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| 5 | Research and Practice in Talent Identification and Development – Some Thoughts on |
| 6 | the State of Play |
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| 15 | Running Head: The State of Play in Talent Identification and Development |
| 16 | |

Abstract

| 18 | Although there has been considerable growth in talent identification and development |
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| 19 | research, the mixed quality and lack of applied focus means little has changed in the field. |
| 20 | We propose the Performance-Outcome-Process continuum, a structure which examines ideas |
| 21 | based on what and how they contribute to the talent development process. Reflecting a |
| 22 | pracademic focus we highlight the importance of understanding the processes and |
| 23 | mechanisms of development-focused constructs to best bridge the research-practice divide. |
| 24 | We suggest a pragmatic approach that prioritises the quality of research and the importance |
| 25 | of applied impact; at least in research which claims to be <i>for</i> sport. |
| 26 | Lay Summary: To bridge the research-practice divide in Talent Identification and |
| 27 | Development, it is important that translational and pragmatic research becomes the norm, |
| 28 | with progression from the retrospective studies which have been typical in this domain. |
| 29 | Focusing on the processes and mechanisms that generate <i>comprehensive</i> development would |
| | |
| 30 | seem a logical step especially for investigations that want to make a difference in applied |
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Research and Practice in Talent Identification and Development – Some Thoughts on the State of Play

| 37 | The last 25 years has seen a concentration of research in Talent Identification and |
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| 38 | Development (TID). Unfortunately, as we will argue, the mixed quality and unclear applied |
| 39 | focus of much of this research, together with organisational inertia on the part of many |
| 40 | National Governing Bodies and associated agencies, means that relatively little has changed |
| 41 | in the TID landscape at a systems level compared to what we know on the basis of empirical |
| 42 | evidence. Indeed, we contend that even quality research has found it difficult to infiltrate |
| 43 | applied practice in sport. For example, early specialisation (Güllich, 2014; Moesch, Trier- |
| 44 | Hauge, Wikman, & Elbe, 2013), "snapshot" talent identification protocols (Abbott, Button, |
| 45 | Pepping, & Collins, 2005), and an emphasis on the accumulation of deliberate practice |
| 46 | (Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Romer, 1993) continue to be common approaches to TID across |
| 47 | many sports despite the significant evidence countering these ideas (e.g., Baker, Schorer, & |
| 48 | Wattie, 2017). |

49 From a methodological viewpoint, we would suggest that the quality of some research and, particularly, the ongoing use of single methodologies explains the gap between research 50 51 and practice. These methodological decisions may well be due to a *perhaps* inevitable difference between research focused primarily on application and that for more directly 52 academic purposes: what Collins and Kamin (2012) refer to as science for sport as opposed to 53 54 science of or through sport. Our point here is that, whilst certain research can be well designed and impactful in addressing its specified research questions (e.g., interview-based 55 studies of elite performers; Hardy et al., 2017; or research examining the accumulation of 56 deliberate practice; Ericsson et al., 1993), it may be less effective in informing practice. In 57 this respect, it is unfortunate that the applied merit of research continues to be under-58 emphasised in debates on research quality. For example, whilst Levitt, Motulsky, Wertz, 59

Morrow, and Ponterotto describe integrity in qualitative research as "whether the 60 implementation of fidelity and utility function coherently together" (p.2, 2016), their meaning 61 62 of utility seems more related to research that achieves its academic goals rather than the actual applied value (another important type of utility) of these goals in the first place. 63 Indeed, past and present discussions (e.g., Sparkes & Smith, 2009) have tended to focus on 64 65 improving the *process* and *internal coherence* of research rather than improving its *purpose* 66 and *external impact*. This difference is important, especially if work in TID is to be considered as an applied science. At the very least, the highly *individual* perspective 67 68 described in autobiographical (e.g., Howell & Fletcher, 2015) and some qualitative research (e.g., Collins, MacNamara, & McCarthy, 2016; Hardy et al., 2017) would seem questionable 69 as the sole basis for advising practitioners on how to work generally with athletes. We would 70 71 also argue that TID now needs to progress from research replicating outcomes already shown 72 in the literature (e.g., Hardy et al., 2017) towards translational work that bridges the gap between research and practice. Of course, replication focused on real, practically meaningful 73 findings is very useful but we would argue that overcoming the methodological limitations of 74 TID studies and identifying ways to use research to improve TID practices should be the key 75 consideration moving forward, at least for those espousing an applied focus. Therefore, it 76 seems timely to consider the current focus within TID research, proposing future directions, 77 and methodological approaches to bridge the gap between research and practice in order to 78 79 conduct research "that makes a difference".

