The role of parents in youth sport values

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Signature: ..........................................................
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Finally, I have to thank the late Dr Martin Lee, who pioneered the subject area and inspired this thesis. I would like to thank Martin's family also and hope all those involved feel this thesis is a worthy development to his excellent work.
Abstract

Values are fundamental constructs that influence individuals’ attitudes and behaviours. Children can develop sport-related values systems from the attitudes and behaviours of their significant others. This thesis employed quantitative and qualitative methods to examine the relationships between parents’ values, motivational climate, and children’s values. In Study 1, 92 school children (mean age = 14.10 years, SD = 1.10) and their parents (mean age = 47.40 years, SD = 5.60) completed versions of the Youth Sport Values Questionnaire-2 and Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire-2. Strong correlations were found between children’s own and perceived parent competence, status, and moral sport values. A moderated-mediational analysis found that children’s perceptions of their parents’ values and motivational climate significantly predicted children’s own competence values ($R^2 = 0.52$, $p < 0.001$), and parent’s values for their children were indirectly associated with children’s own competence values via children’s perceptions of their parents’ values, $abs = 0.17$-$0.22$, 95% CIs [0.04, 0.43]. Parents’ own values and children’s perceptions of their parents’ values significantly predicted child own status values ($R^2 = 0.65$ & 0.63, $p < 0.001$), but parents’ values for their children were not associated with significant indirect effects on children’s own status values via motivational climate or children’s perceptions of their parents’ values. In Study 2, six parents (mean age = 41.00 years, SD = 7.54) participated in semi-structured interviews. Thematic analysis identified some inconsistencies between parents on the values they perceived to be important for their children compared to what has been identified by previous research as important for children in sport and some lack of awareness around how values are effectively transmitted. Other key themes that emerged from the analysis were parent own
values, competition in children, social influences on child values and the behaviours of other parents. The findings from both studies emphasise how such interactions between parent and child values and motivational climate may differ depending on the value type, with a potential lack of conscious awareness from parents on how they transmit these values. Although it is important to consider the challenges and limitations associated with this type of research, the findings from both studies provide direction for future research and advance our understanding about the role of parents in shaping children’s sport values.
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Introduction

Values

Within the social sciences, values are considered one of the most important psychological variables (Whitehead, Telfer & Lambert, 2013a). They are criteria by which people select and evaluate behaviour (Lee, Whitehead & Belchin, 2000) and are essentially central cognitions that within the psychological literature have been shown to guide actions (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992), attitudes (Schwartz, 2007) and express needs (Inglehart, 1977). Values are regarded as concepts or beliefs linked to affect, related to desirable goals that motivate action, transcend specific situations, provide standards for evaluation, and are ordered by importance (Schwartz, 2007). In youth sport, it has been proposed the identification of values among young athletes is vital to better understand the processes by which they make decisions about their behaviour in sporting situations (Lee & Cockman, 1995).

Much of the early research into values developed from research exploring attitudes, with some ambiguity between the two psychological constructs. Rokeach (1973) proposed two ways to conceptualise values. First, values can be properties of objects, such as the value of sport and physical education (Devine & Telfer, 2013). Second, values can be criteria that people hold that guide their decisions. Rokeach (1973) regarded the second conceptualisation as more useful for the social sciences, and Schwartz (1992) further developed this idea with his theory of human values. Attitudes are a predisposition to respond in a positive or negative way to a specific stimulus (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Similar to values, attitudes have cognitive, affective and behaviour components. In sport, these components can manifest themselves as someone feeling elated when a particular team wins, if they hold a positive attitude to that team (Whitehead et al.,
However, Rokeach (1973) distinguished between values and attitudes. Values are both desirable and hierarchical in their systems, while attitudes are not (Whitehead et al., 2013a).

Rokeach (1973) proposed five assumptions of human values: 1) that people hold relatively few values; 2) these few values are shared by everyone to differing degrees; 3) values are organised by systems; 4) values are formed from culture, society, and personality; 5) the study of values is beneficial to practically all areas of social science (Rokeach, 1973). Although Rokeach (1973) arguably developed the study of values, Schwartz’s (1992) theory of basic human values has become the dominant framework underlying the study of human values. Indeed, three articles that introduced this theory (Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990) produced over 8,200 citations on Google Scholar by April 2012 (Schwartz, Vecchione, Fischer, Ramos, Demirutku, Dirilen-Gumus, Cieciuch, Davidov, Beierlein, Verkasalo, Lonnqvist & Konty, 2012), and over 15,200 citations¹ by 2015.

Schwartz (1992) defined ten basic human values: Achievement, self-direction, power, stimulation, hedonism, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, and universalism (Schwartz, 1992). The ten values were derived from three universal requirements of human beings, which focus on human needs as biological organisms, concerned with social outcomes and the survival and welfare needs of groups (Schwartz, 1992, 2006). Although individuals may prioritise different values, there is a high degree of consistency across different samples in value importance. Schwartz and Bardi (2001) found similarities in the value hierarchies of representative samples from 13 countries, teacher samples from 56 countries, and university student samples from 54 countries. From the ten

¹ Google Scholar April 4th 2015 lists 15,245 citations for the three major articles outlined.
values, benevolence (e.g., preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people within the in-group) is consistently ranked top of the hierarchy, with self-direction (e.g., independent thought and action) second, and universalism (e.g., appreciation and protection for the welfare of all people and nature) third (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Power (e.g., social status and prestige, control over people and resources) is generally bottom of the value hierarchy (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001).

Schwartz et al. (2012) commented that much of the research incorrectly interpreted the original theory, and have treated values as distinct entities. The original theory of basic human values proposed that values were not discrete entities, but formed a circular motivational continuum (See figure 1).

This circular value structure proposed by Schwartz (1992) is based on the motivational content of the values and the correlations between them. Compatible values are adjacent to each other, with those based on conflicting

Figure 1: Circular motivational structure of the ten values from Schwartz (1992) theory of basic human values.
motives opposite. The structure shows natural compatibilities and conflicts amongst the values (Schwartz, 1992). It also contains two orthogonal axes, which combines the ten basic values into four higher order motivations: 1) self-enhancement to self-transcendence values, and 2) conservation and stability to openness to change (Schwartz, 1992). Due to the bi-polar placing of the four higher-order motivations, they reflect conflicting motivations.

Value conflict can occur when two values lead to opposite attitudes and behaviours, represented by the opposing placement on the circular motivational continuum. However, values can also be independent of each other, and pursuing one value does not necessarily directly imply there will be implications for pursuing the other values (Bardi & Schwartz, 2013). The values have to be of relatively equal importance for potential conflict to occur. If opposite values are of equal importance to an individual, than there is always likely to be dissatisfaction for that person when one value is violated over another. Bardi and Schwartz (2013) suggest that to avoid dissatisfaction when repeatedly presented with situations that cause conflict between the opposing values, individuals will eventually attribute more importance to one of the competing values and reduce the importance of the other value.

Schwartz et al. (2012) developed his theory further and expanded the original 10 values to 19, which capture meaningful motivational differences on the continuum of values (see Figure 2).
Although the 19 values contained the original 10, they set to specify conceptually distinct subtypes for values that had multifaceted definitions (Schwartz et al., 2012), specifically self-direction, power, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, and universalism. The values of face (maintaining and protecting prestige, expressing elements of both power and security values) and humility (developed as a distinct value from original tradition) were also introduced in the refined theory. Table 1 summarises the 19 values and the motivational goal they express.

Table 1: The 19 values and the motivational goal they express (Schwartz et al., 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Conceptual definitions in terms of motivational goals</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-direction-action</td>
<td>Determine one’s own actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-direction-thought</td>
<td>Cultivate one’s own ideas and abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulation</td>
<td>Excitement, novelty, and change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonism</td>
<td>Pleasure and sensuous gratification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Success according to social standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power-dominance</td>
<td>Exercising control over people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power-resources</td>
<td>Control of material and social resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face</td>
<td>Maintaining one's public image and avoiding humiliation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security-personal</td>
<td>Safety in immediate environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security-societal</td>
<td>Safety in the wider society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tradition</td>
<td>Traditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>avoidance of upsetting or harming other people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity-rules</td>
<td>Conforming with rules, laws and formal obligations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humility</td>
<td>Realising individual insignificance in the larger scheme of things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benevolence</td>
<td>Devotion to welfare of in-group members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benevolence</td>
<td>Reliable and trustworthy member of the in-group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universalism</td>
<td>Commitment to equality, justice and protection for all people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universalism</td>
<td>Preservation of the natural environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universalism</td>
<td>Acceptance and understanding of those who are different from them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
Schwartz *et al.* (2012) suggested the refined theory allows researchers the choice of working with all 19 values, or to combine values and work with the original 10, the four higher order values of openness to change, self-enhancement, conservation and self-transcendence, or with the two sub-sets of values being growth or protection values.

*Values in sport*

Research into youth sport values started with establishing salient values from children involved in youth sports, in order to provide a theoretical basis from which to examine the structure of values systems among junior athletes. Lee and Cockman (1995) interviewed 93 football and tennis players (aged 12-16 years) about sport-specific moral dilemmas. From these discussions, eighteen sport-relevant values were identified. Table 2 summarises the values with a descriptor for each one.

