

1 Running head: CONSULTING IN ELITE YOUTH SPORT

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5 Reflections on Consulting in Elite Youth **Male** English Cricket and Soccer

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1 Abstract

2 This article shares a joint reflection of two psychoeducation programmes delivered to
3 athletes aged 13 to 18 years at two professional academies – cricket and soccer. These
4 season-long programmes followed a cognitive-developmental framework, changing
5 and adapting cognitive-behavioural techniques to benefit elite youth athletes. Initial
6 elements of the programme focused on the 5C's: commitment, communication,
7 concentration, control, and confidence (Harwood, 2008) which also included team
8 building sessions and one-to-one consultations. Feedback from players and academy
9 directors revealed that the work was suitable and effective for their needs. We have
10 reflected on the delivery of the programme and the challenges encountered especially:
11 time, funding, specific youth sport psychological intervention frameworks, credibility,
12 confidentiality, determining effectiveness, professional boundaries, and relationships.
13 Finally, we offer future directions on how to integrate psychoeducation programmes
14 for professional sport academies.

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16 Keywords: Sport Psychology, Performance, Mental Skills, Reflection, Professional

17 Practice, Youth Sport

1 Reflections on Consulting in Elite Youth **Male** English Cricket and Soccer
2 **The field of applied sport psychology documents many sport psychologists’**
3 **perceptions of** working with elite adult athletes (e.g., Bull, 1995; Fifer, Henschen,
4 **Gould, & Ravizza, 2008; Gilbourne & Richardson, 2006; Gordon, 1990; Ravizza,**
5 **1990; Taylor, 2008);** however, there are limited reflections on professional practice in
6 youth sport (e.g., Orlick & McCaffrey, 1991; Sherman & Poczwadowski, 2005;
7 Smith & Smoll, 2002; Weiss, 1991). **Because there are fewer reflections of sport**
8 **psychologists’ experiences with young athletes, existing and aspiring sport**
9 **psychologists might erroneously deduce that what works for adult athletes also works**
10 **for child and adolescent athletes (Brustad, 1998).** This imbalance in professional
11 practice wisdom restricts our knowledge of the logistics of working with young
12 athletes and discounts the psychosocial development and vicissitudes of life in youth
13 sport (Weiss, 1991, 1995).

14 In this paper we present a season-long reflection from two sport psychologists
15 working in cricket (first author) and soccer (second author) academies. The purpose
16 of this reflection is to inform and guide others when delivering sport psychology
17 services among elite youth athletes and to supplement the existing literature in applied
18 pediatric sport psychology (e.g., Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007; Côté & Hay, 2002;
19 Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005; Weiss, 1995). This paper is organized as
20 follows: First, we outline our philosophy for practice among boys in youth sport.
21 Next, we explain the context and content of the services we delivered to the
22 academies and reflect upon them, and finally, we discuss what directions sport
23 psychologists may explore when working with youth elite athletes.

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1 Philosophy for Practice

2 We adopted a cognitive-behavioural approach to our work with the young athletes
3 (see Mace, 1990) based on our choice and professional training. We had undertaken
4 postgraduate studies in sport psychology (i.e., MSc and PhD) and supervised
5 experience programs to become accredited by the British Association of Sport and
6 Exercise Sciences (BASES) and British Psychological Society (BPS). In our work, we
7 recognized the athlete's personal demands (Andersen, 2006) and those from parents,
8 coaches, and peers because this holistic approach features the client as a developing
9 athlete interacting dynamically with the constraints of his social and physical
10 environment (Keegan, Harwood, Spray, & Lavalley, 2009). In addition, we sought to
11 understand the value of sport in the athlete's life (Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1993). We
12 also tried to include the coach and parents in the content of our one-to-one
13 consultations so that the young athletes understood the roles they had in athlete
14 development (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Our greatest challenge was to reduce the
15 stigma associated with psychological support. To address this challenge, we
16 highlighted the value of sport psychology among sport performers (Pain & Harwood,
17 2004) and we integrated and reinforced the mental skills we taught in the classroom
18 into practice. We anticipated this process would afford athletes an opportunity to use
19 these mental skills practically (Weinberg & Williams, 2006) and determine whether
20 these skills have value for them. From the outset, we explained to the athletes that
21 success in sport and life was their responsibility and we aimed to support them in that
22 quest (Simons & Andersen, 1995).

