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Wadsworth, N, McEwan, H, Lafferty, M, Eubank, MR and Tod, D

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Wadsworth, N, McEwan, H, Lafferty, M, Eubank, MR and Tod, D (2021) A Systematic Review Exploring the Reflective Accounts of Applied Sport Psychology Practitioners. International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology. ISSN 1750-984X

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A Systematic Review Exploring the Reflective Accounts of Applied Sport
Psychology Practitioners

*This work was supported by the British Psychological Society's Division of Sport and
Exercise Psychology under their research network grants.

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Abstract

This systematic review explores the reflective accounts of applied sport psychology practitioners. The aim of this review was to synthesize the reflective accounts of applied sport psychology practitioners and highlight common themes that provide focus to their reflective practice. The insight into current progress on reflective content in applied sport psychology provides a foundation to build on as we continue to understand this topic. Following a systematic search of the literature, a total of 73 studies were included within the review, which were analyzed using thematic content analysis. Analysis of the reflective accounts resulted in the creation of nine higher-order themes: *Process and Purpose of Reflective Practice; Ethical Practice; Supporting Person and Performer; Practitioner Individuation; Relationships with Clients; Cultural Awareness; Competence-Related Angst; Support of Practitioner Development; and Evaluating Practitioner Effectiveness*. The review includes recommendations for future research, such as the use of narrative analysis to provide further insight into applied practitioners' experiences. We also provide practical implications, which are tailored to match the specific demands of practitioners at different stages of development and include increased engagement in critical reflection for trainee practitioners and engaging with 'critical friends' to facilitate the process of meta-reflection for newly qualified practitioners.

Keywords: reflective practice, practitioner development, applied sport psychology, self-awareness, philosophy of practice

52 Sport psychology practitioners function in complex and changing environments (Cruickshank
53 et al., 2018). To maintain effectiveness, practitioners must continually learn from real-life
54 practice environments (Keegan, 2016). In the applied sports literature, there is consistent
55 identification of reflective practice as a contributor to competent practitioners who are
56 prepared to address the ambiguous challenges of sport psychology practice (e.g., Knowles et
57 al., 2012; Martindale & Collins, 2012). While there is, an increasing presence of literature
58 focusing on reflection in sport psychology practice, Huntley et al. (2014) summarised that
59 there was limited depth of understanding on reflection (i.e., what it is and how to engage in
60 it), and encouraged assimilating what practitioner-focused content we have already published
61 as a discipline. The invitation to review accounts within the field of sport psychology practice
62 to understand the content and process of practitioner reflection is one we accept and address
63 in this research.

64 To guide our review, we adopted the following understanding of reflective practice
65 because it captures both the nature of the activity and its translation into professional practice:

66 A purposeful and complex process that facilitates the examination of experience by
67 questioning the whole self and our agency within the context of practice. This
68 examination transforms experience into learning, which helps us to access, make
69 sense of, and develop our knowledge-in-action to better understand and/or improve
70 practice and the situation in which it occurs (Knowles et al., 2014, p. 10).

71 This definition is explicit about examining the whole self within the context of practice to
72 achieve a deeper meaning and understanding of who we are and how we influence sport
73 psychology service delivery.

74 Sport psychology practitioners are the instruments of service delivery, which means
75 that it is difficult to separate the person from the process of service delivery (McEwan et al.,
76 2019; Tod et al., 2017; Wadsworth et al., 2021). In recognising the integration of the personal

77 and professional, Knowles et al. (2014) encourage reflection as a means by which
78 practitioners can develop self-awareness (e.g., of their biases in the context of the
79 professional environment). Developing high levels of self-awareness (understanding who you
80 are, what you do, and why you do what you do) supported by the use of reflective practice
81 can be a fundamental part of forming a professional identity (McEwan et al., 2019).

82 Practitioners who reflect consistently and develop self-awareness of their own tendencies
83 may enhance authenticity and ensure congruent practice (Lindsay et al., 2007).

84 Practitioners can better understand their core values and beliefs and how they
85 influence the service provision process through self-awareness (Poczwadowski, 2017).
86 Moreover, these personal core values and beliefs, which are stable across time and context,
87 influence both practitioner philosophy and the theoretical paradigm the practitioner chooses
88 to apply. It has been asserted that a practitioner's philosophy and theoretical paradigm
89 combine to influence the expectations that both the practitioner and client have regarding the
90 service provision experience (Keegan, 2016). In essence, the skill of reflective practice
91 influences every facet of applied sport psychology (e.g., ethical standards, philosophical
92 approach).

93 Synthesising and analysing practitioner accounts of reflective practice will allow us to
94 draw knowledge together in one place. Reflecting on a synthesis of the reflective accounts of
95 applied sport psychology practitioners may encourage meta-reflection. For example, in
96 reference to reflecting on how personal qualities (e.g., humility; Chandler et al., 2014)
97 contribute towards applied practice, the practitioner performing meta-reflection is asking
98 'how do I reflect on my personal qualities and their influence on practice?' Examining *what*
99 (personal and professional issues) and *how* (levels of reflection; noticing, making meaning;
100 see Moon, 1999) other practitioners reflect can encourage meta-reflection. Readers can
101 reflect on the published accounts in respect of their own level of development. For example,

102 practitioners early in their careers might reflect on some of the experiences of perceived
103 pressured in service delivery by reading Tonn and Harmison, (2004) and Wadsworth et al.
104 (2018). Reading and asking reflective questions, such as ‘how do I reflect on the issue I am
105 currently learning about?’ can provide practitioners with information to influence their
106 professional growth. For example, reflecting on accounts of philosophy of practice (e.g.,
107 Lindsay, 2017; Tod, 2014) can aid the reader to articulate their own professional philosophy.
108 Published accounts of reflective practice present opportunities to examine what others reflect
109 on (and how). Meta-reflection, like reflection can also allow individuals to better understand
110 themselves (Fletcher & Maher, 2013) within their context and so provides applied
111 practitioners with an opportunity to generate practice-based knowledge (Cropley et al., 2010).

112 Although reflective articles have been a feature of sport psychology literature
113 throughout its history, there has been no attempt to assimilate the collective published
114 practitioners’ accounts. A systematic review process would allow us to meet the call from
115 Huntley et al. (2014) to ‘take stock as a field’ (p. 876) to understand better the concept of
116 reflective practice. We intend to achieve this, by addressing the question; what do applied
117 sport psychology practitioners choose to reflect on? The specific aim of this review is to
118 synthesize the reflective accounts of applied sport psychology practitioners and highlight
119 common themes that provide focus to their reflective practice. By achieving this aim, we will
120 provide an insight into current progress on reflective content in applied sport psychology.
121 This work will provide a foundation to build on as we continue to understand this topic. The
122 review will provide practical suggestions and opportunities for meta-reflection on themes. To
123 address the aim of the research, we conducted a thematic content analysis of the data (Braun
124 et al., 2016), to describe, identify, and interpret the themes and patterns within the data.