Table 2: 18 sport values descriptors (Lee *et al*., 2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being fair</td>
<td>Try to be fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionship</td>
<td>Do things with friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Helping people when they need it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>Going along with everybody else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientious</td>
<td>Not letting people down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract maintenance</td>
<td>Always playing properly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td>Enjoying oneself and having fun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Excitement    Having an exciting contest
Health and fitness    Participating in sport to get fit
Obedience    Doing what one is told
Personal achievement    Improving performance
Public image    Showing a good image to others
Self-actualisation    Feeling really good whilst playing
Showing skill    Doing skills or techniques well
Sportsmanship    Showing good sportsmanship
Team cohesion    Making sure everyone sticks together
Tolerance    Accepting other people's weaknesses
Winning    Showing that one is better than others

From these discussions, Lee, Whitehead and Balchin (2000) developed the Youth Sport Values Questionnaire (YSVQ) to measure values in youth sport. The first of five studies established the ecological validity of the 18 values. The remaining four studies developed questionnaire items and tested the reliability of the instrument as a measure of youth sport values. The YSVQ measures 18 discrete values. Consistently, enjoyment and personal achievement have been found to be most important, and winning the least important value. These rankings have been found to be consistent across age and gender (Lee et al., 2000) and in four European countries (Whitehead & Gonçalves, 2013).
Despite the valuable contribution of the YSVQ, concerns were raised over using single items to assess each value, which led to the development of YSVQ-2 (Lee et al., 2008). The YSVQ-2 examines value groupings with multi-item scales (Lee et al., 2008). Specifically, the YSVQ-2 measures moral, competence, and status values. These 3 value systems have been shown to predict achievement orientations and attitudes in youth sport (Lee et al., 2008). Moral and competence values positively predicted pro-social attitudes, and status values positively predicting antisocial attitudes. Competence and status values also predicted task and ego orientation respectively, and these orientations partially mediated the effect of both competence values on pro-social attitudes and status values on antisocial attitudes (Lee et al., 2008).

The 3 higher order values along with the original 18 sport values are similar to the circular motivation continuum proposed by Schwartz (1992) in his basic theory of human values. For example, Whitehead et al. (2013b) suggested that the 18 discrete and 3 higher-order sport values can be loosely aligned with Schwartz’ human values as illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Youth sport values (Lee et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2008) ‘mapped’ to values from Schwartz (1992) theory of basic human values (Whitehead et al., 2013b)
The link between sport values and Schwartz (1992) value theory was also suggested by Bardi and Schwartz (2013). Bardi and Schwartz, however, noted that the top ranking of enjoyment, which mirrors motivations underlying hedonism values in value theory, is contrary to the consistent ranking of 7 out of 10 for hedonism in the universal hierarchy of basic values (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). The importance of enjoyment does reflect the human value hierarchies of adolescents though (Schwartz, 2012), suggesting this particular value ranking could be unique to young people. It might also reflect the context of sport, which is a leisure pursuit for many except some individuals competing at an elite and/or professional level.

The finding that winning is ranked least important in the hierarchy of youth sport values (Lee et al., 2008; Freeman et al., 2013; Whitehead and Gonçalves, 2013) is congruent with power values being regularly ranked low in the hierarchy of basic values (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). However, as Bardi and Schwartz (2013) outlined, sport does present some potential value conflicts, such as universalism (fairness in sport) and power (winning in sport), which are based on conflicting motivations. Such issues can present a challenge to sport practitioners to ensure the right balance between effective moral development of the young athlete and the likely pressures and expectations to win that will increase with success. Bardi and Schwartz (2013) suggested one way to avoid value conflict in youth sport is to foster intrinsic motivation, which is related to self-direction values in basic value theory and competence as measured by the YSVQ-2 (Lee et al., 2008). This similarity between sport and human values reflects a consistent finding between sport and human values, with personal achievement (Lee et al., 2000; Freeman et al., 2013; Whitehead & Gonçalves,
2013) and self-direction (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001) being ranked towards the top of both value hierarchies.

From the original research in youth sport values it was suggested that the investigation of the relationships between athletes’ value systems and the expressed and perceived values systems of significant others would be worthwhile (Lee & Cockman, 1995). Taking into consideration how influential significant others can be on young people’s development and in specifically their values, Lee (1996) proposed a conceptual interactionist model of value relationships to better understand the processes that can influence a young athletes’ values, with significant others being a key component of this model (Figure 4). The model reflects the complexity of values, and the crucial role environmental factors can play in both shaping the youth sport values and in moderating the effects of values on cognitive, affective, and behavioural outcomes. The present thesis focuses on the role of parents and the motivational climate they create in understanding youth sport values.

Figure 4: Lee’s (1996) conceptual model of value relationships (Whitehead et al., 2013b).
The role of parents in shaping values

As values develop as a joint product of the individual's needs, traits, temperament, culture, socialisation and personal experience (Bardi & Goodwin, 2011), parents may exert considerable influence over youth sport values. Indeed, it has been suggested that children hold certain expectations of themselves and develop sport-related values systems based largely on the attitudes and behaviours of their parents (Welks, Babkes, & Schaben, 2004). Similarly, perceived parental belief that effort leads to success in sport has been shown to relate to athletes' task orientation and personal belief that effort causes sport success (White, Kavussanu, Tani, & Wingate, 2004). Perceived parental beliefs that superior ability, external factors and using deceptive tactics are precursors to success in sport corresponded to athletes' ego orientation and the same personal beliefs (White et al., 2004). Task and ego orientation refer to particular goal orientations, which are individual dispositional orientations related to a particular view of success that is dependent on how ability is construed and evaluated (Nicholls, 1989). Someone who is task orientated interprets ability based on effort, whereas an ego-orientated individual, will determine their adequacy of ability in relation to others (Lee et al., 2008). It has also been suggested that parents help install core values, habits and dispositions that in turn prepared their children for long term athletic success (Gould, Dieffenbach, & Moffett, 2002). In their study into US Olympic Champions, Gould et al. (2002) explored the role of parents and coaches in athlete development and found an optimistic, achievement-orientated climate
created by parents helped develop the confidence and motivation needed for success.

It is crucial that parents understand the kind of support that they give best and when it is most effective. Key developmental phases for young athletes have been identified as early or sampling (Ages 6-12), middle or specialising (Ages 13-15), and investing (16+) when a young athlete is typically participating in elite level sport (Cote, 1999; Cote, Baker & Abernethy, 2007). For a young athlete, the pursuit of excellence can see changes occur in parental and family involvement, with the role of parents changing from leadership in the sampling years to supporter in the investment years. As such, Cote (1999) suggested how parents’ actions could alter in response to this change. During the sampling years, providing opportunities for their child to enjoy and be involved in various sporting activities reflects a belief or value held by parents of the importance of sport for the development of their child. Typically a child will have to try a number of sports before they find one they enjoy (Brustad, 1996) and parents may even recognise their child is particular ‘gifted’ at a certain sport. During this phase, it has been acknowledged that parents are often the most critical sport socialisation agents for children (Brustad & Partridge, 2002). In the sampling years, as a particular sport is likely to have been pursued and efforts concentrated on developing within this domain, parents begin to make financial and time commitments to support this interest (Green & Chalip, 1998). Gradually, the shift from a leadership role to a supporter gathers momentum as the child progresses into the investment years, and this is where the parent adopts a great interest in their child’s particular sport and also helps them fight setbacks that may hinder training and development (Cote, 1999).
It has been suggested that parents are most influential in the early years, where fun is crucial and should be emphasised (Laurer, Gould, Roman, & Pierce, 2010). It is important that parents appreciate the specific role they play and when they also need to step aside; for example, to allow a coach to facilitate athletic development, which begins during the middle years. During the elite years parents are usually less involved (Cote, 1999), but through all the development stages the athlete still requires the emotional support and unconditional love that often only a parent can provide (Wuerth, Lee, & Alfermann, 2004). As such, it is crucial to educate parents and make them more aware of the impact they can have (Gould, Lauer, Rolo, Jannes, & Pennisi, 2006).

Value transmission

If there are important relationships between parent and child values, it is important to examine mechanisms through which value transmission may occur. Knafo and Schwartz (2003) found that a key condition for effective value transmission between parents and their children was the accurate perception of parental values. The importance of perception in effective value transmission has been highlighted in other research. For example, students’ perceptions of the parents’ academic values, gained from their perceived involvement, were found to predict students’ own values towards academic subject’s Maths and German (Gniewosz & Noack, 2012).

Knafo and Schwartz (2004) explored identity formation and parent-child value congruence by asking adolescents to report their own values and the values they perceived their parents to hold, with parents reporting their values for their children. Across two of the four Marcia (1966) proposed identity stratus’s, characterised by exploration, achievement and moratorium, while
adolescents perceived their parents’ values more accurately there were no differences in the level of parent-child value congruence across the four identity statuses’ (Knafo & Schwartz, 2004).

Perception is a particularly interesting mechanism, as it has been found there can be a discrepancy between a significant other’s own values, what they want for their child, and what is perceived by the child. Freeman et al. (2013) examined the relationship between PE teachers own sport values, their values when teaching, pupils perceived teacher values and pupils own sport values. The strong correlation between pupils’ perceptions of teacher values and the teachers’ values while teaching indicated that teachers were generally expressing their values clearly (Freeman et al., 2013). Although the study explored similarities between pupils and teachers values, it did not explore the potential interactive effect between teachers’ own values and the values they had for their pupils on pupils’ own values.