80 A Structure for Ideas: The Performance - Outcome - Process (POP) Structure

As a first step in addressing the research-practice divide, we would like to suggest a structure which can be applied to the myriad approaches which exist within TID and related areas. The idea being to situate findings within a structure of how they contribute to the overall process of TID, thus providing practitioners with evidence-based recommendations about the processes and outcomes that lead to the desired performance. The PerformanceOutcome-Process (POP) continuum looks at ideas within a hierarchy, based on what and how
they contribute to the TID process. We start at the top of the continuum with performance;
specifically, what the goal is when working with athletes¹.

Performance. The ultimate aim of any talent pathway is to develop athletes with the 89 90 ability to perform at the highest level. This focus on *eventual* performance has resulted in a body of research that has examined the multiple factors associated with successful 91 92 development (e.g., Ericsson et al., 1993; Philips, Davids, Renshaw, & Portus, 2010; Tucker & Collins, 2012). In practical terms, however, such information with a developmental focus 93 (i.e., "performance later") is often confused with empirical findings concerned with 94 "achievement now". For example, coaches are often trained towards the generation of 95 performance now (Visek et al., 2015) and such success can certainly bring some reputational 96 97 capital. Being successful in front of your coaching peers is clearly important within the 98 social structures which play such a large part in coaching communities (Jones, 2000; Stoszkowski & Collins, 2012). This is to some extent understandable; the time lag between 99 coaching a young promising athlete and his/her eventual success at senior level can be long 100 101 and human nature prefers more immediate gratification. Our point here is that, for a variety of reasons, talent development (TD) requires a different mindset, approach, community and 102 103 overall organisational structure than doing what most coaches are normally trained to do -WIN. Of course, some sports are recognising this through the implementation of specifically 104 development-focused training (e.g., the FA's Advanced Youth Award) but there is still a need 105 for a culture change in TD circles in terms of talent. So, for the present purpose, coaches, 106 researchers and organisations need to be very clear about what they are working to achieve. 107

¹ For the purpose of this paper, athlete is used to cover any performer within a physical task performance pathway (e.g., sport, dance)

In crude terms, performance today *or* tomorrow may be the choice needed, albeit that the
balance may sensibly be changed systematically as players progress up the pathway (cf.
Webb et al. 2016).

Outcome. Once the exact performance target has been specified, the next challenge 111 is to decide on the outcome deliverables which will take the athlete there. In our experience, 112 these can be seen as falling into two groups, with some overlap between the two. The first 113 114 can be thought of as taxonomies of characteristics needed for the target performance in question. Some are empirically based, such as the "11 Model" in football, developed by 115 116 Jordet (2016). Others have been developed by working groups of coaches, such as the CARDS model used by the RFU (England Rugby, 2017). In such cases, the models offer an 117 outcome-focused curriculum towards which TID coaches can work. Notably, these models 118 often include psychological constructs; for example, coping with pressure in the 11 Model or 119 resilience within the CARDS model. Additionally, and presumably, these characteristic 120 taxonomy models would claim to address the essential list of "what it takes" to be successful, 121 given that success (i.e., performance in our POP structure) is operationalised in these cases 122 as future achievement. 123

