

PARENTAL COACHING: AN EXPLORATION OF HOW PARENTS PERCEIVE
THE
EFFECTS OF THEIR COMMENTS ON CHILD PERFORMANCE

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BY
NATHALIE RAPER, MA

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my loved ones, the people who have provided support throughout this entire process. To my amazing husband, who encouraged me through the tail end of my program and whose unconditional love was a driving force that allowed me to finish. I love you so much and am so grateful you are in my life. To my father, whose expectations helped push me when I wanted to stop. And lastly, to my mother, who has always been my coach and my rock.

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Threes up!

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ABSTRACT

NATHALIE RAPER
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The purpose of this qualitative study was to take a phenomenological approach to explore the perceptions of what role parents of athletes believe they serve by reflecting on the cognitions (words) they have expressed during “parental coaching.” Cognitive behavioral theory was used to guide this study. The following research questions were explored: How do parents perceive their acts of parental coaching in relation to the effect it has on their child athlete? What role do parents believe they serve in relation to their child athlete and their sport? What do parents believe “parental coaching” means, and what are their thoughts regarding how they measure up with that definition? Does a parent’s coaching behavior vary depending on situational aspects (games vs practice)? What effect do parents believe they have on their child’s mindset, performance, and overall enjoyment of the sport? Do parents believe there are any consequences to their “parental coaching”?

Twenty structured interviews were completed by parents of athletes. Data obtained was transcribed, coded and triangulation was used to determine credibility. In

this study, five themes were identified: Parent as Life Coach, Support and Encouragement, Daughter's Receptiveness Parent's Financial Commitment to Results and Parenting Differences by Gender . Under Parent as Life Coach, a sub theme of Timing was found. Parents in this study believed their parental coaching to be less related to the act of coaching in the specific sport and more related to being a Life Coach. Commentary related to the child's performance was also enhanced or reduced based on timing. Support and Encouragement was found to be a way in which parents universally defined parental coaching and was prevalent when discussing a parent's overall role. Daughter's Receptiveness was a defining factor in the amount of commentary a parent had with their child and what was said. Lastly, themes of Parent's Financial Commitment to Results and Parenting Differences by Gender were presented organically. Many parents noted the importance of their expectations being met due to the amount of money that was invested in the sport. Parents also noted the delivery of information was different when it came from the father.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to the Sports and Fitness Industry Organization in 2011, there were 21.5 million children aged 6 through 17 playing organized sports (Kelley & Carchia, 2013). It is stated that parental involvement, both positive and negative, has increased as athletic programs have become more organized over the years (Smoll, Cummings, & Smith, 2011), demanding more attention to the role of the parents in the athletic activities of their children. In athletics, it is important to determine a player's state of mind so that the focus is optimal and directed appropriately to the task at hand. Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986) discussed the influence adults, specifically coach and parents, have on an athlete's enjoyment of the sport and overall performance. Because parents are a source of influence for their adolescent, it is important to recognize the levels of involvement and the impact an athlete's parent has on the specific sport performance (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). It is assumed that parental thinking patterns (expectancies) serve as motivation for how their child should be performing, and that by verbalizing their standards to the athlete, it will help to promote improvement in the sport or activity (Dattilio, 2010).

Researchers have explored multiple factors in how children wished their parents behaved in the area of parental coaching in sports psychology (Knight, Neely, & Holt, 2011), children's perception of their own sports involvement (Stein, Raedeke, & Glenn, 1999), parenting styles and perfectionism in specific sports (Sapieja, Dunn, & Holt,

2011), and observations of parental support and pressure in athletics (Kanters, Bocarro, & Casper, 2008). The concern is that there is little established research regarding the cognitions of the parents and how they believe these cognitions are perceived by their athlete.

Statement of the Problem

Parental coaching in the eyes of the parents may be seen as helpful and motivational, while in the eyes of the coaches, parental coaching can be distracting and detrimental to the focus of the player. Weiss, Wiese, and Klint (1989) discussed expectations and negative evaluations as a major source of stress and a hindrance to a child athlete's self-efficacy, which was found to be a strong predictor of athletic performance. Conversely, the parents may see their "informal" coaching as a way of communicating something that the coach cannot or will not say to their player, and would therefore have the potential of being helpful to their child. For example, children with low self-esteem are more responsive to supportive and instructional feedback from adults (including coaches and parents), while children with higher self-esteem are less influenced by evaluative feedback (Smith & Smoll, 1990). In their work with child (wrestling) athletes, Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986) defined adult influences as children's perceptions of the parent or coach's evaluative and affective reactions to their performance and the parent's involvement and interactions in the sporting event or setting, which were found to be inversely related to their levels of post-competitive stress. It is noted that this dynamic between parent and coach is circumstantial and has many different qualifiers, such as age, experience, sport, temperament, and gender. However,

this study aimed to explore the mindset of the parents in reference to how they perceive the commentary they provide their child athlete.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore what role parents of athletes believe they serve by reflecting on the cognitions they have expressed during “parental coaching.” By addressing the perceptions of parents involved in parental coaching, this study expects to inform parents of athletes how their words and actions affect not only their child, but also the team, and to reflect on how the action of parental coaching has been useful or detrimental to their child’s athletic success. It is proposed that if parents are able to understand and reflect on their potentially distorted cognitions, they will become more cognizant of when and how they are “coaching,” and ultimately give more consideration to the potential effect their coaching will bring about for their child.

Theoretical Framework

For this study, cognitive behavioral family therapy was used to describe how schemata and cognitive distortions could be significant towards influencing thoughts, feelings, and behaviors expressed by the parent of the athlete (Dattilio, 2010). Holt, Tamminen, Black, Mandigo, and Fox (2009) highlighted the need to pay scholarly attention to how parents influence psychosocial experiences in sport. This study utilized cognitive behavioral concepts (attributions, expectancies, assumptions, and standards) in an attempt to explain motivations behind parental coaching and to address automatic thoughts from the parents. Parents in this study described standards of parenting based on

their personal view and understanding of the way they measure up to said standards. Attributions regarding the motivation for parental coaching are explored, while assumptions regarding the child athlete's mindset and performance are examined as well. Assumptions represent a person's attempt to live with negative core beliefs (McArdle & Moore, 2012). This study examined how such negative beliefs, specifically held by the child athlete, related to the parents' communication. Expectancies are communicated in the interview as well as in the goals section of the demographic questionnaire. A core assumption of cognitive behavioral therapy includes reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1977), which states that all influencing factors (thoughts, feelings and emotions) are considered interactive, overlapping and have a mutual influence on each other. Graham, Kowalski, and Crocker (2002) discussed detrimental thoughts, attitudes, and beliefs all having an effect on an athlete's ability to execute the skills they are capable of. The concept of reciprocal determination was demonstrated in the discussion about timing as it connects to parental coaching and its purpose. In this study, it was important to discuss how a parent's emotional state influenced the cognitions and in turn the behavior, which could collectively have an impact on the athlete. This study took into consideration the aftermath of parental coaching and how the parents feel their athlete was affected.

Research Questions

RQ1: How do parents perceive their acts of parental coaching in relation to the effect it has on their child athlete?

RQ2: What role do parents believe they serve in relation to their child athlete and their sport?

RQ3: What do parents believe “parental coaching” means, and what are their thoughts regarding how they measure up with that definition?

RQ4: Does a parent’s coaching behavior vary depending on situational aspects (games vs. practice)?

RQ5: What effect do parents believe they have on their child athlete in regards to their mindset, performance, and overall enjoyment of the sport?

RQ6: Do parents believe there are any consequences to their “parental coaching”?

Definitions

Assumptions are beliefs that are a form of schema that each family member holds about the others (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

Attributions are inferences made about causes of events in the relationship or how the event occurred, which is shaped by schema (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

Child athlete refers to the daughters of the participants.

Expectancies are predictions about future behavior (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

“Parental coaching” is defined as instances where the parent, caregiver, or familial spectator comments positively or negatively on the child athlete’s performance, state of

mind, or strategy during, prior to, or following a particular sporting event (practices, lessons, or games).

Select (club) sports refers to extracurricular activities, specifically volleyball, that are played outside of school and recreation environments and have an increase in cost and levels of play. In this study, open and top (first) team refer to a higher skill level and an increased cost while second and third teams refer to lower levels of play and less financial responsibility.

Standards are schema that family members hold about characteristics their relationships should have (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

Assumptions

It is assumed that parents will be open and honest about the topic of parental coaching, as well as have reflected on their coaching behaviors.

Delimitations

1. The sample is drawn from a North Texas volleyball club that is a smaller populated club that is comprised primarily of African American, Hispanic, and Caucasian parents.
2. This study also does not take into consideration the aspect of age or team level for research purposes.

3. Participants who have the potential to advance to the age of the team coached by the researcher will not be included in the study to avoid the possibility of perceived dual relationships or any bias in the study.

Summary

There are many ways parents influence their child in extracurricular activities. It is the aim of the researcher to identify the ways in which parents view their interactions with their child athlete. This research is interested in gaining understanding of how parents of child athletes view their role in their child's athletic career, and to what degree do they feel they are a help or a hindrance. This study will discuss what parents say to their child athlete, examine the situational context of these discussions, and inquire what the parents' intentions are in regards to the words they choose to use.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature on the topic of athletic performance is directed towards the realm of anxiety as a response to external or internal perceptions (Graham et al., 2002); discusses motivations behind participation (Klint & Weiss, 1987); and, generally, discusses the role of emotions as a determining factor in the success of an athlete (Weiss et al., 1989). Gee (2010) discussed the mind and body connection as being widely accepted in the psychological community, and posited that attitudes and emotions directly affect the body at a physiological level, along with the behavioral responses chosen and the effort put forth towards their execution. This can be applied to sports performance. According to Araujo and Dosil (2015), there are a number of psychological (attitudinal and emotional) constructs that have shown to be counterproductive to sports performance.

