Parental Involvement in Sport during Early-Mid Adolescence:

Perspectives from Parent-Child Dyads

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Abstract

The purpose of this Master’s thesis was to document parents’ and their children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during early-mid adolescence. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight parent-child dyads, composed of eight athletes (three males, five females) between 12 and 16 years of age ($M = 14$) and eight parents (six males, two females) between 36 and 53 years of age ($M = 44$). The dyads recruited were involved in four team sports: basketball ($n = 3$), ice hockey ($n = 2$), soccer ($n = 2$), and Canadian football ($n = 1$). Based on the data collected, two articles were written. In article one, Basic Needs Theory (BNT) was used as a theoretical framework (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) to examine parents’ and their children’s perspectives on how parental involvement in sport influences basic psychological needs during early-mid adolescence. The findings revealed how parental behaviours were generally believed to satisfy athletes’ basic psychological needs within the sport context, although need frustration was also reported. Article two explored how parents’ interactions with coaches and teammates were perceived to influence the sport climate. The findings demonstrated the importance of having parents make efforts to establish friendly and supportive relationships with their children’s coaches and teammates to nurture a positive sport climate. Collectively, the findings from this Master’s thesis contribute to the literature by providing a theoretically-informed and nuanced portrait of parental involvement in youth sport.
Introduction

Millions of young people in Canada take part in organised sport (Canadian Heritage, 2012). An essential aspect to consider within youth sport participation is the development of cognitive, emotional, and social assets (Johnston, Harwood, & Minniti, 2013). Although there are many benefits to youth sport participation, it is important to consider the possible negative outcomes deriving from this context, such as high levels of pressure and stress, negative self-perceptions, and negative interactions (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009; Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003; Holt, Tamminen, Tink, & Black, 2009). Adolescents’ experience in sport has been demonstrated to be highly influenced by the motivational climate in which their participation occurs. Through their behaviours and interactions, adult have been shown to exert a considerable influence on adolescents within sport (Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003; Holt & Knight, 2014; MacNamara, Button, & Collins, 2010). Within the Canadian Sport Policy (2012), adequate adult role modeling is stated to occur when sport leaders, coaches, and parents support safe, healthy, value-based sport. Considering the influence of adult leaders on sport participation outcomes, there is a need to further understand how adult behaviours foster positive sport experiences for adolescents.

As past studies have demonstrated, the parent-child relationship can have a great influence on the nature of adolescents’ sport experience (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005; Higginson, 1985; Ommundsen, Roberts, & Lemyre, 2006). Although there is a sizable body of evidence on coaches’ influence within sport (e.g., Appleton & Duda, 2016; Curran, Hill, Hall, Jowett, 2015; Fry, 2010), fewer studies have looked at parents’ influence (e.g., Knight, Dorsch, Osai, Haderlie, & Sellars, 2016; Knight & Holt, 2013). To ensure adolescents derive positive
experiences from their participation in sport, it is necessary to further examine how parents influence the nature of their children’s sport-related experiences.

**Research Purpose**

The purpose of this Master’s thesis was to examine parents’ and their children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during early-mid adolescence. The perspectives of 16 participants, from eight parent-child dyads, were gathered and compared to determine convergence and divergence of perspectives as it relates to parental involvement in sport.

**Paradigmatic Position**

A paradigm is comprised of ontological, epistemological, and methodological beliefs that together form a worldview. Ontology is the form and nature of reality and what can be known about it. Epistemology is concerned with the relationship between individuals and knowledge. Methodology refers to the processes and procedures used to gather data during research (Ponterotto, 2005). Taken together, these beliefs form the view in which researchers choose to demonstrate and argue their findings. The principles of the constructivist paradigm were used to interpret the data of this Master’s thesis.

The main tenet of the constructivist paradigm is that there exist multiple socially-constructed realities, influenced by the dynamic interactions between individuals and the context within which interactions occur over time. Perceptions of reality are influenced by one’s culture, gender, and values (Ponterotto, 2005). In this regard, multiple realities exist and are dependent on each individual’s experience. The constructivist paradigm represents a suitable approach for the present thesis as the researcher interviewed participants of different age, life experience, culture, gender, and social background, resulting in the construction of a variety of realities as it pertains to the parent-child relationship within sport.
Review of Literature

The review of literature is divided in five sections. In the first section, adolescents’ developmental experiences in sport are examined. In the second section, literature on motivational climate is documented. In the third section, parents’ involvement in their children’s sport participation is explored. In the fourth section, interactions between different social agents within sport are examined. The final section addresses the gaps identified in the literature to build the rationale for the present thesis.

Adolescents’ Developmental Experiences in Sport

As individuals navigate their way through adolescence, they encounter a variety of challenging life situations, such as developing their identity, striving for greater autonomy, and sustaining positive relationships with significant others. Due to changes that have occurred within Western society over the last few generations (e.g., greater number of families where both parents work; Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005), organised programs have been deemed important activities to occupy adolescents’ spare time, while also allowing for skills and interests to be developed (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). The National Research Council and Institute of Medicine (NRCIM, 2002) has outlined eight features that should be present in organised programs to foster optimal development: physical and psychological safety, appropriate structure, supportive relationships, opportunities to belong, positive social norms, support for efficacy and mattering, opportunities for skill building, and integration of family, school, and community efforts. Such features align with the tenets of the positive youth development (PYD) framework (Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005), which represents a strength-based approach to development. PYD is posited to occur when youth experience programs that emphasise the 5C’s of confidence, competence, connection, character, and caring. By targeting
the assets needed for successful development through constructive opportunities, organised programs can contribute to the welfare of their community (Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005).

In particular, sport programs have been identified as suitable activities for adolescents as they can be framed to promote the eight NRCIM features and foster PYD. Further, sport has been deemed to offer particularly worthwhile opportunities for development as it provides a level of challenge, concentration, and motivation that is often not present in many other types of extracurricular activities (Larson, 2000). However, to promote development, sport program must be framed in manners that respect adolescents’ individuality, provide them with leadership opportunities, and help them envision a positive future (Hellison & Cutforth, 1997). Given that sport is an activity practiced by millions, sport programs have the potential to influence a large segment of the adolescent population (Larson, 2000). The acquisition of motor skills is an important aspect of sport involvement but other elements (e.g., life skills and values) must also be incorporated within youth sport programming for adolescents to optimally benefit from their sporting experiences (Koh & Camiré, 2015). Thus, the sport environment appears to have inherent features conducive to experiences of a particular nature that can contribute to adolescents’ psychosocial, emotional, and physical development.

Empirical research has provided evidence for how sport programs can be grounds for adolescent development. Hansen, Larson, and Dworkin (2003) explored adolescents’ learning experiences in different activities (e.g., faith-based and service, academic and leadership, performance and fine arts, community organisations and vocational clubs, and sports) by administering the Youth Experience Survey to 450 students (Grade 9, 11, and 12) from a medium sized American high school. The participants were asked to respond to the survey based on their experience in their primary activity. The results demonstrated how the adolescents
involved in sport had higher rates of learning experiences for self-knowledge, emotional regulation, and physical skills experiences, but also higher rates of negative peer interaction and inappropriate adult behaviours. Holt and colleagues (2009) examined the learning of life skills through involvement in competitive sport programs. Twenty males and 20 females between 20 and 24 years of age who had participated in sport as children and adolescents were interviewed. The findings demonstrated that team and individual sports were contexts that fostered the ability to work as a team, good work ethic, personal responsibility, and persistence. However, results also showed that coaches’ overemphasis on winning led to negative outcomes such as high levels of pressure and stress and low levels of self-esteem. Bean and Forneris (2014) examined the perceived impact of an organised sport program on adolescents’ growth and development. Eighty-four males and 24 females between 11 and 18 years of age from Eastern Ontario completed the Youth Experiences Survey (Hansen & Larson, 2005). Of those participants, 10 adolescents also took part in semi-structured interviews. Results revealed that the program offered experiences that fostered adolescents’ psychosocial (e.g., positive relationships with peers, sense of belonging in their community, respect of others), emotional (e.g., manage their emotions) and physical development (e.g., athletic skills). Harrison and Narayan (2003) compared the psychosocial functioning of adolescents participating in school sports, other types of activities (e.g., clubs, volunteer work, choir), and nonparticipants. The sample included 50,168 grade nine students from 326 schools in Minnesota recruited through the Minnesota Student Survey. The results revealed that students involved in sport (alone or in combination with other extracurricular activities) were more likely to report high self-esteem and less likely to report sadness, anxiety, and suicidal ideas. This comparative analysis demonstrates that engagement in sport is associated with particular benefits that do not manifest themselves in other extra-curricular activities or when adolescents are uninvolved. Camiré and Trudel (2013) examined coaches and adolescents’ perspectives on athlete development in high school football.
Nine coaches and 18 adolescents shared their perspectives on how the adolescents benefited personally and academically from participating in football through individual and focus group interviews. The findings demonstrated that the coaches used several strategies to promote life skills (e.g., teaching leadership principles, sharing personal stories of perseverance). Both the adolescents and the coaches believed that life skills were learned in football and transferred to school, work, and other settings. From a social perspective, the adolescents stated that playing football increased their feeling of connectedness to the school, cultivated a sense of belonging, and expanded their social network. Holt, Tink, Mandigo, and Fox (2008) conducted a case study examining how adolescents learned life skills through their involvement in a high school soccer team. Participants included 12 male adolescents in grades 10-12 and their head coach from a Canadian high school. Data were collected from approximately 60 hours of direct observation done by the main researcher as well as formal interviews with the adolescents and the coach. Adolescents claimed to have developed teamwork and leadership skills through soccer, which they were able to transfer to other areas of their life. The coach’s ability to develop a relationship with the adolescents was deemed a major factor influencing their learning of life skills through sport.

The empirical studies reviewed reveal how sport can, when appropriately structured, promote the positive development of adolescents. Through sport, adolescents have opportunities to take part in activities that can potentially enhance their psychosocial, emotional, and physical development. As demonstrated, sport offers developmental experiences of a certain nature, which are often not replicated in other type of activities. A factor highly influencing the nature of sport
participation is the motivational climate in which the activities occur. The following section explores the literature on motivational climates within the sport context.

**Motivational Climate**

In youth sport, a motivational climate is defined as the psychological environment that is influenced by adult leaders’ behaviours and communication (Duda, 2001). The nature of a motivational climate is characterised as empowering or disempowering. An empowering climate is described as a task-involving, autonomy-supportive, and socially supportive environment (Duda, 2013). A task-involving environment is one in which athletes’ effort, improvement, and cooperative learning is emphasised (Newton, Duda, & Yin, 2000). An autonomy-supportive environment is one in which athletes are provided with choices and their perspective is taken into account (Adie, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2008). A socially supportive environment is one in which athletes feel cared for (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Conversely, a disempowering climate is characterised by an ego-involving and controlling environment. An ego-involving environment is one in which athletes are punished for their mistakes, intra-team rivalries occur, and an emphasis is placed on individual skills (Newton et al., 2000). A controlling environment is one that includes negative conditional regards, judgment, and devaluation of athletes (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Thogersen-Ntoumanis, 2010). The type of climate created by adult leaders within youth sport has been shown to have a great influence on the quality of athletes’ engagement (Curran et al., 2015; Sarrazin, Vallerand, Guillet, Pelletier, Cury, 2002). Research has demonstrated that an empowering climate is associated with the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs. Conversely, a disempowering climate has been associated with the lack of fulfilment and frustration of the basic psychological needs (Duda, 2013).
Although many studies have explored the influence of coach-initiated climates on athletes’ sporting experience (e.g., Appleton & Duda, 2016; Fry, 2010), less work has examined the influence of parent-initiated climates (e.g., O’Rourke, Smith, Smoll, & Cumming, 2011; Wagnsson, Stenling, Gustafsson, & Augustsson, 2016). O’Rourke, Smith, and Smoll (2014) examined athletes’ late-season perceptions of coach- and parent-initiated climates and their associations with athletes’ self-esteem, performance anxiety, and motivation. Participants included 238 swimmers (97 boys and 141 girls; \( M_{\text{age}} = 11.90 \)) who completed a questionnaire, with the results demonstrating that parent-initiated motivational climates were actually stronger predictors of athletes’ late-season autonomous regulation and self-esteem than were coach-initiated motivational climates. Performance anxiety was equally negatively correlated within both parent-initiated and coach-initiated motivational climates. Such results suggest that parent-initiated motivational climates must be taken into consideration when trying to understand adult influences on athletes’ sporting experiences. O’Rourke, Smith, Smoll, and Cumming (2012) evaluated the influence of perceived parent-initiated motivational climates on athletes’ self-esteem over the course of a sport program (i.e., early, mid, and late season). Participants were recruited from three swim clubs and included 123 boys and 181 girls from 9 to 14 years of age. The results demonstrated that parent-initiated mastery climates were positively related to self-esteem and autonomy at all three time points during the season. Additionally, early season parent-initiated mastery climates were associated with positive increases in self-esteem over the course of the season. LaVoi and Stellino (2008) administered questionnaires to 259 youth hockey players aged 10 to 16 years old (\( M_{\text{age}} = 12.74 \)) to explore their perceptions of parent-initiated climates and their relations to self-reported sport behaviours. Overall, the results demonstrated that when athletes perceived their parents to be moderately involved and adopting behaviours in
line with a task-orientated environment (e.g., encouraging mastery of skill, providing positive responses to good performances), they were more likely to adopt positive sport behaviours (e.g., displaying concern for opponents, being respectful).

The empirical research reviewed indicates that parent-initiated motivational climates can and do influence athletes’ sport experiences, developmental outcomes, and sport behaviours. Thus, it appears that through their behaviours and interactions, when appropriately framed, parents can foster a positive youth sport experience. The following section explores the literature on parents’ involvement in their children’s sport participation.

**Parents’ Involvement in their Children’s Sport Participation**

Parents represent the primary socialising agents responsible for getting their children involved in sport (Hemery, 1986). Even though parents are not directly involved in their children’s sport activities, their indirect involvement can positively or negatively influence the sport experience (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005). Parents have been shown to support their children’s involvement in sport by providing money, time, and emotional encouragement and when their children encounter setbacks (e.g., injury, being cut from a team), parents are a major source of support during the coping process (Udry, Gould, Bridges, & Tuffey, 1997).

Several researchers have developed conceptualisations in attempts to explain parents’ involvement in their children’s sport activities. For example, Fredrick and Eccles (2004) created a framework to better understand family socialisation in the sport context. The framework posits that parents influence their children’s development by being providers and interpreters of sport experiences, and role models for sport participation. As providers, parents give their children opportunities and encouragements. As interpreters, parents provide their children with information as to their likelihood of success. As role models, parents influence their children’s
sport experiences through their demonstrated behaviours. Hellstedt (1987) developed a continuum to describe different levels of parental involvement in sport, ranging from under to overly involved. Under involved parents are described as demonstrating a relative lack of emotional, financial, or functional investment in their children's sporting experience. Under involvement is usually manifested by minimal investment in buying equipment, minimal interest in meetings with their children’s coaches, and minimal attendance at games and events.

Moderately involved parents are characterised as being able to find a balance between direction and autonomy as it relates to their children’s sport-related decisions. Parents are interested in hearing coaches’ feedback about their children’s development and work to offer their children optimal financial support. Overinvolved parents are very concerned with their children’s athletic success and often fail to separate their own needs from those of their children. Behaviours consistent with over involvement include excessive attendance to practices, frequent disagreement with officials, and frequent attempts to “coach” their children. According to Hellstedt (1987), moderately involved parents offer support structures that best facilitate their children’s development in sport.

Harwood and Knight (2015) wrote a position paper on parenting expertise, highlighting several suggestions for optimal parental involvement in sport that allow children to reach their potential and develop positive life skills: (a) select appropriate sporting opportunities and provide necessary types of support, (b) understand and apply appropriate parenting styles, (c) manage the emotional demands of competitions, (d) foster healthy relationships with significant others, (e) manage organisational and developmental demands associated with sport participation, and (f) adapt their involvement to different stages of their child’s athletic career. Although this paper provides a broad understanding of key suggestions relating to parenting expertise, the authors
acknowledge that not all parents possess the necessary sport parenting knowledge to put in practice these suggestions on a consistent basis. Within the following three sub-sections, studies that have examined parental involvement in sport from parents’ perspective, children’s perspective, and both perspectives concurrently are reviewed.

Parents’ perspectives. Empirical work has been conducted to understand the role of parents in sport. Although research has looked at parents’ perspectives on the general benefits of youth sport participation (e.g., Neely & Holt, 2014; Riley & Anderson-Butcher, 2012), few are the studies, which have specifically examined parents’ perceived impact on their children’s sporting experience. Knight and Holt (2013) conducted a study with 41 parents who had children (ages 10 to 16) ranked in the top 25 tennis players in their geographical section within the United States. The results revealed how parents supported their children’s sport involvement by having both spouses work together, gaining advice from other parents, selecting coaches that adopt a holistic approach to training, and accessing information on how to be a good tennis parent. However, the results demonstrated that parents acknowledged often lacking the appropriate knowledge on selecting appropriate coaches, accessing funding opportunities, and making decisions regarding their children’s schooling. Although this study allowed a better understanding of strategies used by parents to provide support for their children within the individual sport context, it did not address factors that may differ within the team sport environment. Camiré, Trudel, and Forneris (2009) conducted a study examining parents’ perspectives on participation in high school sport in the province of Quebec. Interviews were conducted with 20 parents (8 males, 12 females). Findings demonstrated how parents provided appropriate financial support by covering the fees related to sport participation. Further, they provided logistical support by transporting their children to/from sporting events and provided emotional support by appropriately encouraging their children’s sport participation. Parents also claimed that they were highly involved at a younger age, but gradually gave their children more
autonomy over the course of their high school sport career. While these findings provide parents’ perspectives on support within the sport context, it omits children’s perspectives, thus limiting the understanding of what adequate involvement consist of.

**Children’s perspectives.** Some research has examined children’s perspective on parental involvement in sport. Stein, Raedeke, and Glenn (1999) surveyed children (13-14 years old) on their parents’ involvement (i.e., degree and level) in sport and how it influenced their perceived stress and enjoyment. Within this study, degree referred to the quality of involvement and level referred to the quantity of involvement. The findings demonstrated that the parents’ degree of involvement better predicted children’s stress and enjoyment than the level of involvement. Thus, it appears that the quality of athletes’ interactions with their parents is better suited to predict athletes’ stress and enjoyment in sport. Some qualitative research has looked into aspects of the quality of the parent-child relationship in sport. Knight, Boden, and Holt (2010) examined tennis players’ preferences regarding their parents’ behaviours during competitions. A total of 42 participants aged 12 to 15 took part in focus groups to discuss their preferred parental interactions. Five major preferences for parental behaviours were identified: (a) parents should not provide technical and tactical advice, (b) parents should comment on effort and attitude, not on performance, (c) parents should provide practical advice, (d) parents should respect tennis etiquette, and (e) parents should match nonverbal behaviours with supportive comments. Omli and Wiese-Bjornstal (2011) examined how children want their parents to behave as spectators during tennis events. Interviews were conducted with 28 boys and 29 girls (ages 7-14) recruited at a tennis camp in the United States. The findings demonstrated that the children’s perspectives were similar across age, indicating that parents can be both sources of support and stress. According to the participants, being a good parent tennis spectator involves being silent and attentive during the action and choosing appropriate times to cheer or make comments. Knight, Neely, and Holt (2011) examined adolescent female athletes’ preferred parental behaviours at
team sport competitions. Participants included female athletes from one volleyball and one basketball summer camp in Western Canada. The participants were asked to provide their answers in regard to the parent they considered most involved in their competition events. The findings revealed that athletes preferred different behaviours at different times (i.e., prior, during, and after competitions). Before competition, athletes claimed wanting their parents to help them prepare physically and mentally by making sure they are on time and have all their equipment ready. During competition, athletes generally preferred their parents to be more passive. After competition, athletes believed that parents should allow them enough time to process the game’s outcome, provide positive feedback to the whole team, and ensure that they are prepared for future events. This research demonstrates that parents can potentially behave inappropriately and create negative outcomes (e.g., anxiety), albeit unintentionally, if they are not aware of their child’s specific needs during specific times in the sport competition cycle.

**Concurrent perspectives.** Parents’ and children’s perspectives have also been examined and compared concurrently within the same study. For example, Wuerth, Lee, and Alfermann (2004) examined parental involvement in sport by administering the Parental Involvement in Sport Questionnaire (PISQ) to a total of 193 triads (i.e., child, mother, and father). The results demonstrated that athletes’ perceptions of parental pressure were mainly influenced by their parents’ directive behaviour. Results also revealed discrepancies between parents’ and children’s perspectives regarding parental involvement, level of praise, and directive behaviours. Athletes perceived higher levels of parental involvement when compared to both of their parents, mothers reported offering higher levels of praise and understanding than their children perceived, and fathers reported offering higher levels of directive behaviour than their children attributed. Kanters, Bocarro, and Casper (2008) examined the importance of parent-child agreement on the quantity and quality of parental involvement. Participants were 180 hockey players (9-11 years old) from 12 teams in a Southeastern community in the United States. The players first answered
a self-report questionnaire and then chose one of their parents to complete the same form. The results demonstrated that parents’ perceptions on the pressure they imposed on their children were consistently lower than the scores reported by their children. Findings such as the ones reported by Wuerth et al. (2004), and Kanters et al. (2008) highlight how divergence can occur in terms of parents’ and children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport.

Amado, Sanchez-Oliva, Gonzalez-Ponce, Pulido-Gonzalez, and Sanchez-Miguel (2015) examined how parental support and pressure influenced athletes’ psychological needs satisfaction, self-determination levels, and enjoyment in sport activities. A total of 321 parent-child dyads from individual and team sports in Spain were surveyed for this study. Results demonstrated that parental pressure negatively influenced basic psychological needs satisfaction (i.e., autonomy, competence, relatedness). Further, basic psychological needs satisfaction was identified as a strong predictor of intrinsic motivation, which itself was positively associated to enjoyment. This study demonstrates that Basic Needs Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) can provide a useful lens to understand the parent-child relationship in sport.

Gaining both children and parents perspectives’ allowed for a comprehensive understanding of parental involvement within the sport context; however, the quantitative nature of the study omits details of specific parental interactions deemed to foster the satisfaction of the basic psychological need. Clarke, Harwood, and Cushion (2016) used a qualitative methodology to examine the parent-child relationship in the context of elite youth football (soccer). A total of eight parent-child dyads (i.e., four mother-son dyads, four father-son dyads) were recruited to take part in interviews to examine similarities and differences in perspectives regarding their interaction in the context of football. The findings showed how the parent-child relationship in sport, when appropriately nurtured, can facilitate an embodied sense of closeness. The findings also showed some divergence in perspectives, with parents basing their children’s success on elite team selection, whereas most children were happy to simply have a team to play on.
The empirical studies reviewed revealed that parents’ and children’ perspectives were not consistently aligned and that children often have context-specific preferences for parental behaviours. The most crucial discrepancies were related to pressure, support, praise, and interpretation of success. Such results demonstrate how discrepancies between parents’ and children’s perceptions may lead to negative sporting experiences. The following section explores the literature on interactions between different social agents within sport.