125 **Method**

126 **Developing Keywords for Electronic Search**

127 We started by first conducting a scoping review to develop key search terms that
128 would ensure a comprehensive systematic search of the relevant literature. Scoping reviews
129 are often conducted, prior to a full systematic review, to highlight key concepts underpinning
130 a specific research area (Peters et al., 2015). This scoping process involved reading seven
131 reflective articles. We identified the seven reflective articles by consulting experts in the field
132 (Pham et al., 2014) and we selected the articles because they provided an insight into the
133 experiences of practitioners at different stages of development. We did not conduct this
134 scoping review with the intention of capturing all relevant literature, but instead, to create the
135 key search terms for the subsequent systematic review search (Pham et al., 2014). The lead
136 author read the seven articles (Cecil, 2012; Collins et al., 2013; Cox et al., 2016; Haberl &
137 McCann, 2012; Tod et al., 2015; Williams & Anderson, 2012; Woodcock et al., 2008) and
138 highlighted key words through a method similar to that of content analysis (quantifying the
139 presence of certain words, terms, or themes in qualitative data; Neuendorf, 2016). The lead
140 author combined the most common key words to create the search terms (*Adaptability,*
141 *Anxiety, Relationships, Identity, Reflection, Philosophy, Supervision, Education,*
142 *Development*), which we then used to develop the search strategy discussed below.

143 **Formal Search**

144 We conducted the initial search in October 2018, which included: (a) an online search
145 of the following electronic databases: *Web of Science; SPORTDiscus; PsychINFO;*
146 *PsychARTICLES; Open Grey;* and *Scopus* using the following search terms: *Sport Psychol**
147 *AND (Adaptability OR Anxiety OR Relationships OR Identity OR Reflection OR Philosophy)*
148 *AND (Supervision OR Education OR Development);* (b) a journal table of content search,
149 which explored all of the titles and abstracts of all volumes in the following journals: *The*

150 *Sport Psychologist; Journal of Applied Sport Psychology; Journal of Applied Sport*
151 *Psychology in Action; International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology; International*
152 *Journal of Sport Psychology; Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology; Journal of Clinical*
153 *Sport Psychology; Psychology of Sport and Exercise; Sport and Exercise Psychology*
154 *Review; and Case Studies in Sport and Exercise Psychology; and (c) a forwards and*
155 backwards search of all retrieved articles, which involved exploring the reference lists of all
156 original articles found and searching for all papers that had cited the original paper found. We
157 conducted two additional table-of-contents searches in October 2019 and February 2021 to
158 ensure any reflective accounts published since the initial search were included in the analysis.

159 Our search of the electronic databases yielded 1,305 hits and, after removing
160 duplicates and cross-referencing with the forward and backwards searches, a total of 995
161 potential articles remained (see PRISMA diagram in Figure 1). We then screened the final
162 995 articles against the inclusion criteria, which were that the paper must be: (a) a reflective
163 account that focused on the applied experiences of sport psychology practitioners; (b)
164 qualitative; (c) of any year; (d) English language; and (e) published. This inclusion criteria
165 ensured we collated articles together that would allow us to meet the specific aim of the
166 review. Following this initial screening process, we excluded 925 of the 995 articles; leaving
167 a total of 70 articles that met the inclusion criteria required for the systematic review. We
168 excluded a further three articles when conducting the full-text eligibility criterion, because
169 they were not reflective accounts of applied sport psychology practice. Two of these articles
170 focused on the supervisory experience, and one focused on the process of reflective practice
171 itself, rather than the applied experiences of sport practitioners directly. The final pool of
172 articles included 67 reflective accounts of applied practitioners' service-delivery experiences.

173 The additional table of content searches conducted in October 2019 and February 2021, led to
174 the addition of a further six reflective articles: bringing the total to 73 reflective accounts.

175 **Data Extraction**

176 We extracted, stored, read, and re-read the remaining 73 articles to ensure we could
177 conduct the data extraction and data analysis processes on two levels. The lead author first
178 extracted and recorded the: authors' name(s); date of publication; gender; experience level;
179 topic of reflection; sport; country; and the theory underpinning the reflective account. The
180 lead author then read the reflective accounts again to conduct the thematic content analysis.
181 During both stages, we recorded the experience level of the authors to identify themes that
182 were representative of the differing developmental stages of the applied practitioners. *Trainee*
183 *practitioners* were identified as those individuals who had not yet achieved accreditation
184 through their respective professional body. *Newly qualified practitioners* were those
185 individuals who had achieved accredited status less than five years prior to writing the article.
186 *Experienced practitioners* were identified as individuals with five or more years' experience
187 at the point the reflective account was written (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 2013; Wadsworth et
188 al., 2021).

189 **Analysis of the Practitioners' Reflections**

190 **Philosophical Approach.** In relation to our aim to synthesize the reflective accounts
191 of applied sport psychology practitioners we situated this systematic review in an interpretive
192 paradigm (Sparkes & Smith, 2013), informed by ontological relativism (the view that reality
193 is subjective to each individual; Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and epistemological constructivism
194 (knowledge is constructed; Creswell & Poth, 2016). Adopting this ontological and
195 epistemological stance allowed us to explore, and understand, the meaning each sport
196 psychology practitioner ascribed to their applied experiences (Cohen & Manion, 1994;
197 Creswell, 2003; 2009). For example, conducting a thematic content analysis (Braun et al.,
198 2016) on the articles allowed us to understand how the participants perceived, and made
199 sense of, these experiences through exploring the topics they chose to reflect on.

200 Furthermore, conducting thematic content analysis (Braun et al., 2016) on reflective accounts
201 of applied practice ensured we were able to discover an aspect of each practitioners' view of
202 reality, through gaining an understanding of their background, beliefs, and experiences
203 (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2011). Adopting this approach to data analysis across all 73
204 reflective accounts allowed us to collate common experiences of applied practitioners and
205 gain a comprehensive understanding of the topic (Morehouse, 2011) by uncovering both
206 individual and collective experiences (Cohen et al., 2007).

207 **Analysis Procedure.** The procedure we used during the data analysis phase of this
208 systematic review followed Braun et al's. (2016) thematic content analysis. We used thematic
209 content analysis as a method of data analysis to better understand the experiences of applied
210 practitioners (Cohen & Manion, 1994), by focusing on the aspects of the practitioners'
211 experiences which we felt were meaningful to discuss (Creswell, 2003). Thematic content
212 analysis also allowed us to identify and create patterns of meaning across the data set. The
213 creation of patterns provided us with the opportunity to gain an insight into the shared
214 experiences of applied sport psychology practitioners and meet the specific research aim of
215 the review (Braun et al., 2015).