Studying the relationship between parents’ and their children's values at the adolescent stage is well justified. It has been proposed the further along a child is on the development cycle, the more similar the values of parents and children become (Barni, Alfieri, Marta & Rosnati, 2013). It could prove problematic to study the relationship between parent and child values when the child is younger, as their values are still being formed. Knafo and Schwartz (2003) suggested that adolescents might reach a ceiling in the exposure to their parents’ values beyond which further availability is inconsequential. This was further supported by Barni, Ranieri, Scabini and Rosnati (2011) who found adolescents were more sensitive to parental value messages as opposed to when they are young children.
It has been suggested that gender differences may exist between parents in relation to effective value transmission. Although Gniewosz and Noack (2012) found that students’ perceptions of their parents’ academic values, gained from their perceived involvement, predicted students’ own values towards Maths and German, it was only observed for a maternal influence. It was proposed that this finding was a result of higher involvement levels of mothers compared to fathers. The more the mother was involved in school matters, the more opportunities the student had to observe their parents’ behaviour (Gniewosz & Noack, 2012). However, in a meta-analysis of one hundred and fifteen studies, Yao and Rhodes (2015) explored the potential moderating effect of parental gender on the relationship between parental support and modeling and child physical activity. Although parental support and modeling were related to child physical activity levels, parental gender had no significant moderating effect.

Parents’ own values and the values they have for their child

Although values have been suggested to transcend situations (Schwartz, 1994), differences have been found in the value priorities expressed between sport and in general life in both students and coaches (Lee, 1993). In sport, it has been highlighted that there may well exist lower levels of moral reasoning than in general life, due to sport being a context in which the usual moral standards of daily life are temporarily suspended (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Such differences in value priorities have also been found in PE teachers when they reported their values for playing as well as teaching sport (Freeman et al., 2013). Although there were high correlations between the two value systems, moral values including being fair, tolerance, obedience, and sportsmanship were ranked more highly when teaching compared to playing sport. Freeman et
al. (2013) suggested that this could be a result of several factors such as the schools ethos, the teachers own beliefs, or the National Curriculum requirements for Physical Education in England, which emphasises the role of PE in developing concepts of fairness, personal and social responsibility, and citizenship. Similar to PE teachers, parents may hold different values when playing sport themselves than those they would want to promote to their children.

Early goal orientation literature (Ames, 1992) highlighted the potential difference between rhetoric and action. Even though a parent may state that winning is not important to their child, often without being aware parents can encourage a particular goal orientation by making certain expectations, rewards, and cues salient. Ames (1992) provided an example of how parents make such goal preferences evident. When a child returns home from a football match and the parents asks, “Did you win?” the child perceives a clear message about what the parents view as being important to their sporting experience, even if a parent may state otherwise. Similarly, Knafo and Schwartz (2003) found there were positive associations for parental consistency over time in value messages and negative associations when children perceived word-deed inconsistency to value messages (Knafo & Schwartz, 2003).

Although previous research has explored similarities between parent and child values, no research has investigated the interactive effect between parents’ own values and their values for their child on children’s own values. Further, although values have been shown to influence with goal orientation (Lee et al., 2008), the relationship between values and motivational climate has yet to be investigated.
Parental climate

Motivational climate refers to the situational goal structure operating in an achievement context (Ames, 1992). Ames proposed two types of motivational climate: a mastery climate, which emphasises effort, personal achievement, and skill development; and performance climate, which emphasises normative comparison and public evaluation.

Carr and Weigand (2001) explored the link between motivational climate and goal orientation in relation to physical education. Perceptions of a learning-orientated (mastery) climate from parents, peers, and teachers were significantly related to task orientation; perceptions of a comparison climate from significant others were related to ego orientation. These findings further highlight the important role of children’s perceptions of significant others in shaping their own cognitions. Similar results have been found in sport, with parents directly influencing perceived motivational climate (Gershgoren, Tenenbaum, Gershgoren & Eklund, 2011). When either ego or task orientated parental feedback was delivered to children completing soccer penalty kicks, the players reported differences in perceived motivational climate and goal orientation. Players who received ego-orientated feedback reported a greater parental and general performance perceived motivational climate and ego involvement. Players who received task-orientated feedback reported greater parental and general mastery perceived motivational climate and task involvement, combined with lower performance perceived motivational climate and ego involvement (Gershgoren et al., 2011).

White (1996) originally proposed the link between a learning and enjoyment motivational climate created by parents, which in turn fosters task orientation in young athletes, whilst validating the Parent-Initiated Motivational
Climate Questionnaire (PIMCQ-2) as a reliable measure to assess athletes' perceptions of the motivational climate created by their parents. In her study on female volleyball players, White (1996) also found that an environment that emphasised achievement with little effort (termed 'success without effort') and one in which parents reactions made the child worried about making mistakes while learning and performing a skill, (termed a 'worry-conducive' climate), promoted ego orientation. Although White, Kavussanu and Guest (1998) found partial support for these relationships, the association between a success without effort climate and ego orientation was not replicated. O'Rourke, Smith, Smoll and Cumming (2012) also used the PIMCQ-2 to highlight the link between parental motivational climate and changes in self-esteem in competitive youth swimmers over a 32 week season.

Parental pressure, whether intentional or not, has been linked to increased anxiety levels and enjoyment levels falling (Brustad, Babkes & Smith, 2001). Omli and Wiese-Bjornstal (2011) found that children identified three typical styles parents displayed: the 'supportive parent', in which parents were attentive, silent, encouraging, and empathetic; the 'demanding coach', in which instruction, advice, and critical encouragement were dominant behaviours; and 'crazed fan', which included arguing, blaming, disruption, yelling and fanatical cheering. Across all ages of the children, supportive parenting was found to be the most preferred style, with crazed fan being least preferred (Omli & Wiese-Bjornstal, 2011).

Duda and Balaguer (2007) proposed that a task involving, autonomy supportive environment is ideal for the development of optimal values required for effective sporting development. Specifically, this climate would foster the intrinsic motivation needed for long-term athletic success. Such intrinsic
motivation fostered by a task focused, learning and enjoyment climate have
been shown to be positively related to universalism and benevolence values
(Balaguer, Castillo, Quested and Duda, 2013). Furthermore, power and
achievement values were negatively related to intrinsic motivation, with power
values positively predicting low quality motivation (external regulation) and
amotivation (Balaguer et al., 2013), which would be associated with a more
performance focused, worry-conducive climate.

This thesis examined the relationship of parents’ values and their child’s
values in sport. The aim was to identify whether parents influenced children’s
sport values and, if so, whether it was the parent’s own values or the values
they have for their child that was most influential, and if child perceptions and
motivational climate mediated these relationships. It was hypothesised that the
values parents deem important for their children in sport would predict children’s
own sporting values, but parents own values would moderate this relationship
due to unintentional actions and cues that the parents may not be aware (cf.
Ames, 1992). The proposed model is shown in Figure 5.
Figure 5: The proposed model for the current study.

The proposed model and hypothesis was tested in two studies that employed different methodologies. The first quantitative study used questionnaires to measure parent own sport values, the sport values they deemed important for their child, the child's own sport values, and the child's perception of their parents' sport values. Perceptions of the parent-initiated motivational climate were also collected from both child and their parent. The second qualitative study used semi-structured interviews to explore in more detail the role of parents' own values and their values for their child and how these are transmitted to their children.
Study 1

The first study was the first to examine the relationship between parent and child sport values and test a proposed model for the possible influence of parent-initiated motivational climate and perception in this relationship. The study explored the independent and interactive effects of parents’ own values and the values they deem important for their children on children’s own sport values. Specifically, it investigated the relationship between parent and children sporting values of competence, moral and status values, as well whether children’s perception of their parents’ values and the motivational climate (learning and enjoyment, worry-conducive and success without effort) initiated by the parent mediated these relationships.

It was hypothesised that values the parents deem important for their child would be a stronger predictor of children’s sport values than parents own values (cf. Freeman et al., 2013), with parent-initiated motivational climate and child perceived parent sport values mediating this relationship. Finally, it was hypothesised parents own values would moderate the relationship between the values parents deem important for their child and children's sport values and the proposed mediators, through unintentional actions and cues that the parents may not be aware (cf. Ames, 1992)

Balaguer et al. (2013) explored the link between motivation and Schwartz’s (1992) basic human values, but the present study explored the link between motivational climate and competence, moral, and status sport values (Lee et al., 2008). Given the placing of both value theories on the circular motivational continuum (As illustrated in Figure 3), it was hypothesised that parental moral and competence values would be positively related to a learning and enjoyment motivational climate, and parental status values would be
positively related to success without effort and worry-conducive climates. These findings would be consistent with the self-transcendence value dimension being positively related to markers of quality motivation (task orientation and intrinsic motivation), and self-enhancement being negatively related to task orientation and intrinsic motivation (Balaguer et al., 2013).