**Interactions between Different Social Agents within Sport**

**Athlete-teammate.** During adolescence, youth seek to develop and maintain strong relationships with their peers (Spaeth, Weichold, & Silbereisen, 2015). Further, peer approval has been demonstrated to greatly influence youth’s global self-worth, emotions, and motivational processes (Harter, 1999). As sport programs provide adolescents with opportunities to establish supportive interpersonal relationships (Canadian Heritage, 2012), researchers have explored the athlete-teammate dynamic to better understand how it affects development (e.g., Chen, 2013; Moran & Weiss, 2006). For example, Weiss and Smith (2002) examined how six dimensions of sport friendship quality influence motivation and self-perception: (a) self-esteem enhancement and supportiveness, (b) loyalty and intimacy, (c) things in common, (d) companionship and pleasant play, (e) conflict resolution, and (f) conflict. Participants included 191 tennis players aged 10 to 18 years old. The findings demonstrated that higher perceptions of things in common, companionship and pleasant play, and conflict resolution between an athlete and his/her best sport friend were associated with higher levels of enjoyment and sport commitment. This study demonstrates the importance for athletes to develop strong relationships with their peers to experience positive developmental outcomes from sport. Ullrich-French and Smith (2006) examined how youth’s perceptions of their relationships with parents and peers independently and in combination predicted motivational outcomes in sport. Participants included 186 youth soccer players (n =99 male, n =87 female) between 10 and 14 years of age. Participants were
surveyed on relationship quality within the sport context (i.e., friends, mothers, and fathers), and motivational outcomes variables (i.e., enjoyment, stress, perceived competence, and self-determined motivation). The findings suggested that high perceived peer acceptance, in combination with high father-child relationship quality, to be the best combination for athletes’ ability to cope with sport-related stress. Further, the findings demonstrated that friendship quality, in combination with other social relationships, was a predictor of enjoyment, perceived competence, and self-determined motivation. This study highlights the influence peers and parents can have on the very nature of athletes’ sporting experience.

**Parent-coach.** Some researchers have explored how the parent-coach relationship influences athletes’ sporting experience (e.g., Stewart, 1994; Wolfenden & Holt, 2005). Jowett and Timson-Katchis (2005) explored the influence parents had on the quality of the coach-athlete relationship. Participants included a total of five triads (i.e., parent, athlete, coach). More specifically, five female athletes competing at the national level, five male coaches, three mothers and two fathers took part in open-ended telephone interviews sharing their perspectives on the influence of parents on the coach-athlete relationship. The findings revealed how parents influenced coaches’ and athletes’ feelings of closeness (i.e., mutual trust and respect for one another), commitment (i.e., intention to maintain the relationship and/or maximise its effectiveness over time), and complementary (i.e., display of interpersonal behaviours of reciprocity and affiliation) through the opportunities/information they provided and the support they demonstrated towards their children. Based on the findings of many empirical studies within their research program, Smoll, Cumming, and Smith (2011) developed guidelines to help
coaches resolve difficulties they may encounter with parents. Difficulties included differences of opinion about athletes’ abilities, disinterested parents, overcritical parents, parents screaming from the bleachers, and overprotective parents. Solutions to the presented issues included planning a coach-parent meeting, listening to parents’ opinions, providing parents with as much information as possible regarding their children’s sport, and reassuring parents by recognising their concerns. These practical guidelines were designed for coaches to enhance their relationship with parents and optimise athletes’ experiences in sport.

The research reviewed demonstrates how interactions between key social agents within the sport context can influence athletes’ sporting experience. Through these interactions, parents, coaches, and teammates can enhance athletes’ developmental outcomes within the sport context. The final section addresses the gaps identified in the literature to set up the rationale for the thesis.

**Gaps in the Literature**

Although past empirical studies have explored parental involvement in sport, there are several areas that remain underexplored. First, additional qualitative research is needed to better document the specific behaviours parents should adopt at different times during their children’s competitions. A qualitative methodology can provide a detailed description of the types of parental interactions deemed to foster optimal youth sport experiences. Second, further research that examines parents’ and athletes’ perspectives concurrently is needed for a better understanding of similarities and discrepancies in opinions. Gaining parents’ and their children’s perspectives within the same study can better elucidate the nature of parent-child interactions in sport. Third, empirical research within the parenting in sport literature remains, for the most part, atheoretical. Existing psychological theories have rarely been employed but could strengthen our understanding of participants’ descriptions of parental support. Lastly, more research is needed
to explore the strategies parents should adopt to foster positive relationships with key social agents (e.g., coaches and their children’s teammates) that promote a positive sport climate. Although there has been research done on the athlete-teammate, parent-athlete and parent-coach relationships, to our knowledge, no research has examined the intricacies of the parent-teammate relationship.

Based on the gaps identified, within the current Master’s thesis, parents’ and their children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during early-mid adolescence are documented. The overall thesis is framed within the general conceptual lens of the Positive Youth Development (PYD) framework (Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005). Basic Needs Theory (BNT) is used as a theoretical framework (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) to ascertain whether levels of parental involvement described by participants influenced children’s basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Frameworks

General Conceptual Framework: Positive Youth Development

A fundamental principle inherent within the PYD perspective refers to the relative plasticity of human development, whereby youth’s development can be oriented in positive trajectories through influential relationships and appropriate environments (Lerner, Almerigi et al., 2005). Another main tenet of PYD refers to its focus on asset building rather than on the prevention of undesirable behaviours (Lerner & Castellino, 2002). Therefore, youth are not seen as problems to be managed, but rather as resources with the potential to be developed (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). This strength-based approach stands on the belief that all youth have the potential for positive developmental changes (Lerner, Brown, & Kier, 2005; Neely & Holt, 2014). Youth who reach an optimal level of development are generally satisfied with their life and use their strengths to become contributing members of society (Peterson, 2004). Hamilton,
Hamilton, and Pittman (2004) suggested that optimal development “enables individuals to lead a healthy, satisfying, and productive life as youth, and later as adults, because they gain the competence to earn a living, to engage in civic activities, to nurture others, and to participate in social relations and cultural activities” (p. 3). Promoting PYD in the context of sport involves finding the most effective approaches to designing programs that foster interactions of a particular nature between influential agents (e.g., coaches and parents) and children that optimise developmental opportunities (Holt & Knight, 2014). As we cannot assume that sport inherently leads to PYD, it is important to better understand the role of parent-child interactions in fostering developmentally sound sport climates.

**Theoretical Framework: Basic Needs Theory**

BNT posits that humans develop effectively within social environments that provide them with opportunities to satisfy their basic psychological needs. According to this theory, if the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied, one will reach optimal psychological well-being (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The need for autonomy refers to one’s perceived control in exerting choice and acting in ways that relates with one’s sense of self (Adie, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2008). Autonomy can be promoted when authority figures take into account one’s perspective, encourage initiative, and promote choices (Adie et al., 2008). The need for competence refers to one’s sense of mastery through effective interactions with the environment. Competence can be promoted by creating task-focused environments where emphasis is placed on controllable and readily achievable self-referenced criteria, resulting in one’s feeling of success (Duda & Hall, 2001). The need for relatedness refers to the creation of successful relationships as well as feeling securely attached and respected by significant others. Relatedness can be promoted when emphasis is placed on cooperation (Duda, 2001). Need-supportive environments within which individuals can exhibit intrinsically motivated behaviors have been associated with psychological well-being (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013).
Lack of needs fulfilment is postulated to occur as a result of indirect and passive behaviours from caregivers, which may lead to diminished satisfaction of the basic psychological needs and costs to one’s well-being over time (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Needs frustration is postulated to occur when an individual experiences active and direct behaviours that result in the thwarting of the basic psychological needs (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2011; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Needs thwarting is experienced in environments defined by controlling authority figures, punishment, guilt-induction, shaming, and love withdrawal behaviours (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013).

The three basic psychological needs have been shown to be universal across cultures and when satisfied in a balanced manner leads to one’s positive development (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In past research, the satisfaction, or lack thereof, of these three needs has been shown to play a key role in determining the well-being or discomfort of athletes within the sport context (Adie, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2012; Fenton, Duda, Quested, & Barrett, 2014). When the psychological needs are not experienced in a balanced manner, ill-being may occur, which can lead to dropout or burnout in sport (Adie et al., 2008).

Methodology

A basic interpretive methodological approach (Merriam, 2002) was used in this Master’s thesis. Consistent with the constructivist paradigm, a basic interpretive methodological approach was deemed suitable as the researcher sought to understand parents’ and their children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during early-mid adolescence. The researcher gathered in-depth descriptions of the participants’ thoughts and feelings as they relate to the purpose of the thesis. Empirically-grounded knowledge was then generated based on the researchers’ interpretations of the participants’ perceptions of their experiences in sport.
Presentation of the Articles

The findings emanating from the analysis of eight semi-structured interviews with adolescent-aged athletes and eight semi-structured interviews with parents are presented in two articles. Article one is framed using Basic Needs Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and explores how parental behaviours are perceived to lead to the satisfaction or frustration of autonomy, competence, and relatedness within the sport context. In the second article, parents’ interactions with their children’s coaches and teammates, and how these interactions influence the sporting climate, are reported.
Article One
Parental Involvement in Sport and Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction during Early-Mid Adolescence: Perspectives from Parent-Child Dyads
Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine parents’ and their children’s perspectives on how parental involvement in sport influences basic psychological needs satisfaction during early-mid adolescence, using Basic Needs Theory (BNT) as a theoretical framework (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight parent-child dyads, composed of eight athletes (three males, five females) between 12 and 16 years of age ($M = 14$) and eight parents (six males, two females) between 36 and 53 years of age ($M = 44$). The participants recruited were involved in four team sports: basketball ($n=3$), ice hockey ($n=2$), soccer ($n=2$), and Canadian football ($n=1$). Findings from the BNT-focused deductive thematic analysis demonstrated how parental behaviours were generally believed to satisfy athletes’ psychological needs within the sporting environment, although needs frustration was also reported. Overall, the findings of the current study further our understanding of parental involvement in sport during early-mid adolescence by providing concrete examples of parental behaviours deemed to influence enjoyment, development, and needs satisfaction.

*Keywords:* basic needs theory, parents, youth sport, parent-athlete relationship
Parent Involvement in Sport and Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction during Early-Mid Adolescence: Perspectives from Parent-Child Dyads

Sport is an activity that is practiced by millions of adolescents and thus, sport programs have the potential to influence a large segment of the adolescent population (Larson, 2000). Through sport participation, adolescents have the opportunity to develop many cognitive, emotional, and social assets as well as learn how to interact with others within their community (Johnston, Harwood, & Minniti, 2013; Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005). It has been shown that adolescents participating in sport, alone or in combination with other extracurricular activities, are more likely to report higher rates of self-esteem, self-knowledge, and emotional regulation and are less likely to report sadness, anxiety, and suicidal ideas (Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003; Harrison, & Narayan, 2003). The expression of such desired outcomes is often very closely associated with the types of climates adolescents experience within the sport context, with adult leaders having been shown to highly influence climate creation through their attitudes and behaviours (Hansen et al., 2003; Holt & Knight, 2014; MacNamara, Button, & Collins, 2010). Although the role of coaches in creating needs-supportive and developmentally appropriate sport climates has been examined at length (e.g., Appleton & Duda, 2016; Felton & Jowett, 2013; Fry, 2010), less research has examined parents’ role. Within early-mid adolescence, parents retain a high level of influence as they continue to play important roles in adequately supporting their children’s sport experience (LaVoì & Stellino, 2008; Smoll & Cumming, 2006). To ensure that children’s needs are satisfied and that they develop in a positive manner through their sport participation, further research is needed to better understand parental involvement in sport.
Parental Involvement in Sport

Parents are the primary agents responsible for getting their children involved in sport and represent a major source of support for their children’s sport participation (Hemery, 1986; Udry, Gould, Bridges, & Tuffey, 1997). Despite their high level of influence, parents often claim to be unsure of what type of supportive behaviour to offer their children within the sport environment (Knight, Boden, & Holt, 2010). Harwood and Knight (2015) reviewed the parenting in sport literature and provided six postulates for fostering optimal parental involvement in sport: (a) select appropriate sporting opportunities and provide necessary types of support, (b) understand and apply appropriate parenting styles, (c) manage the emotional demands of competitions, (d) foster healthy relationships with significant others, (e) manage organisational and developmental demands associated with sport participation, and (f) adapt their involvement to different stages of their child’s athletic career.

Within the parenting in sport literature, some studies have examined parental involvement in sport from the parents’ perspective (e.g., Clarke, & Harwood, 2014; Kay, 2007; Knight, Dorsch, Osai, Haderlie, & Sellars, 2016). For example, Camiré, Trudel, and Forneris (2009) interviewed 20 parents of high school sport athletes and the findings showed how these parents believed they provided their children with adequate financial support (e.g., assuming the fees related to sport participation), logistical support (e.g., ensuring transportation to and from sporting events), and emotional support (e.g., offering proper encouragements). Knight and Holt (2013) interviewed 41 parents of junior tennis players to identify the strategies they used to support their children. Parents claimed to support their children by having both spouses working together, gaining advice from other parents, selecting coaches that adopt a holistic approach to training, and accessing information on how to be a good tennis parents. Nevertheless, parents
acknowledged how they were often unsure how to select appropriate coaches, access funding opportunities, and make decisions regarding their children’s education (e.g., balancing school and training requirements).

Other studies within the parenting in sport literature have examined parental involvement in sport from the children’s perspective (e.g., Bhalla, & Weiss, 2010; Lee & MacLean, 1997; Omli, & Wiese-Bjornstal, 2011). For example, Knight, Neely, and Holt (2011) examined early-mid adolescent female athletes’ preferred parental behaviours at team sport competitions. Findings demonstrated how athletes preferred different types of parental behaviours at different moments during competition. Such findings indicate that inadvertently, parents can find themselves in situations where they behave in ways that may lead to negative outcomes (e.g., anxiety) if they are not aware of their children’s behavioural preferences at specific times during competition. Stein, Raedeke, and Glenn (1999) explored children’s perspectives on parents’ degree (quality) and level (quantity) of involvement in sport and how it influenced their perceived stress and enjoyment. The findings indicated that parents’ degree of involvement in sport better predicted children’s stress and enjoyment than the level of involvement. Such findings highlight the need for further qualitative research to document the “quality” aspects of the parent-child relationship deemed by athletes to foster an optimal sporting experience.

In comparison to the studies that have separately examined parents’ and children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport, very few studies have explored both agents’ perspectives concurrently (e.g., Kanter, Bocarro, & Casper, 2008). Clarke, Harwood, and Cushion (2016) interviewed eight parent-child dyads to examine parent-child interactions within the football (soccer) context. The findings provided a description on some divergence in perspectives in regards to parental feedback and interpretations of success. In this regard, athletes
perceived parental advice more positively than parents thought they did. However, parents seemed to base their children’s success on elite team selection, whereas children were happy to simply have a team to play on. Wuerth, Lee, and Alfermann (2004) administered the Parental Involvement in Sport Questionnaire (PISQ) to 193 triads (i.e., mother, father, child). The results highlighted discrepancies between children’s and parents’ perspectives regarding parental involvement, level of praise, and directive behaviours. Specifically, athletes had higher scores for parental involvement than both of their parents, mothers’ scores for level of praise were higher than their children’s, and fathers’ scores for directive behaviours were higher than their children’s. Such findings demonstrate the divergence that can exist in terms of parents’ and children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport. Amado, Sanchez-Oliva, Gonzalez-Ponce, Pulido-Gonzalez, and Sanchez-Miguel (2015) surveyed 321 parent-child dyads on parental support and pressure and basic psychological needs satisfaction. Results demonstrated how parental pressure was negatively associated with basic psychological needs satisfaction. Further, basic psychological needs satisfaction was shown to be a strong predictor of children’s intrinsic motivation for sport participation. Within the Amado et al. (2015) study, Basic Needs Theory (BNT; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) provided a useful lens to understand the nature of parent-child interactions within the sport context.

Overall, the studies reviewed indicated that children often have context-specific preferences when it comes to parental involvement in sport but that parents are on occasion unsure how to properly support their children. In some cases, the resultant is the emergence of discrepancies between parents and children as to what needs support and optimal parental involvement in sport consist of. Past survey-based studies have looked at needs support (e.g., Amado et al., 2015) and have highlighted the existence of discrepancies in perspective (e.g.,
Wuerth et al., 2004) with parent-child dyads. However, from a qualitative standpoint, these constructs have not often been described in-depth, as they occur within dyadic parent-child relationships. The purpose of this study was to examine parents’ and their children’s perspectives on how parental involvement in sport influences basic psychological needs satisfaction during early-mid adolescence, using Basic Needs Theory (BNT) as a theoretical framework (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

**Theoretical Framework**

Within BNT, it is posited that humans develop effectively in social environments that provide them with opportunities to satisfy their basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy refers to one perceiving control in exerting choice and acting in ways that are consistent with one’s sense of self. Competence refers to one’s need for mastery through effective interactions with the environment as well as the individuals within the environment. Relatedness refers to the creation of successful relationships as well as feeling securely attached and respected by significant others. According to the theory, if the three psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied, one will experience optimal psychological well-being (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Needs-supportive environments within which individuals can exhibit intrinsically motivated behaviour have been associated with psychological well-being (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Specifically, autonomy is promoted when one is encouraged to take initiative, is provided with meaningful choices, and has his/her perspective taken into account (Adie, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2008). Competence is promoted when one receives relevant constructive feedback and can control and readily achieve self-referenced criteria, resulting in one’s feelings of success (Duda & Hall, 2001). Relatedness is promoted when one experiences environments emphasising cooperation (Duda, 2001).
Lack of needs fulfilment is a result of indirect and passive behaviours from caregivers, which may lead to diminished satisfaction of the basic psychological needs and costs to one’s well-being over time (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Needs frustration is postulated to occur when an individual experiences active and direct behaviours that result in the thwarting of the basic psychological needs (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2011; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Needs thwarting is experienced in environments defined by controlling authority figures, punishment, guilt-induction, shaming, and love withdrawal behaviours (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013).

The three basic psychological needs have been shown to be universal across cultures and when satisfied in a balanced manner, lead to one’s positive development (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In past research, the satisfaction, of lack thereof, of these three needs has been shown to play a key role in determining the well-being or discomfort of athletes within the sport context (Adie, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2012; Fenton, Duda, Quested, & Barrett, 2014).

**Method**

**Context**

Trudel and Gilbert’s (2006) classification (i.e., recreational, developmental, elite) was used to delineate the participants’ context of sport participation. Recreational sport refers to contexts in which participation and leisure are emphasised over competition and is characterised by basic skills development, lower intensity, and lower commitment. Developmental sport includes more formal competitive structures and is characterised by regular sport-specific training and increased levels of commitment from athletes. Elite sport includes highly formalised and structured practices/competitions, high levels of athlete commitment, intensive preparation, and very restrictive athlete selection criteria.
Within the present study, the participants were recruited in the province of Quebec (Canada) from four team sports (i.e., ice hockey, basketball, Canadian football, soccer). More specifically, the eight participant dyads were associated with developmental-level basketball (n=3), developmental-level ice hockey (n=2), recreational-level soccer (n=2), and developmental-level Canadian football (n=1).

Participants

A total of eight athletes (three males, five females) between 12 and 16 years of age (M = 14) and eight parents (six males, two females) between 36 and 53 years of age (M = 44) formed the eight parent-child dyads that took part in the current study. Four dyads lived in rural areas and four dyads lived in urban areas. Please see Table 1 for additional participant information.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dyad</th>
<th>Age (Parent)</th>
<th>Age (Athlete)</th>
<th>Dyad Type</th>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Competition Level</th>
<th>Parents’ Active Role in Sport</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Mother-Daughter</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>Assistant Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Father-Daughter</td>
<td>Ice Hockey</td>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>Head Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Father-Daughter</td>
<td>Ice Hockey</td>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>Program Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Father-Daughter</td>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>Recreational</td>
<td>Assistant Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Father-Daughter</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Mother-Son</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>Program Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Father-Son</td>
<td>Canadian Football</td>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>Head Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Father-Son</td>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>Recreational</td>
<td>Program Coordinator</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Procedure

Prior to collecting data, approval for the study was received from the Office of Research Ethics and Integrity at the researchers’ university. Pilot interviews were conducted with two parents and two athletes to test and refine the four interview guides (i.e., parent English, parent French, child English, and child French) to ensure the questions evoked rich in-depth answers from the participants. The pilot interviews were transcribed and analysed, leading to some questions being modified, added, or removed. This also allowed the researchers to ensure that the vocabulary used throughout the interview guides was understood by the participants and elicited responses that aligned with the research purpose. The pilot interviews were not included in the final sample.

To be eligible to take part in the study, athletes had to: (a) be in early-mid adolescence (12-16 years of age), (b) be actively involved in an organised sport team, and (c) have at least one season of experience in youth sport. The rationale for recruiting athletes in early-mid adolescence is that they fall within the specialising years, according to the Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP; Côté, 1999), usually characterised by a change in focus towards one or two main sporting activities (Côté & Hay, 2002). At this stage, enjoyment remains the central purpose of participation, but athletic skill development becomes more prominent. Within early-mid adolescence, athletes typically look to gain more autonomy over decision-making and parents’ role gradually shifts to that of support (Côté, 1999). Further, athletes within this age group generally feel a strong need to relate and forge their identities through engagement in activities that enable them to build competence (Erikson, 1968; Harter, 1998; Shantz & Hobart, 1989). For these reasons, recruiting participants in early-mid adolescence offered opportunities to examine basic psychological needs satisfaction and explore how parental involvement in sport
is framed during this critical developmental life stage. Being an active athlete and having at least one season of experience in sport were used as two important eligibility criteria to ensure athletes had sufficient experiences to discuss matters of interest.

For their part, to be eligible to take part in the study, parents had to self-identify as at least moderately involved in their children’s sport participation, according to the parental involvement continuum (i.e., under involved, moderately involved, and overinvolved; Hellstedt, 1987). Parents who identified as under involved were not invited to take part in interviews as they may have lacked the necessary level of exposure to elaborate on their involvement in their children’s sport participation. During the recruitment phase, parents who had indicated a willingness to take part in the study were first asked to complete a short survey comprised of five screening questions to determine their level of involvement (e.g., How often do you attend your child’s games/competitions?; How often do you drive your child to practices and/or games?). All parents screened were ranked as at least moderately involved in their children’s sport participation and were subsequently included in the study.