216 During Phase One the lead author immersed himself within the data set by reading
217 and re-reading the 73 reflective accounts (consisting of 821 pages) and highlighting any areas
218 of interest in relation to the research aim. During Phase Two, the lead author built upon these
219 areas of interest by creating raw codes. After reading and re-reading the 73 articles, the lead
220 author identified and created 438 raw codes. We approached these phases with a semantic
221 focus (coding the explicitly stated ideas and experiences of the practitioners; Braun et al.,
222 2016). During Phase Three we combined these 438 raw codes into 110 unique codes by
223 'tagging' raw codes, with the same or similar meaning, and grouping them together in an
224 excel document. For example, the raw codes; *working with coaches to have more of an*

225 *impact with players, working through the coaches is essential to successful service delivery,*
226 *and building effective relationships with coaches* were combined to create the unique code
227 *working with, and through, coaches to support the athlete.* We also marked each code to
228 denote the experience level of the practitioner. We grouped unique codes, representing
229 similar ideas, to create lower-order themes. We combined the 110 unique codes to create 28
230 lower-order themes. For example, we combined *working with, and through, coaches to*
231 *support the athletes, delivering and disseminating to key stakeholders, and communication*
232 *and collaboration with support staff* to create the lower-order theme *working with support*
233 *staff.* During Phase Four we focused on reviewing the lower-order themes in relation to the
234 overall purpose of the research (what were the collective experiences of applied sport
235 psychology practitioners?). Throughout Phase Five we focused on re-assessing the names of
236 the lower-order themes and highlighting the essence or unique aspect of each theme. We did
237 this to ensure each theme was distinct from the next, but also to understand, and better
238 capture, the interconnectedness of all the themes in relation to the overall experiences of the
239 practitioners (Braun et al., 2016). Hence, this phase allowed us to move beyond simply
240 describing individual ideas and provided us with the opportunity to present the collective
241 experiences of the practitioners in line with our research aim and our ontological and
242 epistemological stance. In Phase Six, we grouped the lower-order themes together to create
243 nine higher-order themes that were representative of the experiences of applied sport
244 psychology practitioners. For example, we combined the six lower-order themes:
245 *understanding the demands of elite sport; immersion (and integration) into the environment;*
246 *informal work with athletes; understanding the culture; working with support staff; and lack*
247 *of contact time with athletes* to create the higher-order theme *Cultural Awareness.* We used a
248 ‘thematic map’ (in the form of a table; consisting of unique codes, lower-order themes, and
249 higher-order themes) to help us with this process (see Table 1.).

250 *Insert Table 1. here*

251 **Data Representation.** Once we had created the higher-order themes, we focused on
252 identifying the themes that represented the unique experiences of practitioners in a particular
253 stage of development. For example, the theme *Competence-Related Angst*, better represented
254 the experiences of trainee or early career practitioners. Presenting the themes in this way
255 helped us identify specific experiences associated with the different development stages.

256 **Results**

257 Following the thematic content analysis of the 73 articles; we created 28 lower-order
258 themes, which we combined to create nine higher-order themes (see Table 1.). We present an
259 overview of the themes below, focusing on the meaning of each theme and which group
260 (trainee, newly qualified, or experienced) generally reflected upon this area. We have
261 presented the higher-order themes in the order below to support our earlier conceptualisation
262 of reflective practice (starting with the examination of the whole self and moving towards an
263 understanding of how the self interacts with the context; Knowles et al., 2014).

264 **Process and Purpose of Reflective Practice.** Trainee practitioners wrote 19 (26%) of
265 the reflective accounts, ten (14%) were written by newly qualified practitioners, and 44
266 (60%) were written by experienced practitioners. Authors reflected on a variety of different
267 topics, such as: providing one-to-one support; developing a life skills programme; working
268 with young athletes; and attending major international competitions. 18 (22%) of the articles
269 explicitly mentioned the use of a reflective model to structure their reflective accounts. The
270 higher-order theme itself was made up on three lower-order themes; *developing self-*
271 *awareness and self-knowledge*, *learning is a continuous process*, and *creating an awareness*
272 *of transference and countertransference*, which were underpinned by 12 unique codes.
273 Applied practitioners stated that they engaged in reflective practice for different reasons, such
274 as: increasing self-awareness (Woodcock et al., 2008); enhancing and maintaining

275 development (Tod, 2014); and directing attention towards the practitioner-client relationship
276 (Tod, 2007).

277 ***Developing Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge.*** A consistent feature, usually
278 presented at the start of the reflective accounts, was a focus on the self and the importance of
279 understanding core values and beliefs (Cox et al., 2016). Applied practitioners discussed
280 engaging in reflective practice to gain a better insight into who they were as both people and
281 practitioners (Cecil, 2014). We theorised that engaging in reflective practice for this purpose
282 provided the practitioners with the opportunity to develop a professional identity; grounded in
283 their own values and beliefs (Cox et al., 2016; Williams & Anderson, 2012). Moreover, this
284 increased self-knowledge and self-awareness allowed applied practitioners to navigate and
285 overcome the many barriers of delivering sport psychology support in elite environments
286 (Ross, 2015).

287 ***Learning is a Continuous Process.*** There was also a consistent focus on the links
288 between reflection and continual development as a practitioner (Gordon, 2014). Experienced
289 practitioners in particular focused on the importance of reflective practice in viewing learning
290 and development as a continuous, constant, and on-going process (Fifer et al., 2008; Giges,
291 2014). We speculated that practitioners used reflective practice to assess their own
292 developmental needs, ensuring they engaged in purposeful and meaningful continued
293 professional development (CPD) opportunities (Carr, 2007).

294 ***Creating an Awareness of Transference and Countertransference.*** We also
295 speculated that reflective practice allowed practitioners to become more aware of how their
296 own motivations and needs might be influencing the relationship developed with the client
297 (Tod, 2008). Applied practitioners reflected on their need to ‘protect’ their clients (Lindsay &
298 Thomas, 2014; Wadsworth et al., 2019), becoming more aware of the power dynamic
299 between themselves and their clients (Tod, 2007), and how this understanding made them

300 more conscious of potential transference and countertransference (Anderson, 2014; Tod,
301 2007).

302 **Ethical Practice.** Ethical practice was a central feature of the reflective accounts and
303 explicitly mentioned by applied practitioners as a fundamental component to successful
304 service-delivery (Moyle, 2015). This higher-order theme was made up of three lower-order
305 themes; *ethical dilemmas are challenging and uncomfortable, negotiating with the media and*
306 *self-promotion*, and *staying humble*, which were underpinned by 12 unique codes.

307 ***Ethical Dilemmas are Challenging and Uncomfortable.*** Applied practitioners,
308 working in a sporting context (regardless of experience level), faced an abundance of ethical
309 challenges, which in most cases were successfully navigated. However, these ethical
310 dilemmas provoked emotive reactions in the practitioners and reinforced that ethical practice
311 should be considered as an essential and foundational component of successful applied
312 practice (Keegan, 2016). A variety of reoccurring ethical challenges were discussed in the
313 reflective articles, such as: ‘blurred boundaries’ with clients (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014)
314 (such as questioning whether or not the relationship with the client was professional or
315 personal; Collins et al., 2013)); referring clients when their needs fell outside of the
316 practitioners’ scope of practice (Drew & Morris, 2020; Wadsworth et al., 2020); and
317 travelling with teams (Haberl & Peterson, 2006) (leading to unexpected and unpredictable
318 situations; Collins & Cruickshank, 2015). At a broader level, experienced practitioners in
319 particular discussed their experiences of key stakeholders misunderstanding the discipline of
320 sport psychology as a whole and how these misconceptions meant practitioners needed to
321 have a greater awareness of how to act ethically with key stakeholders (Carr, 2007).