Theoretical Framework

Cognitive behavioral family therapy describes how schemata and cognitive distortions can be significant towards influencing thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Dattilio, 2010). Applications to athletic performance include how schemata can shape the way a parent perceives a child's performance, or how the child athlete interprets the environment and situational aspects of a game. Gherghisan (2015) discussed how in a sporting environment, an athlete will overcompensate for her schemas, whether they be negative or positive, through her performance. Therefore, it is important to note such

schemas when considering how they are formed, maintained, and utilized by both the child athlete and the parents.

In relation to sports performance, cognitive behavioral therapy can incorporate cognitive change methods, such as self-talk to promote awareness of interactions with athletes (Luiselli, 2012). Johnson, Hrycaiko, Johnson, and Hallas (2004) discussed the core of self-talk included focusing on a desired thought, which in turn would lead to a desired behavior, consistent with cognitive behavioral therapy, which discusses reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1977) of one's thoughts, emotions and behaviors. Singh (2014) discussed how cognitive techniques such as visualization and self-talk could increase confidence and help an individual see themselves completing a task. It was found that thoughts the athlete has, whether positive or negative, could affect the performance by impacting confidence, concentration, anxiety control, and mood. Positive statements specifically were found to help reduce negative doubts and enhance performance.

Luiselli (2012) also noted that child and adolescent athletes usually seek guidance from their parents, and parents in turn will counsel them about not giving up, adversity, stress, and coping as they relate to the sport. This idea of modeling is created based on the belief that there is something to learn (Bandura, 1977). Bandura noted that behaviors are learned through modeling (social learning theory) when they are perceived to be successful. This observational learning will occur as either acquiring new responses or changing old ones. In relation to athletics, this can be used by parents to demonstrate concepts they deem important to apply in athletics.

Attitudes

Attitudes reflect a set of beliefs, feelings, or behaviors related to one another, which are organized around an object or situation that may be favorable or unfavorable (Araujo & Dosil, 2015). Biddle and Mutrie (2001) stated that attitudes have predictive validity in the field of physical activity. Leith and Baumeister (1996) discovered that negative affect led to more risk taking in athletic settings, and they discussed bad moods leading to self-destructive behaviors. Attitude determines how individuals act towards others and events. Therefore, feelings, behaviors and choices become a powerful predictor of behavior, and in turn, can be dynamic, constructed, taught, modified or replaced (Araujo & Dosil, 2015). Hagger, Chatzisanrantis, Biddle, and Orbell (2001) found that attitude is the most important prognostic variable regarding behavioral intentions in the field of physical activity.

Anxiety

Anxiety is also discussed among sports literature as a variable in performance success. Anxiety refers to cognitive concerns or worry, and responses that accompany a stressful situation, particularly when the perceived situational demands exceed an individual's perceived ability to meet those demands (Gee, 2010). It is a cognitive (thoughts of worry) and somatic (feeling butterflies) construct. In regards to athletics, antecedents of cognitive anxiety and those of self-confidence are factors related to an athlete's expectations of success, including one's own ability based on previous competitive experiences and perceptions of opponents' ability (Jones, Swain, & Cale,

1990). Acute stressors in sports, like errors, penalties, or unpleasant comments can negatively influence numerous cognitive and psychophysiological processes (Anshel, 1996).

The inability to cope with acute stress can lead to decreased motivation, emotional distress, poor athletic performance, and eventual burnout from competitive sport (Anshel, 1996). Hardy, Mullen, and Jones (1996) emphasized the detrimental effect stress has on performance. Cognitive anxiety is defined as negative thoughts and subsequent self-doubt that can influence within game behavior and decision making (Gee, 2010). This negative affect can lead to self-defeating responses (Leith & Baumeister, 1996). Precompetitive anxiety is frequently cited as a psychological issue in competitive athletics (Gee, 2010). Elevated anxiety causes a number of physiological changes that can impede aspects of performance, such as reduction of ability to shift attention or impairment of decision-making abilities (Jones, Swain & Cale, 1990). Anshel and Wells (2000) stated that coping with acute stressors is a function of the characteristics of the stressful event, the athlete's appraisal of the event, and the subsequent use of coping strategies.

Graham et. al. (2002) discussed further that detrimental thoughts, attitudes, and beliefs all affect an athlete's ability to execute the skills they are capable of. It is also noted that athletes create unpleasant emotional states, such as anxiety or anger, based on irrational beliefs, such as the need for perfection or their self-worth depending on athletic achievement. Graham et al. (2002) added that goal characteristics have a direct effect on emotional responses and found that positive emotion, stability, and personal control were

predictors of athletic success, and that goal importance and goal performance discrepancy accounted for a significant variance on joviality and self-assurance. For athletes, it is important to have appropriate self-directed thought processes prior to and during task execution, as they are both shown to make a significant difference on the level of performance attained (Winter & Collins, 2015). However, reduction in either “negative” affective states, such as anxiety, or increases in self-confidence do not necessarily result in increases in athletic performance (Burton, 1989). Kavussanu and McAuley (1995) found that optimism was associated with enhanced motivation, due to the belief that the players were capable of accomplishing their specific task, also known as self-efficacy.

Performance

Sports psychology is an aid to help athletes perform at a level closer to one’s absolute potential and increase relative performance (Graham et al., 2002). Gee (2010) discussed absolute performance as one’s optimal performance and stated that one’s optimal athletic output is directly related to that individual’s physiological composition. It is noted that relative performance is an athlete’s day to day or within competition performance and reflects how an athlete performed during a given competition. Inhibitors of performance are things that cause an athlete’s relative performance to be lower than absolute potential and can be manifested a number of ways. They can be internal or within the sport itself (referees, injury, fatigue), and external (outside variables such as weather). Athletes develop and utilize psychological skills such as goal setting, imagery or mental rehearsal, arousal control, self-talk, and precompetitive routines as ways to aid in development of self-control and internal processes (Hardy, Mullen, & Jones, 1996).

The most effective way to enhance a player's self-efficacy, as discussed by Gould, Hodge, Peterson, and Giannini (1989), included instruction drilling, modeling confidence in oneself, encouraging positive talk, and liberal use of reward statements.

Emotions and Self Efficacy

Graham et al. (2002) expanded upon the argument about emotion in regards to motivational behavior in physical activity. Graham et al. (2002) found that positive emotions are associated with enjoyment of competitive sport and exercise, participation in youth sports programs, activity choices, higher level of physical activity, intrinsic motivation, and involvement in challenging physical activity. Negative emotions have been implicated in low personal expectations, decreased performance, burnout in elite youth sports, and avoidance of competition. It was found that the reduction of negative emotions and associated increases in positive cognition and confidence levels directly related to an ideal performance state would relate to optimal athletic performance (Hardy et al., 1996). Cognitive reappraisal was defined as the capacity to generate changes at the cognitive level due to the impact of a situation (Molina, Oriol, & Mendoza, 2018). Molina et al. (2018) found that cognitive reappraisal was related to experiencing positive affects during competition, specifically amusement, gratitude, and hope. It was found that suppression of emotions was associated with negative affect like anger, fear, and being overwhelmed.

Smith and Smoll (1990) found in a study that people with low self-esteem were more responsive to differences in evaluative feedback than those with higher self-esteem.

People low in self-regard would be strongly attracted to those who satisfy their need by providing them with support and positive evaluation enhancement through competency development. Children low in self-esteem were especially responsive to both supportive and instructional orientations in adult leaders. Self-efficacy is the extent to which an individual believes he or she can execute the behaviors needed to produce a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is a strong predictor of performance, and in a study by Weiss et al. (1989), characteristic worry cognitions about competition were a major source of stress for young gymnasts. These stressors revolved around worries about expectations and negative evaluations from significant others such as coaches, parents, and teammates. These findings help suggest the importance of the parental and coaching influence that expectations and potential evaluation of performance can exert on a young athlete.

Expectations and Perfectionism

Expectations play an important role in determining behavioral choices by an athlete (Frome & Eccles, 1998). Expectations for success are most directly influenced by an individual's ability, self-concept, and the estimation of the difficulty of the task. Assumptions represent a person's attempt to live with negative core beliefs (McArdle & Moore, 2012), such as an inability to complete a task due to their own lack of self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) conceptualized that behavioral change is mediated by self-efficacy, which is the belief that individuals hold on whether they can perform a difficult task after the said estimation of difficulty (McAuley, 1985). These efficacy conditions,

according to McAuley, were significant predictors of performance of motor skills and performance.

Hamilton, Scott, and MacDougall (2007) discussed the cognitive strategy of self-talk, referring to what athletes say to themselves in an attempt to think more positively about upcoming performances and to direct themselves to reach a desired outcome, as one of many techniques towards effective preparation and motivation. Other techniques included thought stopping and cognitive restructuring. A core principle of cognitive behavioral therapy is that cognitive change is critical to a positive therapeutic outcome (McArdle & Moore, 2012). Beck and Beck (1995) stated that according to cognitive behavioral therapy, psychological problems stem from the interaction of various aspects of life experiences, biased or distorted thinking, emotions, physiology, and behavior.

Perfectionism can originate from a player or parents' desire for success. Perfectionism is a compulsive pursuit of excessively high standards and a tendency to engage in harsh, overly critical self-evaluation (Hill, Hall, Appleton, & Kozub, 2008). Hill, Mallinson-Howard, and Jowett (2018) characterized perfectionism by the perceptions that success is derived from ability and not from effort and mastery. They found no benefits of perfectionism because it related to a lower sense of self-value (with lower self-esteem and higher self-criticism), explaining a positive relationship between perfectionism and negative emotional experiences like anxiety. Besser, Flett, and Hewitt (2004) found that individuals with high self-oriented perfectionism experienced a general increase in negative affect after performing a task, and when receiving negative performance feedback, these self-oriented perfectionists reported a decrease in positive

affect. These authors also found that participants who experienced negative feedback were more disappointed in their performance and gave more negative evaluations of their performance. Gonzalez-Hernandez, Gomez-Lopez, Alarcon-Garcia, and Munoz- Villena (2019) found that subjects with maladaptive perfectionism inclinations (high indicators of concern over mistakes and parental control) showed higher stress perception. These authors also found when a parental figure hopes for a higher result in the sport performance, the fear of failure in tasks and disappointment in expectations produce more stress perception in the teenagers of the study.