Figure 6: Youth sport values (Lee et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2008) ‘mapped’ to values from Schwartz (1992) theory of basic human values (Whitehead et al., 2013)

The study also tested the proposed model that motivational climate and child perception of parent values mediated the relationship between parent values for their children and child own sport values. It was hypothesised that a learning and enjoyment parent-initiated motivational climate would mediate the relationship between child and parent competence and moral values and that a worry conducive and success without effort climate respectively would mediate the relationship for status values.
Methods

Participants

A total of 92 school children (77 males, 14 females, 1 unreported; age range 12-16 years, mean = 14.1 years, SD = 1.1) from the South West of England participated in the study along with one of their parents (56 males, 34 females, 2 unreported; age range 36-59, mean = 47.4 years, SD = 5.6). The children participated mostly at club and county level ($n = 77$) and mostly played sport more than 5 times a week ($n = 57$). Although some parents did not play sport ($n = 33$), most participated in sport 1-2 times a week ($n = 28$). For those that played sport, they mostly did so at recreational level ($n = 46$).

Measures

Youth Sport Values

The Youth Sport Values Questionnaire-2 (YSVQ-2; Lee et al., 2008) was used in its original form when measuring children’s own values and modified three times to measure children’s perceptions of their parents’ sport values, the parents’ own values, and what the parents’ perceive to be important for their children in sport.

The YSVQ-2 is a 13-item questionnaire that has been found to be a psychometrically sound instrument with good cross-cultural validity (Hatzigeorgiadis & Whitehead, 2013). Following the initial stem “When I do sport it is important to me that …”, participants rated 13 value statements on a seven-point scale ranging from -1 (this idea is the opposite of what I believe) through 0 (this idea is not important to me) to 5 (this idea is extremely important to me). The questionnaire contains three sub-scales, each assessed by four or
five items: moral (e.g. “... I try to be fair”), competence (e.g. “… “I become a better player”) and status (e.g., “I win or beat others”) values. The current study found acceptable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the subscales, ranging from 0.72 for status sub-scale, 0.82 for the competence sub-scale to 0.83 for the moral sub-scale.

For measuring what children felt was important to the parent most involved in their sport, the initial stem was reworded to: “My parent thinks that when I do sport it is important to them that …” The current study found acceptable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the subscales, ranging from 0.77 for perceived status sub-scale, 0.83 for the perceived moral sub-scale to 0.85 for the perceived competence sub-scale.

For parents rating their own sport values, the stem was modified to: “When I do sport it is important to me that …” If parents did not currently play sport, they were asked to answer as they think they would if they were playing sport or what was important if they played sport previously. The current study found reasonable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the subscales, ranging from 0.51 for status sub-scale, 0.63 for the competence sub-scale to 0.81 for the moral sub-scale.

To measure what was important to the parent when their child plays sport, the initial stem was reworded to: “When my child does sport it is important to me that they …” The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the subscales, ranged from 0.45 for perceived status sub-scale, 0.63 for the perceived competence sub-scale to 0.66 for the perceived moral sub-scale.

*Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate*
Parent-initiated motivational climate was measured with 18-items adapted from the Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire-2 (PIMCQ-2; White, 1996). The original PIMCQ-2 contains 36 items, with 18 referring to the mother 18 referring to the father. In the present study, the questionnaire was adapted to only include one set of 18 items suitable for both parents. The items formed three dimensions of the motivational sport climate created by parents: learning/enjoyment climate (e.g., “supports my feelings of enjoyment to skill development”), worry conducive climate (e.g., “… makes me afraid to make mistakes”) and success without effort climate (e.g., “thinks I should achieve a lot without much effort”). The youth sport participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to the stem “I feel that my parent…” as opposed to the original stem “I feel that my mother/father …” Appropriate construct and predictive validity have been established with a variety of youth sport participant samples (White, 2007). Each of the sub-scales have been found to have acceptable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients with values for athletic children and adolescents ranging from 0.81 to 0.94 (LaVoi & Babkes Stellino, 2008). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the subscales of the PIMCQ-2 in the current study were similarly satisfactory, ranging from 0.79 for success without effort sub-scale, to 0.81 for learning, enjoyment and worry-conducive climate sub-scales.

Parents completed the PIMCQ-2 in relation to how they feel they support their child as a parent. The initial stem was adapted to: “for my child I feel that as a parent I …” and the language of each of the 18 items was modified to reflect the change of perspective (e.g., “… say it is important for them to win without trying hard”). There were reasonable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the subscales of the PIMCQ-2 for parents, ranging from 0.48 for the learning
and enjoyment subscale, 0.65 for the worry-conducive sub-scale to 0.73 for the success without effort motivational climate sub-scale.

Procedures

A department ethics committee approved the study. Two approaches were deployed for data collection. First, the parent was present with their child, but both completed the questionnaire separately at training sessions, youth sport matches or at a parents evening at a local college. Second, the child completed the questionnaires (Appendix 1) in school or during training where the parent was not present and then took the questionnaires home to be completed by the parent (Appendix 2) and then returned it to school or the next training session. When the parent was present, they received an information sheet and signed informed consent for themselves and their children to participate (Appendix 3). When the child completed the measures in school or at training, the head of department or coach was provided with an information sheet and signed informed consent for the pupils of the school or athletes at the sports club to participate (Appendix 4). All children were also provided with an information sheet and assent form (Appendix 5). In the instance where child’s data was collected in the school/training, with the parent completing the questionnaire at home, the parent was informed they had the right to withdraw their child’s involvement from the study and subsequently the data already collected for that child would be destroyed. No parent withdrew their child’s data.

All data was collected anonymously with children and parents responses matched by providing them with the same participant number followed by a ‘C’ for the child and ‘P’ for parent. The researcher was present to provide
assistance if needed when all children completed the questionnaire. A member of teaching staff was also present when the questionnaires were completed in school.

All children completed demographic information before completing the two versions of the YSVQ-2 and the PIMCQ-2. Although not included in the final analyses, all children also completed the Satisfaction in Sport Scale. Parents completed demographic information and also completed the two versions of the YSVQ-2 and the PIMCQ-2. The information sheet provided to parents indicated that the parent who was deemed to be most involved in their child’s sport completed the questionnaire. After all measures had been completed, participants were debriefed with the researcher available to discuss any potential issues. For parents who completed the questionnaire in the absence of a member of the research team, a typed debrief was attached to the end of the questionnaire with the researcher’s contact details if they wished to discuss any matters further (Appendix 6).

Data analysis

All statistical analysis was carried out using IBM SPSS version 21. Descriptive analysis of the sample was performed (Mean and standard deviation) for exploration of demographic and value hierarchical priorities. Prior to inferential analysis, the data was analysed for normality using Shapiro-Wilk’s test. Depending on whether data met the assumption for normal distribution, the relationships between values and parent-initiated motivational climate were analysed with parametric (Pearson’s rho) or non-parametric (Spearman’s rho)
correlation tests. The scales were also analysed for reliability using Cronbach’s alpha coefficients.

Moderated mediational analysis was conducted using the PROCESS SPSS custom dialogue (Hayes, 2012). The relationship between parent values for their child and child own values was examined, with parent-initiated motivational climate and child perception of parent values included as potential mediators and parent own values included as a moderator using model template 8 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2013).

**Results**

Descriptive statistics relating to exploration of normality, scale reliability and value hierarchies are presented first, followed by correlation analyses and the moderated-mediational analysis relating to the investigation of the hypothesis.

*Shapiro-Wilks normality tests*

*Moral values*

As the Shapiro-Wilks test for normality was significant for child own and child perceived parent moral data (Table 3) a non-parametric Spearman’s rho correlation coefficient was used to explore this data. As parent own and parent values for their child were not significant, a parametric Pearson’s rho test was used.
Table 3: Shapiro-Wilks test for normality significance values for moral values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child_Own_Moral</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child_PP_Moral</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_Own_Moral</td>
<td>0.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_PC_Moral</td>
<td>0.053</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Competence values**

As the Shapiro-Wilks test for normality was significant for three of the competence data and not significant for one of the competence data (Parent values for their child) (Table 4) a mixture of parametric (Pearson’s rho) and non-parametric (Spearman’s rho) correlation coefficients were used to explore the data.

Table 4: Shapiro-Wilks test for normality significance values for competence values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child_Own_Comp</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child_PP_Comp</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_Own_Comp</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_PC_Comp</td>
<td>0.344</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Status values**

As the Shapiro-Wilks test for normality was not significant for the status data (Table 5) parametric tests could be used, with the exception of child’s perceived parent status values, which was significant and as a result non-parametric tests used.
Table 5: Shapiro-Wilks test for normality significance values for status values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child_Own_Status</td>
<td>0.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child_PP_Status</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_Own_Status</td>
<td>0.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_PP_Status</td>
<td>0.219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Parent initiated motivational climate**

As the Shapiro-Wilks test for normality was significant for all the PIMCQ-2 sub-scales for children (Table 6) and parents (Table 7), non-parametric tests were used to analyse the data, with the exception of the parent enjoyment scale, where a parametric test was used due to the Shapiro-Wilks test for normality being non-significant.

Table 6: Shapiro-Wilks test for normality significance values for child PIMCQ-2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child_Enjoy</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child_Worry</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child_Success_no_effort</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Shapiro-Wilks test for normality significance values for parent PIMCQ-2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent_Worry</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_Success_no_effort</td>
<td>0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_Enjoy</td>
<td>0.115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Scale reliability**

While satisfactory and reasonable Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were found for child and parent subscales respectively, it was found that the YSVQ-2 status subscale could be improved with the removal of the item ‘Look good’ in both the parents and children samples (Table 8).