322 ***Negotiating with the Media and Self-Promotion.*** Newly qualified practitioners
323 focused on the desire to build credibility (Lindsay & Thomas, 2014), while being cautious of
324 the ethical challenges’ media involvement could create (Haberl & Peterson, 2006).

325 Practitioners discussed how media involvement presented direct challenges to confidentiality,
326 which would inevitably be damaging to the practitioner-client relationship (Haberl &
327 Peterson, 2006). Practitioners discussed the need to establish clear expectations before
328 engaging with the media (Lindsay & Thomas, 2014) and how topics needed to be addressed
329 broadly rather than on an individual basis (Carr, 2007) to avoid further challenges to
330 confidentiality. In addition, newly qualified practitioners discussed experiencing conflict
331 between the need to promote their services (and gain clients) and the lack of confidence they
332 had to sell their services (Collins & McCann, 2015) and negotiate fees (Howells, 2017) while
333 not making false claims about competency (Fifer et al., 2008).

334 ***Staying Humble.*** Staying humble was discussed as another aspect of sound ethical
335 practice. Applied practitioners highlighted the importance of not taking credit for the
336 successes of athletes (Halliwell, 1990) and how taking credit for athletes' victories could
337 directly challenge a practitioners' integrity and be viewed as a weakness (Gilbourne &
338 Richardson, 2006). The reflective accounts also discussed how effective applied practitioners
339 have the ability to 'blend in' and conduct work in the background without the need or want
340 for attention or accolades (Gordon, 2014).

341 ***Supporting Person and Performer.*** After reading and re-reading the reflective
342 accounts, we theorised that there were noticeable differences between earlier reflective
343 accounts (published in 1980/90s), and more recent reflective accounts, when discussing
344 support offered to clients. This higher-order theme was made up of three lower-order themes;
345 *delivering mental skills training for performance enhancement, providing holistic support,*
346 *and being client-led,* which were underpinned by 11 unique codes.

347 ***Delivering Mental Skills Training for Performance Enhancement.*** Reflections from
348 experienced practitioners (published in the 1980/90s) did recognise non-sporting challenges
349 (Dorfman, 1990; Orlick, 1989), but mostly focused on the use of mental skills training to

350 improve performance (Halliwell, 1990; Loehr, 1990). Experienced practitioners, within their
351 reflective accounts, focused on portraying themselves as ‘experts’ through delivery of mental
352 skills training to clients (Tod, 2008). More recently, mental skills training has been applied in
353 closed-skill sports to simulate competitive environments (Hung et al., 2008). However, this
354 performance-only focus, portrayed in the earlier accounts, has been criticised for limiting the
355 field (Anderson, 2014) and has been described as ‘insufficient’ (Neff, 1990) and ‘inadequate’
356 (Collins et al., 2013) when dealing with the broader challenges often discussed by elite
357 athletes.

358 ***Providing Holistic Support.*** More recent reflective accounts have begun to highlight
359 the importance of holistic support (Evans & Slater, 2014; Lindsay et al., 2007; McArdle &
360 Barker, 2016). More specifically, these accounts have attempted to understand, and
361 demonstrate the importance of, the person behind the athlete (Evans & Slater, 2014;
362 Gilbourne & Richardson, 2006; Lindsay et al., 2007), as well as the link between
363 performance and well-being (Johnson, 2017; Mellalieu, 2017). We theorised that this was a
364 prominent feature of the trainee and newly qualified practitioners’ recent accounts of applied
365 practice (Collins et al., 2013; Mărgărit, 2013; McGregor & Winter, 2017; Woodcock et al.,
366 2008). These practitioners chose to discuss the importance of understanding the person
367 (within their social context; Woodcock et al., 2008) and how the support offered by sport
368 psychology practitioners should be more ‘lifestyle’ based (Gilbourne & Richardson, 2006)
369 with a focus on the broader challenges that an individual engaging in elite sport may
370 experience alongside more traditional performance-based challenges (Moyle, 2015). During
371 our analysis, we developed the idea that there was a significant shift in the reflective
372 accounts, with time, from performance focused interventions to more counselling-based
373 approaches in support of the whole person (Pepitas, 2014).

374 ***Being Client-Led.*** Our theory of a shift, from performance-based interventions to
375 person-based interventions, was further reinforced when applied practitioners began
376 discussing their movement away from problem-focused approaches and towards a more
377 person-focused approach. Through our analysis, we speculated that this shift occurred as
378 practitioners began to gain more experience (Jackson, 2006). Furthermore, trainee
379 practitioners discussed lacking the confidence to deliver an athlete-led approach (Cropley et
380 al., 2007). However, when trainee practitioners did provide their clients with more
381 ownership, they discussed gaining more ‘buy-in’ from the athletes (Rowley et al., 2012).
382 Applied practitioners also highlighted the importance of facilitating the client to find their
383 own solution (Lindsay et al., 2017).

384 **Practitioner Individuation.** Through our analysis, we developed the theory that
385 practitioners, at different stages of development, were at differing stages of the practitioner
386 individuation journey (the alignment between a practitioners’ core values, beliefs, and
387 behaviour, and the context (role) they choose to engage in, over time; McEwan et al., 2019).
388 This higher-order theme was made up of five lower-order themes; *a philosophy of practice*
389 *changes with time and experience, developing a practitioner identity, demonstrating*
390 *authenticity (and experiencing congruence), adopting multiple roles, and practitioner self-*
391 *care*, which were underpinned by 20 unique codes.

392 ***A Philosophy of Practice Changes with Time and Experience.*** When reading the
393 reflective accounts, we speculated that much of the work conducted by trainee practitioners
394 was not underpinned by a specific philosophical framework (Collins & McCann, 2015) or
395 was an imitation of a ‘simple’ model of practice (Lindsay, 2017), which occurred due to a
396 lack of connection between the trainees’ values and their behaviours. The newly qualified
397 practitioners’ accounts were markedly different from the trainees’ accounts in this regard.
398 The newly qualified practitioners reflected on the importance of knowing their underpinning

399 philosophy (McGregor & Winter, 2017) and their practice being underpinned by theory
400 (Henrikson, 2015; Timson, 2006). The experienced practitioners were able to discuss their
401 philosophy of practice in relation to their context, which centred around how elite sporting
402 environments can often put practitioners under pressure to flex and change their approach
403 (Larsen 2017a).