23 Gaining Entry

24 The first and second authors were contacted by the third author about retaining the
25 contracts with the two academies because of our knowledge (i.e., playing and

1 coaching experience of the two sports), professional training in sport and exercise
2 psychology (i.e., BASES accreditation and BPS chartered status), and applied
3 research publications. The contracts for each academy comprised 60-hours of
4 psychological support across a 9-month period.

5 We met with the academy directors from the cricket and soccer clubs during
6 their respective off-seasons and from these initial meetings it was clear they wanted
7 us to help the athletes perform consistently as individuals and as teams. Gaining entry
8 at the two clubs was eased because we were servicing existing contracts where both
9 academy directors were knowledgeable and supportive of sport psychology. However,
10 it was clear that they were both forthright and specifically interested in maximizing
11 the potential of their athletes.

12 Service Delivery Outline

13 In each academy, our role was to assist the coaches in creating successful athletes and
14 teams. Typically, our value depended largely on the coach or academy manager's
15 perceptions about the role of sport psychology in athlete and team development (Pain
16 & Harwood, 2004). Therefore, we altered and adapted traditional adult sport
17 psychology frameworks (e.g., Andersen, 2000; Taylor & Wilson, 2005) to fit our
18 work with the young athletes. At the time of our service delivery no specific youth
19 sport consulting model existed in the literature and therefore we found
20 it difficult to construct a psychological portrait of their lives in professional sport and
21 an intervention scheme. However, we were especially sensitive to physical, cognitive,
22 emotional, and social changes in young athletes' lives because even within the same
23 chronological age group, large individual differences in maturity, intelligence, reading
24 and writing ability were likely to emerge (Malina & Bouchard, 1991). Developmental
25 differences also would exist between children and adolescents and a child's

1 motivation, enjoyment, stress, and understanding of competition increases through
2 developmental stages (e.g., McCarthy, Jones, & Clark-Carter, 2008; Nicholls, 1989).
3 For example, at the cricket academy some of the younger boys anecdotally reported
4 feeling more enjoyment than the older academy boys who typically experienced more
5 stress due to an increased pressure to perform. Where possible we tried to
6 acknowledge such points while developing our programme.

7 From our initial meetings, it was clear that both directors expected the 5C's
8 model (e.g., commitment, communication, concentration, control, and confidence) of
9 sport psychology to form the hub of the athlete psychoeducation (Harwood, 2005,
10 2008). The 5C's represent the key motivational, self-regulatory, and interpersonal
11 attributes that form the spine of educational interventions. We also embedded mental
12 toughness within the curricula because this concept is pertinent to both sports (Bull,
13 Shambrook, James, & Brooks, 2005; Thelwell, Weston, & Greenlees, 2005), and is
14 central to coach-education programmes produced by the Football Association (FA)
15 and England and Wales Cricket Board (ECB) for developing excellence. Overall, we
16 developed an age-appropriate curriculum (recognizing developmental changes in
17 language and maturity), which comprised psychoeducation (including team building),
18 and one-to-one consultations for both academies, delivered in the off-season to the
19 cricket academy and during the season for the soccer academy. We also arranged ad-
20 hoc coaches' meetings, match day support, training camp support, and emergency
21 one-to-one consultations in both academies. The programme integrated contact with
22 the athletes once every three weeks over a 9-month period because this fitted within
23 the constraints of the academies. Because consultation fees in applied sport
24 psychology are contentious (Taylor, 2008), and because of our relative inexperience
25 in delivering professional contracts, the consultation fees received from both

1 academies were negotiated by the third author to reflect our level of consulting
2 experience, preparation, delivery time, and travel costs.

3 Throughout our service delivery we adopted an immersion approach to foster
4 greater acceptance amongst the athletes (Bull, 1995, 1997). The directors at each
5 academy requested we wear club kit, integrate as coaching staff and deliver general
6 principles about psychological performance rather than operate as isolated
7 consultants. We helped to organize training drills and attended meals, squad practice
8 sessions, matches, training camps, and coaching staff meetings. Bull (1995) believed
9 that when athletes recognize the sport psychologist within the coaching staff, they
10 value the sport psychologist's role and psychological programmes more, which
11 enhances rapport, intervention efficacy and adherence. Despite these benefits, we
12 were cautious that being seen as part of the coaching staff may have created negative
13 perceptions for the athletes (e.g., being seen as part of the selection and evaluation
14 process) and thus may have influenced player disclosure. Therefore, in all of our
15 sessions we continually reinforced that our role was to guide and support and that any
16 information shared with us was confidential. We believe the immersion approach is
17 most appropriate because the athletes understand the coaching model founded on
18 loyalty, volunteering and effort (Simons & Andersen, 1995).

