by the PBP at the HPCSA on 7 November 2003 as part of the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme at the UP (Alta Pieters, personal communication, 4 December 2003). Although this research project only enables the Department of Psychology at the UP to start doing sport psychology training within an accredited professional psychology programme, I want to tell you about some thoughts regarding the future.

Firstly, I plan to get the students who take the sport psychology module, involved in the Tuks Sport Outreach Programmes. These programmes focus on establishing sport within the previously disadvantaged communities in SA and the sport psychology students could get involved in presenting life skills to these communities.

Secondly, as from 2005 the sport psychology students will also be doing practical training in team building at the Team Building Institute (Pty) Ltd in Pretoria, SA. Here the students can be taught how to do team building by using the medium of adventure, such as a ropes course.

Thirdly, I am negotiating that all the internship positions at Student Support at the UP be reserved for those students who do the MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme. This will enable students who do their internships at Student Support to work within the academic and sport contexts of the UP.

Fourthly, I am in the process of establishing an internship for a student who has done the MA (Counselling Psychology)(Sport Psychology) programme at the HPC of Tuks Sport (Pty) Ltd. This will enable a student to do an internship in a sport context in SA. Hopefully, the HPCSA will approve this internship and the first intern will be appointed in 2005.

Lastly, I in the future want to change the name from a MA (Counselling Psychology) degree to a MA (Counselling and Sport Psychology) degree as this would, at least, give students who have done the sport psychology module some kind of recognition, even though they can register only as psychologists (Category: Counselling Psychology) with the HPCSA.

I hope that by training students in sport psychology within professional psychology programmes, they will be able to contribute value to the South African sport context.

**BD: In this conversation we looked at the influence of your tour with sport psychology on the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme. What will our last conversation be on?**

LH: The last conversation will concern the influence of my tour with sport psychology on my identity as a psychologist.

**CHAPTER 10**  
**JOURNAL ENTRY IX**  
**DOES IT END HERE?**

When an archer is shooting for nothing, he has all his skill. If he shoots for a brass buckle, he is already nervous. If he shoots for a prize of gold, he goes blind or sees two targets – he is out of his mind! His skill has not changed but the prize divides him. He cares. He thinks more of winning than of shooting and the need to win drains him of power.

Chuang Tzu (in Lesyk, 2001, p.70)

**DB: This is our last conversation. I am interested to hear what influence your tour with sport psychology has had on your identity as a psychologist?**

LH: Before my tour with sport psychology, I started by introducing myself (chapter 2, journal entry I), as well as stating the research problem, question and goal(s) (chapter 3, journal entry II). Then I embarked on my tour with sport psychology. I visited a sport psychology library (chapter 4, journal entry III), a sport psychology museum (chapter 5, journal entry IV), a sport psychology conference (chapter 6, journal entry V), a sport psychology department (chapter 7, journal entry VI), as well as a sport centre and institute (chapter 8, journal entry VII). After my tour with sport psychology I took what I has learnt from my tour and adapted the MA (Counselling Psychology) programme in the Department of Psychology at the UP. I also stated the limitations of this research project as well as how I see the future of sport psychology in the Department of Psychology at the UP (chapter 9, journal entry VIII). However, it does not end here, as my tour with sport psychology also had an influence on my identity as a psychologist.

Let me tell you about an experience, which I had on the soccer field in 1990: I have always been involved in sport. At school I played rugby, participated in athletics, did swimming and played squash and volleyball. While I was studying theology at the UP (1985-1990), I played squash for the UP and soccer for the Theology Faculty, in the Deo Gloria team. During one soccer game in 1990 a fellow student made the following comment to me on the field: “You

are so different when you are participating in sport and on the sport field. You are enthusiastic and adventurous. In class you are always so reserved”.