404 ***Developing a Practitioner Identity.*** While experiencing challenges in an applied
405 context (such as, attending major international tournaments - Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014),
406 trainee practitioners reflected on the difficulty they had in separating their personal and
407 professional selves (Collins et al., 2013; Haberl & Peterson, 2006; Williams & Anderson,
408 2012) and portrayed a ‘blurred identity’ (Cox et al., 2016). Alternatively, the experienced
409 practitioners discussed becoming more relaxed around their clients and not feeling the need
410 to separate their personal and professional selves (Andersen, 2014; Tod, 2014). We
411 developed the idea that this lack of separation between personal and professional selves, with
412 time, and more exposure to applied experiences, allows practitioners to develop a clear and
413 authentic professional identity (Lindsay, 2017; Moran, 2014).

414 ***Demonstrating Authenticity (and Experiencing Congruence).*** Without a clear
415 professional identity, the trainee practitioners inevitably began to experience inauthenticity
416 and incongruence (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014; Haberl & Peterson, 2006; Holt & Streat,
417 2001; Lindsay et al., 2007; Mărgărit, 2013). In response to these feelings of incongruence, the
418 trainee and newly qualified practitioners chose to discuss the process of becoming more
419 authentic and honest (Lindsay et al., 2007), which helped them: build relationships with
420 clients (Haberl & Peterson, 2006); avoid conflict and unethical behaviour (Jones et al., 2007);
421 become more comfortable in elite environments (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014); and ‘sell’
422 themselves as practitioners (Holt & Streat, 2001). The experienced practitioners, who already

423 felt a sense of congruence, simply described the importance of being genuine (Fifer et al.,
424 2008) and not hiding parts of themselves in a professional context (Tod, 2008).

425 ***Adopting Multiple Roles.*** Trainee and newly qualified practitioners consistently
426 reflected upon ‘wearing many hats’ or adopting multiple roles within an applied setting
427 (Collins et al., 2013; McGregor & Winter, 2017; Timson, 2006; Williams & Andersen,
428 2012). Applied practitioners experienced multiple and conflicting roles (such as being both
429 the coach and the sport psychology practitioner; Neff, 1990), which were viewed positively
430 (removing the sense of being an ‘outsider’; Jones et al., 2007), but also caused confusion in
431 relation to role clarity (Tonn & Harmison, 2004) and presented logistical challenges (Katz,
432 2006; Rhodius, 2006). Establishing role clarity was integral in avoiding issues of
433 confidentiality with clients (Haberl & Peterson, 2006), but establishing role clarity was
434 challenged when trying to find a balance between offering one-to-one support to athletes and
435 working with staff in a more organisational capacity (Timson, 2006).

436 ***Practitioner Self-Care.*** In response to some of the challenges discussed above,
437 practitioners reflected on the concept of ‘self-care’ (Moyle, 2015; Symes, 2014) as being a
438 vital component to successful practitioner development and in finding an optimal work-life
439 balance (Halliwell, 1990). Challenges to this work-life balance were experienced when:
440 travelling to major competitions (Haberl & Peterson, 2006); feeling the need to be available
441 on a 24-hour basis (Males, 2006); and combining an academic and practical career (Cox
442 2014). We speculated that this lack of balance (often resulting in lack of time to sleep and
443 exercise; Haberl & Peterson, 2006) made it difficult for practitioners to find ‘down-time’
444 (Males, 2006) and had emotional and psychological implications, such as, increased stress
445 and pressure (Jones et al., 2007).

446 ***Relationships with Clients.*** The importance of the relationship developed between
447 the sport psychology practitioner and the client is well established in the literature (Sharp et

448 al., 2015). Developing a relationship with the client was consistently discussed as a key
449 component of successful applied service delivery (Andersen, 2014). This higher-order theme
450 was made up of two lower-order themes; *caring for the client* and *conducting a thorough*
451 *needs analysis*, which were underpinned by 9 unique codes.

452 ***Caring for the Client.*** Applied practitioners discussed the importance of developing
453 trust (Botterill, 1990) and caring for their clients (Dorfman, 1990). Practitioners reflected on
454 how they attempted to build relationships with their clients, which included: through use of
455 humour (Holt & Streat, 2001); through the use of technology (Jackson, 2006); by engaging
456 informally with clients (McGregor & Winter, 2017); and by travelling to away fixtures with
457 the squad (Tonn & Harmison, 2004). Integrating within the environment (Haberl & Peterson,
458 2006), understanding the culture (Stambulova & Schinke, 2017), and building relationships
459 with coaches (Cecil, 2014) allowed practitioners to create ‘buy-in’ with their athletes
460 (Cotterill, 2017). However, this process took time (Hung et al., 2008) and over time the
461 relationships practitioners were able to build with their clients changed and became more
462 meaningful (Tod, 2008).

463 ***Conducting a Thorough Needs Analysis.*** Conducting a thorough needs analysis was
464 an essential component of the reflective accounts; allowing practitioners to understand the
465 unique needs of their clients (Bull, 1995; Fifer et al., 2008; Mărgărit, 2013). Practitioners
466 discussed the importance of triangulation when conducting a needs analysis (McArdle &
467 Barker, 2016) and used a variety of methods to achieve this, such as:
468 psychological/psychometric tests (Loehr, 1990); interviews (Hung et al., 2008); observation
469 (McGregor & Winter, 2017); and informal chats (Fifer et al., 2008). Taking the time to
470 conduct a comprehensive needs analysis ensured practitioners were able to create a shared
471 working goal with their client (Tod, 2008), which allowed them to: tailor the support to the
472 needs of their clients (Evans & Slater, 2014); adapt to changing circumstances (McArdle &

473 Barker, 2016); understand individual differences within a team (Cropley et al., 2007); and
474 deliver age-appropriate interventions (Barker et al., 2011).

475 **Cultural Awareness.** Awareness of the culture was a consistent feature discussed by
476 the experienced practitioners. Trainee practitioners did highlight the importance of immersing
477 themselves within the environment, with the primary focus being on proving their worth
478 (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014), but struggled to achieve this (Howells, 2017; Rowley et al.,
479 2012). We theorised that the experienced practitioners were able to work successfully within
480 the culture of professional sport (in comparison to the trainee and newly qualified
481 practitioners) because of their high levels of self-awareness (Poczwardowski, 2017). This
482 self-awareness allowed the experienced practitioners to explore, and better understand, how
483 their professional selves fitted into the context in which they were situated (Stambulova &
484 Schinke, 2017), allowing them to deliver effective and culturally sensitive interventions
485 (Larsen, 2017a), and reinforcing that they were further along the practitioner individuation
486 process (McEwan et al., 2019). This higher-order theme was made up of six lower-order
487 themes; *understanding the demands of elite sport, understanding the culture, immersion (and*
488 *integration) within the environment, lack of contact time with athletes, informal work with*
489 *athletes, and working with support staff*, which were underpinned by 17 unique codes.