Perfectionism also plays an important role in burnout in athletes (Gould, Udry, Tuffey, & Loehr, 1996). Smith (1986) discussed that athletic burnout develops as a result of chronic stress brought about by regularly appraising oneself as unable to meet demands of achievement. According to Smith, burnout is the psychological, emotional, and physical withdrawal of a formerly pursued or enjoyable sport as a result of excessive stress over the course of time. When perfectionism evokes harsh criticisms, motivational debilitation occurs, and when criticism is consistent, athletes become vulnerable to burnout. According to Sellars, Evans, and Thomas (2016), High personal standards were suggested to motivate all participants to try to attain perfection in their sports performance. These high personal standards were linked to athletes being overly critical and never satisfied with their performance. Hill et al. (2008) found that perfectionism demonstrated a positive relationship with physical and emotional exhaustion, and reduced accomplishment and sport enjoyment. Gould et al. (1996) theorized discontinuation of sports due to burnout to be driven by the young athlete's perception of excessive stress.

They found that burned out players who reported less input into their training, would expect to lessen intrinsic motivation and cause stress and frustration.

Stress and Coping

In their research study of 332 athletes examining how different races and genders use coping strategies for acute stress, Anshel, Sutarso, and Jubenville (2009) found that Caucasians experienced higher stress intensity than did African American athletes, and that women reported higher stress intensity for coach related sources of acute stress than men. Anshel et al. (2009) also discussed the cognitive appraisal of the event, a positive or negative outcome, perceived intensity of the stressor and coping style as a personal factor, while situational factors are sources of acute stress characteristics of a sports contest. Daw and Burton (1994) speculated that psychological factors have an important impact on competitive success and that systematic psychological training can enhance performance. Techniques discussed to help enhance competitive cognitions and performance includes imagery, arousal regulation, and goal setting. These techniques can be considered coping styles. Coping is defined as constantly changing cognitive and behavioral effects used by the individual to manage specific internal or external demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person (Crocker, Alderman, & Smith, 1988). Anshel et al. (2009) discussed coping style (regarding stressors) as a person's preferred use of selected types of coping strategies that is consistently utilized. However, coping strategies are situational responses to acute stressors where techniques are used to reduce external demands or improve internal resources in dealing with unpleasant events. Coping strategies can be categorized on the basis of cognitive and

behavioral efforts to change a situation (if it is problem focused) and coping efforts to regulate emotional arousal (if it is emotion focused; Crocker et al., 1988).

Coping is also further classified into two groups: approach coping and avoidance coping (Anshel & Delany, 2001). Approach behavioral coping is the conscious use of overt action in response to stressful appraisal of a stimulus or event in which the person confronts the stressor (Anshel & Delany, 2001). This can be done by soliciting information, arguing, or any observable response to reduce the intensity of the stressor (Anshel et al., 2009). Approach cognitive coping is the conscious thought or emotion in which the individual is oriented toward the threat related aspect of a situation. Strategies include planning, monitoring, becoming angry, and strategizing. Avoidance behavioral coping is the conscious decision to physically remove oneself from the environment, while avoidance cognitive coping involves turning away, or utilizing selective attention and distraction. Approach coping is noted as vigilant, attentive and active, while avoidance coping is non-vigilant, passive, repressive and disengaged (Anshel & Delany, 2001).

These types of coping strategies were examined further by comparing types of coping between males and females. Anshel and Delany (2001) found girls used more confidence building self-talk than boys, who more often used resignation. Lane, Jones, and Stevens (2002) found that maladaptive coping such as self-blame and behavioral disengagement were associated with low self-esteem for both genders. Hammermeister and Burton (2004) examined gender differences in coping among endurance athletes, and found women perceived less control than did men over environmental threats, and they

used coping strategies of venting emotions, positive reinterpretation, dissociation and emotional social support more often than men. Such examples of gender differences are important for acknowledging differences in providing effective stress management.

Motivation

Equally important is the motivation for participation and how one's motivation can be altered by stress. Araujo and Dosil (2015) discussed how motivation, interest, desire, and stimulus influenced development of attitudes. These influencers are acquired through information gathered through imitation of family or social models and are expressed in actions of individuals. The attitude of an athlete toward a sport or activity changes due to factors such as varying circumstances, personality changes, and coercion effects. Affiliation, skill development, success and status, excitement, and fitness represent the most important factors for young athletes to participate in sports (Passer, 1981). Athlete's self-determined motivation was found by Kolayis, Sari, and Celik (2017) to be significantly correlated with the learning and enjoyment climate. Kolayis et al. (2017) discussed the concept of motivational climates in Achievement Goal Theory as either task or ego involving. Task involving climates perceived entertainment, effort, self-reference, and development as tools of learning. Ego involving climates were underlined by winning, and achievement was obtained through social comparison and mistakes evaluated as being negative and punishable. In their study, Kolayis et al. found that a child's perception of their father's enjoyment climate (task) and both parents' success without effort climate (task) contributed to self-determined motivation. They concluded

that the more athletes perceive autonomy, the more they showed self-determined motivation, emphasizing the importance of parental reinforcement of desired behaviors.

Gillet and Rosnet (2008) discussed how athletes are intrinsically motivated when they engage in an activity for pleasure and satisfaction derived from the activity itself. Extrinsic motivation derives from behaviors performed to attain material or social rewards. Intrinsically motivated behavior is associated with satisfaction of three psychological needs: autonomy (that the behavior is freely chosen), competence (the urge to interact with social environment), and relatedness (the desire to feel connected to other individuals) (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Children in stable sport motivation trajectories were found to have high levels of motivation compared to other groups examined (Wang, Chow, & Amemiya, 2017). Stable trajectories were categorized by children who reported high ability self-concept and task values.

Klint and Weiss (1987) discussed major motives for sports participation, including affiliation, skill development, excitement or challenge, success or status, fitness, and energy release. Individuals who perceive themselves to be competent in sports are more likely to continue their participation while those low in perceived physical competence will likely discontinue participation. Desire for enjoyment or fun is a major reason for participation, and the lack of enjoyment promotes cessation of involvement (Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986). Gould et al. (1996) discussed how young athletes who discontinue sports do so because of change of interests, conflicting interests, no fun, or low perceptions of competence. Independent from winning or losing, the

amount of fun experienced by a child during a contest is inversely related to their levels of post-competition stress (Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986).

Parental Influences

Parental influences are discussed by Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986), including children's perceptions of characteristic parental (and coach) evaluative and affective reactions to the performance, as well as involvement and interactions with the children in sporting events or settings. Pynn, Dunn, and Holt (2019) found by sharing goals and not forcing directions, parents were able to choose appropriate sports opportunities and provide necessary support. Pynn et al. (2019) found parents were able to recognize emotions accurately and manage the emotions in themselves and others during competitions. Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986) found that greater enjoyment was experienced by athletes (boy wrestlers) who felt their parents (or coach) were more satisfied with their overall performance, and those who perceived less pressure and fewer negative performance interactions with their mothers. O'Rourke, Smith, and Smoll (2011) found that high parental pressure within a low mastery or a high ego motivational climate was associated with the highest levels of anxiety. Lewthwaite and Scanlan (1989) found parental pressure to be linked to performance anxiety and a negative effect in young athletes. Parents who engage intensely with a child to motivate towards increased effort, learning from mistakes, and a focus on self-improvement are in turn pressuring their child in a way that promotes adaptation (O'Rourke et al., 2011). Parents who force their will on a child and demand success may create fear of failure in a child, thus leading to a decrease in autonomy. Holt et al. (2009) found parents who supported autonomy

provided appropriate structure for children and allowed them to be involved in decision making, while controlling parents were not sensitive to children's mood and tended to report more closed modes of communication. O'Rourke et al. (2011) found children with autonomy supportive parents experienced more adaptive psychological outcomes due to a stronger sense of control of themselves through goal directed behavior.

Holt et al. (2009) highlighted the need to pay scholarly attention to how parents influence psychosocial experiences in sport. Elliot and Drummond (2015) found that parenting ideologies in youth sport suggested that parents' moral worth was evaluated through their child's sport participation and success. Parents viewed feedback as an important job as a sport parent and parents felt that this helped athletes understand areas of improvement in their sport performance. As discussed by Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986), children report higher enjoyment in sports when they perceive their parents are positively involved and satisfied with their participation. Findings from Wall, Pradhan, Baugh, Beauchamp, Marshall, and Young (2019) provided suggestions for parenting that go beyond competition related behaviors in which parents engaged as spectators, and highlighted ways to create a broader climate that supports the climate through the sport. O'Rourke, Smith, Smoll, and Cummings (2014) found that parent initiated motivational climate was likely to be more influential for athletes' autonomous motivation for sports participation. Children reported heightened anxiety when they perceived their parents as overinvolved with high expectations and exerting too much pressure to perform (Gould et al., 1996). Wuerth, Lee, and Alfermann (2004) discussed parental support as fundamental to children's involvement and success in athletics. Wuerth et al. (2004) found that

athletes perceived only low levels of pressure (with fathers seeing themselves as a source of directed behavior) but high levels of praise and understanding (with mothers seeing themselves as a source of the praise and understanding). Leff and Hoyle (1995) discussed parental pressure as being associated with negative appraisal of self-worth, dissatisfaction with sport involvement and a more negative evaluation of their performance of the sport.