19 We may have been advantaged in our service delivery because we were
20 competitive representative athletes and qualified coaches in cricket and soccer. We
21 were confident in applying sport psychology principles to both sports and were
22 comfortable working within the coaching sessions of cricket and soccer. We reflected
23 that our playing and coaching knowledge was beneficial as it enhanced our ability to
24 communicate technically with the coaches and athletes and this developed rapport and
25 respect which was demonstrated by athletes asking questions about technique (Bull,

1 1995; Fifer et al., 2008; Gilbourne & Richardson, 2006; Taylor, 2008). We were,
2 however, cautious of providing guidance on technique because this was not our role.
3 To this end, when such questions arose we typically referred the athlete(s) to the
4 coach. Further, understanding the demands of each sport helped us develop
5 appropriate examples and suggestions to integrate mental skills into performance
6 routines. Finally, we felt that by involving ourselves in practical sessions, the coaches
7 and athletes accepted us and our service more easily (Bull, 1995).

8 *Psychological Education*

9 In the soccer academy, psychoeducation sessions were organized for two
10 groups: players aged 13 to 15 and aged 16 to 18. The cricketers were aged 13 to 16.
11 We taught them basic psychological skills associated with the 5C's and peak
12 performance using a psychological skills training approach (Hardy, Jones, & Gould,
13 1996). This approach allowed athletes to understand specific psychological skills and
14 integrate them into practice and competition (Tonn & Harmison, 2004). We wanted
15 the athletes to understand how psychological factors influence sport performance and
16 how to become more mentally prepared for elite sport (Hardy et al., 1996). To achieve
17 this goal, we adopted the "what" and "how" teaching approach of psychological
18 skills. We included an education phase because by educating athletes about the value
19 of psychological skills we could reduce sport psychology stereotypes and
20 misconceptions (e.g., Pain & Harwood, 2004), enhance adherence to mental skills
21 (e.g., Bull, 1991), and develop rapport (Bull, 1995). Following the education we
22 aimed to conduct one-to-one sessions to develop the mental skills into practice and
23 competition.

24 Consistent with previous research (e.g., Harwood, 2008), psychoeducation
25 involved interactive presentations to reinforce achievable behaviours associated with

1 each of the 5C's in practice and match situations. For example, confidence referred to
2 self-efficacy behaviours (see Bandura, 1997) such as physical effort, persistence, and
3 body language. Each presentation used real-life sporting examples, video clips (where
4 appropriate), group discussion and group activities. To gain athlete support, we
5 encouraged the coaches to attend education sessions, reinforce the key points in
6 practice, and match situations (Harwood, 2008); however, it was often difficult to get
7 the coaches to consistently attend due to other coaching-related commitments. We
8 also primed the athletes about psychological skills to prepare and perform well, so
9 goal-setting, self-talk, reflection, relaxation, imagery, and concentration control were
10 included in the 5C sessions to strengthen psychological preparation for performance
11 (Hardy et al., 1996). The 60-minute education workshops used an adapted protocol
12 from Harwood (2008). To illustrate, each C was presented and media examples of the
13 C offered (e.g., quotes, sport or movie clips). Next, we educated the athletes about the
14 theoretical principles behind each C and the attributes related to each C. Then, free
15 flow athlete-sport psychologist-coach discussion (where appropriate) of the C ensued.
16 To illustrate, this discussion typically included exchanges about how the C would
17 affect performance, how it might feel, and how certain training drills could be used to
18 bring about meaningful developments. After the discussion, we explored mental skills
19 related to the C, with group and individual practice. Finally, athletes reflected on the
20 learning outcomes from the session and were then encouraged to practice the relevant
21 mental skill in physical training contexts.