Table 8: Cronbach's alpha scores for YSVQ-2 status scale if 'Look Good' item is deleted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>( \alpha )</th>
<th>( \alpha ) (If item deleted)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child_Own_Status</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child_PP_Status</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child_Own_Status</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent_PC_Status</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The value systems of parents and their children**

The descriptive and values rankings are presented in table 9, with competence values being ranked most important for child own and perceived parent values, with moral values being most important for parent own values and the values they deemed important for their children. Status values were consistently ranked least important out of the three values for both child and parent values.
Table 9: Value rankings for children and parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Child own values</th>
<th>Parent own values</th>
<th>Parent values for child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationships between sport value systems of the children and parents

Moral values

The only significant correlation for moral values was found between children’s own and perceived parent moral values (See table 10).

Competence values

There was a strong positive, significant correlation between children’s own and perceived parents’ competence values and two weak significant correlations (See table 10).

Status values

There was a significant strong, positive correlation between children’s own status values and perceived parent’s competence values and four other weak-moderate significant correlations (See table 10).
Table 10: Parent and child youth sport values correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moral</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Child own values</td>
<td>0.74**</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Child perceived parent values</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Parent values for their child</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Parent own values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Child own values</td>
<td>0.79**</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Child perceived parent values</td>
<td>0.34**</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Parent values for their child</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.38**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Parent own values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Child own values</td>
<td>0.79**</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>0.34**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Child perceived parent values</td>
<td>0.41**</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Parent values for their child</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Parent own values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01. Pearson’s r for child own status values with parent own status values and parent status values for their child. Also for moral parent own and parent moral values for their child. Spearman’s r for all other values.

**Parent initiated motivational climate**

**Correlations**

There were no significant non-parametric correlations between child perceived and parent initiated motivational climate (See table 11).
Table 11: Parent and child PIMCQ-2 correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent - init. motivational climate</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Success without effort</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worry Conducive</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and Enjoyment</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Parent-initiated motivational climate and parent and child sport values*

There were moderate and weak non-parametric correlations between three of the four types of competence values with learning and enjoyment climate. There were also three weak non-parametric correlations between the same three out of four types of moral values and learning and enjoyment climate. There were no significant correlations between any of the status values and worry-conducive and success without effort parent initiated motivational climate (See table 12).

Table 12: Parent and child sport values and motivational climate correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational climate</th>
<th>Value type</th>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Moral</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worry-conducive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Success without</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>effort</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child own</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.48**</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child perceived</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.50**</td>
<td>0.34**</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parent values for child

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>47.53</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent competence values for child</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own competence values</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent competence values for child x parent own values</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01.

Moderated-mediation analysis

Model for competence values and learning and enjoyment climate

Table 13 shows the results of the model which examined the relationship between parents’ values for their children and the child’s own competence values, with child’s perceptions of parents’ competence values and parental induced learning and enjoyment climate as potential mediators, and the parents’ own competence values as a potential moderator.

Table 13: Moderated-mediational model for competence values and learning and enjoyment parent-initiated motivational climate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>64.41</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent competence values for child</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parent own competence values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child perceived competence values</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and enjoyment climate</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent competence values for child</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-1.29</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own competence values</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent competence values for child x parent own values</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Dependent variable model (DV = Child own competence values)**

**Conditional indirect effect at range of values of child perceived values (DV = Child own competence values)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>BootLLCI</th>
<th>BootULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent own values</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conditional indirect effect at range of values of learning and enjoyment climate (DV = Child own competence values)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>BootLLCI</th>
<th>BootULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent own values</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For child perceived competence values

Parents’ competence values for their children, parents’ own values when playing sport, and their interaction explained 14% of the variance in the child’s perceived competence values. The effect was primarily attributable to the parents’ competence values for their child, \( b = 0.40 \), \( t = 2.88, p = 0.01 \). Parents’ own competence values had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the parents’ values for their child and the child’s perceived competence values.

Learning and enjoyment

Parents’ competence values for the children, parents’ own competence values, and their interaction did not significantly predict the children’s perceptions of the learning and enjoyment climate (\( R^2 = 0.04, p = 0.37, bs = -0.10 \) to 0.13, 95% CIs [-0.34, 0.30]).

Child own competence values

Overall parents’ values, children’s perception, and motivational climate did significantly predict child own competence values (\( R^2 = 0.52, p < 0.001 \)). Only learning and enjoyment, \( b = 0.26, t = 2.41, p = 0.02 \), and children’s perceptions of their parents’, \( b = 0.49, t = 5.98, p < 0.001 \), contributed to the final model. There were no conditional indirect effects of parents’ values for child on children’s own competence values. Regardless of parents’ own values, however, parents’ values for children were indirectly associated with children’s own competence values via children’s perceptions, \( abs = 0.17-0.22, 95\% \) CIs [0.04, 0.43].
Model for moral values and learning and enjoyment climate

Table 14 shows the results of the model which examined the relationship between parent’s values for child and child’s own moral values, with child’s perceptions of parent’s moral values and parental induced learning and enjoyment climate as potential mediators, and the parent’s own moral values as a potential moderator.
Table 14: Moderated-mediational model for moral values and learning and enjoyment parent-initiated motivational climate

**Moral values and learning and enjoyment motivational climate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-6.54</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent moral values for child</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own moral values</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent moral values for child x parent own values</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>-2.11</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent moral values for child</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own moral values</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent moral values for child x parent own values</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-5.96</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>-1.36</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>BootLLCI</td>
<td>BootULCI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child perceived moral values</strong></td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning and enjoyment climate</strong></td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parent moral values for child</strong></td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parent own moral values</strong></td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parent moral values for child x parent own values</strong></td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conditional indirect effect at range of values of child perceived values (DV = Child own moral values)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent own values</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>BootLLCI</th>
<th>BootULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conditional indirect effect at range of values of learning and enjoyment climate (DV = Child own moral values)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent own values</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>BootLLCI</th>
<th>BootULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For child perceived moral values

A parent’s moral values for their child, parent own values when playing sport, and their interaction explained 6% of the variance in child perceived moral values. The effect was primarily attributable to the parent’s moral values for their child, \( b = 2.53 \), \( t = 2.16, p = 0.03 \), and parents’ own moral values, \( b = 2.69 \), \( t = 2.12, p = 0.04 \). Although parents’ own moral values had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the parent’s values for their child and the child’s perceived moral values, parent own moral values did have a significant direct effect on child perceived moral values.

Learning and enjoyment climate

Parents’ moral values for their children, parents’ own moral values, and their interaction did not significantly predict the children’s perceptions of the learning and enjoyment climate \( (R^2 = 0.06, p = 0.26, bs = -0.26 \text{ to } 1.19, 95\% \text{ CIs } [-0.72, 2.97]) \).

Child own moral values

Overall parents’ values, children’s perception, and motivational climate did significantly predict child own moral values \( (R^2 = 0.54, p < 0.001) \). Only children’s perceptions of their parents’ values, \( b = 0.80, t = 7.23, p < 0.001 \), contributed to the final model. There were no conditional indirect effects of parents’ values for child on children’s own status values, as well as no indirect association for parents’ values for child and children’s own status values via child perceptions, \( abs = -0.16 \text{ to } -0.35, 95\% \text{ CIs } [-0.43, 0.94] \). Parents own values had no significant moderating effect on child own status values, \( b = -0.32, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.15, 0.25], t = -1.15, p = 0.25 \).
Figure 8: Moral values and learning and enjoyment parent-initiated motivational climate model pathways

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

*Model for status values and worry-conducive climate*

Table 15 shows the results of the model that examined the relationship between parents’ values for their child and child’s own status values, with child’s perceptions of parent’s status values and parental induced worry-conducive climate as potential mediators, and parents’ own status values as a potential moderator.
Table 15: Moderated-mediational model for status values and worry-conducive parent-initiated motivational climate

(Status values and worry conducive motivational climate)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>15.77</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent status values for child</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own status values</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent status values for child x parent own values</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>-1.27</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Mediator variable model (DV = Worry conducive climate))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>22.22</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent status values for child</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own status values</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent status values for child x parent own values</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Dependent variable model (DV = Child own status values))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child perceived status values</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worry conducive climate</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent status values for child</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent own status values</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent status values for child x parent own values</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Conditional indirect effect at range of values of child perceived values (DV = Child own status values))
Parents’ status values for their child and parents’ own values when playing sport, and their interaction explained 18% of the variance in child’s perceived status values. The effect was primarily attributable to parents’ status values for their child, $b = 0.63$ $t = 2.94$, $p < 0.001$. Parents’ own status values had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the parents’ values for their child and child’s perceived status values.