During recruitment, maximum variation sampling was employed (Patton, 2002) to deliberately recruit different parent-child combinations within the dyads (i.e., mother-daughter, mother-son, father daughter, father-son) and also dyads involved in different levels of sport (i.e., recreational and developmental). Recruitment was initiated by contacting the managers of youth sport programs within the Greater Montreal metropolitan area to inform them about the study. Program managers were asked to distribute an information letter, which included the main researcher’s contact information, to parents of children involved in their program who were between 12 and 16 years of age. Both English and French versions of the letter were provided to the managers to ensure that all eligible participants were properly informed during the
recruitment phase. On a few occasions, managers asked the main researcher to attend program events (e.g., training camp, practice) to explain the study directly to parents. In both cases, interested parents were instructed to discuss study involvement with their child. Once both parties (i.e., parent and child) demonstrated interest, parents contacted/approached the researcher directly to set up interviews at a time and place convenient to them. Prior to interviewing, participants were informed of their rights to anonymity, confidentiality, and freedom to withdraw from the study. Parents signed consent forms and athletes signed assent forms. All interviews were conducted individually, were audio-recorded, and occurred in a private room, meaning that the parent was not present when his/her child was interviewed, and vice-versa. The main researcher conducted the interviews in French or English, depending on the participant’s preference. All interviews were conducted in-season, allowing the participants to share their present or recent sporting experiences related to parental involvement. Parents and children within each individual dyad were interviewed within a 24-hour period to ensure they discussed the same time point to the researcher. The interviews with the athletes lasted between 22 and 69 minutes ($M = 45$) while the interviews with the parents lasted between 38 and 83 minutes ($M = 53$).

**Interview Guides**

Interview guides for parents and athletes were essentially the same, with the wording adapted for each participant. The interview guides were deductively created based on BNT principles and consisted of four sections. The first section was used to document the participants’ demographic information and sport experiences (i.e., past and present). The second section was focused on relatedness, examining how parental behaviours were perceived to influence the parent-child relationship within sport (e.g., Can you describe your (mother’s/father’s) involvement in your sport? / Can you describe your involvement in your (daughter’s/son’s) sport?). The third section was focused on autonomy and explored how parental behaviours were
perceived to influence athletes’ self-direction and ability to feel like they are at the origin of their own behaviour (e.g., Do you have a say in deciding whether your (mother/father) is present at your sporting events? / Does your (daughter/son) have a say in deciding whether you are present or not at his/her sporting events?). The fourth section was focused on competence, examining how parental behaviours were perceived to influence athletes’ ability to develop a sense of mastery within sport (e.g., Does your (mother/father) act differently depending on if you are playing a good or a bad game? / Do you sometimes catch yourself acting differently based on if your (daughter/son) is having a good or a bad game?)

**Data Analysis**

All interviews were transcribed verbatim, resulting in 214 A4 pages of single-spaced text. Following transcription, the data were uploaded into the qualitative data analysis software NVivo 11. The researchers followed the six steps of thematic analysis recommended by Braun, Clarke, and Weate (2016). The analysis was deductive in nature, driven by the principles of BNT (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The data were first examined at a dyadic level, whereby the main researcher read on several occasions and examined in pairs the parent and child transcripts. Notes were taken and initial codes were created. The main researcher ensured she was very familiar with the data within a particular dyad before moving on to analyse a subsequent dyad. The dyad-specific analysis focused particularly on identifying whether parent and child converged or diverged as it relates to their perspectives on parental involvement. Following the initial dyad-specific analysis, codes were compared across dyads and organised into the three overarching themes of competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Within each overarching theme, themes/subthemes were identified (e.g., sport selection, athlete-driven selection) and discussed with a peer experienced in qualitative data analysis (i.e., second author). Themes/subthemes were reviewed for internal homogeneity (e.g., Do the subthemes found within the overarching theme of
autonomy conceptually align with this construct?) and external heterogeneity (e.g., Are the subthemes found within the overarching theme of autonomy conceptually distinct from the subthemes found in the overarching themes of competence and relatedness?). A thematic map was subsequently created to visually examine the relationships between the themes/subthemes found in each overarching theme. At this stage, themes/subthemes were refined, named, and comprehensively defined. The across-dyad analysis allowed the main researcher to identify the themes/subthemes that were most prevalent across the dataset, which informed and helped formulate the basis of the analytic narrative.

The last stage of analysis consisted of reconnecting the data at a dyadic level. Both the main researcher and peer worked together to extract and recouple, from the most salient themes/subthemes, parent quotes and child quotes that vividly exemplified parental involvement behaviours aligning with the main theoretical tenets (i.e., autonomy, competence, relatedness). Refinement of the report occurred over several iterations until both main researcher and peer deemed the findings provided relevant descriptions, paired with appropriate quotes, which offered a complex portrait of parental involvement in sport. The French participant quotes included in the final report were translated by the main researcher and verified by the peer.

**Study Quality**

A relativist approach to study quality was employed (Smith & McGannon, 2017) with three strategies being chosen to better ensure that the researchers’ interpretations acted as meaningful representations of the participants’ experiences. In addition to pilot interviewing and peer debriefing described above, triangulation was used. Specifically, the findings are presented in a nested format, meaning that each subtheme presented is supported by quotes from a parent and a child within the same dyad. Offering to the reader intra-dyad perspectives strengthen the findings as it provides an accurate representation of lived parent-child interactions.
Findings

The findings are organised within three overarching themes, consistent with the three basic psychological needs. Examples of parental behaviours related to athletes’ needs satisfaction or needs frustration are provided within the overarching themes. Please see Table 2 for the hierarchical representation of the themes.

Table 2

Hierarchical Representation of the Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overarching Themes</th>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Subthemes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Sport/Team selection</td>
<td>Athlete-driven selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Parent-driven selection</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Restricted parent-driven selection</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Closed parent-driven selection</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>Try-outs</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Sport-specific training</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fitness training</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td>Independent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Involved</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Goal-setting</td>
<td>Absent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>Parental behaviours during games</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parental behaviours after games</td>
<td>Passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td>Demonstrating interest</td>
<td>Game attendance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parent-coach behaviours</td>
<td>Establishment of boundaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement in decision-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sport as a shared passion</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Autonomy

Four themes were identified within the overarching theme of autonomy: (a) sport/team selection, (b) decision-making, (c) conflict resolution, and (d) goal-setting.

**Sport selection.** First, sport/team selection was characterised by parents giving varying levels of self-governance to their children to select the sport(s) to be practiced and/or the team to be a part of. Within the theme of sport/team selection, four types of behaviours were identified: athlete-driven selection, parent-driven selection, restricted parent-driven selection, and closed parent-driven selection.

**Athlete-driven selection.** This behaviour was characterised by athletes expressing a desire to participate in a certain sport and exercising control over their participation in that sport. Based on the athletes’ decision, parents took the necessary steps to ensure their children were registered in their preferred sport. For example, the male athlete in dyad seven explained how he made the decision to play basketball and football on his own: “Basketball, that was actually myself. I just got involved in that. Football was actually my own interest also”. The father in dyad seven explained how he and his wife always let their child decide the nature of his sport participation: “It wasn’t our desire. He asked us. We always wait for our kids to ask for it… We never push”.

**Parent-driven selection.** This behaviour was characterised by parents suggesting a variety of sports for their children to choose from. By doing so, parents were able to guide their children in sports they deemed appropriate. Within this type of selection, the athletes generally perceived their parents’ guidance as a supportive behaviour and expressed how they still had a choice of which sports they wanted to practice. For example, the female athlete in dyad four explained how her father suggested a range of sports and different levels of competition, but she ultimately had the final word when it came time to decide which one she would practice: “They didn’t
really mind whatever sport I would do…They would show me sports to try…It was about me”.

The father in dyad four explained his role in suggesting certain sports with the deliberate intent of ensuring his daughter learned fundamental motor skills. However, he added how it was crucial for him and his wife not to pressure their daughter into any specific sports:

> We made her try things. Of course soccer was important because we live in a small village and everyone plays…However, we never pushed, but we also opened the door if she wanted to try different things…We made her ski and one day she said: “I want to try snowboarding.” We said: “Ok we’re going to try snowboarding.” It’s important that she learns to swim and skate so we made sure she has that.

**Restricted parent-driven selection.** This behaviour was characterised by parents refusing that their children participate in certain sports due to a high risk of injuries. Such type of selection entailed a limited amount of choice as parents intentionally excluded specific sports, even if the child was motivated to practice those sports. Despite the restrictions imposed, the athletes still had several sports from which to choose from. For example, the male athlete in dyad eight explained how his father prevented him from playing football and hockey, but was open to him playing other sports: “The only sports he wouldn’t allow me to play are football and hockey. Because of contact. Everything else, he was like: ‘Do it if you want’”. The father in dyad eight explained how the risk of head injuries was the main reason why he withheld his son from playing football, in particular: “He was interested in playing football, we said no because of the head injuries”. However, the father and son in dyad eight explained how upon further negotiation, they reached a compromise that allowed the athlete to practice football in a position with limited risk of injury. The male athlete in dyad eight stated: “He let me be the kicker. I’m doing all the punts and the field goals. I went to my first practice today and it went
super well”. The father explained how he ultimately made the decision to allow for football because he recognised how motivated his son was to play the sport: “He’s actually going to play football this year, but just as a kicker. He’s pumped about it. That’s what he likes”.

**Closed parent-driven selection.** This behaviour was characterised by some parents making the choice regarding their children’s sport participation, without involving them in the decision-making process. Although these parents controlled selection, the athletes approved of their parents’ decision when it aligned with their own. For example, the female athlete in dyad five explained how her father switched, without her prior consent, the basketball program she would play for, but she still agreed with his decision:

(Program name) is much more competitive and we practice a lot more. I like it better here…At one point, he just told me that I was switching team and I was like: “Ok, I don’t mind, I just want to play”.

The father in dyad five shared how he made the decision to switch programs in-season because the program’s philosophy no longer aligned with his and his wife’s values: “They push a certain type of basketball and I believe in another type of basketball. We had a conflict. We had to deal with it”.

**Decision-making.** This theme was characterised by parents supporting their children in decisions related to training. Within this theme, parents assisted their children in three different environments during the season: try-outs, sport-specific training, and fitness training.

**Try-outs.** Decision-making during try-outs was characterised by parents helping their children make informed decisions when deciding which team and level of play they would attempt to join. Parental guidance related to try-outs was generally not perceived by the athletes as controlling but rather as supportive because they felt they were ultimately responsible for
making the final decision. For example, the male athlete in dyad six explained how he agreed with his mother and chose to follow her advice by trying out for a competitive team: “My mom said: ‘(Program name) has try-outs. Do you want to do the try-outs?’ I told her I didn’t mind. I went and I was taken on the team”. The mother in dyad six explained how she witnessed that her son was not really motivated to try out for the competitive team. She attributed this lack of motivation to her son undervaluing his actual abilities and also to his fear of not being selected. Thus, the decision was made to advise her son to try out for the competitive team and if selected, she clearly indicated to him that he was free to choose to join the team or not:

What’s important for me is that when he makes a choice, he reflects rather than make an emotional choice. Sometimes, he’s scared but I said: “I highly recommend that you do the try-outs and if you are taken on the team, but you don’t feel like doing it, I will respect your decision and it will end there.” He ended up doing the try-outs. He made the team so decided to do it [play on the team].

The mother in dyad six went on to explain how her son had recently informed her that he would finish his competitive basketball season but that moving forward, he wanted to play at the recreational level instead. She described how she respectfully accepted his decision because it had been thought through:

We had a conversation. He explained his point of view and told me: “I would rather quit competitive. It’s too much stress for me” … I really respected that. So he will not be playing competitively [next year]. He will play on the [recreational] school team.

**Sport-specific training.** Decision-making related to sport-specific training was characterised by parents guiding their children in making rational and informed decisions around
team training activities. In this regard, when athletes demonstrated a lack of motivation to practice with their team, parents would be actively engaged in ensuring they stayed committed. Athletes described this situation as frustrating but nevertheless stated that they understood the reasoning behind their parents’ insistent behaviours. For example, the female athlete in dyad two explained that even though she often got frustrated when her father constantly pushed her to practice at a high intensity, she understood why he was behaving in such a manner:

Sometimes I’m like: “Stop telling me [to practice hard].” But I know I need to practice and that he’s doing this for my own good. Sometimes, I know I have to do it, but I feel like if he didn’t tell me, I wouldn’t do it.

The father in dyad two explained how he has witnessed his daughter lowering her intensity during practice and sees his role as ensuring she maintains her effort levels and stays committed throughout the entire season: “We push her according to the choices she has made. It’s happened sometimes when she neglected her training for three weeks. Then, I show her that I’m not happy”.

**Fitness training.** Decision-making during fitness training was characterised by parents pushing their children to maintain a high level of effort during training sessions that occurred outside of regular team practices. Athletes acknowledged often lacking motivation to train during the season but described how their parents used different strategies to help them stay committed. For example, the female athlete in dyad three was, in addition to her local competitive team, a member of the provincial hockey team. The provincial team prescribed a training regimen that included off-ice sessions that team members were responsible to follow on their own. Provincial team members living in urban areas regularly gathered to train and motivate each other but the female athlete in dyad three lived in a rural area far from her provincial teammates. Thus, being
alone, she often experienced a lack of motivation to complete the off-ice training sessions but her father demanded she stay committed. Although her father gave her little autonomy by requiring she complete her fitness training sessions, she was nonetheless content with his behaviour because she understood the importance of commitment: “He gives me tips sometimes. He helps me perform better… I’m involved in that [provincial] team. I have to finish the season with them”. The father in dyad three explained how he pushed his daughter on a regular basis to maintain her fitness training, using his knowledge as a physical educator to keep her motivated:

We don’t go to the gym. I make her a circuit in the backyard. I’ll take the cones out and we will do something. At the same time, her brother participates and we’ll make a game out of it. She sweats as much as if she would’ve gone to the gym.

**Conflict resolution.** The theme of conflict resolution was characterised by two types of behaviours parents adopted to help their children solve disagreements with coaches and/or teammates: independent and involved.

**Independent.** This type of conflict resolution was characterised by parents, for the most part, letting their children solve their sport-related problems by themselves. Parents offered advice but allowed their children to autonomously work towards resolving coach- and/or teammate-related issues. Thus, in this scenario, the athletes were in control of choosing the actions to settle their differences. For example, the female athlete in dyad one explained how she discussed with her mother a coach-related issue and how her mother suggested she refrain from taking the coach’s emotional post-game comments too seriously: “He [coach] would yell at us because he was mad after the game. I took it very personally. So she [mother] told me to just let it roll off my back”. The mother in dyad one explained how she intentionally chose not to engage her daughter’s coach when issues arose because she wanted her daughter to come up with her
own solutions. Still, the mother mentioned how she did provide her daughter with pieces of advice:

When the season is started and it’s not always a good fit, coach and player, I help her deal with that and help her get the best out of the situation … I would tell her:

“Before practice, talk to the coach and tell the coach [how you feel].” It’s her relationship with the coach.

**Involved.** This type of conflict resolution was characterised by parents taking an active role in their children’s conflict-resolution process. Parents and athletes both discussed the importance of parents providing their children with tools for them to autonomously solve problems. However, when parents felt that problems were not getting resolved, they felt compelled to get further involved. In such situations, autonomy was reduced but athletes were generally appreciative of their parents’ additional support. For example, the female athlete in dyad three explained how, following her father’s advice, she initially tried to solve a team-related conflict by talking to the coach by herself. However, as time passed and the problem did not get resolved, she felt the need for her father to take an active role in the matter at hand: “He [father] initially encouraged me to go see the coach because what they were doing wasn’t right… but after, it got worse. Then, my dad came with me [to talk to the coach] to support me”. The father in dyad three explained how he initially let his daughter attempt to solve the problem on her own but intervened when he realised the issue was not settling: “Yes, there were periods in the last season where it wasn’t going so well. She would get angry at some teammates that were chirping her. That’s when my relationship with the coach became important”.

**Goal-setting.** The theme of goal-setting was characterised by two types of parental behaviours as it relates to the athletes’ goal setting process: absent or present.
Absent. Parents mostly had no involvement in their children’s sport-specific goal-setting process. For the most part, athletes mentioned appreciating having the autonomy to set goals by themselves, for themselves. Some athletes declared preferring not to get their parents involved in the goal-setting process due to their parents’ lack of sport-specific knowledge. For example, the female athlete in dyad two preferred setting training goals without her father’s involvement because she felt he did not understand the specific training requirements in her age category:

Not really because, let’s say my objectives would be, in regards to my training, to reach a certain level. Well, my father is not really aware of my level and what the standards are. In regards to my objectives and physical training, it’s all me.

The father in dyad two explained how he did not take part in his daughter’s goal-setting process because he believed his absence allowed her to self-direct her learning and autonomously adapt to the different situations she found herself in: “She is the one that decided to play hockey. She’s the one that sets her goals”.

Present. This behaviour was characterised by parents taking an active role in their children’s sport-specific goal-setting process. As discussed above, the majority of athletes stated how they preferred to set goals by themselves, but a few did mention how they valued their parents’ occasional intervention. For example, the male athlete in dyad seven explained how his father occasionally gave him feedback on his long-term goals, which he personally set very high to stay motivated and keep working hard:

I set one high goal at the beginning. I said: “I want to be in the NFL [National Football League].” Now that pushes me. I got to do this. Then I see guys in the NFL and I’m like: “They’re a huge step ahead of me.” I’m like “I have to keep working.” It keeps me going. I’m not at their level yet.
Knowing that playing at the highest level of professional football is a daunting task, the father in dyad seven felt the need to intervene when his son shared his improbable long-term goal. However, being keenly aware that his son’s dream goal motivated him to persevere through hard practices, the father made sure not to crush his goal but rather have him reassess it: “Start with the CFL [Canadian Football League], you’ll see [what happens] because…a Canadian in the NFL is hard. CFL, go for it. I’m not stopping you”.

**Competence**

Two themes were identified relating to competence: (a) parental behaviours during games and (b) parental behaviours after games.

**Parental behaviours during games.** This theme was characterised by actions taken by parents during games that influenced their children’s feeling of competence. Within this theme, two types of behaviours were observed: verbal and non-verbal.

**Verbal.** This behaviour was characterised by parents expressing out loud support for their children during sporting events. Athletes shared how they rarely made eye contact with their parents during games and therefore, verbal forms of encouragement allowed them to feel supported while maintaining their visual focus on the game. For example, the male athlete in dyad eight explained how he really appreciated when his parents encouraged him from the sidelines: “It’s great to have them there as a support. My mom, especially, she screams really loud. She’s always like: ‘Let’s go!’ Screaming during the game”. The father in dyad eight elaborated on the importance of encouraging his son at key moments during a game for him to stay positive and feel efficacious: “I don’t talk but every once in a while, I will cheer. It will never be negative. Every once in a while, a cheer and a clap and I’ll say: ‘Way to go!’ or ‘Nice one.’”.
Athletes who were coached by one of their parents mentioned the importance of receiving from him/her enough encouragement to feel competent but also acknowledged that the parent-coach should not provide too much encouragement, which could be perceived by others as favouritism. For example, the female athlete in dyad four explained how she felt she performed optimally when her father verbalised his encouragement evenly towards every player on the team: “He encourages us when we have a good presence on the field. Often, when we come back to the bench, he congratulates us, every one of us”. The father-coach in dyad four explained how important it was to him to encourage his daughter and everyone else on the team equally by providing individualised feedback to ensure all felt confident on the soccer field: “Because being a coach, I encourage the team…the whole team. I have to take time and [individually] say: ‘What you did was awesome’”.

Non-verbal. This behaviour was characterised by parents making different types of non-verbal gestures to support their children during sporting events. Most athletes discussed how their parents’ presence and non-verbal gestures during games led to feelings of reassurance, encouragement, and support. However, this was not the case for all. The female athlete in dyad five explained how her father’s non-verbal behaviours created a punitive climate, which led to her feeling frustrated and incompetent: “During games, he would leave [the stands] and come back… When he leaves, I know he would get mad and stuff. For basketball, I would want someone more patient”. The father in dyad five acknowledged that his facial expressions during games were very descriptive of his thoughts regarding his daughter’s performance. However, he did not recognise the impact such expressions could potentially have on his daughter’s feeling of competence:
My look for sure is going to be different [in a lost]. She can tell you what my look is winning games compared to losing. Or playing good and playing bad… I’m more silent when she plays bad and just do the look.

**Parental behaviours after games.** This theme was characterised by the actions taken by parents after sport performances that influenced their children’s competence. Within this theme, two types of behaviours were identified: passive and active.

**Passive.** This behaviour was characterised by parents intentionally withholding verbal feedback in the immediate moments following their children’s sport performances. Athletes expressed how being provided, immediately after a game, with time to reflect on their own was appreciated, especially after a bad performance. For example, the female athlete in dyad one explained how she always wanted to be left alone after a bad game because she was too emotional to listen to her mother, even if her comments were encouraging and supportive:

> After a game, when I’ve played really badly, I just don’t want to hear it… even if she [mother] has good things to say, I just don’t want to hear it. I just don’t…I go to the other side of the court to leave and she tells me stuff, but I just block it out because I’m frustrated.

The mother in dyad one explained how over time, she has learned to avoid giving her daughter input right after a bad performance: “I have my opinion [but] I’ve learned to shut up. There’s no point in saying anything. I’ve learned my lesson. I don’t say anything anymore”. Many athletes mentioned the importance of feeling like they have control over when to initiate a conversation with parents. For example, the female athlete in dyad two explained how her father would let her take the lead on when to start a conversation following a bad game:
In the car, if I had a bad game and I want to talk about it, I’ll say: “Yes that wasn’t my best game.” If I don’t want to talk about it, I won’t say anything. Let me live my bad performance.

The father in dyad two explained how he refrained from instantly providing post-game feedback to his daughter but if/when he did provide feedback, he ensured it was framed positively: “I always try to bring out the positive out of it [the performance]. I don’t always talk about it. Don’t think that I always talk about it because it’s not like that”.

Although most athletes preferred when their parents remained silent immediately after a bad performance, there were some exceptions. For a few athletes, their parents’ passive behaviours were perceived as aggressive, further aggravating the situation and reducing their feelings of competence. For example, the female athlete in dyad three explained how her father’s choice not to verbally communicate with her after a bad performance worsened the situation because she could still gauge his demeanour through his actions: “I see it in his face. He’s not happy with me. He grabs my hockey bag and we leave right away and he doesn’t even talk to me”. The father in dyad three did not see eye to eye with his daughter as he discussed how he purposefully avoided talking to his daughter after a bad performance as he thought it was the most suitable approach: “She knows it when she doesn’t play well. I for sure won’t bother her. I’ll take a couple of hours before I talk to her”.

When a post-game dialogue was actually initiated with parents following a bad performance, athletes emphasised preferring that their parents make efforts to be supportive. However, athletes and parents often diverged in terms of what they each perceived to be supportive, with certain parental comments leaving athletes feeling frustrated, even though parents inherently had good intentions. For example, the female athlete in dyad five explained
how she felt her father provided much more negative comments related to her performance than positive comments. “He usually focuses a lot on the bad stuff. He doesn’t bring up the good stuff. I’d like it if he’d bring a little bit more positives or things I did good or something like that”. Conversely, the father in dyad five believed he actually encouraged and supported his daughter when she had a bad performance: “I always encourage her by… giving her tips. Or when she doesn’t feel like she played a good game, I always say: ‘You know, you did well. Maybe you could work on this or that.’”