490 **Understanding the Demands of Elite Sport.** Applied practitioners discussed the
491 importance of understanding the demands of the sport in which they were situated. The
492 reflective accounts of experienced practitioners (particularly those published in the 1980/90s)
493 emphasised that experience of the sport, as either a player or coach, was viewed as vital to
494 successful service delivery (Bull, 1995; Loehr, 1990; Orlick, 1989). This past experience of
495 the sport allowed the practitioners to integrate into the environment (Botterill, 1990) and gain
496 ‘buy-in’ from their clients (Tod, 2008). Applied practitioners who had no prior history of
497 playing or coaching the sport highlighted the importance of understanding the sport (Fifer et

498 al., 2008), especially in relation to the psychological demands it placed on athletes (Harwood,
499 2008; Hung et al., 2008). Having knowledge of the sport and the psychological demands
500 allowed applied practitioners to locate themselves as an ‘insider’ (Mellalieu, 2017) and gain
501 credibility and trust (Holt & Streat, 2001).

502 ***Understanding the Culture.*** In addition to understanding the demands of the sport,
503 experienced practitioners also discussed the importance of understanding the culture in which
504 they were situated (Lindsay, 2017; Pattison & McInerney, 2016; Tod, 2014). This was
505 particularly important in cultures that were considered to be unpredictable (Collins &
506 Cruickshank, 2015), such as professional football (Gilbourne & Richardson, 2006), where
507 staffs’ jobs were perhaps most at risk (Larsen, 2017a) and where the masculine culture might
508 prevent clients from showing weakness (Tod, 2008). Furthermore, understanding that
509 athletes’ identities were rooted in their context allowed practitioners to design and deliver
510 interventions that were sensitive to the needs of the individual and the organisation
511 (Stambulova & Schinke, 2017).

512 ***Immersion (and Integration) within the Environment.*** Applied practitioners
513 (regardless of experience level) highlighted the importance of immersing themselves within
514 the environment (Barker et al., 2011; Cox, 2014, Harwood, 2008). Not integrating and
515 embedding themselves into the environment made it more difficult to get engagement from
516 clients (Rowley et al., 2012). Practitioners spoke of taking part in social activities with
517 players and staff (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014) and travelling to away games (Tonn &
518 Harmison, 2004) as ways to improve relationships (Haberl & Peterson, 2006) and increase
519 voluntary engagement from athletes (Rowley et al., 2012).

520 ***Lack of Contact Time with Athletes.*** Applied practitioners struggled to gain access to
521 athletes (Rhodius, 2006) and found themselves unable to create enough time to engage with
522 their clients (Cox, 2014; McGregor & Winter, 2017) and build effective relationships

523 (Timson, 2006). Gaining access to the athletes was made even more of a challenge during
524 major competitions (Jackson, 2006) and in sports where the athletes' schedules were too busy
525 for any meaningful, prolonged, or proactive engagement (Rowley et al., 2012).

526 ***Informal work with Athletes.*** Perhaps as a direct result of this lack of contact time
527 with athletes, applied practitioners consistently discussed the importance of conducting
528 informal work with their clients (Halliwell, 1990). This informal work allowed the
529 practitioners to build relationships with the athletes (McGregor & Winter, 2017), providing
530 the foundation for the potential of more structured work (Haberl & Peterson, 2006).
531 Practitioners achieved this by making themselves 'visible' (Mellalieu, 2017) and by being
532 'present and available' (Tonn & Harmison, 2004) within their respective environments.

533 ***Working with Support Staff.*** Working with, and through, support staff was another
534 way applied practitioners attempted to overcome their lack of contact time with athletes and
535 influence the culture. Identifying, and building relationships with, key cultural influencers
536 (Larsen, 2017b; Mellalieu, 2017) was almost exclusively mentioned by experienced
537 practitioners as a way of: further integrating as a member of the support staff (Bull, 1995);
538 reinforcing their 'presence' (Males, 2006); earning trust and respect (Fifer et al., 2008); and
539 creating 'buy-in' to support the implementation of the psychology programme (Cotterill,
540 2017). This provided the experienced practitioners with the opportunity to impact the athletes
541 indirectly by working with the coaches (Cotterill, 2012; Loehr, 1990), but also ensured that
542 psychological support and provision was extended to the staff (Bull, 1995) and delivered to
543 key stakeholders within the environment (Neff, 1990). Delivering a psychology programme
544 to athletes and staff allowed the experienced practitioners to positively contribute towards the
545 team culture (Moyle, 2015) and the culture of the organisation as a whole (Stambulova &
546 Schinke, 2017) and increased their overall effectiveness as applied practitioners (Cecil, 2014;
547 Cotterill, 2012; Mellalieu, 2017).

548 **Competence-Related Angst.** Competence-related angst was a consistent feature
549 discussed by trainee and newly qualified practitioners in their reflective accounts. Their early
550 applied experiences focused on feelings of self-doubt (Collins & McCann, 2015),
551 apprehension (Katz, 2006), and pressure (Moyle, 2015). This higher-order theme was made
552 up of two lower-order themes; *self-doubt and anxiety prior to, and during, consultancy*
553 *experience* and *pressure at large tournaments and events*, which were underpinned by 12
554 unique codes.

555 ***Self-Doubt and Anxiety prior to, and during, Consultancy Experiences.*** Anxiety and
556 self-doubt were a consistent feature of the trainee and newly qualified practitioners' reflective
557 accounts. Their applied experiences were accompanied by anxiety, self-doubt, and
558 uncertainty immediately prior to, and during, applied practice (Barker et al., 2011; Cropley et
559 al., 2007; Woodcock et al., 2018). This competence-related angst was associated with
560 concerns of incompetence (Lindsay, 2017) and the need to demonstrate competence to
561 significant others (Giges, 2014). We speculated that for the early career practitioners,
562 engaging in reflective practice helped them understand that anxiety did not necessarily equate
563 to incompetence (Woodcock et al., 2008). The experienced practitioners were able to
564 highlight that anxiety was a consistent feature of service-delivery and something that
565 practitioners needed to accept (Tod, 2014). However, despite understanding that anxiety and
566 self-doubt would inevitably accompany initial applied experiences, the trainee and newly
567 qualified practitioners consistently discussed feelings of fraudulence earlier in their careers
568 (Colins et al., 2013; Lindsay & Thomas, 2014; Williams & Anderson, 2012), which led to
569 further feelings of helplessness (Rhodius, 2006), isolation (Lindsay et al., 2007), and the
570 overwhelming feeling of being 'thrown in at the deep end' (Collins et al., 2013).

571 ***Pressure at Large Tournaments and Events.*** Attending major events, such as the
572 Olympic games, intensified the pressure and doubts of the trainee and newly qualified

573 practitioners (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014; Henrikson, 2015; Moyle, 2015), which
574 contributed to further feelings of fraudulence during the service provision process (Collins et
575 al., 2013; Williams & Anderson, 2012). For the early career practitioners, the invitation to
576 attend a major event, and travel with the team, provided them with the sense that they had
577 ‘made it’ (Collins et al., 2013). However, supporting athletes in the build-up to these
578 competitions, and attendance at the events themselves, also significantly increased the
579 pressure these practitioners experienced (Brooks, 2007; Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014;
580 Timson, 2006). Practitioners highlighted the need to deliver ‘when it mattered’ (Henrikson,
581 2015), but also reflected on their inability to stay calm and focused (Henrikson, 2015) and the
582 increasing sense of doubt they experienced in relation to their own knowledge and
583 competence (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014).