**Worry-conducive climate**

Parents’ status values for their children, parents’ own status values, and their interaction did not significantly predict the children’s perceptions of the worry-conducive climate ($R^2 = 0.04$, $p = 0.32$, $bs = 0.11$ to $0.19$, 95% CIs [-0.19, 0.43].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent own values</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>BootLLCI</th>
<th>BootULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conditional indirect effect at range of values of worry conducive climate (DV = Child own status values)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent own values</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>BootLLCI</th>
<th>BootULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Child Own Status Values

Overall parents’ values, children’s perception, and motivational climate did significantly predict child own status values ($R^2 = 0.65$, $p < 0.001$). Only parents own values, $b = 0.27$, $t = 2.54$, $p = 0.01$, and children’s perceptions of their parents’ values, $b = 0.65$, $t = 9.67$, $p < 0.001$, contributed to the final model. Parental values for their children were associated with a significant indirect effect on children’s own values via child perception, but only if the parents’ had low or moderate status values themselves, $abs = 0.41-0.56$, 95% CIs [0.14, 0.94].

![Diagram](image.png)

Figure 9: Status values and worry-conducive parent-initiated motivational climate model pathways

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. 
Model for status values and success without effort climate

Table 16 shows the results of the model that examined the relationship between parents’ values for their child and child’s own status values, with child’s perceptions of parent’s status values and parental induced success without effort climate as potential mediators, and parents’ own status values as a potential moderator.

Table 16: Moderated-mediational model for status values and success without effort parent-initiated motivational climate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>16.16</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent status values for child</td>
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Mediator variable model (DV = Success without effort climate)

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<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
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<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
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Dependent variable model (DV = Child own status values)
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.15</td>
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<td>0.86</td>
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**Conditional indirect effect at range of values of child perceived values (DV = Child own status values)**

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<th>B</th>
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<th>BootULCI</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>-0.09</td>
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</table>

**Conditional indirect effect at range of values of success without effort climate (DV = Child own status values)**

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Parent own values</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>BootLLCI</th>
<th>BootULCI</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>0.00</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
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</table>

**Child perceived status values**

Parents’ status values for their child and parents’ own values when playing sport, and their interaction explained 18% of the variance in child’s perceived status values. The effect was primarily attributable to parents’ status values for their child, $b = 0.64$, $t = 2.98$, $p < 0.001$. Parents’ own status values
had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the parents’ values for their child and child’s perceived status values.

**Success without effort climate**

Parents’ status values for their children, parents’ own status values, and their interaction did not significantly predict the children’s perceptions of the success without effort climate ($R^2 = 0.00, p = 0.97$, $bs = -0.05$ to $-0.02$, 95% CIs [-0.24, 0.23]).

**Child own status values**

Parents’ values, children’s perception, and motivational climate did significantly predict child own status values ($R^2 = 0.63 p < 0.001$). Only parents own values, $b = 0.28$, $t = 2.51$, $p = 0.01$, and children’s perceptions of their parents’ values, $b = 0.62$, $t = 7.57$, $p < 0.001$, contributed to the final model. Parental values for their children were associated with a significant indirect effect on children’s own values via child perception, but only if the parents’ had low or moderate status values themselves, $abs = 0.40$-$0.55$, 95% CIs [0.15, 0.97].
Discussion

The present study explored the relationship between parents’ values and their children sporting values of competence, moral and status values, as well as the motivational climate (learning and enjoyment, worry-conducive and success without effort) initiated by the parent. The study tested whether the effect of parents’ values for their children on children’s own values was mediated by children’s perceptions of parents’ sport values and parental
induced motivational climate, and whether the parents’ own sport values moderated these relationships. Parental values for their children were associated with an indirect effect on children’s own values via children’s perceptions of their parents’ values, which for competence values was regardless of the parents’ own values. For status values, this was dependent on parent’s own status values being low to moderate. Moreover, parents own status values were associated with a direct effect on children’s own status values. Parents own moral values were also associated with a direct effect on children’s perceived moral values. For all values, perception had a significant direct effect on children’s own sport values. Motivational climate did not mediate the relationship between parents’ values for their children and child own values, with parent own values having no moderating effect on parent and child competence and moral values and the proposed mediators in those models.

*Parental influence on child sport values*

It was evident from the findings that as a significant other, parents play a role in shaping children’s values as proposed by Lee (1996) in his conceptual interactionist model of value relationships. There were significant correlations across all the three values of moral, status and competence values, but no correlations were found between child and parent-initiated motivational climate.

Of the three values measured by the YSVQ-2 (Lee et al, 2008), the relationship between parent and child’s moral values seemed to be particularly weak, with only one significant correlation found for these values. This could reflect parents having the least influence on their children for this particular value. A partial explanation could be sought in consideration of the different rankings prescribed for this value by children, who ranked it second as opposed to parents who ranked it first. Understanding moral reasoning has been a key
direction in values research. As values force people to examine their priorities in what they want to achieve and how they do that, they have been seen as an alternative approach to examine moral decision-making (Whitehead, Telfer & Lambert, 2013a). A potential explanation to the difficulty and subsequent finding of the weak relationship between parent and child moral sport values could be the broad scope of what constitutes morals. The values that make up the scale are relatively broad, covering obedience, compassion and being fair. This study was the first to explore the relationship between parent and children sport values and in particular test the distinction and interaction between parent own values and the values they deem important for their child on the child’s own sporting values.

Parents’ own values and parental values for children on children’s own values

The findings indicated that the values parents have for their children may be a more important influence on children’s own sport values compared to the parent’s own values, as for competence and status values, the parents’ values for their children were associated with an indirect effect on children’s own values via the children’s perceptions. For status values this was particularly salient when the parents’ held low to moderate importance for status values highlighting parents own values could also play a role. Moreover, parents’ own status values were also associated with a direct effect on children’s own status values and for moral values, parent own values had a significant direct effect on child perceived parent moral values, with perception in turn being a large predictor of child own moral values. For this reason, while parental values for their children maybe a more important influence on children’s own sport values,
the role of parent own values cannot be disregarded and still needs to be considered.

*Moderating effect of parent own values*

For moral values, parents own values did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between parents’ values for their child and child own values and the proposed mediators of perception and motivational climate. However, parent own values did have a moderating effect on parent status values for their child and child perceived status values. For competence values, perception was found to mediate the relationship between parent values for their child and child own values irrespective of the parents’ own values.

*Perception and value transmission*

The role of perception in mediating the relationship between parent values for their child and child own values provides further empirical support for the important role of perception in effective value transmission, which has been suggested as a key basic condition required for value transmission (Knafo & Schwartz, 2003). Freeman et al. (2013) explored the relationship between the values of secondary school children and their physical education teachers and found high similarities between the both sets of values, with pupils’ perceptions of their teachers’ values mediating this relationship. The findings from this study partially reaffirm this finding; with the relationship between parent values for their children and children own values being mediated by perception for competence values, however, this was not found for moral or status values.

The importance of value salience in value transmission may offer a potential explanation towards the differences found between the values. Roest, Dubas and Gerris (2010) found that high salience of work as duty for fathers
was related to greater parental involvement in transmissions on this value orientation. It may well be that the difference in importance between the values results in a difference in value salience and subsequent transmission. Moreover, value transmission in the family is not a one-way process with only parents influencing children (Kuczynski & Navara, 2006), and children making the transition into emerging adulthood succeed in influencing their parents on serious topics more than adolescents do. As the child progresses in sport and takes it more seriously, the salience of this value orientation becomes heightened and as such, this is then reflected in the importance of this particular value for parents.

From a parent perspective, competence values are arguably more desirable than status values and this maybe why consequently for this particular value, the values that parents deemed important for their child were more influential on child own values than parent own values. Conversely, while a parent may not actively promote status values, they may make such values salient through subconscious actions (cf. Ames, 1992), which might also be reflected by parent own status values predicting child status values and having a moderating effect on the relationship between parent values for their child and child perceived status values.

These findings have important implications by highlighting the influence of parents on child youth sport values, and that parents need to be aware of the values they want for their child and how these are effectively communicated. Parents should be aware of the potential negative associations that can occur when children perceive word-deed inconsistency to value messages (Knafo & Schwartz, 2003) on effective value transfer.
The relationship between parent-initiated motivational climate and sport values

Out of the proposed associations between motivational climate and values, only the relationship between learning and enjoyment climate and children’s competence and moral values were found to be significant. It could be proposed that this particular climate and values would be more desirable to parents, and as such, such a significant finding reflects the type of climate and values parents are trying to actively promote to their children. Arguably, as stated previously, status values are less desirable and as demonstrated by the results are influenced in more indirect ways. Worry conducive and success without effort climates were not related to children’s status values. It is worth considering the items that make up the status sub-scale, which has been found to positively predict anti-social attitudes, with ego orientation partially mediating the effect of status values on antisocial attitudes (Lee et al., 2008). This potentially negative connotation maybe misdirected. The items that make up the status sub-scale, which include “I win or beat others” and “I am a leader in the group”, might not be deemed negative if managed and developed effectively. It is when winning becomes that important, when the young player wants to win at any cost does it can become detrimental to their sporting and personal development (Bardi & Schwartz, 2013).

Value rankings

The ranking of the three values measured by the YSVQ-2 for children were consistent with the rankings from seven youth sport samples from around the world (Portugal, Greece, Kenya, Japan, UK, Hong Kong and Brazil) and from a sample of elite university competitors from Lithuania (Whitehead &
Gonçalves, 2013) where competence is ranked most important, followed by moral values and lastly status values. However, the parent rankings were inconsistent with these rankings previously identified. Instead for parents, moral values were ranked first with competence second and status values third. With the exception of Šukys (2010) who administered the YSVQ-2 to elite level university students, this is the first study to administer the questionnaire to participants older than university students and also to use a sample who were primarily indirectly related to sport via their children rather than playing sport themselves. For this reason, the parental rankings should arguably be taken as a reflection of the role as a parent, which in turn influences the perceived importance of these values as opposed to being what is important to individuals actively participating in sport.