I believe that this comment by my fellow student summarizes something of how I have always experienced myself on and off the sport field - the “adventurous me” and “reserved me”. Sport has always allowed me to be adventurous, to challenge my team and myself, to create opportunities for my team and myself. It has allowed “me” to express more of “me”, without the restrictions that society so generously dishes out to people. Sport and the “adventurous me” go hand in hand. Theology and may I also say psychology that is mainstream psychology, go hand in hand with the “reserved me”. I think sport has always allowed me to be a player on the field, while theology and psychology have allowed me to be a player on the bench, or even an injured player in the pavilion.

My tour with sport psychology will allow me to take psychology and theology out onto the sport field to create the opportunity for myself to work within the world of sport, which I have always known as an adventurous context and to allow psychology and theology to generate new life in this context so that my identity as a psychologist will be a more adventurous one - the “adventurous me”. In one way my tour with sport psychology ends here but in another way a new tour with sport psychology starts, which will entail the training of postgraduate students in sport psychology within the researcher-practitioner model, as well as that I work in the world of sport as a researcher and practitioner. The last words in the movie “Big Fish” state that every person tells their story (narrative) and then they become that story (narrative). I have now told my narrative of my tour with sport psychology. I now have to live that narrative!

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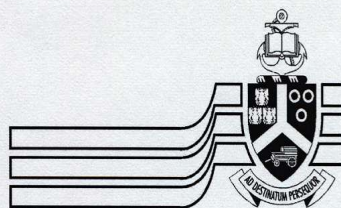
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**APPENDIX**



**APPENDIX A**  
**REQUEST LETTER**



University of Pretoria

Pretoria 0002 Tel (012) 4204111

Faculty of Humanities  
Department of Psychology

6 January 2003

**RE: INFORMATION: PhD/DPSYC PROGRAMME IN SPORT PSYCHOLOGY**

1. My name is Lourens Human, I am a counselling psychologist and lecturer in the Department of Psychology at the University of Pretoria, South Africa. I am currently the coordinator of the MA Counselling Psychology course within the Department. Students who complete this degree can register as a counselling psychologist with the Health Professions Council of South Africa. I am currently also busy with my PhD degree in psychology of which the title is: "In conversation with sport. A social constructionist process towards the development and implementation of a PhD in sport psychology".
2. Currently in South Africa students who have completed their undergraduate studies, and are in possession of a BA (Honors)(Psychology) degree can further their studies in professional psychology on a masters level in one or more of five areas: clinical, counselling, industrial, educational and research psychology. Students who have successfully completed their masters level studies, can then

register with the Health Professions Council of South Africa as a psychologist in one or more of the following categories: clinical, counselling, industrial, educational and research. At present the psychology profession is busy with a restructuring process and in the near future the situation will most probably look a bit different.

3. In the Department of Psychology at the University of Pretoria, we offer MA degrees in clinical, counselling and research psychology. The Department also offers a PhD degree in psychotherapy. At this stage the Department does have an undergraduate course in sport psychology, but would also like to develop and implement a PhD degree in sport psychology, consisting of course work, practical work, research and supervision. As a member of the staff within this Department, I have undertaken to develop and implement a PhD in sport psychology within the Department as my own PhD degree in psychology. It is a very relevant topic, as we as South Africans are a sport loving country and I am of the opinion that our current training in clinical and counselling psychology is not sufficient enough to equip students to work within the world of sport. Furthermore, as professional psychology in South Africa is contemplating more specific registration categories with the Health Professions Council of South Africa, I foresee the possibility of sport psychology becoming such a specialist category.
4. I received your name from Dr. Nicola Appelcryn of the South African Sports Commission. Dr Appelcryn indicated to me that you might be a person who could make a valuable contribution to this study. I was wondering if it would be possible for you to share your thoughts with me regarding a PhD in sport psychology. If so, would it be possible for you to write an essay on the following:

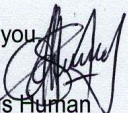
The South African Sports Commission has indicated that you might be able to make a valuable contribution to the development and implementation of a PhD in sport psychology. If you are prepared to participate in this study, I would appreciate it if you could write me an essay on how you see a PhD in sport psychology that is sensitive and suitable for the South African context.