22 On most occasions 60-minute practical sessions followed the education
23 workshops where the sport psychologist organized physical drills for athletes to
24 practice each C. Athletes practiced mental skills in a low stress condition followed by
25 structured challenging scenarios (e.g., small-sided games, net scenarios). Free flow

1 athlete-sport psychologist-coach discussions of each session followed with time for
2 reflection and take-home messages concluded each practice. We checked whether the
3 athletes understood the mental skills and if they had any other issues to discuss. We
4 also asked the coaches to reinforce the qualities outlined in Table 1 in trainings and
5 matches **so that they felt involved in the sport psychology service**. Table 1 represents
6 the order and summary content of the five workshops. Finally, the older cricket and
7 soccer athletes also received workshops following a similar format to that of the 5C
8 sessions on emotional control, stress and coping, developing responsibility,
9 preventing and recovering from injury and career transitions.

10 *Team Building*

11 Team building sessions also formed part of the psychoeducation and were
12 introduced to explore the behaviours of successful teams, role clarity, athlete
13 communication, and understanding of teammates (Eys, Burke, Carron, & Dennis,
14 2006; Yukelson, 1997). To this end, athletes were asked to identify the specific
15 behaviours successful teams engage in and to explore how they could modify their
16 existing behaviours through the development of a code of conduct. Typically, this
17 code included providing support following a mistake, positive verbal persuasion,
18 collective celebration, and positive non-verbal communication. To enhance athlete
19 communication and understanding of each other, personal-disclosure mutual-sharing
20 sessions (PDMS; Holt & Dunn, 2006; Pain & Harwood, 2009; Windsor, Barker, &
21 McCarthy, 2011) were conducted with each academy. PDMS originates from
22 counselling psychology (Olarte, 2003), and is suggested to promote athletes' respect
23 of others' values, beliefs, attitudes, and personal motives (Holt & Dunn, 2006).
24 Athletes from both academies had two-weeks to prepare a 5-minute speech to answer
25 three questions. First, they had to describe a personal story/situation that would help

1 their teammates to understand them better. Then, they had to tell the group why they
2 played their sport and what they thought they could bring to the team. Finally, they
3 disclosed a personal story that they would want everyone to know about them. Their
4 stories could relate to any event that had taken place in their personal or sporting lives
5 and offer examples that defined their *character, motives, and desires*. Athletes were
6 instructed to be honest throughout, and that the information disclosed would be done
7 so in strict confidence. Where appropriate athletes were supported to help them
8 develop their speeches before this session (Holt & Dunn, 2006). The sessions lasted
9 just over two hours with every player delivering a speech, including the consultants
10 who delivered the first speech. **Before each session, assent and informed consent**
11 **(parental consent where appropriate) was obtained from each athlete.**

12 *One-to-One Consultations*

13 During one-to-one sessions, we listened carefully to the athletes' theories of
14 their world hoping to understand their personal constructs of a life in elite sport. For
15 example, we were interested in their motives, expectations, challenges, and
16 attributions of success and failure (Giges & Petitpas, 2000). We consulted with all
17 athletes from both academies to develop a basic understanding of their psychological
18 needs. Initially, all athletes completed the performance profile to allow us to
19 understand their self-perceptions and areas for improvement along with providing us a
20 catalyst for discussion (Butler & Hardy, 1992). We adopted a client-centred approach
21 anchored in previous research in sport psychology (Danish et al., 1993; Ray, Terrell,
22 & Hough, 1993). In these 20-minute sessions we reinforced the confidentiality
23 agreement, explored key psychological performance related issues, presented a brief
24 intervention (where applicable), based on Anshel's (1990) Control emotions,
25 Organize information, Plan a response, and Execute (COPE) model, and provided a

1 session summary. About 70% of sessions were either specific to an issue which the
2 athlete, sport psychologist, or coach identified, and in about 30% we discussed a
3 topical media issue about professional cricket or soccer. To illustrate, where no issue
4 was identified media articles on career termination, long-term injury, drug testing,
5 illegal technique, performance slumps, performance success, positive and negative
6 media attention, de-selection, or poor on-field discipline were presented. Typically,
7 we encouraged athletes to discuss the coping strategies they could or would use in
8 these situations.