**Active.** This behaviour was characterised by parents purposefully initiating conversations with their children following performances. After being provided a bit of time to reflect on their own post-game, athletes mentioned finding it very beneficial for their parents to address their strengths and weaknesses. Parents’ perspective provided athletes with an important second lens from which to assess their performance. For example, the male athlete in dyad eight explained how his father’s positively framed post-game feedback helped him improve several aspects of his performance, which led to enhanced feelings of competence:

> He always gives me one thing I could’ve done better and then just tells me I played really well. I always ask him what I could’ve done better and he tells me: “You could’ve done this, but you played super well.”

The father in dyad eight discussed how it was important for him to be proactive and give his son feedback for him to improve his performance: “I give him a couple of tips or something, or bits of things that he could’ve done better”.

The female athlete in dyad two explained how she felt more competent when her father actively initiated post-game conversations with the clear intent of providing feedback focused on improving her future performance:
My dad, sometimes, when I have a bad performance, he tells me, but he doesn’t yell at me. He tells me what I could do next time to have a better performance. We try to correct certain aspects.

The father in dyad two emphasised the importance of focusing on the positives, but also discussed how he uses mistakes as teachable moments designed to improve his daughter’s future performances:

Yes, ok, she wasn’t as good today, but she did this right and this right. We’ll work on the rest. Work here and there. She got tired at the end of the game, ok well maybe a little bit more training will help.

**Relatedness**

Three themes were identified concerning relatedness: (a) demonstrating interest, (b) parent-coach behaviours, and (c) sport as a shared passion.

**Demonstrating interest.** This theme was characterised by parents’ behaviours that exemplified their emotional support for their children’s sport participation. Attending games was considered the most tangible expression of parents’ interest in their children’s sporting activities. Athletes genuinely appreciated their parents’ attendance at their games because it made them feel supported and connected. For example, the female athlete in dyad one mentioned feeling grateful that her mother was present at her sport events: “I like that she takes the time to come and… she comes to encourage my team. I appreciate it”. The mother in dyad one explained how important it was for her to attend her daughter’s competitions to nurture their relationship: “I want to show her that I’m interested in what she’s doing. There’s a communication here. I want her to know that whatever she’s doing is important to me. That’s basically why I’m staying for the game”. Parents’ attendance at their children’s games was perceived to be mutually beneficial as both
parties believed they gained, in terms of closeness, from the experience. For example, the female athlete in dyad four explained how she truly enjoyed having her entire family watching her games: “My family comes a lot to watch my games. I like it”. The father in dyad four prioritised attending his daughter’s sporting events, even though he had free access to professional sporting events that occurred at the same time:

I’m a cheerleader. I used to work for the Montreal Canadiens at the Bell Centre and I get free tickets, but I didn’t go. Instead, I would go watch my kids play a game against other kids. It’s fun. It’s worth more than a pair of tickets at the Bell Centre.

Although most dyads discussed the relational benefits associated with parental attendance, this perspective was not unanimous. The female athlete in dyad five differentiated between games and practices, explaining how she valued her father’s attendance at games but felt overwhelmed when he also attended practices. Rather than being perceived as supportive, attendance at practice led to feelings of pressure, which negatively impacted the quality of the father-daughter relationship:

I like that he’s not the type of parent that comes to the game but doesn’t watch. I like the fact that he does care. Sometimes I [think] that he needs to care less. I like that he’s at the game but the practices sometimes… he doesn’t need to come to every practice. I don’t know, it’s not necessary at the practices. If I don’t have a 100% good practice, he gets mad and it’s not necessary for him to get mad for a practice.

According to the father in dyad five, he wanted to attend as many of his daughter’s sporting events as possible, believing it would demonstrate his unconditional interest towards her sport participation: “She sees that I’m involved, that I take time. She knows
that. I’m always at practices. I even stay at practices. So I can comment afterwards or later at night. Give a little feedback.”

**Parent-coach behaviours.** Within our sample, four of the eight parents interviewed also served as their children’s coach. This theme was characterised by the approaches these parent-coaches used to maintain quality relationships with their children in and beyond sport. Within this theme, two behaviours were adopted by parent-coaches: establishment of boundaries and involvement in decision-making.

*Establishment of boundaries.* This behaviour was characterised by parent-coaches drawing a clear line between coaching and parenting. More specifically, parent-coaches ensured that within the sport environment, they were “coach” and at home, they were “mom/dad”. For example, the male athlete in dyad seven explained how his father fulfilled his coaching responsibilities on the field without overlapping his parental role, making it easier to accept him as a coach: “He’s good at what he does. All the other players know it. He draws the [parent-coach] line perfectly. If he gives me directions, I follow them”. The father in dyad seven mentioned the importance of promoting a relational dynamic with his son whereby on the field, it is a coach-athlete relationship:

I made him understand that what happens in the locker room, if you want to talk about girls, it’s none of my business. On the field, I’m your coach, not your father.

It started from there and it works really well. I’ll rarely interfere with him during practices.

Another important feature of drawing a clear relational line consisted of parent-coaches refraining from demonstrating favouritism. This meant not giving any preferential treatment but also not setting higher standards for their children compared to their teammates. Such boundaries
allowed athletes to maintain a healthy relationship with their parents and teammates. For example, the female athlete in dyad two explained how her father set expectation levels high for everyone on the team:

He’s able to make the difference between being a father and being a coach… He pushes me and…he really pushes everyone. When he pushes me sometimes, I don’t like to be pushed, but I know he does the same for everyone. It’s not because I’m his daughter that he pushes me more.

The father in dyad two stressed the importance of instituting clear role delineation by leaving his father role at home and not having his coaching role extend beyond the arena: “Yes, we have an agreement. I’ll never chirp at home. At the arena, I’m her coach and at home, I’m her father. It’s the agreement we have. The first year I coached her team, it was made clear”.

**Involvement in decision-making.** This behaviour was characterised by parent-coaches involving their children in their decision to coach by listening to their opinion and respecting their choice. The parents felt it was tremendously important to preserve the quality of the parent-child relationship by having their children completely approve of their decision to coach. For example, the female athlete in dyad four explained how she felt her father respected her choice when she asked him to withdraw his involvement as the head coach of her team: “I asked him not to [head] coach anymore, he stopped”. The father in dyad four explained how this past season, his daughter expressed a desire to have a more knowledgeable coach lead the team. Therefore, he respected his daughter’s decision by finding a more skilled head coach and by assuming an assistant coaching position instead. The father explained how relinquishing the head coaching position allowed him to maintain a healthy relationship with his daughter while still being involved with the team:
She said that they might need someone else that would have a higher skill level and a better understanding of the game. I told her that I’d find someone else. That’s when Peter came into play. She’s happy that Peter is the head coach.

**Sport as a shared passion.** This theme was characterised by parents and children harnessing their mutual passion for sport to nurture quality parent-child relationships though involvement in activities outside of the direct practice of sport. For example, the female athlete in dyad five explained how she and her father were both really passionate about basketball and how watching basketball games on television together nurtured their relationship. While watching games, she stated how pinpointing with her father how professional athletes execute certain shooting skills helped her develop as a player:

“Yes, we talk a lot about sport. Usually NBA [National Basketball Association] stuff, WNBA [Women’s National Basketball Association]. He gives me pointers and stuff. What I need to practice because I have a basketball net at home”.

The father in dyad five explained how they both enjoy sport and how it has allowed them to spend quality bonding time together: “I know she likes it [sport]. Everyone has a passion. Her passion is sport. She just likes to move. I don’t need to push her in that sense. We talk about specific stuff in a WNBA game or NBA”.

Athletes discussed how sharing a passion (i.e., sport) with their parents was a key factor in positively influencing the parent-child relationship. For example, the male athlete in dyad seven explained that sport was at the origin of most of their conversations and thus, a central feature of their relationship: “We watch football together a lot. On the way back home [from practice], we always talk about football. We talk about some social things, but mostly it’s about sports and stuff”. The father in dyad seven explained how their shared passion for football offers regular
bonding opportunities that positively nurture their relationship: “We sort of have the same passion. We sit together in the basement to watch a good NFL game. We watch it together and we talk. He’s a football fan… We watch a lot together”.

**Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to examine parents’ and their children’s perspectives on how parental involvement in sport influences basic psychological needs satisfaction during early-mid adolescence. Using BNT as a theoretical framework (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) allowed for a detailed examination of parental behaviours experienced within parent-child dyads that led to needs satisfaction or needs frustration. A study strength resides in having offered the findings in a nested format, meaning that each subtheme presented was supported by quotes from a parent and a child within the same dyad. The findings advance the parenting in sport literature by providing tangible occurrences during which parents and athletes converged or diverged in their perspectives as it relates to optimal parental involvement in sport. Such findings allow for a richer and more nuanced understanding of the specific behaviours preferred by athletes that parents should adopt in order to promote basic psychological needs satisfaction and avoid needs frustration (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The discussion is organised in three sections (i.e., autonomy, competence, and relatedness), followed by practical implications and limitations/future directions.

**Autonomy**

As it relates to sport/team selection, findings indicated that parents provided their children with varying levels of self-governance to exercise choice, based on their interpretation of different contextual factors (e.g., safety concerns) within the sport environment. Thus, athletes were, in certain instances, limited in their choice of sport or team as their parents either partially
restricted or entirely controlled the decision-making process. Despite some athletes having limited or no choice in terms of sport or team selection, the findings indicated that the athletes did not necessarily perceive their parents were impinging their autonomy; rather, they felt guided and believed their parents had their best interest in mind. As discussed by Ryan and Deci (2000), autonomy does not simply refer to independence and individualism but “concerns the extent to which people authentically or genuinely concur with the forces that do influence their behaviour” (p.330). Thus, based on the findings, athletes’ need for autonomy was not frustrated because they perceived the forces (i.e., their parents) at-hand to be valuable, helpful, and consistent with their sense of self. Parents that are able to balance between direction and autonomy are characterized as moderately involved, thus offering the best structure to facilitate their children’s development in sport (Hellstedt, 1987). Such findings align with Harwood and Knight’s (2015) first postulate of parenting expertise in sport, whereby parents should select appropriate sporting opportunities with their children that are fun-focused.

In terms of decision-making, findings indicated how some parents felt compelled to intervene to help their children stay committed to their team because they often lacked motivation to train. Wiersma and Fifer (2008) discussed the challenge parents face in imposing commitment to team-mandated activities while also ensuring their children derive pleasure from sport participation. Further, the findings pointed to the importance of parental support during try-outs to allow children to make the final decision as to the nature of their sport participation. For example, one mother encouraged her son to try-out and play for a competitive team but she respectfully accepted his decision to eventually play at a more recreational level. As shown in the current study and emphasised by Harwood and Knight (2015), optimal parental involvement entails supportive choices based on a communicated understanding of what children want to achieve in sport.
For conflict resolution, the findings demonstrated how athletes were generally in control of choosing the actions necessary to resolve coach- and/or teammate-related issues, with parents readily providing advice and support. However, when athletes felt overwhelmed, they appreciated their parents taking on an active role in the conflict-resolution process. Jowett and Timson-Katchis (2005) discussed the importance of parents providing their children with advice to help them maintain positive relationships with their coaches. In addition, our findings suggest that parents must pay close attention and understand the extent of the coach and/or teammate-related issues encountered by their children in order to make appropriate decisions whether to get involved or not. By offering a level of autonomy that accurately matches the nature of the situation/challenge experienced by their children in sport, parents put themselves in a preferred position to promote their psychological well-being. Such findings align with Harwood and Knight’s (2015) fourth postulate, by which parents should foster and maintain healthy relationships with significant others in the youth sport environment. Further, Wolfenden and Holt (2005) described positive parent-coach interactions as characterised by respect for each other’s roles, openness to discuss sport-related issues, and trust in each other’s decisions.

Our findings demonstrated that athletes preferred having full autonomy when setting sport-related goals for themselves. Bartholomew et al. (2011) discussed how the sport environment can sometimes make athletes feel incompetent when goals and expectations are imposed. However, by setting goals autonomously, athletes can make adjustments to their goals while experiencing minimal threats from their parents’ potentially high expectations or overemphasis on winning (Gould, Lauer, Rolo, Jannes, & Pennisi, 2006). The literature on goal-setting suggests that adults should progressively provide more autonomy to youth when assisting them with goal-setting (Shilts, Horowitz, & Townsend, 2004). When younger, parents should
provide their children with an appropriate context in which they can learn to set appropriate goals (Lox, Ginis, & Petruzzello, 2010), a practice that can then be maintained with increasing levels of independence in early-mid adolescence.

**Competence**

To appropriately support their children’s need for competence, the findings indicated that parents must be highly flexible in their approach and adopt behaviours that take into account a complex set of factors, such as timing, the end result of the competition, and children’s performance. Such findings align with those of Knight and colleagues (2011) who found that athletes preferred different types of parental behaviours at different times during competitions. Further, in support of previous research (e.g., Jowett & Timson-Katchis, 2005), our findings highlighted the importance of parents being keenly aware of how their non-verbal communication can significantly influence children during and after competitions. Although claiming to verbally support their children, some parents did not pay attention to how their non-verbal communication (e.g., leaving the stands during the game after a bad play) negatively impacted their children’s well-being. After a bad performance, some parents claimed to intentionally refrain from providing their children with feedback to allow them to process their setback. Although parents had good intentions in doing so, in some occurrences, athletes were nevertheless getting feedback through facial expressions and sighs, which were interpreted negatively. Past research has demonstrated the importance for parents to control their verbal emotional reactions within their children’s sport context (e.g., Knight et al., 2011). Our findings add to the literature by demonstrating the importance of also considering the often-unintended impact of parents’ non-verbal emotional reactions on athletes’ need of competence. A study
strength lies in having presented the findings in a nested format, whereby instances of divergence in perspective between parents and children were clearly exposed.

Findings showed how as it relates to competence, parents should be particularly careful in how they choose to support their children after a poor performance. Most of the athletes in the current study stated how they preferred some quiet time to process their setback, as any immediate parental comments, even those that were positively-framed, were deemed frustrating. As suggested in previous research (e.g., Bhalla & Weis, 2010; Dorsch, Smith, McDonough, 2009), our findings showed that only when athletes had emotionally processed their poor performance were they able to accept their parents’ constructive feedback and evaluate their poor performance in a more rational manner. Thus, once children are ready to receive feedback, parents should foster competence by emphasising the controllable aspects of their performance (Duda & Hall, 2001).

**Relatedness**

Past research has demonstrated how the most commonly reported manner by which parents show support and interest for their children’s sport participation is by attending events (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2009; Holt & Mitchell, 2006), which has generally been perceived by athletes as an important form of emotional support (Bhalla & Weiss, 2010; Gledhill & Harwood, 2014). The current study’s findings demonstrate how the extent to which parents attend events can influence the nature of how supportive this behaviour is perceived by athletes. Although parents’ attendance during games/competitions was discussed very favourably, some athletes felt overwhelmed when their parents also attended practices. Within one particular dyad, rather than being perceived as supportive, attendance at practice was deemed by the daughter as controlling and negatively impacting the parent-child relationship, even though the father believed attending
practices demonstrated his unconditional interest towards her sport participation. Such parental behaviors align with characteristics of overinvolved parents, which can lead to non-favorable youth sport experience (Hellstedt, 1987). This divergence highlights the importance for parents and children to clearly communicate their intentions and expectations regarding sport events attendance. As youth progress through adolescence, a crucial aspect of development consists of establishing secure relationship with peers, which provide opportunities for self-directedness (Spaeth, Weichold, & Silbereisen, 2015). Assiduous parental attendance to sport events may become, over time, unfavourable in such cases when it is perceived by children as controlling, creating a distance between parent and child. Harwood and Knight (2015) elaborated on the importance for parents to recurrently discuss with their children their shifting and evolving role within the sport environment.

Our findings suggested that within the parent-child dyads, sport was deemed a central feature that allowed both parties involved to spend quality time together, even beyond the child’s practice of sport (Chapman & Campbell, 2005). By sharing a passion for sport, parents and their children discussed how they nurtured close relationships by watching professional sports on television and discussing sporting events (Clarke et al., 2016; Weiss & Fretwell, 2005; Wiersma & Fifer, 2008). In half of the dyads included in the current study, the parents took an active coaching role on their child’s team. Consistent with previous findings (e.g., Weiss & Fretwell, 2005; Wiersma & Fifer, 2008), the participants elaborated on the importance for parent-coaches to draw a clear line between their role as a coach from their role as a parent. Findings further highlight how parent-coaches must negotiate with their children the nature and extent of their involvement as a parent-coach. By establishing clear boundaries and involving their children in the decision-making process, parent-coaches nurture a climate of cooperation and respect that fosters relatedness (Duda, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000).
Practical Implications

The current study’s findings have practical implications for parents of children in early-mid adolescence who are involved in organised sport. To satisfy needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, parents must constantly communicate with their children as it relates to preferred parental behaviours in sport. In the cases when divergence of perspective was reported, whereby parents had good intentions but their behaviours were viewed by athletes as non-supportive, lack of communication was a fundamental issue. It is important to mention that parents’ non-verbal behaviours were also reported to influence children’s needs satisfaction and well-being within the sport context. This finding highlights how critical it is for parents to be aware of their gestural expressions and ensure they engage in positive non-verbal communication pre-, during, and post-competition. Additionally, parents cannot remain static or inflexibly respond to situations; rather, they must continuously account for a complex interplay of variables that taken together explain the preferences of their children in terms of parental behaviours. Thus, based on the findings, being attentive, communicating openly and effectively, and adjusting to children’s evolving needs represent key characteristics of an optimally involved parent in sport. Finally, the time period that follows an athlete’s poor performance in a competition is usually emotionally intense. That being said, it is crucial for parents to demonstrate restraint by allowing their children to emotionally process their poor performance prior to receiving parental feedback. The “right” time to initiate a parent-child discussion following a poor performance should be determined by the child. Once their children are ready to engage in a conversation, parents should focus their efforts on providing tangible guidelines that are within children’s control and that are aimed at improving their next performance.
Limitations and Future Directions

Some limitations must be considered. First, parents who participated in this study were identified as at least moderately involved in their children’s sport participation. Thus, the findings do not speak to how under-involved parents influence the needs satisfaction of their children within organised sport. Not having included under-involved parents within our sample may explain why no occurrences of lack of needs fulfilment were identified in the findings. Future research in this area should include under-involved parents to gain a more nuanced picture of parental involvement in sport. Furthermore, based on divergence in perspectives leading to athletes’ need frustration within dyads characterized by overinvolved parents, future research should better delineate between moderately involved and overinvolved parents and explore how it influences the basic psychological needs. Additionally, longitudinal research examining under-involved parents may help pinpoint instances of lack of need fulfilment that tend to be experienced over time. Second, the dyads recruited were involved only in four team sports. Given that parental involvement may differ within team and individual sports (Lauer, Gould, Roman, & Pierce, 2010; Omli & LaVoi, 2009) future research is needed in the individual sport context. Third, the particular structure of the dyads (e.g., mother-son, father-daughter) was not specifically considered during analysis. Future research could be conducted to examine more closely how the parent-child dyadic structure may influence needs satisfaction within sport. Lastly, data collection solely involved the use of semi-structured interviews. In future research, parents’ and children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport could be substituted with observational data. Observations of parent-child behaviours and interactions during sporting events could further nuance and/or confirm what participants discuss in interview.
Conclusion

The current study qualitatively explored parents and athletes’ perspectives on parental involvement in sport using BNT as a guiding theoretical framework. Overall, it was found that parents’ behaviours generally satisfied athletes’ psychological needs. In instances when needs frustration was documented, the findings showed how parents had the right intentions but their behaviours were negatively perceived by the athletes. The findings of this study advance our understanding of parental involvement by providing concrete examples of parental behaviours deemed to influence enjoyment, development, and needs satisfaction in sport.


Appleton, P. R., & Duda, J. L. (2016). Examining the interactive effects of coach-created empowering and disempowering climate dimension on athletes’ health and functioning. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 26*, 61-70. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2016.06.007


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Article Two
Parents’ Influence on Sport Climate through their Interactions with their Children’s Coaches and Teammates
Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine parents’ influence on sport climate through their interactions with their children’s coaches and teammates. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight parent-child dyads, composed of eight athletes between 12 and 16 years of age ($M_{age} = 14$) and eight parents between 36 and 53 years of age ($M_{age} = 44$). The participants were involved in the sports of basketball, ice hockey, soccer, and Canadian football. The findings indicated the importance of parents taking initiative in establishing relationships with their children’s coaches and teammates. Such relationships, based on the type of behaviours exhibited by parents, influenced to varying extent how children lived sport-related experiences within a positive or negative climate. Overall, the findings of the present study contribute to our understanding of parental involvement in sport by demonstrating how parents’ interactions with coaches and teammates can influence the nature of children’s experiences in sport.

*Keywords*: youth sport, empowering, disempowering, friendship, healthy competition
Parents’ Influence on Sport Climate through their Interactions with their Children’s Coaches and Teammates

Youth sport programs represent activities that provide adolescents with opportunities to develop socially (e.g., form relationships with peers, develop a sense of belonging to a community, learn respect for others), emotionally (e.g., learn to exert restraint, manage one’s emotions), and physically (e.g., develop athletic skills and talents), when they are appropriately structured and overseen (Beans & Forneris, 2014). Although adolescents can develop in many facets through their sport participation, they can also experience inappropriate interactions and negative outcomes (Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003). Adult leaders (e.g., coaches, parents) overseeing the practice of youth sport exert much influence in the sport domain and can facilitate adolescents’ development by supporting safe, healthy, value-based environments (Canadian Sport Policy, 2012; MacNamara, Button, & Collins, 2010). Specific to parents, past research has shown how the parent-child relationship within sport influences children’s sport participation outcomes (Higginson, 1985; Ommundsen, Roberts, & Lemyre, 2006). Further, through their behaviours and interactions, parents can strongly influence their children’s relationships with other key agents (e.g., coaches, teammates) within the sport context (e.g., Jowett & Timson-Katchis, 2005; Sprecher & Felmlee, 1992). Although the coach-athlete (e.g., Fry, 2010), teammate-athlete (e.g., Moran & Weiss, 2006) and parent-athlete relationships (e.g., Clarke, Harwood, & Cushion, 2016) have received a fair amount of empirical attention, less research has looked at the parent-coach relationship (e.g., Brustad, 2011) and no research, to our knowledge, has explored the parent-teammate relationship. To ensure children’s sport participation occurs in a positive motivational climate, there is a need to further our understanding of how parents’ interactions with coaches and teammates influence their children’s sport experiences.
The motivational climate within sport (hereon referred to as the sport climate) can be described as the psychosocial environment created by adult leaders within the sport context (Appleton, Ntoumanis, Quested, Viladrich, & Duda, 2014). Most of the literature in this area has focused on the coach-created climate (e.g., Duda, 2013) but parents also influence the sport climate through their interactions with key agents (Brustad, 2011). Within the literature, the sport climate has been conceptualised as being empowering or disempowering for athletes. An empowering climate is characterised by task-involving (e.g., emphasis on effort and improvement), autonomy-supportive (e.g., provision of choice), and socially supportive environments (e.g., valuing of each individual), and has been associated with athletes’ psychological well-being (Duda, 2013; Mageau & Valerand, 2003). Conversely, a disempowering climate is characterised by ego-involving (e.g., existence of intra-team rivalries) and controlling (e.g., devaluation of the individual) environments, and has been associated with athletes’ psychological ill-being (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Thogersen-Ntoumanis, 2010; Duda, 2013; Newton, Duda, & Yin, 2000). The type of sport climate created by adult leaders has been shown to greatly influence the quality of athletes’ sport engagement (Appleton et al., 2014; Curran, Hill, Hall, & Jowett, 2015; Sarrazin, Vallerand, Guillet, Pelletier, Cury, 2002).