Hoyle and Leff (1997) found parental support to be positively associated with the participants' enjoyment of the sport (tennis), suggesting that parental involvement increases enjoyment as a result of an association between support and self-esteem. Therefore, good performances would lead to increased enjoyment only if the parents played a positive role in the experience. Tamminen, Poucher, and Povilaitis (2017) studied conversations on the car ride home, and found that participants' stories of the ride home normalized parental feedback as useful and necessary for performance improvement. Wuerth et al. (2004) discussed quality of parental behavior, rather than intensity, played a large part in the relationship between parent and athlete. Disinterested parents and overly engaged parents played a destructive role in the athletic career of the child athlete, due most notably to the child's perception of higher levels of pressure to perform. Leff and Hoyle (1995) found that males felt more pressure from their fathers, while females felt an equal amount of pressure from both mothers and fathers. Dorsch, Smith, and Dotterer (2016) found self-reported conflict and pressure was higher among youth athlete's fathers than among mothers, suggesting athletes could experience more conflict with fathers than with their mothers. Lienhart, Nicaise, Martinent, Guillet-

Descas, and Bois (2019) found that father perceived pressure positively predicted maladaptive outcomes. Mother's pressure behaviors were perceived by their child as less legitimate, explaining the difference in the relationship with the athlete's outcomes compared to the father's pressure behaviors. Perceptions of praise and understanding by the mother and father positively predicted an athletes outcomes such as motivation and satisfaction of competence. Leinhart et al. found that the perception of parents who support and encourage while showing interest and understanding were positively associated with positive experiences concerning the child's participation in sports. Bois, Lalanne, and Delforge (2009) found the presence of both parents was associated with higher pre-competitive anxiety, associating directive behavior and perceived pressure with anxiousness; suggesting that parents can affect children's perceived competence. These findings help to explain the need for further research regarding the influence a parental figure has on the cognitions, behaviors, and emotions of a child athlete.

Summary

There are many studies that observe the effects parents have on a child athlete's attitude (Araujo & Dosil, 2015), anxiety (Anshel & Delany, 2001), performance (Graham et al., 2002), effort, perfectionism, motivation, burnout (Graham et al., 2002), and success in their chosen sport. What is lacking is the discussion about how the parents observe the effect they have on a child athlete, and a discussion relating to the motivation behind parents who "coach" their children from the sidelines. This study aims to address what a parent's intentions are when they speak or coach their child and discuss what effect the parents believe they have by participating in "parental coaching."

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

For this study, phenomenology was the chosen strategy within a qualitative research methodology due to its focus on “understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience” (Seidman, 2006, p. 9). Qualitative is the best method for this particular study because the study aims to identify patterns in the thoughts of the participants, and not to test hypotheses. Seidman (2006) emphasized that interviewing “provides access to the context of people’s behaviors and thereby provides a way for researchers to understand the meaning of that behavior” (p. 9). For the purpose of this study, interviewing is the best method due to its ability to gain insight through personal account. This study used qualitative interviews (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) to examine how parents motivate their children for athletic success. This research aimed to gather honest and open conversation about exactly what is said to athletes and, by examining intention, to understand what parents think their “parental coaching” will achieve. To achieve honesty on the part of the parent, this research has emphasized the nature of confidentiality in the study and highlighted to the participating parents that the aim of the study was not to judge parents for level of involvement, but to gather input regarding what parents believe they were accomplishing. This qualitative research conducted interviews with parents of female volleyball players, addressing the perceived effects of “parental coaching” on their athlete’s mental status and physical performance. By answering specific qualitative questions, the parents in this study disclosed what “parental coaching” looks like in their family, and how they thought it affected their child

athlete. Parental participation/parent coaching was termed and discussed as a means to describe the perceived effect on the child athlete. This was done to examine whether or not parental coaching has an effect on not only the specific athlete's performance, but also the socialization that occurs in the team atmosphere.

Moustakas (1994) suggested that the main purpose of the phenomenological approach is to “determine what an experience means for the persons who have had the experience and are able to provide a comprehensive description of it. From the individual descriptions, general or universal meanings are derived, in other words the essences of structures of the experience” (p. 13). Moustakas (1994) suggested the phenomenological approach is recommended when the research requires being conscious of something; therefore, this approach will be used due to the ability to examine the experiences of the participants (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Phenomenology aims to gain understanding of the meaning of everyday experiences (Saldana, 2009), and takes significant statements and makes meaning out of them through interpretations. This study utilized a phenomenological approach to reveal the meaning parents assign to their concept of parental coaching.

Sample Recruitment

Purposive and snowball sampling was used to guarantee that participants were parents of volleyball players (specifically) and to limit the scope of the study to one sport. By using this form of purposive sampling, the study was narrowed to a specific sport, volleyball. Permission was gained from the director of a North Texas volleyball club to

recruit the sample (see Appendix A). The club director also provided an area at the club where interviews could be conducted. Recruitment was done in person (see Appendix B). In-person recruitment occurred when practices and clinics of the club were attended and parents who were viewing the practice were asked if they would be willing to participate. Recruitment also occurred by using the club’s directory to email parents of volleyball players (see Appendix C) and providing contact information for those interested.

Sample

The sample consisted of 20 parents of volleyball players under 18 years old, both male ($n = 7$) and female ($n = 13$) parents (ages 30-65; see Table 1). Due to the population of the club itself, the sample of parents consisted of Caucasian ($n = 14$), Hispanic ($n = 4$), and African American ($n = 2$). The only criteria to be in this study was to be a parent of a volleyball player; therefore, there were no limitations concerning age, race, relationship status, sexual orientation, religiosity, education, or SES. Twenty parents were interviewed for this study.

Table 1

Demographics

<u>Participant</u>	<u>Age</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Ethnicity</u>	<u>Child Age</u>	<u>Team Level</u>	<u>Years in sport</u>	<u>Sports Child Played</u>	<u>Sports Parent Played</u>	<u>Goals for Child</u>
1	33	F	Hispanic	13	3 rd	1	Softball, track	Softball, golf	Well rounded
2	43	M	Cauc.	16	3 rd	4	Basketball	Football, baseball	Develop maturity
3	37	M	Hispanic	13	3 rd	1	Basketball, soccer, track, softball	Baseball, basketball,	Discipline responsibility

								football	
4	43	F	African Amer.	15	3 rd	3	Cheer	Cheer	College
5	37	F	Hispanic	15	2 nd	4	Track, tennis, basketball	Track	College
6	54	F	Cauc.	14	1 st	3	Soccer	Softball, volleyball	College and improve
7	37	F	Cauc.	14	1 st	1	Basketball, track, golf	Basketball, volleyball, track	College
8	39	F	Cauc.	14	1 st	2	Soccer, dance, swim, basketball	Volleyball, running	Confidence and experience
9	43	F	Cauc.	13	3 rd	2	Softball	Volleyball, tumbling	Best she can be
10	37	F	African Amer.	14	3 rd	2	Basketball	None	College
11	51	M	Caucasian	14	1 st	3	None	Football, basketball, baseball	Fun and college
12	49	M	Cauc.	15	2 nd	2	Basketball	Basketball, softball	Advancement
13	48	M	Cauc.	14	2 nd	1	Basketball, softball	Baseball, basketball, tennis, football	Improve
14	47	F	Cauc.	15	3 rd	2	Basketball, cheer	None	Best she can be

15	51	F	Hispanic	14	3 rd	4	Gymnastics	None	Playing time
16	46	F	Cauc.	14	3 rd	1	Track, basketball	Swim, basketball	Skills in life
17	55	M	Cauc.	14	4 th	1	Cross country, track, basketball	Baseball, track, football, wrestling	Success in pursuits
18	43	F	Cauc.	14	4 th	3	Golf, basketball	Volleyball, basketball	Give 100%
19	40	F	Cauc.	14	3 rd	4	None	None	College
20	45	M	Cauc.	14	4 th	2	Soccer, basketball	Football, baseball, soccer	College

Protection of Human Subjects

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) has jurisdiction over any study that utilizes human subjects. The IRB is a process that establishes that the rights of human subjects are protected, and informed consent is given. The IRB was also established to ensure human subjects are not placed at physical, mental, or emotional risk as a result of research. Potential risks include confidentiality, loss of time and potential for fatigue or emotional discomfort. Prior to the study, IRB approval was obtained to maintain safety and consent from the human subjects considered. Identifying information was locked in a file drawer, behind two locks and kept separately from the transcribed data.

Role of the Researcher

The study is an area of interest as both a clinician and a coach; therefore, this is where self of the researcher is important to note. It is assumed that my personal opinions as a coach can be acknowledged for maintaining the proper lens for the study as a researcher. It was important to be aware of opinions and reactions as a coach. However, I was able to maintain the viewpoint and job title of researcher for this study. In order to offset any researcher bias, two coders were utilized to bracket from any biases (Patton, 1999). To ensure there was no bias from participants, during recruitment, parents whose children had ever played for the researcher were not eligible to participate. These actions were preventions to curb any bias that might arise during the study.

Procedures

Data Collection

Qualitative interviews were used to collect data from the parents of players (Seidman, 2006). The interviews were conducted in a private room at the practice location of the volleyball club. At the beginning of the interview, parents were informed of the nature of the study and asked to sign the consent form stating that they were voluntarily participating and were free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. In the consent form (see Appendix F), potential risks, purpose of the research (to understand motives and perceived effects of parental coaching), expectations of the participant (amount of time required for interview) were explained, and researcher information was provided should the participant have any questions regarding the study

or procedure. Parents also acknowledged that recording was as part of the interview. To maintain confidentiality, parents participating were given a number (P1, P2, etc.) to identify their answers and maintain confidentiality. After signing the consent form, parents were given a copy of the consent form. After data collection was conducted, a debriefing was done to inform the parents of the study after data had been gathered and coded.

All interviews were conducted face to face with each parent who volunteered for the study. Each interview lasted 15-30 minutes and was recorded for later transcription. The interview questions came from a list of questions, prompts, and follow up questions (see Appendix D & E) developed by the researcher. Most of the parents were recruited in person at their daughter's practices. Parents who participated were cooperative and appeared eager to support the study.

Research Questions

The research questions were created to open discussion regarding what parents view parental coaching to mean, their role in relation to that definition, and the overall effect it can have on their child's mindset and performance. The questions also aim to confer whether or not parental coaching can be situational along with providing information regarding consequences of parental coaching. Themes found for each research question are numbered by how often they occurred in answers given by parents.