9 *Evaluation of Services*

10 Based on suggestions from previous research (Anderson, Miles, Mahoney, &
11 Robinson, 2002), a commitment to accountability in professional practice (Smith,
12 1989), and recognition of consultant reflective practice (Anderson, Knowles, &
13 Gilbourne, 2004; Cropley, Miles, Hanton, & Niven, 2007; Knowles, Gilbourne,
14 Tomlinson, & Anderson, 2007), evaluation of the programme and our own practice
15 was obtained via a number of processes. Where appropriate informed consent and or
16 parental consent was obtained from each athlete.

- 17 1. The Consultant Evaluation Form (CEF; Partington & Orlick, 1987) was
18 administered on two separate occasions during the nine-month programme
19 (i.e., one at the end of formal education sessions and one at the end of the one-
20 to-one sessions).
- 21 2. On-going informal feedback from athletes and coaches through general
22 comments after the sessions, during training, and one-to-one sessions.
- 23 3. A formal evaluation interview conducted after delivery of the programme with
24 each academy director, which included the topics of quality, effectiveness, and

1 development of the service delivery, consultant rapport and integration, and
2 communication style(s).

3 4. A qualitative social validation questionnaire exploring the athletes'
4 perceptions and feelings about the PDMS session and its procedures, along
5 with the perceived benefits was developed based upon previous research
6 (Barker, McCarthy, Jones, & Moran, 2011). Questionnaires were administered
7 to the athletes immediately after the PDMS and contained six questions which
8 were printed onto two sides of an A4 sheet to allow ample space for responses.

9 5. The completion of consultant reflective diaries throughout the programme and
10 reflective discussion (between the first and second authors and a mentor) after
11 each session (Cropley et al., 2007; Knowles et al., 2007).

12 Effectiveness and Reflections of our Service Delivery

13 *Psychological Education*

14 Although it is difficult to judge a consultant's value in applied settings; we
15 made attempts to evaluate ourselves using markers from previous research (e.g., Tonn
16 & Harmison, 2004). For instance, we examined the athletes' receptive nonverbal
17 behaviour (e.g., body language, eye contact), the interaction between athletes and
18 ourselves during workshops, and feedback we received from the athletes and coaches
19 after each session. Discussions with the athletes followed most workshops and one-to-
20 one consultations in the following weeks. According to concurrent feedback received
21 from the players after each workshop the sessions were enjoyable, and stimulated
22 interest and value in sport psychology, thus we were satisfied with what we achieved.
23 In addition, feedback from the academy directors at the end of the programme
24 reinforced the enjoyment and application of the sessions, although both imagined that
25 the education sessions could use a less formal classroom style to deliver the material.

1 At the start of the programme (and primarily based on our roles in academia) we
2 used an academic format to structure our sessions (e.g., a reliance on PowerPoint and
3 lecture style of information delivery). Whilst this approach helped to bring structure
4 to the sessions it also brought a very formal tone which potentially contributed to a
5 lack of engagement by some athletes. Therefore, as the programme evolved (and our
6 confidence increased) we began to trust our knowledge and move away from a formal
7 to a more informal style of delivery whilst still using the 5C framework (Harwood,
8 2008). **This informal style typically relied less on the use of PowerPoint and more on**
9 **anecdotal examples (e.g., the use of video-clips and quotes) to structure our sessions.**
10 **In addition, we also delivered sessions in more practical environments (e.g., indoor**
11 **training facilities) to reduce the perception of formal education.**

12 We feel that this change in style helped to reduce the ‘teaching’ associations
13 present in our early work and thus facilitated rapport and engagement with the
14 athletes. Furthermore, whilst we tried to deliver practical sessions to emphasize the
15 key elements of the 5C’s this was often difficult to fulfil because of busy training
16 schedules, room/hall availability, and athlete availability. Upon reflection we feel that
17 we should have negotiated more firmly with the coaches in making the practical
18 sessions an integral part of the programme.

19 Finally, we encouraged the athletes to practice the psychological skills
20 (introduced in the sessions) in their own time, although we speculated their adherence
21 would vary. Indeed, most did not adhere from the feedback we obtained during re-cap
22 phases of each education session. This lack of adherence supports previous research
23 showing that athletes invest little time in psychological skills even after education
24 (Bull, 1991). We aimed to increase adherence to psychological skills by introducing
25 the athletes to the use of reflective diaries (Anderson et al., 2004) and getting the

1 coaches through sending email reminders to reinforce the psychological skills in our
2 absence. It is difficult to know whether these strategies were effective because we did
3 not formally police these strategies or assess adherence. To this end, SMS-text alerts
4 may have been one way where we could have at least formally and consistently
5 reminded players about their psychological skills training.