Our suggested second category of outcome deliverables is built around specific 124 psychological constructs, deemed causative of the target performance. Such examples 125 include grit (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, & Kelly, 2007), the growth mindset (Dweck, 126 127 2017), resilience (Seligman, 2011; Sarkar & Fletcher, 2016), and self-control (Toering & Jordet, 2015). The constructs in this second category often contain elements of both trait and 128 contextual behaviour, suggesting that training may build both the tendency to habitually 129 130 apply them and the skill to apply them to novel contexts. Albeit individual constructs rather than broader taxonomies, the idea is again that these outcomes allow individuals to make it to 131 the top. 132

We would like to make two points about these outcome models and their place in the 133 existing and emerging research picture: firstly, how they may fail to address the full picture 134 and secondly, a consideration of ways in which these outcomes are achieved. First of all, 135 consider the validity of the models and constructs proposed. We would suggest that, of those 136 listed above, only the 11 Model could have some claim to represent a *comprehensive* list of 137 the skills needed. Of course, all the models are clearly and definitely valuable, and ongoing 138 139 research from a variety of sources adds to the evidence for their utility – none of which we question. But are any of them the whole or even a large part of the picture? We would 140 141 suggest not. The challenges documented by pathway athletes are widely varied, suggesting that any of the aforementioned constructs would not *solely* prepare the athlete for the whole 142 pathway. 143

Secondly, we would suggest that all the constructs will need some skills to be taught 144 and practised before they can be relied on to work "under fire" and in response to 145 146 developmental challenge - a position which is perhaps in contrast to some other work. It is true that some research suggests, or at least intimates, that development accrues as a direct 147 *consequence* from challenge. In other words, if I suffer trauma then the inevitable outcome is 148 a bunch of skills which help me make it to the top. In one such study, Van Yperen (2009) 149 showed that footballers who eventually made it to the elite level were significantly higher in 150 151 acknowledged "challenge" factors such as number of siblings, minority ethnicity and divorced parents than those who did not achieve at the highest level. Other studies have used 152 autobiographical and biographical accounts (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2012; Sarkar & Fletcher, 153 2014) or detailed retrospective interviews (e.g., Hardy et al., 2017) to demonstrate the role of 154 life experiences, adversity, and trauma in particular, in the development of elite athletes. We 155 would have to question this finding from both methodological and applied perspectives, 156 citing the importance of what athletes bring to the challenges (Savage, Collins, & 157

Cruickshank, 2017), learn from prospective training (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2016), or post hoc,
supportive debriefs (Joseph, Murphy & Regel, 2012). These points are important because for
every one person who survives or benefits from childhood trauma, there would seem to be a
lot more who crash and burn.

We have made these points before (Collins et al., 2016) but reiterate them here as 162 163 crucial to the development of *comprehensive* skillsets in TID athletes. In short, we would suggest that no one construct or model mentioned in the Outcome section above offers either 164 the comprehensive skillset required or enough detail on how this could and should be 165 developed. Though undoubtedly important, being resilient, gritty, or having a growth mindset 166 cannot therefore be the whole answer. Instead, understanding, then teaching and refining a 167 broad range of generic skills in young people, which they can then apply to the different 168 challenges of development, would seem a sensible way forward. Hence, we turn to the third 169 and underpinning level of our POP structure - process. 170

Process. Reflecting a pracademic focus, and the need to generate effective and 171 applicable answers to TID issues, we propose an emphasis on the mechanisms and processes 172 that underpin the young athlete's ability to make the most of the developmental opportunities 173 they are afforded. Extending from our arguments above, these processes must be both 174 comprehensive (i.e., cater for the full range of challenges and contexts) and proactively 175 176 developable as the athlete proceeds along the pathway. For example, incremental theories (such as growth mindset, which sees ability as something which can be grown) may be best 177 applied through an understanding of how they operate and the processes that underpin the 178 179 outcome behaviours. In this regard, growth mindset may relate to, or even be a product of, self-regulatory learning (e.g., Burnette, O'Boyle, VanEpps, Pollack, & Finkel, 2013) while 180 grit's positive effects are thought by some as attributable to perseverance, which is itself 181 related to motivation and self-drive (Credé, Tynan, & Harms, 2017). As such, we would 182

highlight the importance of understanding the processes and underlying mechanisms of
development-focused constructs to best support the integration of these ideas into applied
TID procedures. In short, understanding the *skills* that athletes need to achieve a growth
mindset or be gritty.