RQ1: How do parents perceive their acts of parental coaching in relation to the effect it has on their child athlete?

RQ2: What role do parents believe they serve in relation to their child athlete and their sport?

RQ3: What do parents believe “parental coaching” means, and what are their thoughts regarding how they measure up with that definition?

RQ4: Does parental coaching vary depending on situational aspects (games vs. practice)?

RQ5: What effect do parents believe they have on their child athlete in regards to their mindset, performance, and overall enjoyment of the sport?

RQ6: Do parents believe there are any consequences to their “parental coaching”?

Demographic Questionnaire

Parents also completed a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix G) that included the following questions: age of parent, age of child, sex of parent, race of parent, child’s level of play, experience with travel teams (for the parent), sports the parent has played, and goals the parent had for their child athlete. Players did not participate in the interview process.

Coding Data

Keywords. The researcher became engrossed in the data by employing multiple readings and coding. Participant transcriptions were read and key words were highlighted. Once highlighted, each transcription merged highlighted key words with the research questions to observe how often answers were given. In addition, two coders (the

researcher's dissertation advisor and a doctoral graduate student) were trained to code five transcriptions each.

Training the coders. The two coders, the dissertation advisor and a doctoral graduate student, were each given multiple transcriptions to read to establish trustworthiness for the coding (Patton, 1999). The two coders were trained to look for repetition in the codes that emerged and asked to notate their codes based on a coding legend (see Appendix H). The coders were asked to read transcriptions, highlight important data, and note codes that emerged more frequently. Coders then communicated with researcher regarding any inconsistencies presented within coding patterns. After initial coding was done, coders were asked to check categories established by the researcher for agreement, and after this was done, were asked again to check themes established by the researcher.

After the initial coding, each of the notations from the coders was examined and their findings were merged with the initial findings of the coding. Codes related to encouragement and motivation, mood determining receptiveness or responsiveness, consistently coaching, support and the athlete's awareness of support, and effort, attitude and focus of the players based on parental communication. Codes were examined and split into categories including Parental Coaching, Support and Encouragement, Timing, and Receptiveness. These categories were considered by coders and were agreed upon. After talking to coders, it was agreed upon that the category names would be used as themes. Theme names were lengthened after the defense to Parent as Life Coach, Support

and Encouragement, Daughter's Receptiveness, Parent's Financial Commitment to Results and Parenting Differences by Gender to offer more description.

Summary

By using interviews, the researcher was able to have open conversations with parents about what they intend to accomplish with their "parental coaching," whether they believe it is accomplished, and can potentially promote insight about how communication is detrimental or helpful to the success of their child athlete. Interviews were conducted at practices of the volleyball club, in a separate room, and were recorded for future transcribing. After all interviews are transcribed, coders will be used to identify themes for further discussion.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Sample Demographics

Twenty parents participated in the study, all of whom answered the following questions on the demographic questionnaire: parent's age, gender, ethnicity, child's age and level of play, how many years their child has played club volleyball, other sports their child has played, sports they have played and what their goals are for their child.

Parents' ages in this study ranged from 33 to 55 years. The mean parent age was 43.9 years and the median age was 43; 13 mothers and 7 fathers participated in the study. Caucasians represented 70% ($n = 14$) of the study's participants, followed by Hispanic/Latinos with 20% ($n = 4$), and African Americans with 10% ($n = 2$) participation. The ages of the participant's child ranged from 13 to 16 years old; the mean age of child athletes was 14.2 years and the median age was 14. Child's level of play was split between Open Level (4), top team (3), second team (10), and third team (3).

Many parents described their children as multi-sport athletes who participated in a number of other sports. Besides volleyball, the children participated in basketball ($n = 13$), followed by track and field ($n = 7$), then softball and soccer each with ($n = 4$). Parents also noted the sports they themselves had played such as baseball or softball ($n = 12$), football ($n = 6$), volleyball and basketball ($n = 5$), and track and field ($n = 4$) or no sports involvement ($n = 4$).

Themes in the Research Questions

Research Question 1

This question asked: How do parents perceive their acts of parental coaching in relation to the effect it has on their child? One interview question illustrated the research question: What effect do you think your conversations have on your child's performance? Are they desired effects? Three themes were derived from this question: Receptiveness ($n = 8$), Parent as Life Coach ($n = 8$) and Support and Encouragement ($n = 7$).

Research Question 2

What role do parents believe they serve in relation to their child athlete and their sport? This question was shown in interview questions 1, 9, and 11. Question 1) How often do you attend your daughter's games/practices? This question demonstrated themes of Support and Encouragement ($n = 19$) and Parent as Life Coach ($n = 4$). Question 9) If there are no instances of parental coaching, what stops you from having opinions or discussions with your child? Themes found in this question were Parent as Life Coach ($n = 13$), Daughter's Receptiveness ($n = 4$), and Support and Encouragement ($n = 3$). Question 11) What are some of your beliefs about athletics? Themes found included Parent as Life Coach ($n = 17$) and Support and Encouragement ($n = 4$).

Research Question 3

What do parents believe parental coaching means, and how do they measure up to that definition? This question was explained in interview questions 8 and 10. Question 8)

How do you define parental coaching? Sub question: How do you think you fit in the definition you gave? Themes of Parent as Life Coach ($n = 15$) and Support and Encouragement ($n = 6$) were found. Question 10) What are some of your expectations of your child during the season? Themes shown were Parent as Life Coach ($n = 14$) and Support and Encouragement ($n = 4$).

Research Question 4

Does parental coaching vary depending on situational aspects? This question was shown in interview Question 7) How often do you find yourself “coaching” your child? With sub question: Do you see a difference between games/practices, if so, how do they differ? Themes found included Parent as Life Coach ($n = 16$) with a subtheme of Timing, Daughter’s Receptiveness ($n = 13$), and Support and Encouragement ($n = 5$).

Research Question 5

What effect do parents believe they have on their child’s mindset, performance, and enjoyment? This question was shown in interview questions 2, 6, and 12. Question 2) How often do you speak to your daughter before or after games/practices? and sub question, What kind of things do you say? Themes from participant responses included Parent as Life Coach ($n = 18$), Support and Encouragement ($n = 9$) and Daughter’s Receptiveness ($n = 5$). Question 6) How receptive do you think your child is to your conversations? and sub question, How do you know? Themes from responses included receptiveness ($n = 16$), Parent as Life Coach ($n = 5$) with sub themes about Timing, and Support and Encouragement ($n = 3$). 12.) Question 12) When you have conversations

with your athlete, what is the intended purpose? Themes of Parent as Life Coach ($n = 15$), Support and Encouragement ($n = 13$), and Daughter's Receptiveness ($n = 9$) were found.

Research Question 6

Do parents believe there are consequences to parental coaching? This question was shown in interview questions 3 and 4. Question 3) What negative consequences have you seen after a conversation has happened between you and your athlete? Themes included Daughter's Receptiveness ($n = 16$), Parent as Life Coach ($n = 8$), and Support and Encouragement ($n = 4$). Question 4) What positive outcomes have you experienced after a conversation has happened between you and your athlete? Themes included were Parent as Life Coach ($n = 11$), Support and Encouragement ($n = 8$), and Daughter's Receptiveness ($n = 7$).

Themes

In this study, five themes were identified: Parent as Life Coach, Support and Encouragement, Daughter's Receptiveness, Parent's Financial Commitment to Results, and Parenting Differences by Gender. There was one subtheme in Parent as Life Coach: Timing.

Parent as Life Coach (Theme 1)

Parental coaching is described as the belief that a parent is a life coach. Parents were found to believe parental coaching consisted of bestowing knowledge upon their child in aspects that were not sports related. Parents focused on aspects of life that were

related to teamwork, learning from experiences, getting along with others, and enjoyment. The following quotes support this theme:

We try not to focus on their performance like you played horribly.

It's more about what you can learn or what happened. And we're not here to go to college. We're here just to learn skills and to play the sport that they enjoy. So, it's not about performance. It's about what else is happening.

(Part. 16- Female parent, daughter playing club for one year and on a third team)

I believe it's a guide to life. I kind of teach all my kids to win and lose gracefully, not to enjoy losing, but you've got to be able to do both of those things gracefully.

And it also teaches them to at least... especially as club is playing with kids they don't know, and that's part of life too, and learning to get along with other people and becoming a teen... (Part. 13- Male parent, daughter playing club for one year and on a second team)

Well, it could be a lot of things. I think facial cues. I think seeing how you're behaving in response to whatever's happening with them. And then also what happens after, when you're reflecting upon however they did in that tournament or practice, how you choose to phrase those things as a parent. I think I always try to talk to her about what she felt in that game or practice. You know, the things she felt she could have done better. If she felt she had a good day. So, I definitely think that I fit into that for her, just really, more than coaching, it's our

opportunity to talk about this. Which a lot of times, I think that's conversation for other topics. (Part. 8- Female parent, daughter playing for two years, currently on a third team)

Quite a bit, as a parent, you're coaching sometimes without opening your mouth, so trying to set a good example as a parent all the time. (Part. 12- Male parent, daughter playing two years and on a second team)

Timing (Subtheme)

Timing emerged as a subtheme for Parent as Life Coach, as many parents noted timing of conversations with their daughters was an important factor.

Oh, like I said, if she's very tired or there's something else going on. If she's not being a part of the conversation, then I don't see the need to try to coach if she's not going to participate. (Part. 11- Male parent, daughter has been playing three years and is on top team)

She's 15 years old so you get an attitude with anything. I can feel her and what way she's going and I know if I'm pushing too much. And so, I'll back up with her. (Part. 14- Female parent, daughter playing two years and on a third team)

Practice would be a little bit more laid back of a conversation. After a game, I think maybe the intensity level might need to come down a bit to be able to receive feedback, like when the adrenaline's going and whether it's a win or a

loss. Sometimes you have to kind of let her calm down a little bit. (Part. 12- Male parent, daughter playing two years on a second team)

Support and Encouragement (Theme 2)

Support and encouragement was an ongoing theme throughout responses to all the research questions. Support and encouragement were defined by a parent's desire to "be there" for their child and ensure their happiness.