Through their encouragements, expectations, values, and support, parents have been shown to influence their children’s perceptions of competence, enjoyment, stress, and motivation in sport (LaVoi & Stellino, 2008; Welk, Babkes, & Schaben, 2004; White, Kavussanu, Tank, & Wingate, 2004). LaVoi and Stellino (2008) surveyed 259 male hockey players (age 10-16, \( M_{\text{age}} = 12.74 \)), exploring the connection between parent-created sport climates and athletes’ self-reported good and poor sport behaviours. The findings revealed that mothers and fathers were perceived to influence the sport climate individually and in combination, and both situations
were identified as strong predictors of athletes’ good and poor sport behaviours. O’Rourke, Smith, and Smoll (2014) examined the association between coach- and parent-created sport climates and athletes’ self-esteem, performance anxiety, and motivation. A total of 238 elite swimmers (97 boys and 141 girls; $M_{age}=11.90$) were surveyed and results demonstrated that the parent-initiated sport climate was a significantly stronger predictor of athletes’ late-season autonomous regulation and self-esteem than was the coach-initiated sport climate. Jowett and Timson-Katchis (2005) individually interviewed the members of five sport triads (i.e., parent, coach, athlete). The findings demonstrated how parents influenced coaches’ and athletes’ feelings of closeness, commitment, and complementary within the coach-athlete relationship through the opportunities they provided their children, the information they provided to coaches, and the support they demonstrated for their children. Ullrich-French and Smith (2006) surveyed 86 youth soccer players between 10 and 14 years of age and the findings demonstrated how athletes who perceived higher levels of friendship quality, in combination with strong parental relationships, scored higher for enjoyment, perceived competence, and self-determined motivation.

Collectively, the studies reviewed demonstrate that different relationships within the sport context influence athletes’ sport climate. Although some research has examined the parent-coach-athlete triangle (e.g., Jowett & Timson-Katchis, 2005), very few studies have focused specifically on the parent-coach relationship (e.g., Smoll, Cumming, & Smith, 2011) and to our knowledge, no research has examined the parent-teammate relationship in sport. Moving forward, it is important to examine in greater detail how parents interact with their children’s coaches and teammates and how such interactions are perceived to influence the sport
climate. The purpose of the present study was to examine parents’ influence on sport climate through their interactions with their children’s coaches and teammates.

**Method**

**Participants and Context**

The study included eight athletes (three males, five females) between 12 and 16 years of age and eight parents (six males, two females) between 36 and 53 years of age. Athletes had between 7 and 11 years ($M_{\text{years}} = 8.75$) of experience participating in organised sports. In terms of education, parents held a high school diploma (n=1), college diploma (n=2), or a bachelor’s degree (n=5). Parents reported their primary occupation in the areas of business administration, education, law, mechanical work, and social work. Participants were recruited in the province of Quebec (Canada) and were involved in either recreational or developmental sport. According to Trudel and Gilbert (2006), recreational sport is characterised by basic skills development within an environment that prioritises sport participation and leisure. Developmental sport is characterised by sport-specific training in a more formal competitive structure. The participants were involved in developmental level basketball, developmental level ice hockey, recreational level soccer, and developmental level Canadian football.

**Procedure**

Approval to conduct the study was received from the Office of Research Ethics and Integrity at the researcher’s university. Prior to recruitment, pilot interviews were conducted with two parents and two athletes to refine the interview guides and these interviews were not included in the final sample. The recruitment strategy was guided by a maximum variation sampling approach (Patton, 2002), employed to recruit participants of different gender, sport type, and competition level. Given the exploratory nature of the study, maximum variation
sampling was deemed appropriate to gather a variety of perspectives on parents’ interactions within the sport context. To be eligible to take part in the study, athletes had to be actively involved in an organised sport team and have at least one season of past experience as an athlete to ensure they had sufficient sport experiences to discuss their parents’ involvement in sport. To be eligible to take part in the study, parents had to self-identify as at least moderately involved in their child’s sport participation, according to the parental involvement continuum (Hellstedt, 1987). Parents had to be at least moderately involved to ensure their level of implication was sufficient for them to have opportunities to interact with their child’s coaches and teammates. Prospective participants were asked to complete a short survey comprised of five screening questions prior to being selected, to ensure they perceived themselves to be at least moderately involved. The five screening questions were: (a) As a percentage, how often do you attend your child’s games or competitions?, (b) How often do you drive your child to practices and/or games?, (c) How often do you interact with your child’s coach? (d) How often do you help your child set sport-related goals? (e) Overall, on a scale from 0 to 10, how would you rate the extent of your involvement in your child’s sport participation?. To be considered at least moderately involved, parents had to self-report an attendance rate at games and competitions (i.e., question a) of at least 60%. All parents included in our sample reported attending at least 90% of their child’s game and competitions. Additionally, participants could not answer “never” when answering the question regarding the amount of interaction they had with their child’s coach (i.e., question c). All participants reported at least interacting “sometimes” with their child’s coaches. Lastly, parents had to self-report the extent of their involvement in their child’s sport participation (i.e., question e) to be at least a six. All parents self-reported their involvement to be at least an eight.
Recruitment occurred in two ways. First, the researcher contacted the managers of several youth sport programs within the Greater Montreal metropolitan area to inform them about the study. Program managers were then asked to distribute an information letter, which included the researcher’s contact information, to parents of adolescent-aged children who were involved in their program. To ensure that all eligible participants were properly informed during the recruitment phase, English and French versions of the information letter were provided, given that English and French are the two official languages of Canada. Second, on a few occasions, the managers of the youth sport programs that were approached asked the researcher to attend events (e.g., practice) to explain the study directly to the parents in attendance. Parent and child were then asked to discuss study details together. When both parent and child demonstrated interest in taking part in the study, parents approached the researcher directly to determine eligibility and schedule interview times.

Prior to interviewing, participants were informed of their rights to anonymity, confidentiality, and freedom to withdraw from the study. Parents signed consent forms and athletes signed assent forms. Further, in an attempt to reduce social desirability, participants were assured that there were no right or wrong answers and that the aim of the interview was simply to gain their perspective on parental involvement in sport. Data were collected via individual semi-structured interviews, which were audio-recorded and conducted at a time and location that was chosen by the participant. All interviews were conducted in-season, allowing the participants to share their present or recent sporting experiences related to parental involvement. Parents and children within each individual dyad were interviewed within a 24-hour period to ensure they discussed the same time point to the researcher. Approximately half of the interviews were conducted during the evening at their place of residence and the other half were conducted at sport facilities before, during, or after practices. Interviews occurring during practices were conducted with parents only, while interviews with athletes occurred.
before or after practices. All interviews took place individually and in a private room to ensure the participants felt comfortable providing their perspectives on the topic at hand in a confidential manner. The researcher conducted the interviews in English or French, depending on each participant’s language of preference. The interviews with the athletes lasted between 22 and 69 minutes ($M = 45$) and the interviews with the parents lasted between 38 and 83 minutes ($M = 53$).

**Interview Guides**

The interview guides employed were developed as part of a larger project using Basic Needs Theory (BNT; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) as a guiding theoretical framework. The interview data, which were not used in the deductive BNT-focused analysis of the larger project, were inductively analysed and form the basis of the current paper. The parent and athlete interview guides were essentially the same, with wording adapted for each participant. The interview guides included five sections (i.e., introduction, relatedness, autonomy, competence, conclusion). For the present study, questions relating to parents’ interactions with their children’s coaches and teammates were included in the second and third sections. Sample questions include: How often would you say that your (mother/father) interacts with teammates and coaches? / How often would you say you interact with your (son’s/daughter’s) teammates and coaches?.

**Data Analysis**

All interviews were transcribed verbatim, resulting in 214 A4 pages of single-spaced text. Transcripts were uploaded in the qualitative data analysis software NVivo 11 to facilitate the management of the data. The researcher followed the six steps of thematic analysis suggested by Braun, Clarke, and Weate (2016) to conduct an inductive thematic analysis. First, the main researcher actively read all transcripts to familiarise herself with the data. By critically reading the data set, she was able to raise preliminary ideas. Second, initial codes (e.g., the influence of
knowledgeable parents) were created, at which point the researcher realised that the data included many early codes that dealt with the relational aspects of parents’ involvement in sport.

Third, codes were combined into themes. Through discussion, the main researcher and a peer developed two inductively-derived overarching themes (i.e., parents’ interactions with coaches, parents’ interactions with teammates), under which the codes were organised. Fourth, the main researcher reviewed the themes. This stage involved reassessing the coded data within the themes and going back to the original transcripts (when needed) to ensure the analysis genuinely portrayed parents’ and athletes’ perspectives. Further, the reviewing process involved assessing internal homogeneity within themes and external heterogeneity across themes. Fifth, a preliminary article plan was created in which the themes were named and defined. Further, at this stage, the quotes capturing the essence of each theme were identified and included in the report. Finally, in the sixth stage, a last quote selection was completed and the analytic narrative was developed to form the first version of the report. The quotes selected for the report coming from the French interviews were translated by the main researcher and verified for accuracy by the peer. The results were refined over several versions until agreement was reached on the representation of the findings.

**Study Quality**

A relativist approach to study quality was used (Smith & McGannon, 2017). In addition to the pilot testing described above, peer debriefing occurred throughout the analytical and writing phases. The peer’s expertise and knowledge in qualitative research helped the main researcher refine the analysis and writing by validating her interpretations or suggesting alternative ones. By documenting the perspectives of parents and children in the present study, it was possible to document, from multiple viewpoints, how parents are believed to influence the sport climate through their interactions with their children’s coaches and teammates.
Findings

The findings are organised in two sections: (a) how parents’ interactions with coaches were perceived to influence the sport climate, and (b) how parents’ interactions with teammates were perceived to influence the sport climate.

Parent-Coach Interactions

Parents and athletes discussed how they believed parents’ interactions with coaches influenced the sport climate. Very little data regarding parents’ interactions with coaches leading to a negative sport climate were coded as parents did not, perhaps unsurprisingly, address in any great detail how they believed their behaviours could create a negative sport climate. For that reason, mainly parents-coaches interactions leading to a positive sport climate were documented.

Positive sport climate. This theme was characterised by parents deliberately taking steps to interact with coaches in a constructive manner, thus fostering the creation of a positive sport climate. One way for parents to develop productive relationships with coaches consisted of engaging them in regular and constructive conversations. For example, one father explained how he purposefully initiated casual conversations with his daughter’s coach to establish a positive connection with him: “I try to be friendly. ‘Hey coach! How are you? Are your players in a good mood? Are they disciplined?’ That’s how I do it” (P3). Another father explained how he frequently approached his daughter’s coach to discuss her progress. The father deemed such conversations as key to maintaining a productive relationship with the coach and in allowing him to follow his daughter’s development closely:

   Every practice, I say hi. Dean…I’ve known him for two years now. Since we first met, I always speak to him. I always go see how things are, see the progression with Naomi. We stay at that level I’d say; her progression and we chitchat. Not more than that I’d say. He knows how to deal with her.

   He’s a very good coach. (P5)
A male athlete explained how he believed his father’s friendly conversations with his coach have facilitated the creation of a positive sport climate: “They [father and coach] are pretty chummy and they’ve known each other for a long time. It’s good” (A7).

In addition to engaging in casual conversations and checking in on their children’s progress, parents discussed the importance of demonstrating their appreciation for coaches by expressing their gratitude on a steady basis. For example, one father explained how he goes beyond small talk with his son’s coach and regularly expresses his appreciation: “Thank you. Every game, every practice. Thanks for putting your time in. Thanks for doing this. Good game. Thanks for practice. I’m never going to criticise the coach… It’s nothing but compliments” (P8). This same father’s son elaborated on how he believed his sport experience has been enhanced by having both of his parents make deliberate efforts to express their gratitude to his coach: “Yes, he [father] always goes and says thanks to the coach. My mom talks to the coach as well. Both of them talk to the coach… Positive is good!” (A8).

Other than engaging in casual conversations, checking in on progress, and expressing one’s appreciation, athletes felt their parents should generally refrain from exchanging with coaches and most importantly, they should avoid telling coaches how to coach. Some athletes explained how they believed having their parents directly argue coaching decisions, most notably asking for their children to get more playing time, could undesirably impact the sport climate. For example, a female athlete stated how she was glad that her father did not hassle her coach for more playing time because she believed such a behaviour would adversely affect her coach’s perception of her: “Sometimes he talks to the coach, but I don’t think he talks about me that much. He doesn’t ask the coach to give me more playing time. I think my coach would appreciate me less if he did that” (A3). Nevertheless, there was one exception to this notion. Athletes who judged that their parents were highly knowledgeable in the sport they practiced
discussed how they appreciated having their parents provide coaches with advice or assistance, as long as the coach welcomed it and that it ultimately benefited the entire team. For example, a female athlete explained how her father occasionally helped the coach during practices, even though her father was not in any way formally designated as an assistant coach. Based on her father’s past coaching experiences, she believed he was able to provide valuable input that aided the team: “Sometimes, he’d come to practices and help. He’d help the coach even though he wasn’t an assistant or anything. He’d give him tips. The players would listen to him. It was good. No one was complaining or anything” (A2). A male athlete explained how in his case, it was actually the coach who requested that his father provide pieces of advice, given that he had a great amount of knowledge in the given sport: “My dad, he was just watching my first practice from the sideline and the coach said: ‘Oh my god! It’s you. Come down and help!’ He [coach] knew him [father] because my father had coached him before. That’s how he got asked” (A7).

Parent-Teammate Interactions

Parents and athletes discussed how they believed the nature of parents’ interactions with their children’s teammates influenced the sport climate. These interactions were categorised as promoting either a positive or negative sport climate.

Positive sport climate. Within this theme, two types of parental behaviours involving teammates were identified: (a) establishing friendly relationships, (b) encouraging teammates.

Establishing friendly relationships. This behaviour was characterised by parents interacting with their children’s teammates in manners that facilitated rapport building and created a positive sport climate. It was discussed how some parents spend so much time immersed in their children’s sport activities that they had ample opportunities to establish friendly relationships with their children’s teammates. For example, a mother explained
how she was closely involved in her son’s team activities and looked to establish positive relationships with his teammates:

I see them [teammates] a lot because I’m the [team] manager and so I’ve known them for a while. I give them lots of rides and things like that. His teammates, I know them because most of them are his friends and so he brings them home. Yes, I have a good relationship with them. (P6)

A female athlete explained how her mother created a very pleasant sport environment by making deliberate efforts to interact with her teammates in a positive fashion: “She jokes around with my teammates. She’s really nice. She listens to what they have to say” (A1).

The mother of this particular female athlete elaborated in great detail on the multiple ways in which she positively interacted with her daughter’s teammates during team activities:

I interact with them [teammates] because I’m here all the time. They get to know me eventually. I give them information for the subway or I give them rides. I know a lot of the girls on the team. It’s a pleasant relationship. I give them high fives. Some girls are shyer, but it’s still a good relationship… I try to help, I wash jerseys, I help with fundraisers, I bring juice boxes, I bring girls to tournaments. I do what I can. (P1)

A father discussed how he went a step further by intentionally organising outings outside of team activities with his daughter’s teammates in order to build friendly relationships with them: “I took the girls to watch a girl’s university rugby game. We went to [name of school]. It was really cold. We brought blankets. We had a really nice evening together” (P4).

**Encouraging teammates.** This behaviour was characterised by parents offering encouragements to their children’s teammates to facilitate the establishment of a positive sport climate. Athletes explained how they deeply appreciated when their parents encouraged
not just them but also their teammates when attending sporting events. This broad level of support was deemed essential in establishing positive team environments during games where everyone on the team felt encouraged: As one male athlete stated, “I prefer ‘Go team go!’ because I don’t like to be pointed out” (A7). Pushing this particular notion even further, one mother explained how she encouraged all athletes on the court, irrespective of the team they played for, in order to create a truly positive and inclusive sport climate: “I encourage all the girls, even sometimes the other team. If there’s a spectacular play [by the opposing team], I have to applaud” (P1).

One male athlete explained how he genuinely appreciated when his parents made efforts to compliment his teammates individually and deemed such behaviour as being conducive to a positive sport climate: “They’ll say ‘you played really well’. They’ll actually go up to my teammates and tell them if they played well. It’s good!” (A8). Likewise, a female athlete discussed how she has enjoyed instances when her teammates’ parents have highlighted her good plays during sporting events: “For sure I like it when they [teammates’ parents] see that I had a really good game. It’s not only my parents that see it. When I get off the ice, I like it when other people tell me as well” (A2).

Going beyond emotional encouragement, parents and athletes both discussed how having parents who offer constructive technical retroactions to teammates can be conducive to the emergence of a positive sport climate. However, this is only the case when such retroactions come from parents deemed to be knowledgeable and do not interfere with the coach’s work. For example, a father explained how he gladly offers his daughter’s teammates technical advice when they approach him, given his many years of experience in coaching. However, he was adamant that he never does so in ways that would affect the coach’s tactical plan:
I never interfere with the coach. Her teammates, they know that I coached and they come and ask me: “Hey, did you see me there? Did I do the right thing?” I never go to them, but my door is always open. Sometimes, they’ll ask me questions, if they’re holding their stick right, then it’s ok. It’s technical so I can help. But anything outside of the technical aspect they have to ask their coach. (P2)

**Negative sport climate.** Within this theme, two types of parental behaviours involving teammates were identified: (a) making comparisons and (b) making harmful comments.

**Making comparisons.** This behaviour was characterised by parents comparing teammates based on their ability levels. Athletes explained that when parents voiced such comparisons in public settings, it created unnecessary and unhealthy intra-team rivalries that negatively influenced the sport climate. For example, a female athlete stated how her father often compared her to a teammate playing the same position as her, which created tensions:

> I get compared a lot. I don’t like it when he compares. Usually, he compares me to a girl in my own position. [In practice], I covered that person and I was really intense. I didn’t like it, but I pushed myself to be more intense when covering her. It didn’t influence my relationship with her directly, but in my head, I was mad at her. It’s my teammate and because I got compared to her, I wasn’t happy. (A5)

A mother discussed how she was fully aware of the negative repercussions that can emanate from comparing teammates based on their level of ability. Therefore, she explained how she constantly made sure not to compare her son to his teammates, instead
focusing her attention on individual progress. “Respect your child’s rhythm. His strengths and weaknesses, communicate them to your child. Try not to compare your child to other kids. You need to respect that each of them progress differently in their sport” (P6).

**Making harmful comments.** This behaviour was characterised by parents directing harmful comments towards their children and their children’s teammates during sporting events, which negatively impacted the sport climate. Parents and athletes discussed how such behaviours often manifested themselves in the form of parents blatantly encouraging aggression towards opponents. For example, a female athlete provided vivid details that occurred during a particular game where one parent from the opposing team constantly yelled unethical instructions to his daughter and many of her teammates: “We were playing against this team and one of the fathers on that team kept saying: ‘Go, you have to walk all over them, push them, pull their shirts!’ We just had to ignore him and keep playing” (A4). The father of this female athlete elaborated on the events that occurred during that particular game, explaining how the appalling behaviour of the opposing team’s father actually affected everyone on the field: “It wasn’t fun for us and for the other team as well … I felt empathy towards those girls that were playing against us. It can’t have been fun for them either” (P4).

Parents and athletes discussed how parents who voice insulting remarks aimed at other children end up negatively affecting the sport environment for their children as well. A mother pleaded that parents should be much more careful as it relates to the type of comments they make during sport events, given that it could help mitigate the often unnecessary tensions that arise:
[Other] parents are hearing what you are saying about other kids. These parents may be driving your kids to a game eventually, so shut up. You don’t say things like that about other kids, it’s terrible. Be careful what you say. It has to be positive. It can’t be negative. It can’t be: “What the hell is she doing?” Her mother is right here! (P1)

**Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to examine parents’ influence on sport climate through their interactions with their children’s coaches and teammates. A study strength resides in offering examples of parental behaviours with coaches and teammates that positively and negatively influenced the sport climate, as considered by both parents and athletes. The discussion is organised in two sections (i.e., establishing positive relationships, focusing on the whole team), followed by practical implications and limitations/future directions.

**Establishing Positive Relationships**

As it relates to establishing positive relationships, preferred interactional approaches were identified, whether parents were forming relationships with their children’s coaches or teammates. Such approaches included engaging in regular and constructive conversations, expressing one’s appreciation, and providing positive feedback. Conversely, parents who interacted negatively within the sport environment were deemed to have adverse effects on the sport climate. For example, a female athlete and her father both recounted the same event, during which a parent blatantly encouraged aggressive behaviours from the sideline, which made the game unpleasant for all involved. Such behaviors align with characteristics of overinvolved parents, which foster unfavorable sporting experiences (Hellstedt, 1987). Ross, Mallet, and Parkes (2015) showed in their study how parents’ negative remarks towards coaches indirectly influenced the coach-athlete relationship and directly affected the child’s development due to
negative role modeling. Based on our findings as well as Harwood and Knight’s (2015) recommendation for parenting expertise, parents should seek to foster and work to maintain healthy relationships with significant others (e.g., teammates, coaches) in the youth sport environment to foster a positive sport climate.

An important component of relationship building identified in both parent-coach and parent-teammate relationships was for parents to actively acknowledge coaches and teammates in constructive manners. With coaches, this consisted of parents who deliberately took time to thank their children’s coaches on a regular basis (i.e., after every game/competition). With teammates, this consisted of parents who provided constructive performance feedback and acknowledged the good performances of children on the team other than that of their own children. Previous research has demonstrated how parents who express their gratitude actually encourage coaches to increase their efforts in optimising children’s development (Ross et al., 2015). Our findings also align with previous research showing that following performances, athletes truly enjoy receiving positive feedback from their teammates’ parents (Knight, Neely, & Holt, 2011). Thus, it appears that parents who take the time to actively highlight coaches’ work and teammates’ good play are in a preferred position to nurture a positive sport climate for the whole team.