6 *Team Building*

7 Social validation data (see Barker et al., 2011) highlighted the effectiveness of
8 the PDMS session in developing the communication and cohesion of the group. For
9 example, some athletes explained, “We have a better understanding of each other, and
10 have bonded well as an academy”. The players also thought differently about their
11 teammates. For example, “I think there are some people in the group who told
12 emotional stories and it takes guts to do that which I am grateful for, so respect is the
13 main thing”. The directors of both academies were delighted with the effect of the
14 session, and reported that athletes had spoken positively to them about their
15 experiences. The directors were therefore enthusiastic to run this session again
16 because PDMS was seen as being effective while causing little disruption to athlete
17 routines. Overall, we were pleased with the athletes’ maturity to prepare and deliver
18 their speeches because it was an unfamiliar and peer-threatening situation. However,
19 we invested a large amount of time (which was not factored into our contracts)
20 assisting the athletes in developing their speeches and alleviating their concerns. In
21 future sessions it may be appropriate to encourage the coaches to support the athletes
22 following initial guidance from the sport psychologists.

23 The feedback received about the PDMS allowed us to recognize the value of
24 team interventions in professional sport. However, the context of delivering the
25 intervention the way we did also contradicted somewhat with our typical approach to

1 applied research where we were inclined to draw upon single-case research methods
2 and go through a structured process of measuring target behaviours, establishing
3 baselines, and implementing a detailed and lengthy intervention programme (Barker
4 et al., 2011). Therefore, although we tried to adopt formal scientific evaluation
5 methods in our work we quickly recognized that one must be flexible and innovative
6 in the methods used along with being considerate to the requests and demands of
7 professional sports academies when looking to implement interventions (e.g.,
8 Andersen, Van Raalte, & Brewer, 2001).

9 *One-to-One Consultations*

10 Informal feedback from athletes and coaches suggested that the one-to-one
11 sessions were viewed as enjoyable and valuable for performance. Comments
12 illustrated that we communicated in an accessible manner, challenged the ways in
13 which athletes thought about and mentally prepared for sport, and gave them the
14 opportunity to explore and gain feedback on personal performance issues.

15 Initially, we both started the one-to-one sessions believing that we perhaps had
16 special knowledge or powers to save the athletes from their issues and thus had a real
17 ‘saviour complex’ when working with the athletes. We wanted to work effectively
18 with all of them in every session and this led to poor time management on occasions.
19 In addition, we initially became frustrated that whilst we identified genuine
20 performance related issues in some athletes, others attended because they had been
21 encouraged to do so by the coaches and thus told us what they thought we wanted to
22 hear. We also noted that because of our keenness to work effectively most of the time
23 and the amount of one-to-one sessions we were doing back-to-back we often found
24 ourselves feeling mentally drained and exhausted. Overall, from our experiences of
25 the one-to-ones we have changed as practitioners on a number of levels. First, we

1 realized sport psychologists do not ‘fix’ athletes, but provide support and guidance.
2 To this end, when consulting with athletes we are now keen to establish that our main
3 aims in one-to-one work are to develop self- awareness and –reflection. Second, we
4 now recognize that our enthusiasm for sport psychology is not shared by everyone
5 and for whatever reasons some athletes do not respond with open arms. We now
6 respect athletes’ views more so and try not to transfer our beliefs onto them unduly.
7 For example, we recommend follow-up sessions rather than enforce these on the
8 athletes. Finally, doing sport psychology work well is indeed hard work and with this
9 in mind we are now more structured in our scheduling of sessions by providing
10 ourselves with regular breaks to gather our thoughts.