I'm at all of the games and I attend 99% of her practices. I might drop her off and come in late but I can count on one hand how many practices I've missed. She knows exactly who is at every single game in the family. It's very important for her for everybody to be there. (Part. 14- Female parent, daughter has played 2 years, currently on a third team)

You have to be there. You have to be supportive. Encouragement. Sometimes I get busy and focused on something other than that. She gets sad. (Part. 9- Female parent, daughter having played for two years, currently on second team)

To make sure she's happy. Again, the talking, making sure she's happy, encouragement. How can you- what do you want to do to make it better, or what do you want to do to be more comfortable? (Part. 9- Female parent, daughter having played for two years, currently on second team)

You see her- she's happy that I'm involved, or she feels good, the fact that she knows that I care. It's attributed to, basically, being a good parent and being

involved in what your child does. (Part. 11- Male parent, daughter played for 3 years, currently on top team)

Daughter's Receptiveness (Theme 3)

Daughter's Receptiveness was found to be an impactful factor in Parent as Life Coach and refers to the child athlete's ability to take the parental coaching.

I think she's receptive, because she asks my opinion. We just talk- I mean, she responds well unless she's played bad. Then she doesn't respond well. It means she's stopped talking. (Part. 7- Female parent, daughter played one year of club, on top team)

Okay, mom. Again, sometimes it's positive and sometimes it's like I've said it 100 times. You don't have to say it again. She's real good about- she lets it go and moves on. (Part. 14- Female parent, daughter played club for two years and is on a third team)

It depends on the day. They're girls. There are days that you can have a conversation with them and it's no problem. And then there are days when it is like talking to a brick wall. Sometimes they want to talk and sometimes they just don't. And there are times they get in the car and say that was a great practice or that was a horrible practice. And other times they just don't even want to talk. (Part. 16- Female parent, daughter played for a year and is on third team)

Negative consequences...Perhaps what I say, maybe how I say it, sometimes she doesn't quite accept it as good feedback, otherwise known as perhaps a bit hardheadedness. They could be influenced by her overall mood at the time, my overall mood at the time. (Part. 12-Male parent, daughter playing two years, on second team)

Additional themes in this study included Parent's Financial Commitment to Results and Parenting Differences by Gender.

Parent's Financial Commitment to Results (Theme 4)

Many parents made comments regarding the financial aspect ($n = 7$) that accompanies playing a competitive, select sport (volleyball). This occurred often when discussing enjoyment and expectations. Parents discussed enjoyment as an important factor but emphasized that they are paying for results and to ensure their child plays their best.

How is the purpose maintained? I guess it's by the nearly endless level of sacrifice in time and money that we devote to it. (Part. 12- Male parent, daughter playing two years, on second team)

By being there. I'm invested as far as her improvement, so private lessons and even just hitting with her. (Part. 13- Male parent, daughter playing one year on a second team)

I expect her to do the best she can.... You wanted to sign up for this. This is what you want to do and we're paying for it. I'm not going to pay for something like this and have you be lazy. (Part. 14- Female parent, daughter playing for two years, on third team)

To give it 100 percent. Because at the end of the day, it's expensive to do club anything. And I'll tell her straight up, "Me and your mom are busting our asses to make sure things get done, so I expect you to give it your all" (Part.3-Male parent, daughter playing for the first year, on second team)

That's what they pay these coaches for. (Part. 17- Male parent, daughter playing one year, on third team)

Parenting Differences by Gender (Theme 5)

Many parents in the study also felt that there was a difference overall when the father was involved in aspects of parental coaching ($n = 7$). Both male and female parents emphasized a difference in relationship with the child athlete and in their overall parenting style. It was shown that parents felt that fathers had an influential role.

She gets upset. She shuts down. Occasionally, as parents, we have a tendency, especially males, to fix things and want to say here's how to do this better or different when sometimes, I should probably just listen. (Part. 20- Male parent, daughter playing 2 years, on third team)

Usually after she loses. I'm a man, so I like to fix things. We tend to want to fix things and she just wants to talk about it. (Part. 13- Male parent, daughter playing one year on a second team)

I think it affects her more when her dad tells her, because she'll get more upset. If he's trying to correct her, she'll get upset, almost emotional. But for me, she and I have a relationship where it's just kind of understood. (Part.1-Female parent, daughter playing one year, on second team)

I think it has a big effect because of me being her father. I mean I think a father plays a huge role in every kid's life. I mean, even more so in a daughter's life. Because there are just some things, like discipline, like certain things that a dad brings to the table that not everybody can provide. (Part.3-Male parent, daughter playing for the first year, on second team)

Summary

In this study, five prominent themes occurred: Parent as Life Coach with a subtheme of Timing, Support and Encouragement, Daughter's Receptiveness, Parent's Financial Commitment to Results and Parenting Differences by Gender. Parent as Life Coach was discussed in relation to the effect coaching has on the child athlete, roles the parent serves, how parents describe what they believe coaching to be, if it happens in specific situations, and if there are consequences. Parents also noted timing as a relevant factor leading to when they participate in coaching. Support and Encouragement were applicable to all research questions. Daughter's Receptiveness was shown when

discussing how parental coaching applies to situational aspects, and in relation to the child's performance, and enjoyment. Parent's Financial Commitment to Results included an interest in the financial aspect of club volleyball and obtaining the desired results from the investment. Many parents noted high expectations due to the financial responsibility that is placed on them in relation to the cost of club volleyball. Parenting Differences by Gender presented a difference in influence of a father figure. Additionally, both male and female parents noted a difference in responsiveness between coaching presented by their fathers.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this study, five themes were identified: Parent as Life Coach (subtheme Timing), Support and Encouragement, Daughter's Receptiveness Parent's Financial Commitment to Results, and Parenting Differences by Gender. Results of the study were compared to existing literature and conclusions were drawn. Each major theme will be discussed below in relation to existing literature.

Discussion

Parent as Life Coach (Theme 1)

Parental coaching or Parent as a Life Coach emerged as a theme throughout all the research questions in this study. Araujo and Dosil (2015) discussed feelings, behaviors and choices as powerful predictors of behavior and mentioned how attitudes can determine how individuals act towards others and events. In relation to parental coaching affecting the attitudes of the athlete, parents in this study noted that their conversations had a positive impact and were utilized more as a confidence booster that is maintained by not focusing on performance, but more on what the athlete can learn, thus, indirectly supporting previous research. Leith and Baumeister (1996) discovered that negative effects could lead to self-destructive behaviors in athletic settings. Parents in this study noted that a negative conversation would affect their child athlete in a negative manner, confirming Leith and Baumeister's research.

Anxiety refers to the cognitive concerns or worry that accompany a stressful situation, notably when the situational demands are perceived to exceed the individual's believed ability to meet the demands (Gee, 2010). Parents in this study recognized consequences to parental coaching in the form of critiquing by the athlete of the athlete. Self-efficacy is a strong predictor of performance, and in a study by Weiss et al. (1989), characteristic worry cognitions about competition were a major source of stress for young gymnasts. These stressors revolved around worries about expectations and negative evaluations from significant others such as coaches, parents, and teammates. In this research, parents noted players are harder on themselves than the parent could be, and that positive consequences were attributed more to the child's characteristics than to the parental coaching itself. This information confirms Weiss et al's findings that child athletes demonstrate an already heightened sense of anxiety related to performance, and are given, by the parent, more freedom to work through the stressful situation, allowing the athlete to have a higher sense of self-efficacy and responsibility for positive consequences.

This study also aimed to determine if there are situational aspects that influence parental coaching. Gould et al. (1989) discussed ways to enhance player's self-efficacy by utilizing positive talk. Parents in this study reported speaking with their athlete before and after games, but most parents emphasized that during the games would not be appropriate. Parents felt more comfortable discussing performance after a practice. Tamminen et al. (2017) found that car rides home normalized parental feedback as useful and necessary for performance improvement. Parents noted that their idea of parental

coaching was to uplift and build confidence as well as a place for the athlete to grow. Multiple parents noticed that their attendance at games and practices were observed by the athlete and helped to foster positive emotions. Graham et al. (2002) found that these positive emotions were associated with overall enjoyment of sports. This study found that parents' attendance and presence whether it be in the game or practice setting was not only noticed by their child athlete, but was expected as a form of overall support, fostering the positive emotions they experienced.

Expectations of parents were explored in this study as well. Frome and Eccles (1998) discussed the importance of determining behavioral choices by an athlete. Most parents in this study had expectations of their child related to trying hard, paying attention, and putting in effort to ensure they had fun. Some parents in the study emphasized ideas associated with perfectionism. Hill et al. (2008) defined perfectionism as a compulsive pursuit of excessively high standards and a tendency to engage in overly critical evaluation. While most parents defined parental coaching as "being there" for their player and providing a degree of support and encouragement, some parents emphasized the idea of being in the stands and literally coaching their child with facial cues or words. Many of these parents discussed wanting their child to give 110% at all times and to win, while also noting areas of improvement. Sellars et al. (2016) noted such high personal standards were suggested to motivate, but were also linked to athletes being overly critical of their performance. Parents in this study frequently discussed expectations of their child coming from a subjective notion of how they should be performing, and while it did not necessarily meet the definition of perfectionism, these

expectations were based on the parent's ideas of how the child should be performing. Thus, this study establishes parental coaching as a concept related to how the parent believes their child should perform.