An important consideration in the findings relates to fostering intra-team rivalries that can result when parents compare their children’s skills and performance to that of their teammates. For example, one athlete explained how her father frequently compared her to a particular teammate, which influenced her behaviours and attitudes towards this specific person. By judging his daughter’s performance in a comparative manner, the father hindered her ability to enjoy a positive relationship with her teammate, which led her to experience a negative sport climate. Gould, Lauer, Rolo, Jannes, and Pennisi (2008) explained how adequate parental
feedback should be based on the child’s performance and emphasise elements that the child can control. Newton and colleagues (2000) suggested that adults who make judgments on uncontrollable factors through social comparison instil a disempowering climate, which can lead to psychological ill-being. During adolescence, youth greatly develop their physical abilities and shift from relying on adults to relying on peers to evaluate their personal competence (Horn & Weiss, 1991). As such, when a parent compares his/her child to a teammate perceived by the child to be more competent, it may lead to feelings of insecurity and incompetence. As our findings have shown, such feelings impact not only the child personally, but also his/her demeanour in relationships with teammates.

**Focusing on the Whole Team**

A central factor identified to appropriately foster a positive sport climate was for parents to consider the whole team rather than focusing solely on their child when providing feedback. Athletes were categorical that they preferred when their parents encouraged the entire team, rather than just them, during sporting events. Such findings align with those of Knight and colleagues (2011), who showed that athletes appreciated when their parents supported the team as a unit. Ross and colleagues (2015) discussed how in their study, coaches appreciated parents’ constructive feedback when it benefited the whole team and when parents shared their feedback without being too forthcoming. In certain instances, in the current study, coaches invited parents, whom they knew had much sport-specific knowledge, to assist them in their coaching duties. Parents supporting their children’s sport organization, while ensuring not to overstep the coaches’ responsibilities shared characteristics of moderately involved parents, thus facilitating their child’s development in sport (Hellstedt, 1987). Gledhill and Harwood (2014) discussed how parents with previous coaching roles can significantly benefit their children’s development in sport due to their high level of knowledge. Nonetheless, based on our findings, when coaches solicit such
parents, they should make conscious efforts to use their knowledge to advance the development of not only their child but also the entire team, thereby fostering a positive sport climate.

In our findings, one mother explained how she actually congratulated opponents when they made nice plays during games. On that notion, it appears that in order to genuinely foster a positive sport climate, parents should feel comfortable encouraging all athletes, regardless of the team for which they play. When parents encourage all athletes, a positive, open, and accepting climate can be nurtured, whereby competition becomes framed as an act of striving together rather than a forum of dominance display (Camiré, 2015). Knowing the importance of peers during adolescence, a sport climate within which young competitors can truly respect each other’s skills and accomplishments provides grounds for participants to create new and strengthen existing friendships in and beyond the immediate team environment (Ryan, 2001).

**Practical Implications**

The current study’s findings have some practical implications for parents of adolescent-aged children involved in organised sport. To do their rightful part in building a positive sport climate, it appears that parents should work towards developing proper relationships with their children’s teammates and coaches. Our findings suggest that parents can do so by engaging in regular casual conversations designed to foster positive social interactions that help instil an enjoyable environment for everyone involved. As some of our findings indicate, to avoid generating intra-team rivalries and feelings of reduced competence, parents should avoid comparing their children’s skills and performances to that of their teammates. Rather, parents should focus on aspects that are controllable, such as effort and focus. Finally, to instil a positive climate, parents should not solely encourage their children during sport events. Rather, parents should strive to provide positively-framed comments or feedback to everyone involved, which includes their children’s teammates. As our findings suggest, to reduce unhealthy competitive
environment at the youth sport level, parents should make an effort to highlight extraordinary plays made by their children, their children’s teammates, and players on the opponent team.

**Limitations and Future Directions**

Some limitations must be acknowledged. The parents and athletes who took part in the current study mostly shared positive parental interactions, with only a select few occurrences of negative parental interactions with teammates being identified. Such findings may, to some extent, be the product of our relatively small sample, social desirability, and/or a selection bias. Future research in this area could be directed at purposefully recruiting participants with a known history of negative parental experiences in sport, the stories of which may provide further insights into specific (negative) parental behaviours that should be avoided in the sport domain. Moreover, the present study was exploratory in nature and included participants of different age, gender, sport, and level of competition. Given that such variables may play a role in influencing the nature of how parents interact with their children’s teammates and coaches, future research could look into isolating some of these variables to further nuance our understanding of parents’ influence on the sport climate.

**Conclusion**

The current study qualitatively examined parents’ influence on sport climate through their interactions with their children’s coaches and teammates. The findings advance our understanding of parental involvement by providing concrete examples of how parents’ interactions with coaches and teammates influence the sport climate.
References


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General Discussion

The overall purpose of this Master’s thesis was to examine parents’ and athletes’ perspectives on parental involvement in sport during early-mid adolescence. In article one, a deductive thematic analysis was conducted, consistent with the principles of BNT (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Findings showed how parents generally satisfied their children’s need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Needs satisfaction was supported to a higher extent when parents were flexible, were positive, provided constructive feedback, and focused on the controllable aspects of performance. In occurrences of needs frustration, miscommunication between parent and child was often to blame. Thus, parents should be aware of how their verbal and non-verbal communication influences how the sport environment fosters or not the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness for their children.

In article two, the inductive thematic analysis led to two main findings. The first finding related to the importance of parents taking an active role in socially engaging with coaches and teammates. By doing so, parents were able to develop a sense of closeness with key agents within their children’s sport context, which facilitated the creation of a positive sport climate. The second finding related to the influence of parents on the athlete-coach and athlete-teammate relationships, making it important for them to adopt behaviours that support everyone on the team. By encouraging the whole team rather than focusing solely on their own children, parents can play key roles in enhancing the sport climate for everyone involved.

Taken together, the findings of this Master’s thesis enhance our understanding of parental involvement in sport. In reflecting on the findings of article one and two together, two main considerations can be offered: (a) parents must be proactive and flexible, and (b) parents must adopt a holistic approach to their children’s sport participation.
Be Proactive and Flexible

Proactive parenting has been described in the literature as parents making deliberate efforts to anticipate potential conflicts and use techniques that promote their children’s development (Padilla-Walker, Christensen, & Day, 2011; Padilla-Walker & Thompson, 2005). Harwood and Knight (2014) highlighted the importance of parents who proactively develop strategies to support their children’s needs within the sport context. Our findings showed how parents who were able to positively influence their children’s sport experience used two main proactive strategies: (a) establishing healthy relationships with key agents and (b) engaging in effective communication. As it relates to parents proactively establishing relationships with their children’s coaches and teammates, this finding aligns with previous research, showing how parents who engaged in regular conversations with key social agents within sport improved their children’s development (Jowett & Timson-Katchis, 2005). Considering the importance of peer relationships during adolescence (Spaeth et al., 2015), parents who proactively establish healthy relationships with their children’s teammates are better positioned to positively influence their children’s experiences (Padilla-Walker et al., 2011).

Findings also demonstrated that instances of athlete needs frustration were mostly caused by a divergence in perspective between parent and child. For example, one father attended all of his daughter’s games and practices, assuming she appreciated his unrelenting support and feedback. However, the daughter explained how she felt overwhelmed by his excessive presence. Thus, such a finding indicates how parents, unknowingly and unintentionally, can negatively influence their children’s sport experience by assuming rather than communicating the nature of their involvement in sport. This finding aligns with Lauer, Gould, Roman, and Pierce (2010) who
showed that athletes’ perceptions of their parents’ behaviours and attitudes shape whether they feel motivated or pressured by their parents.

Through proactive and effective communication, parents can minimise many of the misunderstandings that often manifest themselves within the parent-child relationship (Kaur, 2017; Padilla-Walker, 2006). Thus, sport parents should strive to communicate and negotiate the nature of their involvement in their children’s sport participation, thereby increasing the likelihood that children will perceive their parents’ involvement as guiding and supportive rather than pressuring and controlling. Padilla-Walker et al. (2011) suggested that during parent-child talks in adolescence, it is important for parents to discuss the different factors that should be taken into consideration when making a decision and then, allow the adolescent to make his/her own decision. Such compromising helps maintain a balance between parental control and adolescent autonomy (Padilla-Walker & Thompson, 2005). For example, within our findings, a father and son negotiated a compromise in which the athlete played his desired sport (i.e., Canadian football), but at a position that was less prone to injuries (i.e., kicker), as requested by the father. Because such a compromise was reached, the athlete was able to fulfill his desire to be part of the football team.

**Adopt a Holistic Approach to Children’s Sport Participation**

The findings from the two articles demonstrated the importance for parents to adopt a holistic approach to their children’s sport participation in order to foster a positive team climate. Here, a holistic approach refers to a shift in focus by parents from the individual athlete (i.e., their child) to the more global environment in which the child is practicing his/her sport (Henriksen, Stambulova, & Roessler, 2010). For example, in article two, athletes appreciated when parents provided team-level constructive feedback and valued moments when the parents...
of other children talked to them and recognised their strong performance. As Gould et al. (2008) have previously highlighted, it is important for parents not to solely focus on their children’s sport development, but also to make efforts to foster positive interactions by socialising healthily with their children’s teammates and coaches. Ross, Mallett, and Parkes (2015) showed how parents who help their child’s team (e.g., fundraising, officiating) facilitate coaches’ ability to develop a caring relationship with their child.

Taken together, the findings of both article one and two suggest that parents should adopt a larger developmental lens to development in sport by considering their children, their children’s teammates, the coaches, as well as the many fluid and contextual factors at play. This aligns with previous research showing the importance of considering the overall context in which athletes develop to ensure optimal sport development (Henriksen et al., 2010).

**Future Research**

Based on the findings presented and the limitations discussed in the two articles of this thesis, future research directions are suggested. First, based on the findings of article one, parents who take on coaching roles on their children’s teams should set clear boundaries between their coaching and parenting responsibilities. To foster a positive sport climate for their children, parent-coaches must clearly delineate between “mom/dad at home” and “coach on the field”. Although previous studies have looked at parent-coaches in youth sport, future research could be conducted to explore in greater detail the types of parent-coach behaviours that optimally foster quality parent-child relationships both at home and on the field.

Second, in article two, it was shown how parents’ perceptions of and interactions with their children’s teammates influenced the athlete-teammate relationship. Parents who made deliberate efforts to interact constructively were, for the most part, able to positively influence the sport
climate while parents who used teammates’ achievements to evaluate their children’s performances created intra-team rivalries, which fostered a negative sport climate. Given that no research beyond the findings of this present thesis has, to our knowledge, specifically explored the parent-teammate relationship in organised youth sport programs, future research in this area is warranted to better understand the dynamics at play.

Third, based on the findings from the two articles, parents who proactively established healthy relationships with teammates and coaches were generally perceived to enhance their children’s sport experience. To help avoid some of the misunderstandings that can emanate from instances of miscommunication, there is a need for future research to better delineate the specific proactive strategies that can be employed by parents within the sport context to build effective communication channels.

**Theoretical Implications**

Using a basic interpretive methodological approach (Merriam, 2002), alongside a constructivist epistemological orientation, was deemed suitable within the present thesis as the researcher wanted to gain a better understanding of parents’ and athletes’ co-constructed realities on the notion of parental involvement in sport. The findings suggest that the participants converged in perspective in some instances and diverged in others. Qualitatively exploring parent-child relationships in specific dyads through interviewing allowed for a better understanding of some of the factors influencing the nature of children’s experiences in sport.

The findings have implications from a BNT perspective (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000), as athletes’ basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness appeared to be mostly satisfied through their parents’ involvement in their sport participation. When a divergence in perspective was noted, athletes’ basic psychological needs were frequently
shown to be frustrated. Thus, BNT represented an appropriate theoretical lens to examine and interpret parent-athlete relationships within sport. Generally speaking, through their involvement in their children’s sport participation, parents improved their children’s well-being when they were flexible and offered tangible opportunities for self-governance. However, instances of miscommunication (i.e., verbal, non-verbal) often led to children feeling frustrated. Using BNT to interpret these findings helped identify different ways through which parents may enhance or diminish the quality of their children’s sport participation.

**Conclusion**

Overall, the findings from this Master’s thesis contribute to the literature by providing concrete examples of instances of parental involvement in sport that (a) satisfied or frustrated athletes’ basic psychological needs and (b) fostered or hindered the creation of a positive sport climate. The findings can help parents better understand how they can foster an optimal sport experience for their children. Based on the findings, future research is needed to examine in greater detail the influence of parental behaviours within the youth sport context.
Statement of Contribution

I, Evelyne Felber Charbonneau, was responsible for collecting and analysing the data used in this Master’s research. I was responsible for writing the two articles part of this Master’s thesis. Dr. Camiré supported all aspects of the conceptualisation, analysis, and provided assistance in the writing by reviewing both articles on numerous occasions. Both articles will be submitted for publication with Felber Charbonneau as first author and Camiré as second.


Appleton, P. R., & Duda, J. L. (2016). Examining the interactive effects of coach-created empowering and disempowering climate dimension on athletes’ health and functioning. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 26*, 61-70. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2016.06.007


Appendices
Appendix A

Youth Assent Form

Project Title
• Parental involvement in sport during adolescence: Perspectives from parent-child dyads.

Clarity
This form may include words you are perhaps unfamiliar with. Please ask the researcher to explain any words that you do not know.

What is this study about?
The purpose of this research is to better understand parents’ and children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during adolescence.

What happens to me if I choose to be in this study?
You will take part in an individual interview lasting approximately 45-60 minutes. The interview will be audio-recorded. In the interview, you will be asked to talk about your parents’ involvement in your sporting experiences. At any time, you can choose to not answer certain questions or to stop the interview if you do not feel comfortable.

Will you tell anyone what I say?
We will not tell anyone the answers you give us. We will not share your answers with your parents, coaches, teammates, or anyone else. Also, when writing the research results, we will never use your name.

Questions?
If you have any questions about your participation in this study, you or your parent can contact me at ###-###-#### or @uottawa.ca or my supervisor Dr. Martin Camiré at @uottawa.ca

For any questions about the ethical nature of this project, you can contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research; University of Ottawa, 550 rue Cumberland, Room 159, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, (613)-562-5841 or ethics@uottawa.ca

Consent:
I have read this form and I understand the nature of my involvement in this study. I am willing to be interviewed for this study.

Youth name printed  Youth signature  Date

Signature of parent providing informed consent  Date
Appendix B

Formulaire de Consentement (moins de 18ans)

**Titre du projet**
*Implication des parents dans le sport pendant l’adolescence: Perspective de dyades parent-enfant.*

**Détails**
Ce formulaire peut contenir des mots qui ne sont pas familiers. Demande à la chercheure de t’expliquer les mots que tu ne comprends pas.

**La recherche est à propos de quoi?**
L’objectif de cette recherche est de mieux comprendre la perspective des parents et des enfants sur l’implication des parents dans le sport durant l’adolescence.

**Ma participation consiste en quoi?**
Tu prendras part dans une (1) entrevue individuelle d’environ 45-60 minutes. L’entrevue sera enregistrée utilisant un appareil audionumérique. Durant l’entrevue, on te demandera de parler de l’implication de tes parents dans ton expérience sportive. À n’importe quel moment, tu peux choisir de ne pas répondre à certaines questions et/ou arrêter l’entrevue, si tu ne te sens pas confortable.

**Est-ce que tu dévoileras ce que je te dis?**
Nous ne partagerons pas les réponses que tu nous donneras avec tes parents, entraineur(es), coéquipiers(ières), ou personne d’autre. De plus, quand nous écrirons les résultats, nous n’utiliserons jamais ton nom.

**Questions?**
Si tu as des questions à propos de ta participation dans cette étude, toi ou ton parent pouvez me contacter directement au ###-###-#### ou @uottawa.ca ou mon superviseur Dr. Martin Camiré au @uottawa.ca.

Si tu as des questions au niveau de l’éthique de ce projet, tu peux contacter le bureau d’éthique et d’intégrité de la recherche; Université d’Ottawa, 550 rue Cumberland, Room 159, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, (613)-562-5841 ou ethics@uottawa.ca.

**Consentement**
J’ai lu ce formulaire et je comprends la nature de ma participation dans cette étude. Je suis prêt(e) à participer à cette étude.

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<th>Nom de l’enfant en lettres moulées</th>
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<th>Signature du parent fournissant le consentement parentale</th>
<th>Date</th>
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Appendix C

Parental Consent Form

Principal Investigator:
Evelyne Felber Charbonneau
School of Human Kinetics, University of Ottawa
### ### ### (extension ###);
@uottawa.ca

Supervisor:
Martin Camiré Ph.D.
School of Human Kinetics, University of Ottawa
### ### ### (extension ###);
@uottawa.ca

The purpose of this research project is to explore parents’ and children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during adolescence. This research is led by Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (Principal Investigator) from the University of Ottawa and is funded by a master’s scholarship from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada (SSHRC).

My child’s participation consists of taking part in one (1) individual interview lasting approximately 45-60 minutes that focuses on (a) his/her personal experiences as an athlete and (b) his/her parents’ influences on his/her relatedness, autonomy, and competence in sport. The interview will be audio recorded and will occur at a time and place of both our choosing. The transcription of his/her interview will be returned to him/her by email in order to verify the accuracy of his/her responses. He/she will have two (2) weeks to make revisions/clarifications to his/her transcripts. The transcription will be protected by a password. His/her participation in this project can better our understanding of (a) parents’ influence on adolescents’ psychological needs satisfaction (b) the behaviours that best facilitate parental involvement in sport.

I understand that the content related to my child’s participation will only be used by Evelyne Felber Charbonneau and Dr. Martin Camiré. My child is free to withdraw from the study at any time or refuse to answer questions. If he/she chooses to withdraw from the study, the data collected from his/her interview until the time of withdrawal will be destroyed and will not be used. I recognize that my child is not to receive any monetary compensation for participating in this study. I have received assurance from the principal investigator that the information my child will share will remain strictly confidential. Anonymity will be assured through the use of codes (e.g., A1) on all documentation, including original transcripts, meaning that the participants’ names will never be mentioned. Tape recordings of interviews and other data collected will be stored at the University of Ottawa, in a locked cabinet in the supervisor’s office and will be kept for five (5) years after which they will be destroyed. The findings emanating from this research will be published in peer-reviewed journals and presented at conferences.

If I have any questions with regards to the ethical conduct of this research, I may contact the Office of Research Ethics and Integrity, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 154, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5, tel: 613-562-5387, email: ethics@uottawa.ca. There are two (2) copies of the consent form, one of which I may keep. I ________________, agree for my child to participate in the research conducted by Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (Principal Investigator) from the University of Ottawa. As parent or legal guardian, I authorize ________________ (child’s name) to be a participant in the research study described in this form.

Child’s date of birth: ________________

Parent signature: ____________________________ Date: ________________

Principal Investigator: ____________________________ Date: ________________
Appendix D

Formulaire de Consentement Parental

**Chercheure principale :**
Evelyne Felber Charbonneau  
École des sciences de l’activité physique, Université d’Ottawa  
###-###-### (poste ###); @uottawa.ca

**Superviseur :**
Martin Camiré PhD.  
École des sciences de l’activité physique, Université d’Ottawa  
###-###-### (poste ###); @uottawa.ca

L’objectif de ce projet de recherche est d’explorer la perspective des parents et des enfants sur l’implication des parents dans le sport durant l’adolescence. Cette recherche est menée par Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (chercheure principale) de l’Université d’Ottawa et est financée par une bourse de maîtrise du Conseil de Recherches en Sciences Humaines du Canada (CRSH).

La participation de mon enfant consiste à prendre part à une (1) entrevue individuelle durant approximativement 45-60 minutes, l’emphase étant mise sur (a) son expérience personnelle en tant qu’athlète et (b) l’influence de ses parents sur son appartenance sociale, son autonomie et sa compétence dans le sport. L’entrevue sera enregistrée utilisant un appareil audionumérique et aura lieu à un moment et un endroit de notre choix. La transcription de son entrevue lui sera retournée par courriel pour vérifier l’exactitude de ses réponses. Il aura deux (2) semaines pour faire des révisions/clarifications à sa transcription. La transcription sera protégée par un mot de passe. La participation de mon enfant dans ce projet peut améliorer notre compréhension de (a) l’influence des parents sur la satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux chez les adolescents et (b) les comportements facilitant l’implication des parents dans le sport.

Je comprends que les données seront strictement utilisées par Evelyne Felber Charbonneau et Dr. Martin Camiré. Mon enfant est libre de se retirer de cette recherche à n’importe quel moment et/ou de refuser de répondre aux questions. S’il choisit de se retirer, les données collectées lors de son entrevue jusqu’au moment de son retrait seront détruites et ne seront pas utilisées. Je reconnais que mon enfant ne recevra aucune compensation monétaire pour sa participation dans cette étude. J’ai été assuré par la chercheure principale que l’information qui sera fournie par mon enfant restera strictement confidentielle. L’anonymat sera assuré par l’utilisation de codes (ex : A1) sur toutes documentations, incluant la transcription originale, voulant dire que les noms des participants ne seront jamais mentionnés. L’enregistrement audio des entrevues et les autres documents seront conservés à l’Université d’Ottawa, dans un cabinet verrouillé dans le bureau du superviseur et seront gardés pour cinq (5) ans après quoi ils seront détruits. Les résultats provenant de cette recherche seront publiés dans des journaux scientifiques et présentés à des conférences.

Si j’ai des questions en lien avec la conduite éthique de cette recherche, je peux contacter le bureau d’éthique et d’intégrité de la recherche; Université d’Ottawa, 550 rue Cumberland, Room 159, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, (613)-562-5841 ou ethics@uottawa.ca. Il y a deux (2) copies du formulaire de consentement, dont une que je garde._________________________, j’accepte que mon enfant participe à la recherche menée par Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (chercheure principale) de l’Université d’Ottawa. En tant que parent, j’autorise__________________________(nom de l’enfant) à participer à la recherche détaillée dans ce formulaire.
Date de naissance de l’enfant:
Signature du parent: ____________________________ Date : ____________
Chercheure Principale: ____________________________ Date : ____________
Appendix E

Consent Form: Parent

Principal Investigator:
Evelyne Felber Charbonneau
School of Human Kinetics, University of Ottawa
###-###-#### (extension ####); @uottawa.ca

Supervisor:
Martin Camiré Ph.D.
School of Human Kinetics, University of Ottawa
###-###-#### (extension ####); @uottawa.ca

The purpose of this research project is to explore parents’ and children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during adolescence. This research is led by Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (Principal Investigator) from the University of Ottawa and is funded by a master’s scholarship from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada (SSHRC).