As I am working from a social constructionist epistemology, I am not following the traditional way of giving a lot of structure via questions to the essay that I have requested from you. I would really like to keep the essay as open as possible, so that you can share your thoughts with me in the way that suits you best.

5. Various universities from other countries have responded in a very positive way in supplying me with information regarding sport psychology programmes abroad. I would appreciate it if you would participate in this study, because in doing so, the PhD in sport psychology will also have a substantial input from psychologists within South Africa.
6. If you do decide to participate, you can e-mail your essay to me at the e-mail address at the bottom of this letter.

I would appreciate it if you could assist me in this regard.

Thank you

  
Lourens Human

Tel: (+27)(12) 420-3685

Cell: (+27)(82) 907-0229

Fax: (+27)(12) 420-2404

E-mail: lhhuman@postino.up.ac.za

**APPENDIX B**  
**INVITATION LETTER**



The University of Southern Queensland

TOOWOOMBA QUEENSLAND 4350

AUSTRALIA

TELEPHONE (07) 4631 2100

[www.usq.edu.au](http://www.usq.edu.au)

## FACULTY OF SCIENCES

Associate Professor Peter Terry  
Program Coordinator, Sport and Exercise Psychology

Telephone: [07] 46 31 1681

Facsimile: [07] 46 31 2721

Email: [terryp@usq.edu.au](mailto:terryp@usq.edu.au)

21 May 2002

Lourens Human  
Department of Psychology  
University of Pretoria  
RSA

Dear Lourens

I am writing to invite you to visit USQ during 2003 to observe the delivery of our MPsych/DPsych programs in Sport and Exercise Psychology. Unfortunately, I am not able to contribute financially toward a visit but I can assure you of a warm welcome. I would very much appreciate it if you were able to give a presentation to our students on the progress of sport psychology in South Africa.

Sincerely

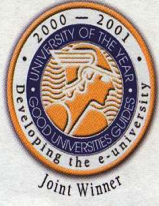
A handwritten signature in red ink, appearing to read 'Peter C. Terry'.

Peter C. Terry PhD  
Program Coordinator, Sport and Exercise Psychology

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**APPENDIX C**

**LETTER OF APPROVAL**



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Email: [altap@hpcsa.co.za](mailto:altap@hpcsa.co.za)/[elmariew@hpcsa.co.za](mailto:elmariew@hpcsa.co.za)

Website: [www.hpcsa.co.za](http://www.hpcsa.co.za)

**PROFESSIONAL BOARD FOR PSYCHOLOGY**

Prof M Marchetti-Mercer  
Head: Dept of Psychology  
Faculty of Humanities  
University of Pretoria  
PRETORIA  
0002

Department: **PROFESSIONAL BOARDS**  
SENIOR MANAGER: J H COETZER

Manager: **Mrs A Pieters**  
My Ref: 18/6/11

Mrs A Pieters/ew –Ext 9352  
4 December 2003

Dear Prof Marchetti-Mercer

APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL TO INCLUDE A MODULE ON SPORT AND EXERCISE PSYCHOLOGY IN THE ACCREDITED MA COUNSELLING DEGREE

With reference to previous correspondence in the above regard I wish to advise that the Education Committee of the Professional Board for Psychology considered the matter at its recent meeting.

The Committee resolved that the application by the University of Pretoria for approval to include a module on sport and exercise psychology in the accredited Master's degree in counselling psychology, be approved.

Please quote the abovementioned reference number in all correspondence to Council.

Yours sincerely

A PIETERS  
MANAGER: PROFESSIONAL BOARD FOR PSYCHOLOGY

Protecting the public and guiding the professions

President: Prof Thanyani Mariba, Vice-President: Dr S Cooper, Registrar/CEO: Adv Boyce Mkhize