In regard to this skills development approach, we have tested for, refined and 187 proposed (see Collins & MacNamara, 2017a) the systematic teaching, testing and tweaking of 188 189 a set of essential skills, the Psychological Characteristics of Developing Excellence (PCDEs), as a logical way to prepare young people for the "ups and downs" of development. This set 190 191 of empirically derived skills (MacNamara, Collins, & Button, 2010) are proactively developed through a teach then test and refine approach, offering young athletes a toolbox 192 with which they have practised and are confident in using to counter a variety of challenges, 193 194 both real and contrived (Collins & MacNamara, 2017b). The skill set involved has been 195 shown to be comprehensive enough to help athletes cope with, and optimally benefit from, the range of challenge inherent in their pathway (Collins & MacNamara, 2017a). In short, 196 focusing on the process and teaching the skills whilst building on experiences, both planned 197 or naturally occurring, can generate growth mindset, grit, and/or resilience as the 198 aforementioned outcome deliverables. 199

In completing the proposal of this POP structure, it is important to acknowledge that 200 201 several solutions are possible. We would clearly not claim a monopoly on truth with the PCDE model; different, and more appropriate, lists for specific contexts may be proposed. 202 Indeed, we regularly review and refine this list by, crucially, using a combination of research 203 and in-the-field experience with athletes and TID practitioners. Consequently, the current list 204 205 of PCDEs (i.e., commitment, focus and distraction control, realistic performance evaluations, self-awareness, coping with pressure, planning and self-organisation, goal-setting, quality 206 practice, effective imagery, actively seeking social support) are the result of over 20 years of 207

research and field testing. In our (e.g., Collins & MacNamara, 2017a) and others' (e.g., 208 Newton & Holmes, 2017) experience, the approach works very well. We would hope that 209 future comprehensive lists build on this rather than "reinvent the wheel". We also recognise 210 that several of the PCDEs can be criticised as "chicken or egg" constructs. So, is resilience a 211 crucial omission from the list or can it be achieved through using a combination of skills 212 selected from the "hand of cards" which is how the PCDEs are taught (cf. Collins et al., 213 214 2016)? Our point here is more one of principle and reflects the POP model presented earlier. Namely, that TID research must equip practitioners with a comprehensive toolbox and the 215 216 means to develop and facilitate a comprehensive skillset in athletes. Based on this philosophical but ecologically valid stance, we would see the common current practice of 217 pursuing one or other sole construct as epistemologically flawed. 218

219 Methodological Progressions for TID Research

220 As our second opportunity for improvement in this "state of the nation" review, it is 221 also important to consider the ways in which research is conducted to inform TID processes and systems. The vast majority of research in TID, at least those studies focused on the 222 psycho-behavioural and psycho-social factors associated with development, adopt a 223 qualitative approach (e.g., Bjorndal & Ronlan, 2017; Henriksen, Larsen, & Christensen, 224 2014; Hill, MacNamara, & Collins, 2015). Typically, retrospective interviews are conducted 225 226 with elite athletes who are asked to reflect on their career trajectory. This approach dominates since it is impossible to predict which young performer will reach the highest level 227 in his or her activity, and therefore one can only identify outstanding athletes "after the fact" 228 (Côté, Ericsson, & Law, 2005, p. 15). While these studies have provided a useful starting 229 point for examining TID, there are a number of methodological limitations that must be 230 acknowledged (e.g., self-report bias, hindsight bias; Coolican, 2004). Of most concern from 231 the applied perspective is the accuracy and quality of data presented and then used to inform 232