The study also further validated the YSVQ-2 and PIMCQ-2 as appropriate measures for youth sport values and parent-initiated motivational climate respectively, with child value rankings being consistent with studies from several countries around the world. However, the questionnaires are not suitable for use with parents, who represent individuals considerably older than the participants the questionnaires were developed and for use with and while indirectly associated with sport through their children are not directly involved and participating in sport regularly.

Limitations and future research

This was the first study to explore the similarity of sport values of children and their parents, and made an important contribution to understanding how children’s sport values may be shaped by environmental factors. Some limitations, however, should be noted. In the present study, the Cronbach’s
alphas were high for the scales for children, but low for parents. This applied equally to the YSVQ-2 and the PIMCQ-2. It does need to be acknowledged that the potential challenge for parents to rate what was important to them in their sport, when such a large percentage (65%) didn’t participate in sport or did so once or twice a week. Even for those parents who were not actively engaged in sport and were asked to think back to how they felt when they did play sport, there might have been issues associated with retrospective bias. Regardless, caution should be exerted when using the measures in an adult population.

The present study only examined the relationship between parents’ values and their children’s sporting values using three higher-order values in competence, moral and status values. It could be debated whether the YSVQ (Lee et al., 2000) would have been more appropriate for investigating sport values. The instrument measures 18 distinct values that may offer a broader understanding of the influence of parents on youth sport values. Although the YSVQ has been used to find consistent rankings of sport values across age and gender (Lee et al., 2000), and four European countries (Whitehead & Gonçalves, 2013), its use of single item measures may be problematic as any mis-interpretation or bias cannot be reduced and could have serious influence on the findings.

While the results provide evidence of the similarity between children and their parent’s values, it is not possible to determine whether this is a reflection of the salient values that have long been established. The literature would suggest parents typically become less involved in the sporting development of their child around the time they mature and become teenagers and progress into more elite level of sport (Laurer, Gould, Roman and Pierce, 2010). The children sampled in this present study would fall into the bracket of those in the
specialising phase of Cote’s (1999) athlete development model, which suggests the role of the parent during this phrase usually diminishes with the coach taking more control and having more of an influence on the young athletes development. Indeed, Freeman et al. (2013) found that fathers and mothers were ranked fifth and eighth respectively, when youth sport participants were asked to rate the perceived importance of their significant others. Coach, club and friend were ranked 1st, 2nd and 3rd.

Future research should consider exploring children at various points of their sporting development journey, to see if there are age differences in the strength of the relationship between parent and child sport values. A longitudinal research design would not only be able to track possible age differences but also infer within child changes that may occur over time. This would also prove beneficial in highlighting the crucial time period where parents would have the most influence on their child’s sport values, which is particularly prevalent when it has been suggested that children hold certain expectations of themselves and develop sport-related value systems largely on the attitudes and behaviours of their parents (Welks, Babkes & Schaben, 2004). More positive outcomes could result from additional guidance being supplied to parents during these ‘critical time periods’ on how they can most effectively support their child’s sporting development.

What’s more due to the participants predominantly taking part in sport at the school/club and district level, the results may not necessarily be generalisable to other sport levels and as such should be interpreted as providing an insight specifically for young athletes participating in sport at the two levels highlighted.
Another potential limitation of this study was that the possible role of parental gender was not controlled for. Yao and Rhodes (2015) found parental gender did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between parental support and modelling and child physical activity, but there is some evidence outside of the sport context to indicate there may be differences between parents in relation to effective value transmission (Gniewosz & Noack, 2012). The role of gender in youth sport value transmission should be explored in future research. Socialisation literature has indicated that fathers are often noted as athletes’ most significant sport others (Greendorfer, 2002; Greendorfer, Lewko & Rosengren, 1996). However, future research should consider that there are different important facets to differential parental influence, with differences likely to be based on the sex of the child, the sex of the parent and the sex-typed nature of the sport (Lavoi & Babkes Stellino, 2008). It is also important to consider that while the findings highlight the similarities between parent and child values, it does not explain why such differences may occur or the differing role of parent values may have been observed for different values. In a field dominated by quantitative methods, it could be argued a qualitative approach may be able to enhance our understanding of the mechanisms required for effective value transmission and offer explanation for some of the subtleties found in the current results.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study found parents may play a key role in shaping the values of children and similarities were found between children and their parent’s sport values. The values parents’ deem important for their children may be a more important influence of children’s values compared to parents’ own
values but they also could play a role. The findings indicate that the parents’ values for their children were associated with an indirect effect on children’s own values via children’s perceptions. For status values, this was particularly salient when the parents’ held low to moderate importance for status values. Moreover, the parents’ own status values were also associated with a direct effect on children’s status values. Parents’ values did not predict parental motivational climate and motivational climate did not mediate the relationship between parental and children values. However, children’s competence values were partially influenced by a learning and enjoyment climate. The study highlighted the importance of parents’ being aware of what values they want to express to their child.

**Study 2**

The aim of study 2 was to explore in more depth parents’ sport values and how they believe they influence their children’s sport values. Gniewosz and Noack (2012) found children’s perceptions of their parent’s values were more accurately when parents directly communicated their values and behaved in concordance with them. Although study 1 also provided support for the similarities between children and their parent’s values, it is not known how much awareness parents have around their own and child’s sport values, and what strategies they use to try and shape their children’s values. As values are considered central cognitive constructs that people are generally not consciously aware of until they are compromised (Bardi & Goodwin, 2011), it is expected that there will generally be a lack of awareness around their own sport values and how these are communicated.

Human and sport values research has primarily used questionnaires as a measurement instrument to explore values and value transmission between
parents and their children. The present study used qualitative methods to explore the extent to which parents influence children's values and the specifically the mechanisms they use to do this (Hall, Shearer, Thomson, Roderique-Davies, Mayer & Hall, 2012). By adopting a qualitative approach, the study aimed to provide a deeper understanding from the perspective of parents (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). This line of research has the potential to give a unique and individual-orientated insight into how parents can effectively transmit their values to their children, which may be difficult to identify with quantitative methods (Johnson, 2011).

Methods

Participants

The participants were six parents (3 females, 3 males) whose ages ranged from 34 to 53 and participated voluntarily in the study. For parents to meet the specific criteria of the study, they had to have at least one child aged 11-16 who was actively involved in some level of sport. Between all parents who participated in the study, they had 12 children who were aged between 4 and 16 years (10 ± 3.86); 8 of the children were aged 11 – 16. Two of the participants had two children aged 11-16; in both instances, however, one child was more involved in sport and the participants were asked to focus on this child for their responses during the interview. The children mostly participated in sport 2-3 times a week (n = 5) and mostly at school/club level (n = 11). Children participated in football (n = 5), tennis (n = 3), cricket (n = 1), dance (n = 1), gymnastics (n = 1), rugby (n = 1) swimming (n = 1) and no sport at all (n = 1), with some children participating in more than one sport.

Procedure
An institutional ethics committee approved the study. Parents were made aware of the study through the researcher visiting two local sport clubs (One football and one rugby) during a training session and game, and staff at a local college. Those who confirmed they had at least one child, aged 11-16 years, actively involved in sport were invited to participate in the study. All participants were provided with an information sheet and provided informed consent (Appendix 7).

Before the interviews, the participants completed information on their children’s sporting habits on a questionnaire provided to them (Appendix 8). Interviews were then arranged for an agreed convenient time and location. The researcher, who had previous experience of interview-based research, conducted all interviews. The interviews lasted approximately 25 minutes and each interview was digitally recorded. Once the interviews had been completed, participants were debriefed and provided with the opportunity to ask any questions or discuss any issues or concerns. None of the participants asked questions or raised concerns, but they were provided with the researcher’s contact details should any questions arise thereafter, with assurance that they had the right to withdraw their data at any point.

Interview Guide

A semi-structured interview guide (Appendix 9) was used to ensure all participants were asked the same set of questions (Gould, Jackson & Finch, 1993). Prompts were used to clarify subjects or questions, while probes added depth to answers (Thomas & Wilson, 2014).

The project supervisor and institutional ethics committee reviewed the questions and interview guide to ensure clarity of content. The interview schedule was divided into four parts. First, the participants were asked to
comment on their own sport values (e.g., could you please describe your own sport values; has this changed over time?). These early questions prompted recall and encouraged descriptive talking (Patton, 2002). Second, participants were asked to explain as parents, how they put their values into practice and what they did to influence the values of their children. They also outlined what they thought was important to their child in sport, which helped capture awareness around effective value transmission. Third, once the participants had finished outlining what they thought their child’s sport values were, they were prompted to discuss specific values that are measured by YSVQ-2 (Lee et al, 2008): competence, moral and status values (For example, “Value ‘X’ has often been discussed in the area of sport values, if I could possibly just get your views on ‘value X’, as a parent do you think the value is important?”). Finally, the participants were asked to reflect on the values of other parents (e.g. “Do you feel your sporting values are similar to the other parents you encounter in your child’s sport?”), as well as the positive and negative aspects of youth sport participation. Once all participants had responded to all questions on the guide, they were thanked for their involvement in the study and provided with the opportunity to ask any final questions.