Timing (Subtheme)

Many parents noted that timing was a crucial part of parent as a life coach. Holt et al. (2009) found parents who supported autonomy provided an appropriate structure for children while controlling parents tended to report more closed modes of communication due to lack of sensitivity to their child's mood. Parents in this study noted that consequences of conversations were influenced by timing. Many parents noted that if they felt they were pushing too much or they knew their child was already upset about a performance they would "hold off" on having a conversation. Parents noted that what stopped them from having conversations with their child (parental coaching) was when they recognized that their child was in a bad space, tired or had something going on. These findings are consistent with O'Rourke et al. (2011), who found that parents who engaged intensely with a child to motivate towards increased effort, learning from mistakes and a focus on self-improvement were pressuring a child in a way that promotes adaptation. Parents in this study felt they had a grasp on when appropriate times were for communication, consistent with Pynn et al. (2019), who found that parents were able to recognize not only their own emotions, but their child's as well. This study provided more information showing the importance of timing in not only the parent and child relationship, but also in understanding effective ways of enhancing motivation and self-efficacy. Therefore, child athletes are better prepared to adapt to their physical

environment and, essentially, find a way to self soothe in negative situations more effectively when parents are cognizant of how and when they present information.

Support and Encouragement (Theme 2)

O'Rourke et al. (2011) also found that children with parents who are supportive of autonomy experienced more adaptive psychological outcomes due to a stronger sense of control of themselves. Parents in this study believed that their role in regards to their child in sports was to show support and encouragement. Every parent in the study mentioned some level of support and encouragement, ranging from physical attendance to motivation and acceptance of current feelings. Parents in this study discussed maintaining a positive outlook, even when their child presented the opposite, as a means to ensure happiness and unconditional positive regard. This is also consistent with Scanlan and Lewthwaite's (1986) findings that children reported higher sports enjoyment when they perceived their parents as positively involved and satisfied with the child's participation.

Many parents in the study discussed happiness related to the involvement of the parent, which they believed to be influenced by parental coaching and a heightened level of encouragement. The findings of Wall et al. (2019) suggested that parents engaged as spectators highlighted broader climates that supported their athlete. Adult influences are discussed by Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986), including children's perceptions of characteristic parental/ coach evaluative and affective reactions to the performance and involvement and interactions with the children in sporting events or settings. Parents

associated positive responses to parental coaching with support and encouragement. Parent's associations in this study are also consistent with findings reported by Klint and Weiss (1987) who noted that individuals who perceived themselves as competent in sports were more likely to continue their participation. In this study, parents discussed their support and encouragement stemming from their desire for their child to not only improve, but to have fun. Most parents noted in the demographic survey of this study that their ultimate goal for their child was to enjoy themselves, improve, and play at a higher level. Pynn et al. (2019) noted that parents in the study were able to choose appropriate sports opportunities and provide necessary support by sharing goals and not forcing direction on their athletes. This study showed that the more involved the parent was and how positive the parental coaching was perceived by the athlete was directly related to the parent's idea of how much their child athlete enjoyed their sport.

Daughter's Receptiveness (Theme 3)

This research found that parents perceive their coaching as being dependent on their daughter's receptiveness. McArdle and Moore (2012) discussed that expectations for success were influenced by an individual's ability, self-concept, and estimation of difficult tasks. The parents in this study noted that their parental coaching was either postponed or heightened depending on the perceived level of receptiveness of their child. Many parents stated that their child's receptiveness was blatant and readable, emphasizing body language and verbally stating they did not want to hear the parental coaching in that moment. Most parents noted that they could "read" their child and gauge whether or not they were receptive to parent comments

Smith and Smoll (1990) found that people low in self-regard would be strongly attracted to those who satisfied their needs by providing support and positive evaluation. They also found that children low in self-esteem were especially responsive to both supportive and instructional orientations in adult leaders. This is noted in the current study. Parents in this study discussed how their children were minimally receptive when the children felt that the feedback from parents would be negative. Graham et al. (2002) found that positive emotion, stability, and personal control were predictors of athletic success. Many parents in this study mentioned that their child was more receptive to positive feedback and agreed with the parents more when they felt that they performed well. Parents mentioned their child was most receptive when they were able to choose when they received feedback from their parents. It can be concluded that parents believed they had a strong sense as to whether their child would be receptive to feedback, and thus made accommodations regarding whether or not to critique or support effort based on this perceived receptiveness.

Parent's Financial Commitment to Results (Theme 4)

The inability to cope with acute stress can lead to decreased motivation, emotional distress, poor athletic performance, and eventual burnout from competitive sport (Anshel, 1996). Many parents in this study made comments regarding the financial aspect that accompanies playing a competitive, select sport (volleyball) in relation to their perceived idea of how their child was performing. These comments were described to be directly stated to the child athlete and often occurred when discussing enjoyment and expectations. Expectations play an important role in determining behavioral choices by

an athlete (Frome & Eccles, 1998). Parents discussed enjoyment as an important factor but emphasized that they are paying for results and to ensure their child plays their best. Parents in this study related results to financial commitment, noting the price of select volleyball teams and the notion that they are paying another person to provide specific athletic results towards an athletic goal.

Parenting Differences by Gender (Theme 5)

Elliot and Drummond (2015) found that parenting ideologies in youth sport suggested that parents' moral worth was evaluated through their child's sport participation and success. Parents viewed feedback as an important job as a sport parent and parents felt that this helped athletes understand areas of improvement in their sport performance. Many parents in the study also felt that there was a difference overall when the father was involved in aspects of parental coaching. Wuerth et al. (2004) discussed quality of parental behavior, rather than intensity, played a large part in the relationship between parent and athlete. Both male and female parents in this study emphasized a difference in relationship with the child athlete and in their overall parenting style. It was shown that parents felt that fathers had an influential role, providing consistencies with Dorsch et al. (2016) who found self-reported conflict and pressure was higher among youth athlete's fathers than among mothers, suggesting athletes could experience more conflict with fathers than with their mothers. Lienhart et al. (2019) found that father perceived pressure positively predicted maladaptive outcomes. Mother's pressure behaviors were perceived by their child as less legitimate, explaining the difference in the relationship with the athlete's outcomes compared to the father's pressure behaviors.

These findings are consistent with this study's findings related to the impact of the gender difference. Parents in this study noted that the father showed instances of wanting to fix the problem or to emphasize the degree of importance related to performance. Mothers on the other hand were more concerned with emotional aspects such as reading the child for receptiveness of feedback and emphasizing when a child had a positive performance, elaborating with positive talk. While the study did not explore these differences in depth, it can be assumed that the degree to which a daughter receives information from a parent can be influenced by which gender of parent is participating in the coaching.

Recommendations for Future Research

Additional qualitative research can be conducted with consideration of how the child interprets and responds to parental coaching. The benefit of adding the athlete as a subject for future research would be the ability to compare not only how the parent interprets their own parent coaching, but also to see if the child confirms the opinions held by the parent. Gender differences of the athlete were not noted in this research and should also be considered in future research to determine if male and female child athletes differ in response to parental coaching. Male parents in this study noted a difference in their communication patterns, while female participants noted a noticeable difference between when they spoke to their child athlete and when the father did. Finances were also noted in the study as a reason for expectations in performance and parental coaching. Parents noted the expense of club volleyball as a reason they use parental coaching to communicate expectations of their child. These findings were significant enough to be noted as themes, but were not expanded. Future research could

be conducted to look at parental coaching across different sport platforms such as select versus recreational sports. This information could inform both therapeutic and coaching practices in a multitude of athletic settings. It may also be helpful to add socioeconomic status as a part of the demographic questionnaire to determine whether financial status influences the degree to which a parent feels justified in participating in parental coaching.

Implications

Implications were found in the study that could be useful for family therapists and coaches. According to the qualitative findings in this study, parents may perceive parental coaching predominantly as a method of influencing their child athlete's collective character as the child grows rather than the parent actually informing the sport the child is playing. Therefore, this information can be utilized to observe how a child's character can be developed as they progress through athletics. In relation to family therapy, these findings could be used to establish motivations of the parents as being less sport specific, and more related to finding appropriate ways to guide their child through maturation and provide life skills. Timing is an implied aspect of parental coaching. Parents can learn to determine what aspects of parental coaching are necessary and which are better saved for another time. Support and encouragement are factors that influenced every aspect of the study, from purpose of parental coaching to receptiveness. In working with families, this can be utilized to collectively determine effective methods of support and encouragement that may be acceptable for each family member. This may also inform coaches of the impact parental involvement has on the performance. Daughter's Receptiveness may be

perceived by the parent as a situational aspect for the child. Parents noted that the degree to which a child is receptive to their coaching is directly related to how they feel they performed or how they are feeling after a game or practice. This may help to introduce further research into the mindset of the child and how being receptive influences performance.

Limitations

This study emphasized the opinions and perceptions of parents in relation to how they believed they fit into parent coaching. This study was performed at one specific club volleyball location in the DFW area. If participants came from different club locations around DFW, there might have been a difference in parental coaching between smaller clubs, to more established clubs, allowing the data to become more diverse. Findings from qualitative studies have limited generalizability.

Conclusions

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the perceptions of parental coaching as experienced by the parents. This researcher encouraged parents to take a look into their own experiences and explore what effect parental coaching has on their athlete. This study found strong themes related to Parent as Life Coach, along with a subtheme of Timing, Support and Encouragement, Daughter's Receptiveness, Parent's Financial Commitment to Results, and Parenting Differences by Gender. Parents in this study believed their parental coaching to be less related to the act of coaching in the specific sport and more related to the words they choose to use and "being there" physically for

their child athlete to be a Parent as Life Coach. Commentary related to the child's performance was also enhanced or reduced based on timing. Support and Encouragement was found to be a way in which parents universally defined parental coaching and was prevalent when discussing what a parent's overall role is. Daughter's Receptiveness was found to be an important factor in the act of parental coaching. A child athlete's receptiveness, based on how the parent understands their child, was a defining factor in the amount of commentary a parent had with their child and what was actually said. Lastly, themes of Parent's Financial Commitment to Results and Parenting Differences by Gender were presented organically. Many parents noted the importance of their expectations being met due to the amount of money that was invested in the sport. Parents also noted the delivery of information was different when it came from the father. Both male and female parents discussed a difference in how the father presented and interacted with their child athlete.

This research provided implications about how parents view their interactions with their child athletes and can be used to not only improve therapeutic aspects in relationships, but also to inform sports enthusiasts of the motivation behind parental coaching. This chapter included an overview of the results of the study, limitations, and implications for family therapists and implications for future research.