TID practices. For example, when using retrospective recall, respondents are likely to recall 233 only a small number of vivid experiences that may, but also may not, be genuinely 234 representative of their developmental trajectory (cf. Brown & Kulik's flashbulb memories, 235 1977). The recall of these vivid memories is also liable to be influenced by implicitly 236 aggregating many years of accumulated experience as well as an integration of current 237 attitudes and behaviours (Côté et al., 2005). These limitations can be managed by concrete 238 239 attempts to ensure that participants recount their experiences relevant to particular stages of development. For example, both early (MacNamara et al., 2010) and more recent (Howells 240 241 & Fletcher, 2015) retrospective studies have used a graphic time-line to break down the individual's career into stages using salient temporal boundaries. This approach 242 notwithstanding, our main point is that the long-term memory of some individuals alone is 243 not the most stable of data sources through which to inform general TID practices for others. 244 Unfortunately, however, it is precisely this type of data on which many TID studies - and 245 implications for practice - have been based. 246

Although the accuracy of recall information from personally interviewed participants, 247 especially when conducted retrospectively and without concrete questioning and coding 248 249 structures, may be relatively unreliable as a source to generalise to others, the systematic bias inherent in the recall of autobiographical information may be of even greater concern. Ross 250 251 (1989) suggests that this bias is the result of reconstruction and inferences, with participants (both the performer and the researcher) relying on their current feelings, attitudes, and 252 situations to extrapolate what they think they might have thought or experienced at earlier 253 stages of their careers. Given these issues, it is surprising to see athlete autobiographies used 254 255 as the sole data source in some recent studies of elite athletes (e.g., Howells & Fletcher, 2015) given that "autobiographies, rather than seeking historical accuracy or objective truth, 256 seek to offer deep insights into subjective expressions of experience ... [and] emphasize not 257

facts, but personal experiences and personal lives as cultural constructions" (Stewart, Smith, 258 & Sparkes, 2011 p. 583). Simply, autobiographies do not attempt to relate back to the 259 general experience of others and therefore their purpose is more self-serving rather than 260 science-serving. Indeed, and with reference to Levitt et al.'s (2016) assertions noted earlier, 261 autobiographical studies may certainly yield "hi-fidelity" data but their utility to drive 262 tomorrows' practice must be carefully considered. In short, TID is a complex situation which 263 264 is unlikely to be well addressed by reading a filtered account of an athlete's own memories and perceived experiences (Freeman, 2001), often ghost-written to persuade the audience, 265 266 raise the author's profile and for financial gains rather than to capture the truth of the experience and inform system-level change. Of course, as some qualitative research gurus 267 have suggested (Sparkes & Stewart, 2016), these techniques do offer an insight into the 268 individual's reflections on her or his experience. However, following from our earlier 269 270 comments on the focus of the research (science for sport or science of, and, through sport), surely trustworthiness and generalisability are also valid issues? Furthermore, the 271 272 retrospective nature of these data (i.e., retrospective interviews and autobiographical studies) means that the status of the athlete will influence their perception of the route to the top; 273 those who do not make it to the top of their sport are likely to regard certain developmental 274 challenges differently than their more successful counterparts. As such, the athlete's eventual 275 success will undoubtedly colour their perception of the pathway and this impression 276 277 management and bias might be even more of a factor for athletes still involved in the sport. The key point here is the need to question the use of "single" methodologies in many 278 TID studies and go beyond post-hoc descriptions of athletic careers. We are very aware of 279

this as a potential shortcoming having conducted studies of this nature ourselves and have
subsequently stressed the need for triangulation of multiple measures across studies (Collins,
MacNamara, & McCarthy, 2016; Collins & MacNamara, 2017a). In this regard, the use of

(2017), where a team of different disciplines work together on TID issues (using multiple
methods across studies), would seem one obvious, if overdue, answer.