My participation consists of taking part in one (1) individual interview lasting approximately 45-60 minutes that focusses on (a) my personal experiences as an athlete, (b) my personal experiences as the parent of an athlete, and (c) my influences on my child’s relatedness, autonomy, and competence in sport. The interview will be audio recorded and will occur at a time and place of my own choosing. The transcription of my interview will be returned to me by email in order to verify the accuracy of my responses. I will have two (2) weeks to make revisions/clarifications to my transcripts. The transcription will be protected by a password. My participation in this project can better our understanding of (a) parents’ influence on adolescents’ psychological needs satisfaction (b) the behaviours that best facilitate parental involvement in sport.

I understand that the content related to my participation will only be used by Evelyne Felber Charbonneau and Dr. Martin Camiré. I am free to withdraw from the study at any time or refuse to answer questions. If I choose to withdraw from the study, the data collected from my interview until the time of withdrawal will be destroyed and will not be used. I recognize that I am not to receive any monetary compensation for participating in this study. I have received assurance from the principal investigator that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. Anonymity will be assured through the use of codes (e.g., P1) on all documentation, including original transcripts, meaning that the participants’ names will never be mentioned. Tape recordings of interviews and other data collected will be stored at the University of Ottawa, in a locked cabinet in the supervisor’s office and will be kept for five (5) years after which they will be destroyed. The findings emanating from this research will be published in peer-reviewed journals and presented at conferences.

If I have any questions with regards to the ethical conduct of this research, I may contact the Office of Research Ethics and Integrity, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 154, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5, tel: 613-562-5387, email: ethics@uottawa.ca. There are two (2) copies of the consent form, one of which I keep.

I ________________ accept to participate in the research conducted by Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (Principal Investigator) from the University of Ottawa.

Participant: ___________________________ Date: __________

Principal Investigator: ___________________________ Date: __________
Appendix F

Formulaire de Consentement du Parent

**Chercheure principale :**
Evelyne Felber Charbonneau  
École des sciences de l’activité physique, Université d’Ottawa  
####-#### (poste ####); @uottawa.ca

**Superviseur :**
Martin Camiré PhD.  
École des sciences de l’activité physique, Université d’Ottawa  
####-#### (poste ####); @uottawa.ca

L’objectif de ce projet de recherche est d’explorer la perspective des parents et des enfants sur l’implication des parents dans le sport durant l’adolescence. Cette recherche est menée par Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (chercheure principale) de l’Université d’Ottawa et est financée par une bourse de maîtrise du Conseil de Recherches en Sciences Humaines du Canada (CRSH).

Ma participation consiste à prendre part à une (1) entrevue individuelle durant approximativement 45-60 minutes, l’emphase étant mise sur (a) mon expérience personnel en tant qu’athlète, (b) mon expérience personnelle en tant que parent d’athlète, et (c) mon influence sur l’appartenance sociale, l’autonomie et la compétence de mon enfant dans le sport. L’entrevue sera enregistrée utilisant un appareil audionumérique et aura lieu à un moment et un endroit de mon choix. La transcription de mon entrevue me sera retournée par courriel pour vérifier l’exactitude de mes réponses. J’aurai deux (2) semaines pour faire des révisions/clarifications à ma transcription. La transcription sera protégée par un mot de passe. Ma participation dans ce projet peut améliorer notre compréhension de (a) l’influence des parents sur la satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux chez les adolescents et (b) les comportements facilitant l’implication parentale dans le sport.

Je comprends que le contenu de ma participation sera strictement utilisé par Evelyne Felber Charbonneau et Dr. Martin Camiré. Je suis libre de me retirer de cette recherche à n’importe quel moment et/ou de refuser de répondre aux questions. Si je choisis de me retirer, les données collectées lors de mon entrevue jusqu’au moment de mon retrait seront détruites et ne seront pas utilisées. Je reconnais que je ne recevrai aucune compensation monétaire pour ma participation dans cette étude. J’ai été assuré par la chercheure principale que l’information que je fournirai restera strictement confidentielle. L’anonymat sera assuré par l’utilisation de codes (ex : P1) sur toutes documents, incluant la transcription originale, voulant dire que le nom des participants ne sera jamais mentionné. L’enregistrement audio des entrevues et autres documents seront conservés à l’Université d’Ottawa, dans un cabinet verrouillé dans le bureau du superviseur et seront gardées pour cinq (5) ans après quoi ils seront détruits. Les résultats provenant de cette recherche seront publiés dans des journaux académiques et présentés à des conférences.

Si j’ai des questions en lien avec la conduite éthique de cette recherche, je peux contacter le bureau d’éthique et d’intégrité de la recherche; Université d’Ottawa, 550 rue Cumberland, Room 159, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, (613)-562-5841 ou ethics@uottawa.ca. Il y a deux (2) copies du formulaire de consentement, dont une que je garderai. ________________ accepte de participé dans la recherche mené par Evelyne Felber Charbonneau(chercheure principale) de l’Université d’Ottawa.

Participant :  

Date :

Chercheure Principale :  

Date :
Appendix G

Screening Questions

Once parents have contacted the principal investigator indicating their interest in taking part in an interview, the following five questions will be asked via phone or email to parents. The questions are deemed necessary to ensure that interested participants are at least moderately involved in their child’s sport participation.

1. How often do you attend your child’s games or competitions?
2. How often do you drive your child to practices and/or games?
3. How often do you interact with your child’s coach?
4. How often do you help your child set basketball related goals?
5. Overall, on a scale from 0 to 10, how would you rate the extent of your involvement in your child’s sport participation?
Appendix H

Questions de Présélection

Une fois que les parents auront contacté la chercheure principale démontrant leur intérêt envers l’étude, les questions suivantes leur seront posées par téléphone ou courriel. Les questions sont nécessaires pour s’assurer que les participants intéressés soient, du moins, moyennement impliqués dans le sport de leur enfant.

1. À quelle fréquence assistez-vous aux parties et/ou compétitions de votre enfant?
2. À quelle fréquence conduisez-vous votre enfant à ses pratiques et ses compétitions?
3. À quelle fréquence interagissez-vous avec l’entraîneur(e/s) de votre enfant?
4. À quelle fréquence aidez-vous votre enfant à se fixer des objectifs reliés au basketball?
5. En général, sur une échelle de 0 à 10, comment évalueriez-vous votre implication dans le sport de votre enfant?
Appendix I

Recruitment Letter

Project Title
- Parental involvement in sport during adolescence: Perspectives from parent-child dyads.

Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (principal investigator) and Dr. Martin Camiré (supervisor) are currently conducting a study at the University of Ottawa’s School of Human Kinetics. The project’s objective consists of exploring parents’ and their children’s perspectives on parental involvement in sport during adolescence.

The purpose of this letter is to encourage your participation in this study given your involvement as the parent of a participant within a community basketball club in Montreal, Quebec. The principal investigator is currently recruiting parent-child dyads comprised of athletes playing midget level (14-15 years old) basketball. Participants will be selected on a first-come, first-served basis. Participation would consist of you and your child (active midget level basketball player) each taking part in one (1) individual interview lasting approximately 45-60 minutes. The interview focuses on the nature of parents’ involvement in sport.

The interviews will only be used for this specific project. Anonymity is guaranteed as participants will only be identified through the use of numbers rather than their names. Furthermore, the digital recordings of interviews and transcriptions will be stored at the University of Ottawa in Dr. Camiré’s research laboratory to which only the principal investigator and supervisor have access. All participants can remove themselves from the study at any time, refuse to participate, or refuse to answer certain questions. The goal of this research is to better understand parental involvement in sport during adolescence from the perspectives of both parents and children.

Given the project’s focus on parent-child dyads, if you have interest in taking part in this study, please discuss with your child to verify his/her interest in participating. The principal investigator insists that you and your child are entirely free to participate in this study. If you and your child wish to participate, please contact the researcher directly:

Principal Investigator:
Evelyne Felber Charbonneau
School of Human Kinetics, University of Ottawa
###-###-####; @uottawa.ca
Lettre de Recrutement

Titre du projet

- L’implication des parents dans le sport pendant l’adolescence: Perspective de dyades parent-enfant.

Evelyne Felber Charbonneau (Chercheure principale) et Martin Camiré (superviseur) mènent présentement une étude à l’École des sciences de l’activité physique de l’Université d’Ottawa. L’objectif de la recherche est d’explorer la perspective de parents et de leurs enfants concernant l’implication des parents dans le sport pendant l’adolescence.

Le but de cette lettre est de vous encourager à participer à cette étude, puisque vous êtes parent d’un athlète membre d’une équipe de basketball communautaire à Montréal, Québec. La chercheure principale recrute présentement des dyades parent-enfant comprenant des athlètes jouant au basketball niveau midget (14-15 ans). Les participants seront sélectionnés premier arrivé, premier servis. Votre participation consiste à ce que vous et votre enfant (membre actif de l’équipe de basketball midget) prenez part à une (1) entrevue individuelle d’une durée approximative de 45-60 minutes. Le but de l’entrevue est de mieux comprendre l’implication des parents dans le sport.

Les données provenant de cette entrevue seront seulement utilisées pour les fins de cette étude. Votre anonymat est garanti puisque les participants seront identifiés par un numéro plutôt que par leur nom. De plus, l’enregistrement audio de votre entrevue, ainsi que votre transcription seront conservées à l’Université d’Ottawa dans le laboratoire de recherche du Dr. Camiré dont seulement la chercheure principal ainsi que le superviseur ont accès. Tous les participants ont le droit de se retirer de l’étude à tout moment, refuser de participer ou refuser de répondre à certaines questions. L’objectif des entrevues est de mieux comprendre l’implication des parents dans le sport durant l’adolescence de la perspective des parents et des enfants.

Puisque la recherche s’effectue avec dyades parent-enfant, si vous êtes intéressé à participer, veuillez discuter avec votre enfant pour vérifier son intérêt. La chercheure principale insiste que vous et votre enfant sont entièrement libre de participer à cette étude. Si vous et votre enfant souhaitez participer, veuillez contacter la chercheure principale directement:

Chercheure principale :
Evelyne Felber Charbonneau
École des sciences de l’activité physique, Université d’Ottawa
###-###-#### (poste ####); @uottawa.ca
The goal of this interview is to find out more about how you perceive your (mother’s or father’s) involvement in your sporting experiences. Before starting the interview, I want you to understand that this is not an evaluation and there are no right or wrong answers. I simply want to know what you think. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary; you can decide to stop at any time. Everything you say in this interview will be kept confidential. When writing the results, I will not use your name or the names of anyone you mention during the interview. If you are uncomfortable answering a question, let me know and we can skip it. I want you to get comfortable and treat this like a normal conversation. Do you have any questions for me before we start?

Demographics
1. How old are you?
2. What grade are you in at school?
3. How many siblings do you have?
   a) How many are involved in sport?
4. What sport(s) did you play growing up?
5. What attracted you to get involved in sport?
   a) How important is sport in your life?
   b) How important is it for you to win?
6. Since your childhood, do you feel that your (mother or father) allows you to make choices related to sport?
   a) Type of sport(s) practiced?
   b) Competition level?
7. Who decided that you should join the (name of basketball program)?
   a) If you: Did your parents encourage/support your decision?
   b) If your parents: Did they give you a choice of programs/activities?
8. What do you hope to learn through basketball?
   a) How important is it for you to develop physical skills?
      • Ex: lay-up with both hands, good hand-eye coordination
   b) How important is it for you to develop social skills?
      • Ex: Working with others, developing relationships
   c) How important is it for you to develop psychological skills?
      • Ex: Anger management, coping with anxiety

Parents (General)
1. How would you describe the best type of parental involvement in youth sport?
2. Have you ever witnessed examples of parents behaving badly during sport events (games or practices) your children were involved in?
   a) Can you describe what you’ve seen?

Relatedness
1. Can you generally describe your (mother’s or father’s) involvement in your sport?
   a) Drives you to practice and games?
   b) Attends practices, games, and tournaments?
   c) Pays for registration fees and equipment?
2. Beyond your (mother’s or father’s) support that you just mentioned (ex: driving, attending, paying) does he/she play a role in your sport activities?
   a) Helping with social events (ex: fundraising)
b) Volunteer with the team
   i. Coach?
   ii. Equipment manager?
   iii. Team manager?
3. Do you talk a lot about sport with your (mother or father)?
   a) Your appreciation of the sport?
   b) Strategy?
   c) Techniques?
   d) When and where do you usually have those conversation?
      i. After games/practices?
      ii. Drive to/from events?
      iii. At home?
4. **Ask this question only if child report examples of parent behaving negatively or aggressively in sport with/around their child**: Do you believe that your (mother’s or father’s) behaviors within the sport environment influence your relationship with his/her:
   a) Your teammates?
   b) Your coach(es)?
5. How often would you say that your (mother or father) interact with:
   a) Teammates?
   b) Coach(es)?
   c) If they interact: From 0 to 10, to what extent do you believe your (mother or father) has a good relationship with:
      i. Your teammates?
      ii. Your coach(es)?
4. **Ask this question only if child report examples of parent behaving negatively or aggressively in sport with/around their child**: Do you believe that your (mother’s or father’s) behaviors within the sport environment influence your relationship with his/her:
   a) Your teammates?
   b) Your coach(es)?
5. How often would you say that your (mother or father) interact with:
   a) Teammates?
   b) Coach(es)?
   c) If they interact: From 0 to 10, to what extent do you believe your (mother or father) has a good relationship with:
      i. Your teammates?
      ii. Your coach(es)?
1. What does that number represent? What is the relationship like?
6. Do you generally feel accepted on your basketball team?
7. Do you identify positively with:
   a) this particular club?
   b) this particular team?
8. Do you identify yourself as:
   a) An athlete?
   b) A basketball player?
   c) A member of this team?

**Autonomy**
1. Does your (mother or father) often talks about you with coaches?
2. Have you ever had a misunderstanding/conflict with a coach or a teammate?
   a) If yes: Did you ask your (mother or father) for advice?
   b) If yes: Did he/she encourage you to speak for yourself or did he/she intervene directly with the coach or teammate?
3. How do you feel when your (mother or father) attends:
   a) Practices?
   b) Games?
      a. Do you feel differently about your (mother’s or father’s) presence/absence at home vs away games?
      i. Do you feel differently about your (mother’s or father’s) presence/absence depending on whether your teammates’ parents are attending or not?
   c) Tournaments?
d) Do you have a say in deciding whether he/she is present or not at these events?

4. Describe if there are any differences in how you act when your (mother or father) attends your sport events compared to when he/she is not there:
   a) Do you put in more effort?
   b) Do you listen to your coach(es) more?

5. Do you set personal goals related to your basketball performance?
   a) If yes, can you give an example?
   b) Is your (mother or father) involved in helping you set goals?
      i. If yes, how much say do they have in those goals?

6. Can you tell me the sport(s) you played during your childhood that you no longer plays?
   a) Whose decision was it to discontinue play in that/those sport(s)?
      i. Did your (mother or father) support your decision or try to convince you to continue playing that/those sport(s)?
   b) What was/were the reason(s) for discontinuing that/those sport(s)?
      i. Cut from a team?
      ii. Lack of interest?
      iii. Decided to specialize in another sport?
      iv. Bad experience?

7. If it was your choice, would you like your (mother or father) to be more or less involved in your sport participation?

**Competence**

1. What criteria do you base your success on in basketball?
   a) Performance?
      i. Do you believe you are successful if you are demonstrating optimal effort, but just not performing very well?
   b) Amount of effort put in?
      i. Do you believe you are successful if you are performing very well, but not necessarily putting in optimal effort?
   c) Skill development?
      i. Physical
      ii. Social
      iii. Psychological
      iv. Do you believe you are successful if you are developing a variety of skills, but these skills are not necessarily transforming in performance enhancements on the court?

2. Does your (mother or father) act differently depending on if you are playing a good or a bad game?
   a) If yes: Can you provide an example?
      i. During the game?
      ii. After the game?
   b) If no: How do they usually act?
      i. During the game?
      ii. After the game?
   c) Is there anything you would like to change about his/her approach?

3. If you are playing a really good game, do you want your (mother or father) to be there?
   a) Why?

4. If you are playing poorly, do you want your (mother or father) to be there?
   a) Why?
5. Would you say your (mother’s or father’s) praises are mostly directed at:
   a) Performance?
   b) Effort?
   c) Skill development?
6. Does your (mother or father) ever get upset because he/she thinks you are not performing as well as you should be?
7. Does your (mother or father) ever get upset because he/she thinks that you are not giving as much effort as you should be?
8. Does your (mother or father) ever get upset because he/she thinks that you are not developing the skills that you should be developing?

**Concluding Statements**
1. On a scale from 0 to 10, how satisfied are you with your (mother’s or father’s) involvement in your sport participation?
   a) Since childhood?
   b) This season?
2. What do you believe is the most important thing parents **should do** when getting involved in their children’s sport?
3. What do you believe is the most important thing parents **should not do** when getting involved in their children’s sport?
4. Is there anything else you would like to add that we did not touch upon?
L’objectif de cette entrevue est de mieux comprendre comment tu perçois l’implication de ton/ta (mère ou père) dans ton expérience sportive. Avant de commencer l’entrevue, je veux m’assurer que tu comprends que ceci n’est pas une évaluation et il n’y a pas de bonnes ou de mauvaises réponses. Je veux simplement savoir ce que tu penses. Ta participation dans cette étude est complètement volontaire : tu peux décider d’arrêter l’entrevue à tout moment. Tout ce que tu dis dans cette entrevue restera confidentiel. Quand j’écrirai les résultats, je n’utiliserai pas ton nom ou le nom de ceux que tu mentionneras pendant l’entrevue. Si tu es inconfortable à répondre à certaines questions, je sauterai à la question suivante. Je veux que tu te sentes confortable et que tu traites l’entrevue comme une conversation informelle. As-tu des questions avant de débuter?

**Questions démographiques**
1. Quel âge as-tu?
2. En quelle année scolaire es-tu?
3. Combien de frère et/ou sœur as-tu?
   a. Est-ce qu’il(s)/elle(s) est/sont impliqué dans des sports?
4. Quels sports as-tu joués en grandissant?
5. Qu’est-ce qui t’as attiré vers le sport?
   a. Quelle est l’importance du sport dans ta vie?
   b. Quelle est l’importance de gagner?
6. Depuis ton enfance, sens-tu que ton/ta (père ou mère) t’ont permis de faire des choix en lien avec le sport?
   a. Type de sport(s) pratiqué(s)?
   b. Niveau de compétition?
7. Qui a décidé que tu joignes ce programme de basketball?
   a. Si toi : Tes parents t’ont-ils encouragé/supporté dans ta décision?
   b. Si tes parents : Est-ce qu’ils t’ont donné un choix de programmes/activités?
8. Que cherches-tu à apprendre à travers le basketball?
   a. Quelle est l’importance de développer tes aptitudes physiques?
      • Ex : coordination main-œil, lay-up avec les deux mains
   b. Quelle est l’importance de développer tes aptitudes sociales?
      • Ex : Travailler en équipe, développer des relations
   c. Quelle est l’importance de développer tes aptitudes psychologiques?
      • Ex : Gestion de la colère, gérer son stress

**Parents (Général)**
1. Pourrais-tu me décrire ce que tu considères comme étant l’implication parentale optimale dans le sport?
2. As-tu déjà été témoin de parents qui se comportaient de façons inappropriées dans le sport?
   a. Peux-tu décrire ce que tu as témoiné?

**L’appartenance sociale**
1. Peux-tu décrire l’implication de ton/ta (mère ou père) dans ton sport?
   a. Te conduire aux pratiques et aux parties?
   b. Assister aux pratiques, parties et tournois?
   c. Payer les frais d’inscription et d’équipement?
2. Au-delà du support que tu viens de mentionnez (ex : conduire, assister, payer), est-ce que ton/ta (père ou mère) joue d’autre rôle dans les évènements entourant ton sport?
   a. Aider avec les évènements sociaux (ex : levées de fonds)
   b. Bénévolat avec l’équipe
      i. Entraîneur(e)
      ii. Responsable de l’équipement
      iii. Gérant de l’équipe
3. Parles-tu beaucoup de sport avec ton/ta (père ou mère)?
   a. Ton appréciation du sport?
   b. Stratégie?
   c. Techniques?
   d. Quand et où avez-vous habituellement ces conversations?
      i. Après les parties/pratiques?
      ii. Dans la voiture avant/après l’événement?
      iii. A la maison?
4. **Demande cette question seulement si l’enfant parle de ses parents démontrant des comportements négatif ou agressif dans le sport avec/autour de leur enfant**Crois-tu que les comportements de ton/ta (père ou mère) dans l’environnement sportif influencent tes relations avec :
   a. Tes coéquipiers(ères)?
   b. Tes entraîneurs(es)?
5. A quel fréquence dirais-tu que ton/ta (père ou mère) interagit avec :
   i. Tes coéquipiers(ères)?
   ii. Tes entraîneurs(es)?
   b. S’il interagit :Sur une échelle de 0 à 10, jusqu’à quel point considères-tu que ton/ta (père ou mère) à une bonne relation avec :
      i. Tes coéquipiers(ères)?
      ii. Tes entraîneurs(es)?
      1. Que représente ce numéro? Comment décririez-vous cette relation?
6. En général, te sens-tu accepté dans ton équipe de basketball?
7. T’identifies-tu positivement avec :
   a. ce club de basketball en particulier?
   b. cette équipe de basketball en particulier?
8. T’identifies-tu comme étant :
   a. Un/Une athlète?
   b. Un/Une joueur (euse) de basketball?
   c. Un/une membre de cette équipe?

**Autonomie**
1. Est-ce que ton/ta (mère ou père) parle souvent de toi à tes entraîneurs(es) ou arbitre(s)?
2. As-tu déjà eu un malentendu/conflict avec un entraîneur(e) ou coéquipier(ère)?
   a. Si oui : Est-ce que tu as demandé l’avis de ton/ta (père ou mère)?
   b. Si oui : Est-ce que ton/ta (père ou mère) ta encourager à te défendre ou est-ce qu’il/elle est intervenue directement avec l’entraîneur(e) ou le/la coéquipier (èr) ?
3. Comment te sens-tu quand ton/ta (père ou mère) assiste :
   a. Aux pratiques?
   b. Aux parties?
i. Te sens-tu différemment dépendamment de si la parties est à la maison ou à l’extérieur?
   1. Te sens-tu différemment dépendamment si les parents de tes coéquipiers(ères) assiste ou non?

c. Aux tournois?
d. Est-ce toi qui choisis si tes parents assistent ou non à tes compétitions?

4. Décris si il y a une différence dans ton comportement quand ton/ta (père ou mère) assiste à tes évènements sportifs :
   a. Mets-tu plus d’efforts?
   b. Écoutes-tu mieux les directives de tes entraineurs(es)?

5. Fixes-tu des objectifs personnels en lien avec ta participation au basketball?
   a. Si oui, peux-tu me donner un exemple?
   b. Est-ce que ton/ta (père ou mère) est impliqué dans ce processus?
      i. Si oui, jusqu’à quel point est-ce qu’il/elle a un mot à dire sur tes objectifs?