11 General Reflections about our Service Delivery

12 In addition to the reflections offered previously in each specific aspect of the
13 programme, we offer some general reflections about our work. Before we started the
14 programme both of us had concerns about our ability to deliver an effective
15 programme and meet our own, the athletes’, and the coaches’ expectations. Indeed, it
16 was comforting to note that even more experienced consultants had detailed similar
17 feelings before the delivery of their consultancy (e.g., Fifer et al., 2008; Katz, 2006).
18 Therefore, to increase our confidence we valued the opportunity to regularly discuss
19 issues and solve problems about our consultancy (Simons & Andersen, 1995). For
20 example, we typically met as a triad after each session with a mentor (a work
21 colleague) and thus reflected on the challenges we had experienced and how we could
22 overcome them. Given his background in applied sport psychology he was quick to
23 reassure us that he had experienced similar challenges during his early career. In
24 addition, both of us found the keeping of a reflective diary to be an effective aspect of
25 our consultancy discussions (Cropley et al., 2007; Katz, 2006). The diaries were

1 reminders of what we had done and how we felt at the time of the sessions and thus
2 were helpful in stimulating discussion with our mentor.

3 In the early stages of the programme we were initially anxious and consequently
4 indecisive in dealing with the coaches and academy directors given our relative
5 inexperience of them and their environments. We quickly realized that speculative
6 responses was not something they particularly liked and thus we refined our
7 communication to be more confident and decisive when conversing about our service,
8 skills, and outcomes. We recognized that as the programme developed and we
9 became more experienced so we began to trust our knowledge which then allowed us
10 to be more decisive with the coaches and directors.

11 Because the coaches had previously been educated on the 5C's by the third
12 author and appreciated the value of sport psychology, it was difficult for us to re-
13 negotiate our roles at the clubs. To illustrate, we often found ourselves making
14 suggestions about how we wanted to do our consultancy, only to be confronted with
15 the response "...well that's not how we've done it in the past". It is possible that re-
16 negotiating of roles is likely to occur once a consultant has become established with a
17 club or organization (e.g., Bull, 1995).

18 Establishing relationships is a key aspect of being a successful sport
19 psychologist (Gilbourne & Richardson, 2006; Tonn & Harmison, 2004). Therefore,
20 throughout the consultancy we tried to develop relationships with the coaching staff,
21 academy director, and athletes. One strategy involved staying at residential training
22 camps, dinner and breakfast meetings, walking the field with the coaches and athletes,
23 attending training, email and telephone contact with coaches, and attending coaching
24 staff meetings. Another strategy involved taking every opportunity we could to talk
25 with the coaches and athletes about their sport, training aims, and on occasions the

1 application of sport psychology. Typically, we were hoping these ad-hoc
2 conversations would facilitate rapport.

3 Maintaining professional boundaries was also a challenge for us in our work
4 (Andersen et al., 2001; Stevens & Anderson, 2007). For example, because we had not
5 been decisive enough in negotiating and establishing professional boundaries prior to
6 the start of our work at the residential training camps coaching staff regularly
7 consumed alcohol with their dinner and encouraged us to do the same. Also,
8 following some one-to-one consultations, members of the coaching staff inquired
9 about what the athletes had discussed. Therefore, in our current practice we are now
10 very clear about outlining confidentiality agreements with our clients and
11 stakeholders so as to avoid difficult situations in the future regarding information
12 boundaries.

13 After delivering the programme we cannot claim that our philosophy or delivery
14 of applied sport psychology is the right one for other sport psychologists; however,
15 our employers and athletes were generally pleased with our work and wanted us to
16 return. We realize that we have to change some of our delivery to communicate more
17 effectively to help athletes perform better. For example, we felt that the athletes were
18 reluctant to contact us by telephone. Thus we aim to use other means of contact,
19 electronic media (e.g., SMS messages and email), to encourage players to contact us
20 if they choose (Zizzi & Perna, 2002). In addition, many athletes requested solutions
21 during our sessions particularly when they were experiencing a performance slump.
22 This approach is typical of a “customer type relationship” (Høigaard & Johansen,
23 2004), and we want to include more brief contact interventions because they are
24 powerful in practice (Giges & Petitpas, 2000). We hope that our education sessions
25 will help the athletes to realize that they have the tools to support themselves in a

1 performance slump and that developing the appropriate mind-set for competition is a
2 skill that must be learnt and developed. Furthermore, we recognize that cricketers or
3 soccer players do not function within a vacuum and parents, peers and coaches could
4 be involved in this therapeutic alliance (Harwood, 2008). Within the football
5 academy, for example, some one-to-one consultations involved parents and/or
6 coaches; however, this practice depended mostly on coaches, rather than parents,
7 being available and willing to attend sessions with the sport psychologist. Indeed,
8 parental support is likely to augment any brief contact intervention by supporting
9 young athletes in their social interactions emphasising their personal control and
10 responsibility.