286 Where Next? The Need for a New "Tolerance" in Pragmatic Research

In order to close the research-practice divide in TID research, we suggest a pragmatic approach that prioritises both the quality of research and the importance of applied impact; at least in research which claims to be *for* sport (Giacobbi, Poczwardowski, & Hager, 2005). Notably, while most research appeals to markers of quality around the technical aspects of the investigative process, pragmatic research encourages this *and*, more fundamentally, a consideration of the "so what?" principle (Bryant, 2009, para. 47). In other words, what difference has the work delivered for improving the lives and actions of those studied?

294 Of course, against this applied emphasis, we are aware that there may firstly need to be a greater understanding, tolerance, or specific acceptance of pragmatic research in the TD 295 community. More specifically, the need to better understand how phenomena and 296 interventions really impact developing athletes should encourage researchers to acquire rich 297 qualitative data but in combination with quantitative approaches that enable future, 298 generalizable action; or, in the case of any qualitative-only work, approaches that at least 299 generate more generalizable evidence than typical small sample and, in particular, 300 autobiography-based work (e.g., the matched-triad design in Collins et al., 2016). Of course, 301 302 any mixed methods (or "best of both worlds") solutions will require careful design if they are to have optimal methodological integrity (Morgan, 2014). Indeed, the challenges of quality 303 in mixed methods research must be acknowledged given previously neglected issues 304 305 (Sparkes, 2015); especially as results are likely to (or *should*) play a central role in evolving structures, systems and theory. In this respect, Sparkes (2015) has already highlighted 306 Mason's (2006, p.3) earlier assertion that: 307

Researchers engaging in mixed methods research need to have a clear sense of the logic and purpose of their approach and of what they are trying to achieve, because this ultimately must underpin their practical strategy not only for choosing and deploying a particular mix of methods, but crucially also for linking their data analytically.

As well as for researchers, these points also apply to journal editors and reviewers; in short, 313 314 the peer-review process must also recognize the logic and purpose of applied, mixed method studies as this perspective should ultimately underpin the *evaluation* of the described methods 315 316 and analysis. Accordingly, and as further suggested by Sparkes (2015), editors and reviewers will have to judge the quality of the qualitative elements with criteria that are at least in 317 addition to those espoused in qualitative-only research (e.g., Sparkes & Smith, 2009); in 318 effect, criteria relating to how well the qualitative parts contribute to advancing practice in 319 320 the broader, target population. Of course, pragmatic research, just like every other form of research, has received some "bad press" and some might argue that it defies principles of 321 methodological integrity (cf. Sparkes, 2015). However, and just like these other forms of 322 research, this bad press has not always been accurate or balanced. For example, Sparkes 323 (2015), drawing on the arguments of Lincoln (2010) and others, has summarised that 324 pragmatists "are not required to tell us anything about their ontological or epistemological 325 positions" and "[may] declare that one's philosophical belief system is irrelevant to how 326 327 research gets conducted". However, while these points might be the case for some pragmatists and *some* research, the pragmatic philosophy *can and does* encourage ontological 328 and epistemological transparency, as others (e.g., Corbin & Strauss, 2008) and ourselves have 329 330 previously attempted to adhere to (e.g., Savage et al., 2017).

Returning to the case of TID, we see it as entirely appropriate that qualitative-like 331 approaches, in conjunction with quantitative-based measures, may therefore be used to offer a 332 rich but generalizable and practically meaningful picture of developing groups (Johnson & 333 Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In this regard we concur with Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's perspective 334 that "differences in epistemological beliefs (such as a difference in beliefs about the 335 appropriate logic of justification) should not prevent a qualitative researcher from utilizing 336 data collection methods more typically associated with quantitative research, and vice versa" 337 (p. 15). One might consider this as similar to the use of a particular pan-theoretical 338 339 technique in applied sport psychology. The same technique may be used by practitioners from a humanistic, cognitive behavioural or even NLP perspective. The perspective will, of 340 course, impact on the outcome. However, the tool, whilst it should be clearly situated against 341 a philosophical approach, can be employed across domains. Again, from a pragmatic 342 perspective, our suggestion throughout the paper is that the most appropriate mixture of 343 methods should be used in order to answer important research questions (Maxcy, 2003). We 344 will examine this broader issue of pragmatic research in a future paper but, for the moment, 345 triangulation would seem to be an important tool in the pursuit of high utility findings that are 346 developed primarily for TID practice. 347