584 **Support of Practitioner Development.** Support was discussed by all practitioners,
585 regardless of experience level, but was particularly emphasised in the trainee and newly
586 qualified practitioners’ reflective accounts. This higher-order theme was made up of two
587 lower-order themes; *peer support* and *supervisor support*, which were underpinned by 8
588 unique codes.

589 **Peer Support.** Trainee and newly qualified practitioners highlighted the importance of
590 sharing their experiences with empathetic peers (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014; Timson,
591 2006), as well as the importance of creating genuine connections with ‘critical friends’
592 (Moran, 2014) who would offer personal and professional support (Carr, 2007) and
593 encourage continuous engagement in reflective practice (Barker et al., 2011). Engaging with
594 ‘critical friends’ (Mellalieu, 2017) was viewed as particularly beneficial by the practitioners
595 who had the opportunity to seek support from other individuals working in a similar
596 environment to themselves (Cotterill, 2012). Engaging with peer support was viewed as
597 essential to the on-going development of practitioners, regardless of experience level (Barker

598 et al., 2011; Carr, 2007), but was particularly important for the trainee practitioners in
599 overcoming their anxiety and self-doubt (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014).

600 **Supervisor Support.** Trainee and newly qualified practitioners also highlighted the
601 integral roles their supervisors had in their on-going development (Carr, 2007). Trainee
602 practitioners focused on developing effective relationships with their supervisors (Cropley et
603 al., 2007) and placed high amounts of importance of this relationship (Jones et al., 2007),
604 which had the potential to increase their anxiety further, because of the trainees' need to
605 portray competence to their supervisors (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014). However, the trainee
606 practitioners mostly discussed the importance of their supervisors in overcoming this anxiety
607 and self-doubt associated with initial service-delivery experiences (Tonn & Harmison, 2004).

608 **Evaluating Practitioner Effectiveness.** Evaluation of effectiveness was a feature of
609 the reflective accounts regardless of the practitioners' experience level. However, we
610 theorised that practitioners at different stages of development reflected differently on how
611 (and in some cases why) they evaluated their practice. This higher-order theme was made up
612 of two lower-order themes; *proving your worth as an applied practitioner*, which was
613 discussed by trainee and newly qualified practitioners, and *judging the effectiveness of*
614 *interventions*, which was discussed by newly qualified and experienced practitioners.
615 Collectively, these lower-order themes were underpinned by 8 unique codes.

616 **Proving your Worth as an Applied Practitioner.** Within their reflective accounts,
617 trainee practitioners focused on the need to make a difference (Woodcock et al., 2008) and
618 the pressure to provide a solution (Tonn & Harmison, 2004; Wadsworth, 2019). As discussed
619 earlier, this was usually because the trainee practitioners wanted to demonstrate their worth
620 (Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014) and to overcome the anxieties associated with their early
621 applied experiences (Collins et al., 2013). Newly qualified practitioners also had an
622 awareness (similar to the trainees) that, because of the unpredictable nature of elite sport,

623 their job was always at risk and evaluation was difficult (Larsen 2017a). Newly qualified
624 practitioners focused on the need to ‘fix’ problems and be the ‘perfect’ psychologist
625 (Williams & Anderson, 2012). Similarly, the trainee practitioners discussed their eagerness to
626 apply theoretical content and ‘change the world’ (Märgärit, 2013).

627 ***Judging the Effectiveness of Interventions.*** Newly qualified practitioners
628 acknowledged the difficulties of evaluating their own practice (Henriksen, 2015) and used a
629 variety of methods in an attempt to achieve this (quantitative; Hung et al., 2008, qualitative;
630 Larsen, 2017b, and based on theoretically informed practice; Howells, 2017). Experienced
631 practitioners judged the quality of their service delivery based on the feedback gained from
632 their clients (the nature and quality of the relationship and their engagement with the process;
633 Bull, 1995; Neff, 1990; Tod, 2008) and also discussed the need to add value (Gordon, 2014),
634 especially when working as part of a multi-disciplinary team (Larsen, 2017b). However,
635 experienced practitioners did express concerns about not having anything ‘tangible’ to offer
636 (Tod, 2007), as well as the challenges of measuring ‘impact’ (Gordon, 2014).

637 **Summary.** In summary, the trainee practitioners reflected on: their attempts to
638 integrate within sporting environments (primarily as a way of proving their worth as applied
639 practitioners; Christensen & Aoyagi, 2014); adopting multiple roles within these
640 environments (Collins et al., 2013); experiencing inauthenticity and incongruence (Holt &
641 Streaan, 2001), and feelings of self-doubt and pressure (Woodcock et al., 2008). Newly
642 qualified practitioners also reflected on their experiences of self-doubt; related to their
643 perceived level of competence (Cropley et al., 2007), but in contrast to the trainee
644 practitioners, also chose to reflect on: their lack of contact time with athletes (Rowley et al.,
645 2012); the importance of practitioner self-care (Jackson, 2006); conflicts between self-
646 promotion and sound ethical practice (Lindsay & Thomas, 2014); and becoming more aware
647 of the connection between their beliefs and their applied approach (McGregor & Winter,

648 2017). The experienced practitioners were able to reflect on themselves (developing a
649 congruent professional identity; Andersen, 2014), but also chose to discuss how they as
650 individuals were able to effectively integrate within the culture in which they were situated to
651 support the needs of both individuals and organisations (Brooks, 2007; Fifer et al., 2008; Tod,
652 2014).

653 **Discussion**

654 The research team synthesized the reflective accounts of applied sport psychology
655 practitioners with the aim of highlighting common themes that provide focus to applied
656 practitioners' reflective practice. By achieving this aim, we offer readers an insight into
657 current progress on reflective content in applied sport psychology. The results add to existing
658 knowledge in two distinct, but interconnecting ways. By synthesizing the reflective accounts,
659 we are able to highlight what applied sport psychology practitioners, at different stages of
660 development, chose to reflect on based on their own experiences, challenges, and
661 developmental journeys. Furthermore, through this synthesis, we have been able to collate
662 the reflective accounts of applied practitioners in one place, which allows us to make
663 practical implications and offers readers the opportunity to engage in meta-reflection on the
664 themes presented.