11 Recommendations

12 On the basis of our experiences and reflections in this paper we offer suggestions to
13 other practitioners working in professional sport academies. First, we now understand
14 the value in educating coaches and parents to help them recognize the stresses athletes
15 encounter during their careers and how they can reinforce elements of the
16 psychological strategies taught to athletes to augment our service. To illustrate,
17 currently at the cricket academy a sport psychology coach and parent education
18 programme exists where education sessions are provided on enjoyment, motivation,
19 confidence, and concentration. In these sessions, information is presented to provide
20 an understanding of theory and intervention. In sum, we now very much view the
21 coaches and parents as allies and not aliens in our quest for developing mentally
22 prepared athletes. Second, we now see the value in concretising sport psychology
23 education for the athlete by integrating their new abstract knowledge into training
24 sessions (Sinclair & Sinclair, 1994; Weiss & Williams, 2004). To this end, much of
25 our current work still relies on the classroom, however we have worked hard at

1 developing practical drills and sessions which illustrate and challenge each of the
2 5C's at both academies. Third, whilst we would encourage the use of curricula which
3 focuses on developing the core themes essential for athlete development (e.g., the
4 5C's), we noticed that when education and training sessions are enjoyable, players are
5 more committed (e.g., Carpenter & Scanlan, 1998). Fourth, from our experiences,
6 depending on the needs of the players, we think that reflection and PDMS within
7 education programmes might be valuable because these techniques offer the potential
8 for sustainable increases in self-awareness, communication, and group cohesion.
9 Finally, when we delivered our work in the academies we did not have a
10 psychological skills education framework to draw upon; since then, however, Visek,
11 Harris, and Blom (2009) introduced the Youth Sport Consulting Model (YSCM)
12 which serves as an educational framework for guiding and supporting sport
13 psychology practitioners in the implementation and delivery of sport psychology
14 services. Accordingly, this framework coupled with our experience has assisted us
15 greatly in the development of a sport psychology programme in youth equestrian.
16 Future applied research may wish to explore the effectiveness of the YSCM in
17 developing young athletes' psychological understanding and skills.

18 Our parting concern from our applied experience at the academies is that the
19 rationale for several aspects of our delivery lacked empirical qualification. Our
20 concerns typically relate to the guiding literature and its apparent stagnation on
21 gaining entry, the immersion approach, psychological skills tailored to youth athletes'
22 developmental needs, and indicators of value regarding psychological services.
23 Therefore, we hope that future applied practice research will explore the efficacy and
24 effectiveness of the underlying aspects of our delivery (Seligman, 1995). In particular,
25 which approach works best to gain entry to teams and why? Is there sufficient

1 evidence to support the rationale for the immersion approach? Are traditional
2 programmes for delivering psychological skills training effective for youth athletes?
3 Finally, is improved performance the most important variable when working with
4 youth athletes when developmental research suggests that factors such as enjoyment
5 and perceived competence facilitate performance and sport commitment (McCarthy et
6 al., 2008). These are some of the challenges to advance sport psychology delivery and
7 increase the credibility of sport psychologists working in professional sport.

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1 Table 1.

2 5C Workshop Content

Workshop Theme	Content	Mental Skills Associated with Theme	Schedule in Soccer Academy	Schedule in Cricket Academy
Commitment	Intrinsic motivation Task/mastery goals Approach goals Effort and persistence	Goal-setting	August- September*	November
Communication	Peer praise and encouragement Listening Acknowledging Giving feedback Positive non-verbal behaviour	Reflection and self-talk	September – October*	December
Concentration	Broad or narrow attention style Focussing on task relevant cues Coping with distractions	Concentration control (routines)	October – November*	January
Control	Emotional awareness and control Relaxation strategies Positive body language Recovery from errors	Relaxation, self-talk, and imagery	November – December*	February
Confidence	Full involvement No fear of errors Positive presence Accepting challenge Effort and persistence	Self-talk and imagery	December – January*	March

3 * The Five C's were repeated from January to May