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In terms of what pragmatic research should specifically focus on next, we urge 349 researchers to consider what we need to know to advance the field. In order to advance, we 350 suggest a need for prospective, longitudinal, multi-method, and contextually situated studies 351 that examine performers' experiences, skills, supports, and roadblocks (a focus on process as 352 defined in the POP model above). Another useful next step would focus on larger cohort 353 studies that track individuals ("good" and "poor" developers) against group and individual 354 355 profiles. For example, if sport-related challenge is an important aspect of the TID journey (and our and others' work to date suggests strongly that it is) we need to understand the 356 357 mechanisms underpinning this phenomenon. The post-traumatic growth literature certainly suggests that post-event interventions that help people learn from the challenge and counter 358 the negatives are essential in order to accrue benefits from that experience (Joseph et al., 359 360 2012). It is also important, however, that research investigates the utility of *pre-traumatic* growth. Essentially, what skills can be developed a priori so that performers can cope, learn 361 from, and benefit as a result of developmental challenge. In this regard, we suggest a focus 362 on examining the underlying processes and mechanisms for what is needed to generate 363 *comprehensive* development, rather than a concentration on particular outcomes such as 364 resilience or growth mindset. This would seem to offer the best applied information and may 365 also provide the most parsimonious explanation across the many psychological trait/state 366 constructs. Of course, there is a clear need to concurrently test the validity of this approach 367 368 using longitudinal research designs.

Finally, and to address a confusion to which our own work has contributed (Collins & 369 MacNamara, 2012), there is a need to clarify how *much* trauma is needed for such growth to 370 occur and where it should come from. Are top performers really made by severe life trauma 371 as suggested by some researchers (e.g., Sarkar, Fletcher, & Brown, 2015)? Or is a process of 372 challenge, often sport-related, the best way to support development (e.g., Collins et al., 373 2016)? In short, an important question to which better research techniques should be applied 374 375 is the extent to which life defining *trauma* or developmentally impactful, acute, and perhaps traumatic phases of challenge impacts development. From a pragmatic point of view we can 376 377 see greater implications for practice accruing from the second position in terms of the qualitative nature of the trauma (e.g., the amount and timing of challenge on the pathway) 378 and exploiting the pre- and post-challenge experience of the athlete in order to optimise this 379 experience. 380

381 In Conclusion

To summarise, we see some exciting possibilities and important next steps for 382 research, practice, and application in the TID field. In order to advance, prospective, 383 longitudinal, multi-method, and contextually situated studies are required. Essentially, this 384 call extends to asking for an increase in translational research – working with and for sports – 385 that bridges the gap between research and practice, especially in cases where the 386 investigations want to genuinely make a difference in applied settings. As explored by 387 several researchers, this may well involve a culture change in the way research in our field is 388 evaluated. There seems little doubt to us that the impact of "objective evaluations" such as 389 390 the UK Research Excellence Framework (REF 2021) have served to change the nature of our field. The move towards genuinely impactful applied research has recently seen several 391 392 institutions advertise for and appoint positions in translational research -a welcome step but 393 one which needs to gather momentum. In the meantime, and at the other end of the

394 translational spectrum, there has been an exponential growth in blog-based opinion pieces and twitter gurus as a primary, even preferred source of information (cf. MacNamara & 395 Collins, 2015). Importantly for the present purpose, only a few of these are active 396 researchers. Once again, a culture change that sees primary research consumers encouraged 397 and facilitated to be both acquisitive and critical would seem to represent an important step. 398 We hope readers with a pracademic orientation will take this paper as both encouragement 399 and a call to arms, so that even more translational, pragmatic, "make a difference" research 400 impacts our field. 401

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