665 Our analysis of the reflective accounts suggests that the experiences applied
666 practitioners choose to reflect on, vary dependent on the experience level of the practitioner
667 themselves. The developmental journeys of sport psychologists have been found to be similar
668 to that of counselling psychologists (Carlsson, 2012; McEwan & Tod, 2015; Ronnestad &
669 Skovholt, 2013; Worthington, 1987) and our findings support this. For example, theories of
670 practitioner development (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 2013) suggest optimal practitioner
671 development involves the integration of the personal self with the professional self. Based on
672 the trainee practitioners' reflective accounts, we theorised, through their consistent focus on

673 anxiety, self-doubt, and feelings of inauthenticity, that these individuals had not yet
674 established a congruent philosophy of practice (Holt & Streat, 2001). The neophyte
675 practitioners were beginning to achieve higher levels of awareness and consistency between
676 their values, beliefs, and behaviour by demonstrating, and discussing, a closer connection
677 between their applied practice and relevant psychological theory (Henrikson, 2015) and by
678 reflecting on how their values aligned to their behaviours (McGregor & Winter, 2017). The
679 experienced practitioners discussed their professional identity as an alignment between
680 person and professional, which allowed them to engage freely and naturally within their
681 environment and demonstrate authenticity and congruence (Lindsay, 2017). These findings
682 are consistent with the practitioner development literature and the process of practitioner
683 individuation (McEwan et al, 2019; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 2013; Wadsworth et al., 2021).

684 By understanding *what* applied practitioners, at different stages of development,
685 choose to reflect on, we have the opportunity to offer practical implications based on
686 practitioners' unique developmental needs. For example, our analysis suggests that, as well as
687 reflecting on different topics, applied practitioners also engage in the process of reflective
688 practice at different reflective levels (Anderson et al., 2004). Knowles and Gilbourne (2010)
689 have suggested that reflective practice can occur at three distinct levels: technically (was that
690 intervention effective?); practically (am I too emotionally involved with this client?); and
691 critically (what does this experience mean in relation to the broader culture and context?).
692 While these levels should not be viewed hierarchically, based on our earlier conceptualisation
693 of reflective practice (understanding self within the context of practice; Knowles et al., 2014),
694 applied practitioners may need to reflect at all three levels to facilitate an understanding of
695 how they as individuals fit into their social and cultural context. Knowles and Gilbourne
696 (2010) suggest that engaging in reflective practice at a critical level can be particularly useful
697 for practitioners who are currently engaged in, or coming towards the end of, their formal

698 training. However, we concluded that the trainee practitioners consistently reflected at a
699 technical or practical level (usually linked to concerns about their effectiveness or
700 competency; Knowles & Gilbourne, 2010). To engage in reflective practice at a critical level,
701 an individual must first understand themselves (and their experiences) before they can
702 understand the significance of their experiences in relation to the wider context. Trainee
703 practitioners did not demonstrate the ability to reflect on the connection between their
704 experiences (and associated feelings) and the development of a professional identity and
705 philosophy (Collins & McCann, 2015), preventing them from situating their experiences
706 within their social and cultural context. Our review, alongside the increase in published
707 reflective accounts, could be used as a frame of reference for trainee practitioners to critically
708 reflect on, and understand, what their applied experiences might mean in relation to their
709 context and the wider discipline. For example, instead of reflecting on how feelings of self-
710 doubt potentially lead to ineffective service delivery, trainee practitioners could ask the
711 question ‘what is it about this environment that is causing these feelings of pressure and
712 inauthenticity?’. Education providers (academic institutions/professional bodies, and
713 supervisors etc.) could also encourage trainee practitioners to engage in reflection as part of
714 contemplative practice, which has been shown to reduce initial consultation anxiety in
715 counselling practitioners (Cigrand, 2020) and may also reduce the sense of
716 incongruence/inauthenticity trainee practitioners experience, facilitating reflection at all three
717 reflective levels (Knowles & Gilbourne, 2010).

718 Our review also provides an insight into current progress on reflective content in
719 applied sport psychology and may present practitioners with the opportunity to engage in
720 meta-reflection (reflecting on reflections). By presenting common themes and experiences of
721 applied practitioners, readers can reflect on how their own experiences match the themes
722 presented here to facilitate their on-going development as practitioners (Huntley et al., 2014).

723 This may be particularly important for the newly qualified practitioners, who have
724 successfully demonstrated that they can meet all of the competencies and expectations of
725 their respective training pathways, but still have a significant amount to learn on their
726 developmental journey to becoming experienced practitioners (Rønnestad & Skovholt, 2013).
727 Our findings suggest that newly qualified practitioners consistently reflected upon engaging
728 with ‘critical friends’ following accreditation. By engaging with applied practitioners at a
729 similar stage of development, newly qualified practitioners would be able to continuously
730 engage in reflective practice (and meta-reflection) to facilitate their development and their
731 transition into applied practice following supervised training.

732 We chose thematic content analysis as the method of analysis for this systematic
733 review because it provided us with a method to synthesize the reflective accounts and achieve
734 the aim of the research. We created themes from the literature, which represented the unique
735 experiences of practitioners in different stages of development. Building on this, future work
736 could adopt other forms of qualitative inquiry, such as a narrative analysis, to add extra layers
737 of understanding and interpretation to reflective accounts. For example, by focusing on how
738 applied practitioners are telling their story and representing themselves within their own
739 narrative (via narrative analysis), a more in-depth critical insight into their developmental
740 journey could be captured. Narrative analysis would allow us to shift between the narrative
741 (how is the story being told?) and the product of the story (what is being said?) to better
742 understand the reflective accounts of applied practitioners (Smith & Sparkes, 2009).

743 Also, our review predominantly highlighted the reflective experiences of sport
744 psychology practitioners who are from, and work in, the Western, Educated, Industrialized,
745 Rich, and Democratic (WEIRD) (Henrich, et al., 2010) societies. Critically, to fully advance
746 our knowledge base and to develop CPD and training of global value there is a need to
747 embrace diversity and inclusivity (Shore et al., 2011). By only including papers written in

748 English, the majority of the accounts were from the United Kingdom and America, reducing
749 the international scope of the research. Including cross cultural collaboration may allow a
750 larger variety of reflective accounts written in languages other than English to be included.
751 Including cross cultural research would provide even more insight into the applied
752 experiences from practitioners situated in different cultures/countries and allow the voices of
753 those sport psychologists in and from non-western societies to be heard and their
754 development charted.

755 In this systematic review we have collated, and synthesized, the reflective accounts of
756 applied sport psychology practitioners. Our findings add to existing knowledge by
757 highlighting what applied sport psychology practitioners, at different stages of development,
758 choose to reflect on from their applied experiences. Our findings demonstrate that applied
759 practitioners, at different stages of development, differ in the topics they choose to discuss
760 and how they engage in the reflective process itself. This review can be used as a frame of
761 reference to help support applied practitioners' continued development, by encouraging
762 engagement in reflective practice at all three reflective levels (technical, practical, and
763 critical) and by facilitating the process of meta-reflection. If practitioners can understand how
764 their own experiences relate to the experiences of other practitioners, they can gain further
765 insight into the meaning behind their own applied experiences and begin to situate their
766 experiences within the discipline as a whole.

767

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