6. Peux-tu me dire le/les sport(s) dans lesquelles tu as participer depuis ton enfance, mais que tu ne participe plus?
   a. Qui a pris la décision que tu arrêtes de participer dans ce/ces sport(s)?
      i. Est-ce ton/ta (mère ou père) t’a supporté dans ta décision ou a essayé de te convaincre de ne pas abandonner?
   b. Quelle était la raison d’arrêter ta participation dans ce/ces sport(s)?
      i. Couper de l’équipe?
      ii. Manque d’intérêt?
      iii. Prît la décision de ce spécialisé dans un autre sport?
      iv. Mauvaise expérience?

7. Si c’était entièrement ton choix, aimerais-tu que ton/ta (père ou mère) soit plus ou moins impliqué dans ton sport?

Compétence
1. Comment définies-tu ton succès au basketball?
   a. Ta performance?
      i. Penses-tu que tu as du succès si tu démontre une quantité optimale d’effort, mais ne performe pas très bien?
   b. Tes efforts?
      i. Penses-tu que tu as du succès si tu ne performe pas très bien, mais ne démontre pas une quantité optimale d’effort?
   c. Le développement d’aptitudes?
      i. Physiques
      ii. Sociales
      iii. Psychologiques
      iv. Penses-tu que tu as du succès si tu développes une variété d’aptitudes, mais que ces aptitudes n’améliorent pas nécessairement ta performance sur le terrain?

2. Est-ce que ton/ta (père ou mère) agit différemment dépendamment si tu joues très bien au basketball, lorsque tu as une très bonne partie?
   a. Si oui : Peux-tu donne un exemple?
      i. Durant la partie?
      ii. Après la partie?
   b. Si non : Comment agissent-ils habituellement?
      i. Pendant la partie?
      ii. Après la partie?
c. Est-ce qu’il y a quelque chose que tu voudrais qu’il/elle fasse différemment?
3. Si tu joues une bonne partie, veux-tu que ton/ta (père ou mère) soit présent?
   a. Pourquoi?
4. Si tu joues une mauvaise partie, veux-tu que ton/ta (père ou mère) soit présent?
   a. Pourquoi?
5. Dirais-tu que les rétroactions de tes parents sont principalement dirigées vers :
   a. Ta performance?
   b. Ton effort?
   c. Ton développement d’aptitudes?
6. Ton/ta (père ou mère) est-t-il/elle déçu quand il/elle croit que tu n’as pas performé aussi bien que tu aurais dû?
7. Ton/ta (père ou mère) se fâche-t-il/elle quand il/elle croit que tu n’as pas donné autant d’effort que tu aurais dû?
8. Ton/ta (père ou mère) se fâche-t-il/elle quand il/elle croit que tu n’as pas développé les aptitudes que tu aurais dû développer?

Conclusion
1. Globalement, sur une échelle de 0 à 10, comment satisfait(e) es-tu de l’implication de ton/ta (père ou mère) dans ton sport?
   a. Depuis ton enfance?
   b. Cette saison?
2. Selon toi, quelle est la chose la plus importante qu’un parent devrait faire quand il/elle s’implique dans le sport de son enfant?
3. Selon toi, quelle est la chose la plus importante qu’un parent ne devrait pas faire quand il/elle s’implique dans le sport de son enfant?
4. Est-ce qu’il y a autres choses que tu voudrais ajouter que nous n’avons pas discuté?
Appendix M

Parent Interview Guide

The goal of this interview is to find out more about how you support your child in his/her sport participation. Before starting the interview, I want you to understand that this is not an evaluation and there are no right or wrong answers. I simply want to know what you think. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary: you can decide to stop at any time. Everything you say in this interview will be kept confidential. When writing the results, I will not use your name or the names of anyone you mention during the interview. If you are uncomfortable answering a question, let me know and we can skip it. I want you to get comfortable and treat this like a normal conversation. Do you have any questions for me before we start?

Demographics
1. How old are you?
2. What is your highest completed level of education?
3. What is your current occupation?
4. Did you take part in sport as a child?
   a) Which one(s)?
   b) What level(s) of competition?
5. How many children do you have?
   a) How many are involved in sport?

Parents (General)
1. How would you describe the best type of parental involvement in youth sport?
2. Have you ever witnessed examples of parents behaving badly during sport events (games or practices) your children were involved in?
   b) Can you describe what you’ve seen?

Your child (general)
1. What sport(s) did your (son or daughter) play growing up?
2. Why did you get your (son or daughter) involved in sport?
   a) How important is it for you that your (son or daughter) participates in sport?
   b) How important is winning for you in your (son’s or daughter’s) sport participation?
3. Since childhood, do you feel that you have allowed your (son or daughter) to make choices related to his/her sport participation?
   a) Type of sport(s) practiced?
   b) Competition level?
4. Who decided that your (son or daughter) should join the (name of basketball program)
   a. If your (son or daughter): Did you encourage/support his/her decision?
   b. If you: Did you give him/her a choice of programs/activities?
5. What do you hope your (son or daughter) will learn through basketball?
   a) How important is it that your (son or daughter) develops physical skills?
      • Ex: good hand-eye coordination, lay-up with both hands
   b) How important is it that your (son or daughter) develops social skills?
      • Ex: Working with others, developing relationships
   c) How important is it that your (son or daughter) develops psychological skills?
      • Ex: Anger management, coping with anxiety
6. Would you say that your spouse/partner shares the same developmental priorities as you?
Relatedness
1. Can you generally describe your involvement in your (son’s or daughter’s) sport?
   a) Driving to games and practices?
   b) Attending practices, games and tournaments?
   c) Paying for registration fees and equipment?
2. Beyond the support you have just mentioned (ex: driving, attending, paying), do you play other roles in your (son’s or daughter’s) sport activities?
   a) Helping with social events (ex: fundraising)
   b) Volunteer with the team
      i. Coach?
      ii. Equipment manager?
      iii. Team manager?
3. Do you talk a lot about sport with your (son or daughter)?
   a) His/her appreciation of the sport?
   b) Strategy?
   c) Techniques?
   d) When and where do you usually have those conversations?
      i. After games/practices?
      ii. Drive to/from events?
      iii. At home?
4. **Ask this question only if parents report examples of them behaving negatively or aggressively in sport with/around their child**: Do you believe that your behaviors within the sport environment influence your (son’s or daughter’s) relationship with his/her:
   a) Teammates?
   b) Coach(es)?
5. How often would you say that you interact with your (son’s or daughter’s):
   a) Teammates?
   b) Coach(es)?
      i. Do you often talk to your (son’s or daughter’s) coaches about him/her?
   c) If they interact: From 0 to 10, to what extent do you believe you have a good relationship with your (son’s or daughter’s):
      i. Teammates?
      ii. Coach(es)?
         1. What do those numbers represent? What is the relationship like?
6. Do you believe that your (son or daughter) is generally accepted in his/her basketball team?
7. Are you proud that your (son or daughter):
   a) Is part of this particular team?
   b) Is part of this particular club?
   c) Is a basketball player?
   d) Practices sport? (regardless of the sport)

Autonomy
1. Has your (son or daughter) ever had a misunderstanding/conflict with a coach or a teammate?
   a) If yes: Did your (son or daughter) talk to you about it, ask you for advice?
   b) If yes: Did you encourage your child to speak for him/herself or did you intervene directly with the coach or teammate?
2. How do you believe your (son or daughter) feels when you attend his/her:
   a) Practices?
b) Games?
   i. Do you believe he/she feels differently about your presence at home games compared to away games?

c) Tournaments?
   d) Do you believe he/she feels differently about your presence at home games compared to away games?
   e) Does he/she have a say in deciding whether you are present or not at these events?

3. Does your (son or daughter) set personal goals related to his/her basketball performance?
   a) If yes, can you give an example?
   b) Are you involved in helping him/her set goals?
      i. If yes, how much say do you have in those goals?

4. Can you tell me the sport(s) your (son or daughter) played during childhood that he/she no longer plays?
   c) Whose decision was it to discontinue play in that/those sport(s)?
      i. Did you support his/her decision or try to convince him/her to continue playing that/those sport(s)?
   d) What was/were the reason(s) for discontinuing that/those sport(s)?
      i. Cut from a team?
      ii. Lack of interest?
      iii. Decided to specialize in another sport?
      iv. Bad experience?

5. Do you believe your (son or daughter) would like you to be more or less involved in his/her sport participation?

   Competence
1. How do you define success in basketball for your son or daughter?
   a) Performance?
      i. Do you deem your son/daughter to be successful if he/she is demonstrating optimal effort, but just not performing very well? RELATE TO BBALL EXAMPLES
   b) Amount of effort he/she puts in?
      i. Do you deem your son/daughter to be successful if he/she is performing very well, but not necessarily putting in optimal effort?
   c) Skill development?
      i. Physical
      ii. Social
      iii. Psychological
      iv. Do you deem your son/daughter to be successful if he/she is developing a variety of skills, but these skills are not necessarily transforming in performance enhancements on the court?

2. Do you sometimes catch yourself acting differently based on if your (son or daughter) is having a good or a bad game?
   a) If yes: can you provide an example?
      i. During the games?
      ii. After the game?
   b) If no: How do you usually act?
      i. During the games?
      ii. After the games?
3. When your (son or daughter) is playing well during a game you are attending, do you believe he/she is happy that you are there?
4. When your (son or daughter) is playing poorly during a game you are attending, do you believe he/she wishes that you weren’t there?
5. If we take our three categories from question 1, would you say that your praises are mostly directed at your (son’s or daughter’s) performance, effort, or skill development?
   a. Do you ever get upset because you think that your (son or daughter) is not performing as well as he/she should be?
   b. Do you ever get upset because you think that your (son or daughter) is not giving as much effort as he/she should be?
   c. Do you ever get upset because you think that your (son or daughter) is not developing the skills that he/she should be developing?

Concluding Statements
1. On a scale from 0 to 10, how satisfied are you with your involvement in your (son’s or daughter’s) sport participation?
   a) Since childhood?
   b) This season?
2. Overall, on a scale from 0 to 10, how satisfied do you believe your (son or daughter) is regarding your involvement in his/her sport participation?
   a) Since childhood?
   b) This season?
3. What do you believe is the most important thing parents **should do** when getting involved in their children’s sport?
4. What do you believe is the most important thing parents **should not do** when getting involved in their children’s sport?
5. Is there anything else you would like to add that we did not touch upon?
Guide d’entrevue du parent

L’objectif de cette entrevue est de mieux comprendre comment vous supportez votre (garçon ou fille) dans son expérience sportive. Avant de débuter l’entrevue, je veux m’assurer que vous comprenez que ceci n’est pas une évaluation et qu’il n’y a pas de bonnes ou mauvaises réponses. Je veux simplement savoir ce que vous pensez. Votre participation dans cette étude est complètement volontaire : vous pouvez décider d’arrêter l’entrevue à tout moment. Tout ce que vous dites dans cette entrevue restera confidentiel. Quand j’écrirai les résultats, je n’utiliserai pas votre nom ou le nom de ceux que vous mentionnez pendant l’entrevue. Si vous êtes inconfortable à répondre à certaines questions, je sauterai à la question suivante. Je veux que vous vous sentiez confortable et que vous traitiez l’entrevue comme une conversation informelle. Est-ce que vous avez des questions avant que nous commencions?

Questions démographiques
1. Quel âge avez-vous?
2. Quel est votre plus haut niveau d’éducation complété?
3. Quelle est votre profession actuelle?
4. Est-ce que vous avez joué des sports dans votre jeunesse?
   a. Lesquels?
   b. Niveau de compétition?
5. Combien d’enfant avez-vous?
   a. Combien sont impliqué dans le sport?

Parents (Général)
1. Pouvez-vous décrire ce que vous considérez comme étant l’implication parentale optimale dans le sport?
2. Avez-vous déjà été témoin de parents qui se comportaient de façons inappropriées dans le sport?
   a. Pouvez-vous décrire ce que vous avez témoigné?

Votre enfant (Général)
1. Quel(s) sport est-ce que votre (garçon ou fille) a pratiqué en grandissant?
2. Pourquoi avez-vous inscrit votre (garçon ou fille) dans le sport organisé?
   a. Jusqu’à quel point est-ce important pour vous que votre (garçon ou fille) participe dans un/des sport(s)?
   b. Jusqu’à quelle point est-ce important pour vous que votre (garçon ou fille) gagne?
3. Depuis son enfance, croyez-vous que vous avez permis à votre (garçon ou fille) de faire des choix en ce qui a trait à sa participation sportive?
   a. Type de sport(s) pratiqué(s)?
   b. Niveau de compétition?
4. Qui a décidé que votre (garçon ou fille) joigne ce programme de basketball?
   a. Si votre (garçon ou fille): Est-ce que vous l’avez encouragé/supporté dans sa décision?
   b. Si vous: Est-ce que vous lui avez donné un choix de programmes/activités?
5. Quelles aptitudes croyez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) peut apprendre en basketball?
   i. Jusqu’à quelle point est-ce important pour vous que votre (garçon ou fille) développe des aptitudes physiques?
      • Ex : coordination main-œil, lay-up avec les deux mains
ii. Jusqu’à quelle point est-ce important pour vous que votre (garçon ou fille) développe des aptitudes sociales?
- Ex : Travailler en équipe, développer des relations

iii. Jusqu’à quelle point est-ce important pour vous que votre (garçon ou fille) développe des aptitudes psychologiques?
- Ex : Gestion de la colère, gérer son stress

6. Diriez-vous que votre conjoint(e) partage les mêmes priorités que vous au niveau du développement de votre (garçon ou fille)?

L’appartenance sociale

1. Pouvez-vous décrire votre implication dans le sport de votre (garçon ou fille)?
   a. Conduisez-vous aux pratiques et aux parties?
   b. Assistez-vous aux pratiques, parties et tournois?
   c. Payez-vous les frais d’inscription et d’équipement?

2. Au-delà du support que vous venez de mentionnez (ex : conduire, assister, payer), jouez-vous d’autres rôle dans les activités sportives de votre (garçon ou fille)?
   a. Aider avec les évènements sociaux (ex : levées de fonds)
   b. Bénévolat avec l’équipe
      i. Entraîneur(e)
      ii. Responsable de l’équipement
      iii. Gérant de l’équipe

3. Parlez-vous beaucoup de sport avec votre (garçon ou fille)?
   a. Son appréciation du sport?
   b. Stratégies?
   c. Techniques?
   d. Ou avez-vous habituellement ces conversations?
      i. Après les parties/pratiques?
      ii. Dans la voiture avant/après l’événement?
      iii. A la maison?

4. **Demande cette question seulement si le parent parle d’eux démontrant des comportements négatif ou agressif dans le sport avec/autour de leur enfant**
   Croyez-vous que vos comportements dans l’environnement sportif influencent les relations de votre (garçon ou fille) avec :
   a. Ses coéquipiers(ères)?
   b. Ses entraîneurs(es)?

5. A quelle fréquence interagissez-vous avec :
   a. Les coéquipiers(ères) de votre (garçon ou fille)?
   b. Les entraîneurs(es) de votre (garçon ou fille)?
      i. Est-ce que vous parlez souvent de votre (garçon ou fille) à ses entraîneurs(es)?
   c. Si il/elle interagit : Sur une échelle de 0 à 10, jusqu’à quel point considérez-vous que vous avez de bonnes relations avec :
      i. Les coéquipiers(ères) de votre (garçon ou fille)?
      ii. Les entraîneurs(es) de votre (garçon ou fille)?

      1. Que représente ce numéro? Comment décririez-vous cette relation?

6. En général, croyez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) est accepté(e) par ses pairs dans son équipe de basketball?
7. Êtes-vous fier(e) que votre (garçon ou fille) :
   a. Fasse partie de cette équipe en particulier?
   b. Fasse partie de ce club en particulier?
   c. Soit un joueur de basketball?
   d. Pratique un sport? (Peu importe lequel)

Autonomie
1. Est-ce que votre (garçon ou fille) a déjà eu un malentendu/confli avec ses entraîneur(es) ou coéquipier(ères)?
   a. Si oui : Est-ce que votre (garçon ou fille) vous en a parlé, vous a demander votre avis?
   b. Si oui : Avez-vous encourager votre (garçon ou fille) à se par (lui ou elle)-même ou avez-vous intervenu directement avec l’entraîneur(e) ou le/la coéquipier(ère)?
   c. Pouvez-vous donner un exemple?
2. Comment croyez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) se sent lorsque vous assistez :
   a. Aux pratiques?
   b. Aux parties?
      i. Croyez-vous qu’il/elle se sent différemment dépendamment de si la parties est à la maison ou a l’extérieur?
   c. Aux tournois?
   d. Est-ce que votre (garçon ou fille) a un mot à dire si vous assistez ou non à ses pratiques/compétitions?
3. Est-ce que votre (garçon ou fille) se fixe des objectifs en lien avec sa participation au basketball?
   a. Si oui, pouvez-vous me donner un exemple?
   b. Est-ce que vous êtes impliqué dans ce processus?
      i. Si oui, jusqu’à quel point êtes-vous impliqué dans la fixation d’objectifs?
4. Pouvez-vous me dire le/les sport(s) dans lesquelles votre (garçon ou fille) a déjà participer pendant son enfance, mais ne participe plus?
   a. Qui a pris la décision qu’il/elle arrête de participer dans ce/ces sport(s)?
      i. Est-ce que vous avez supporté sa décision ou essayé de le/la convaincre de ne pas abandonner?
   b. Quelle était la raison d’arrêter sa participation dans ce/ces sport(s)?
      i. Couper de l’équipe?
      ii. Manque d’intérêt?
      iii. Prêt la décision de ce spécialisé dans un autre sport?
      iv. Mauvaise expérience?
5. Est-ce que vous croyez que votre (garçon ou fille) aimerais que vous soyez plus ou moins impliqué dans son sport?

Compétence
1. Comment conceptualisez-vous le succès de votre (garçon ou fille) au basketball?
   a. Sa performance?
      i. Pensez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) a du succès si il/elle démontre une quantité optimale d’effort, mais ne performe pas très bien?
   b. Ses efforts?
      i. Pensez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) a du succès si il/elle performe très bien, mais ne démontre pas une quantité optimale d’effort?
c. Son développement d’aptitudes?
   i. Physiques
   ii. Sociales
   iii. Psychologiques
   iv. Pensez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) a du succès si il/elle développe une variété d’aptitudes, mais ces aptitudes n’améliorent pas nécessairement sa performance sur le terrain?

2. Est-ce que vous vous surprenez à changer vos comportements dépendamment de si votre (garçon ou fille) joue une bonne ou une mauvaise partie?
   a. Si oui : Pouvez-vous me donner un exemple?
      i. Pendant la partie?
      ii. Après la partie?
   b. Si non : Comment vous compormentez-vous habituellement?
      i. Pendant la partie?
      ii. Après la partie?

3. Comment vous comportez-vous lorsque votre (garçon ou fille) joue très bien au basketball, lorsqu’il/elle a une très bonne partie?
   a. Croyez-vous que vous devriez agir différemment?

4. Comment vous comportez-vous lorsque votre (garçon ou fille) ne joue pas très bien, lorsqu’il/elle n’a pas une bonne partie?
   a. Est-ce que vous signalez ce qu’il/elle n’as pas bien fait ou encouragez-vous les bonnes choses qu’il/elle a fait? (ex : effort)
   b. Croyez-vous que vous devriez agir différemment?

5. Pendant les parties, est-ce que votre comportement change dépendamment du niveau de performance de votre (garçon ou fille)?
   a. Si oui, pouvez-vous me donner un exemple?

6. Est-ce que vous donnez des conseils techniques/stratégiques en lien avec le basketball à votre (garçon ou fille)?
   a. Si oui, croyez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) apprécie et tient compte de vos conseils?
   b. À quel endroit et à quel moment donnez-vous ces conseils?
      i. Durant les pratiques et/ou parties?
      ii. À la maison

7. Diriez-vous que vos rétroactions sont principalement dirigées vers :
   a. Sa performance?
   b. Ses efforts?
   c. Son développement d’aptitudes?

8. Êtes-vous fâché quand vous croyez que votre (garçon ou fille) n’a pas performé aussi bien qu’il/elle aurait dû?

9. Êtes-vous fâché quand vous croyez que votre (garçon ou fille) n’a pas donné autant d’efforts qu’il/elle aurait dû?

10. Êtes-vous fâché quand vous croyez que votre (garçon ou fille) n’a pas développé les aptitudes qu’il/elle aurait dû développer?

**Conclusion**

1. Globalement, sur une échelle de 0 à 10, comment satisfaits êtes-vous de votre implication dans le sport de votre (garçon ou fille)?
2. Globalement, sur une échelle de 0 à 10, comment satisfaits pensez-vous que votre (garçon ou fille) est de votre implication dans son sport?
3. Selon vous, quel est l’aspect le plus important qu’un parent doit faire quand il/elle s’implique dans le sport de son enfant?
4. Selon vous, quel est l’aspect le plus important qu’un parent ne doit pas faire quand il/elle s’implique dans le sport de son enfant?
5. Est-ce qu’il y a autre chose que vous voudriez ajouter que nous n’avons pas discuté?
Appendix O

Ethic Approval

University of Ottawa

Ethics Approval Notice

Health Sciences and Science REB

Principal Investigator / Supervisor / Co-investigator(s) / Student(s)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Name</th>
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<tbody>
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File Number: H05-16-06

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Title: Parental Involvement in Sport during Adolescence: Perspective from Parent-Child Dyads

Approval Date (mm/dd/yyyy): 06/15/2016

Expire Date (mm/dd/yyyy): 06/14/2017

Approval Type: Approved

Special Conditions / Comments:
N/A
This is to confirm that the University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board identified above, which operates in accordance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement (2010) and other applicable laws and regulations in Ontario, has examined and approved the ethics application for the above named research project. Ethics approval is valid for the period indicated above and subject to the conditions listed in the section entitled “Special Conditions / Comments”.

During the course of the project, the protocol may not be modified without prior written approval from the REB except when necessary to remove participants from immediate endangerment or when the modification(s) pertain to only administrative or logistical components of the project (e.g., change of telephone number). Investigators must also promptly alert the REB of any changes which increase the risk to participant(s), any changes which considerably affect the conduct of the project, all unanticipated and harmful events that occur; and new information that may negatively affect the conduct of the project and safety of the participant(s). Modifications to the project, including consent and recruitment documentation, should be submitted to the Ethics Office for approval using the “Modification to research project” form available at: http://research.uottawa.ca/ethics/submissions-and-reviews.

Please submit an annual report to the Ethics Office four weeks before the above-referenced expiry date to request a renewal of this ethics approval. To close the file, a final report must be submitted. These documents can be found at: http://research.uottawa.ca/ethics/submissions-and-reviews.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Office at extension 5387 or by e-mail at: ethics@uOttawa.ca.