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APPENDIX A

Permission Letter from 360 Volleyball



March 24, 2018

To Whom It May Concern:

As director of 360 Volleyball Club, I, Clarence Nevils, give permission to Nathalie Martinez to collect data from the parents of players in my organization. I understand that data will be gathered under the guidelines of Texas Woman's University. I understand that parental participation will be voluntary and that parents will sign consent to participate and be recorded. I understand that parents will be able to withdraw from the study at any time without consequences to the researcher, the club, or the families participating. I support the purpose of the study and will provide access to emails of the parents for Nathalie Martinez to send information about the study.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'Clarence Nevils'.

Clarence Nevils, Director
360 Volleyball Club

360 Volleyball Club

P.O. Box 2571

Cedar Hill, TX 75106

APPENDIX B
In Person Prompt for Participation

Hi, my name is Nathalie (Raper). I coach for 360 Volleyball and am also a doctoral candidate at TWU. I am doing a study about parental coaching and was wondering if you would volunteer to participate in an interview about your participation with your daughter's athletic career? It would be confidential and completely voluntary, meaning you would not have any repercussions if you declined or decided to withdraw.

If you are interested, we could schedule a time to meet to complete the interview, or we could find an area to complete it now.

APPENDIX C
Email Prompt for Participation

Hello All!

If you are receiving this email it is because your daughter plays for 360 Volleyball Club. My name is Nathalie Raper and I am a coach for 360 and a doctoral student at Texas Woman's University.

Currently I am looking for volunteers to participate in a study about parental coaching. I need volunteers to meet once with me (it can be during their daughter's practice) to sign a consent form, demographic survey and to answer a series of questions. Participation is completely voluntary and there is no consequence to player or parent if you decline or choose to withdraw from the study.

If you would like to participate you can email me at: nat.martinez217@yahoo.com or text me at (760) 214-7876 to set up a date and time to meet.

I appreciate you all taking the time to read this and look forward to hearing from you!

Nathalie Raper

Doctoral Candidate, TWU

APPENDIX D
Interview Questions

1. How often do you attend your daughter's games/ practices?

To what degree do you think she notices your attendance?

To what degree do you think your child finds their sport (volleyball) enjoyable?

How do you believe you contribute to that enjoyment?

2. How often do you speak to your daughter before/ after practices/ games?

What kind of things do you say to your athlete?

3. What negative consequences have you seen after a conversation has happened between you and your athlete?

How are these consequences influenced by your conversations?

4. What positive outcomes have you experienced after a conversation has happened between you and your athlete?

To what do you attribute these outcomes?

5. What effect do you think your conversations have on your child's performance?

Are these the desired effects?

If not, how do you think these could be changed?

How are these effects different or similar based on whether they are stated during a practice or a game?

6. How receptive do you think your child is to your conversations?

How do you know?

How does your child respond?

How do the responses differ between games and practices? Do they differ?

7. How often do you find yourself “coaching” your child?

How does your child respond?

How do you think this effects your child’s performance?

How do you think this effects your child’s mindset?

Do you see a difference between games and practices? If so, how do they differ?

8. How do you define parental coaching?

How do you think you fit in the definition you provided?

9. If there are no instances of parental coaching, what stops you from having opinions or discussions with your child?

How do you think this affects your child?

10. What are some of your expectations of your child during the season?

How does your child meet these expectations?

How does your child not meet these expectations?

11. What are some of your beliefs about athletics?

How does your child confirm or negate these beliefs?

How do these beliefs differ (or do they differ) between game and practice situations?

12. When you have conversations with your athlete, what is the intended purpose?

How is the purpose maintained?

How is it communicated?

How is it received?

Are you more likely to have these conversations at a practice or game? Why?

APPENDIX E
Research and Interview Questions

Research Questions	Interview Questions
<p>RQ1: How do parents perceive their acts of parental coaching in relation to the affect it has on their child athlete?</p>	<p>5. What effect do you think your conversations have on your child's performance? Are these the desired effects? If not, how do you think these could be changed? How are these effects different or similar based on whether they are stated during a practice or a game?</p>
<p>RQ2: What role does a parent believe they serve in relation to their child athlete and their sport?</p>	<p>1. How often do you attend your daughter's games/ practices? To what degree do you think she notices your attendance? To what degree do you think your child finds their sport (volleyball) enjoyable? How do you believe you contribute to that enjoyment?</p> <p>9. If there are no instances of parental coaching, what stops you from having opinions or discussions with your child? How do you think this affects your child?</p> <p>11. What are some of your beliefs about athletics? How does your child confirm or negate these beliefs? How do these beliefs differ (or do they differ) between game and practice situations?</p>
<p>RQ3: What do parents believe "parental coaching" means, and what are their thoughts regarding how they measure up with that definition?</p>	<p>8. How do you define parental coaching? How do you think you fit in the definition you provided?</p> <p>10. What are some of your expectations of your child during the season? How does your child meet these expectations? How does your child not meet these expectations?</p>
<p>RQ4: Does parental coaching vary depending on situational aspects (games vs practice)?</p>	<p>7. How often do you find yourself "coaching" your child? How does your child respond? How do you think this effects your child's performance? How do you think this effects your child's mindset? Do you see a difference between games and practices? If so, how do they differ?</p>

<p>RQ5: What effect do parents believe they have on their child athlete in regards to their mindset, performance, and overall enjoyment of the sport?</p>	<p>2. How often do you speak to your daughter before/ after practices/ games? What kind of things do you say to your athlete?</p> <p>6. How receptive do you think your child is to your conversations? How do you know? How does your child respond? How do the responses differ between games and practices? Do they differ?</p> <p>12. When you have conversations with your athlete, what is the intended purpose? How is the purpose maintained? How is it communicated? How is it received? Are you more likely to have these conversations at a practice or game? Why?</p>
<p>RQ6: Do parents believe there are any consequences to their “parental coaching”?</p>	<p>3. What negative consequences have you seen after a conversation has happened between you and your athlete? How are these consequences influenced by your conversations?</p> <p>4. What positive outcomes have you experienced after a conversation has happened between you and your athlete? To what do you attribute these outcomes to?</p>

APPENDIX F
Consent Form

TEXAS WOMAN’S UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Parental Coaching: An Exploration of How Parents Perceive the Effects of Their
Comments on Child Performance

Investigator: Nathalie Raper, MA.....

Advisor: Dr. Linda Ladd, PhD, PsyD.....

Explanation and Purpose of the Research

You are being asked to participate in a study for Nathalie Raper, a doctoral student at Texas Woman’s University. The purpose of this study will be to explore the role of parental communication, or parental coaching, and the effect it has on their child’s performance. You have been asked to be in the study because you are a parent of a child athlete. Your responses will give information that may help in the consideration of how parents, coaches and fellow athletes communicate with each other.

Description of Procedures

As a participant of this study, you will meet with the researcher for one interview. Each will be 30-45 minutes long. The researcher will ask you questions about what you say to your athlete and what the expectations are from these comments. The interview will be recorded, and your words written down, so the researcher can better study what you have said. The researcher will meet with you in private and will not disclose participation in the study, as it will be anonymous.

Potential Risks

Emotional Discomfort The researcher will ask you questions about your communication with your child athlete and what motivation is behind choice of words. A possible risk is that questions could cause some discomfort during the interview. If you become tired or upset, you may take a break if you like. You may also stop the interview at any time without penalty.

Loss of Confidentiality is another potential risk of the study. Confidentiality will be protected to the extent that is allowed by law. The recordings and notes will be used for research purposes. All data will be stored in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office. Only the researcher, her faculty advisor, and the person who transcribes/codes the interview will hear what you actually say during the interview. Your name will not be used while the interview is being recorded- the researcher will apply a coding process to identify all recorded data. All recordings and notes will be shredded within 2 years after the study is completed. The results of the study will be reported in professional journals.

Participation and Benefits

Your involvement in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Your total time commitment for the whole study will be less than an hour. The purpose of this study is to examine how comments effect a child athlete's performance. If you would like to know the results of the study, we will email them to you.*

Questions Regarding the Study

You will be given a copy of this signed and dated consent form to keep. If you have any questions about the research study, you are encouraged to ask the researcher at any point in the study. If you wish, the phone number of the researcher and her advisor are listed at the top of this form. If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this research or the way this study has been conducted, you may contact the Texas Woman's University Office of Research and Sponsored Programs at 940-898-3375.

Signature of Participant Date

*If you would like to know the results of the study, tell us where you want them to be sent.

Email: _____

Or

2. Address:

APPENDIX G
Demographic Survey

Age of Parent:

Sex of Parent:

Ethnic Origin of Parent (circle which you identify with):

Indian/Alaskan Asian Black Hispanic/Latino

Caucasian Hawaiian/Pacific Islander Other

Age of Child:

Child's Level of Play:

Number of Years Playing Club:

Other Sports Your Child Has Played:

Parent's Goals for Child:

APPENDIX H
Coding Legend

RQ1: Parent's perception of P.C.	RQ2: Parent's perceived role	RQ3: Parental coaching definition	RQ4: P.C. differences by situation (game/ practice)	RQ5: Parent's perceived effect on child	RQ6: Consequences to P.C.	Extra data
Positive effect (11)	Always attend (10)	Support/ encourage (8)	Coaching at all times (11)	Encourage (8)	Attitude: positive (11)	Differences in how info received by father (7)
Desired effect (16)	Child notices attendance (14)	Expectation to give 100 % (13)	No difference in situation (11)	Critique performance (10)	Attitude: negative (20)	No coaching due to lack of knowledge of sport (9)
No difference between games and practices (10)	Teaching life skills (15)	Coaching kids (6)	Game = more focused (9)	Questions about performance (13) Improvement (11)	Frustrated/ resistant (10)	Conversation to happen after practice and games (13)
	Encourage/ support (11)	Relates to definition (9)	Effects improvement (11)	Motivate/ support (10)	Dependent on timing of conversation (13)	