Data Analysis

The researcher with the aid of Audacity software transcribed the interviews verbatim. A number was given to each participant to ensure anonymity. Thematic analysis was then used to analyse the data. Thematic analysis is an accessible and flexible method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns or themes within qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As an approach to analysing qualitative data, thematic analysis goes beyond the semantic content of the data, and starts distinguishing the underlying ideas and
assumptions that inform the semantic content of the data. It allows for flexibility and provides a wide range of analytical options (Smith & Sparkes, 2012).

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested that there are six phases to thematic analysis which were followed in the present study: 1) the researcher familiarised himself with the data, 2) initial codes were generated, 3) codes were collated into potential themes, 4) the themes were reviewed in relation to the coded extracts and entire data set, 5) the themes were defined and named, and 6) the report was produced. Each of the six stages was documented clearly in order to ensure the researcher’s pre-conceived ideas did not influence the thematic structure (Thomas & Wilson, 2014). However, as the particular values of competence, status and moral were a focus of this thesis and incorporated into the questioning, there was a possibility the codes may have been influenced by the questions asked.

During the first two steps, all six transcripts were read and re-read to identify as many categories as possible. Graneheim and Lundman (2004) suggested credibility is one aspect of trustworthiness in qualitative studies. To ensure credibility, each transcript was compared and validated against the emerging categories to ensure no relevant data was inadvertently or systematically excluded or irrelevant data included (Johnson, 2011). These categories were then condensed in the third stage to produce the themes. In the fourth phase, the themes were reviewed and this stage presents the opportunity for any potential themes unrelated to the research question to be removed, but in this instance, no themes were removed. During the fifth phase, the themes of ‘value transmission’ and ‘putting values into action’ were merged to create an overall ‘awareness around effective value transmission’ theme.

**Results and Discussion**
The present study explored the awareness of parents of their own and child’s sporting values and how values are effectively transmitted. Several key themes emerged, which were: parents own values, the sport values parents perceived were important to their child, with a particular focus on competition, the behaviour of other parents and social influences on values, which included the role of the media and professional athletes as role models. It was also found that parents were generally not consciously aware of how their values were transmitted to their children and what exactly was important to their children in sport.

**Parent own sport values**

The most common sport value for parents that emerged from the analysis was health and fitness, which was acknowledged that this has changed in importance with age; “As I got older its made me appreciate I need to keep healthy. Other values included “working within the rules” and feeling good. One parent spoke honestly that for them, it provided an ‘escape’ from everyday and family life:

“I’ve gone from having social values … playing sports it was all about the social aspect erm its now been all about me being away, my own time that’s what my sport has turned into”.

When asked about why that particular parent turned to sport in particular as an ‘escape’, they explained further that they had been “sporty from a young lad”, which further emphasises the notion that an interest in sport can become a habit for life:

“You know sport was my passion I-I’ve trained as a PE teacher I’ve graduated in sport you know sport has been part of my life for a long time with the Royal Navy sport was you know a big part of my life.”
Parent perception of child sport values

The analysis found that most parents perceived that health and fitness, teamwork, enjoyment and winning were important values for their children in sport. Out of these four values, however, only enjoyment has been consistently ranked by children as one of the most important values (Lee et al., 2000). Team work and health and fitness have been ranked as tenth and thirteenth most important youth sport values respectively in UK samples, although these values appear more important in other countries (Whitehead & Gonçalves, 2013). Further, youth sport participants in the UK and other countries consistently rank winning least important. These findings could highlight a misalignment between what parents consider important to their children in sport and what is actually important to the children. Although winning is consistently ranked least important out of the 18 values, there was the recognition from all participants that children develop competitiveness and the desire to win.

"I noticed his competitive streak is, is increasing"; "My son is competitive"; "My daughter's quite competitive; she doesn't like it if she doesn't win her races"

Status values

Winning is an important facet of status values (Lee et al., 2008), which have been found to positively predict anti-social attitudes, with ego orientation partially mediating this relationship (Lee et al., 2008). The association between anti-social attitudes, ego orientation and the development of status values could be deemed undesirable for young athletes, and parents were aware of the potential negative consequences from developing a competitive streak. For example, if it led to children wanting to "win at all costs" or them "trampling over, sort of like their colleagues or the other children and … cheating …." Generally though, while parents recognised their child liked to win, most parents felt
‘status’ values were not important to their child. However, there was evidence how this was sometimes contradicted. One participant commented how that status values were not important but then commented:

“I think it does help him that he is you know on the school football team and the school rugby team sort of thing I guess that is a status symbol” / “Its all part of the positive self-image and then you know that he takes that forward and people view him that way I guess so that’s a very positive thing”.

These comments reflect the “I look good” item that forms part of the status scale in the YSVQ-2. Another item within that scale is, “I am a leader in the group”, and one parent commented on how status values are important, as, “it’s important to feel that you belong and it’s nice to be liked”. They also recognised the negative aspects of being a ‘leader in the group’ with:

“Lots of people wanting to be your friend but (inhales) from my little boys point of view (laughs) erm … sometimes it it gets on his nerves a little bit, you know that people just want him all the time”.

Encouragingly, one parent spoke of competition and sport as vehicles for teaching children wider life skills: “Cos that's life you know in any kind, not even in sport, you know when you work you know you've got to strive to do your best; when you don't win you learn to accept how to lose as well”. This attitude reflects similar values found in parents of Olympic champions, where it was found that the achievement orientated climate created by parents helped develop the confidence and motivation needed for success (Gould et al., 2002). It was not necessarily that parents promoted these values specifically in sport, but by instilling the attitude in their children that if something is done, it has to be done right, these young children then transferred and took that with them in their sporting careers.
Competence and moral values

The other two values as measured by the YSVQ-2 are competence and moral values but while all the participant’s recognised the importance of these values, there seemed to be some misunderstanding by parents as to what these values, exactly represent. For competence, one parent explained how the club through online homework that the children work through develops this value:

"It’s all about competence and building up your fitness, erm getting into a routine … erm, so even though its maybe not me that encourages that the clubs that they play for and the schools do encourage that and I back them up so …"

This sometimes, slight misunderstanding was also evident through the linking of competence with enjoyment:

"I: What about competence in terms of skill development?  
P: Yeah  
I: I mean you’ve already touched upon it a little bit already in that he just wants to get better  
P: Yeah  
I: But is that kind of important to your child?  
P: Absolutely yeah yeah you know erm skill competence and enjoyment it’s all about enjoyment, in fact the club that he plays for or sorry the team that yeah the stoke team is run by people and the whole team has that mentality for enjoyment"

Parents generally noted the importance of moral values, but didn’t articulate how they personally encouraged them. Indeed, that some of the parents saw this as the responsibility of the sports club: "I sort of promote erm I think the club that erm my little one plays for erm does that". One parent acknowledged the success of the coach in developing moral values:
"Fortunately the managers are very good at kind of thing as well and they’ll pick up on it and they teach the kids try to teach them not to do that and to, play fairly"

While it seemed the perception that competence and moral values were the responsibility of the club to develop these values there was some evidence of how parents may try and influence these values in their own way when the opportunity arises, especially when it comes to moral values. One parent did reflect on how this area is sometimes discussed with their child when they are at home; "I think when you see it on the tele and the professionals aren’t doing it fairly it’s something that we have a family discussion about".

**Behaviour of other parents**

A key theme that emerged was the concern that parents had over the behaviour of other parents. Behaviours that have been observed were "shouting at the coach", "telling them (their children) off for not doing things" and generally being "quite aggressive". The participants also described how they see other parents "pushing their children too hard, and then that takes the fun out of it". The damaging effect this can have on the "poor child" was also evident to the parents.

"I look at the children’s faces and they just look distraught … You know, and their parents are taking their opportunities in some cases away from them."

Two parents recognised the effect that witnessing the negative behaviour of other parents can have on their own children. While one parent recognised that not only does the child often, “look at it and go hang on you know that’s not the right way to behave”, it is also the responsibility of the parent to manage such instances:
“You can manage that absolutely and guide them towards you know do you think that was the right way for that player to behave or that spectator you know”.

One participant stated how they often use negative behaviour that is witnessed by their child as an opportunity to influence their child values, however, in that instance it was, “when you see it on the tele and the professionals aren’t doing it fairly it’s something that we have a family discussion about”.

Social influences on values

Television and the role of professional athletes as role models emerged as a sub-theme from the analysis and it is seemed the influence of role models on young athletes should not be underestimated:

P: I mean he’d like to be a professional footballer and have the money
I: (Laughs) yeah
P: And the fame, but it comes with it doesn’t it it does come with it and that’s kind of part of the modern day game really is that they are naturally going to see these stars and think (Gasps) I could get that as well …”

The importance of sporting hero’s or role models has been evidenced by Freeman et al (2013) who asked state and independent school children to rank the importance of significant others and found that sporting heroes were ranked fourth out of nine just behind coach, club and friends. As such, that ranking was ahead of school, PE teacher, and family members.

Two main methods emerged as to how the parents tried to influence their children’s values. First, two participants emphasised the importance of discussing certain incidents as an opportunity to influence their child’s values:

“Er I think discuss, er with my son, er, de (Laughs) sounds sad but de-de brief certain incidents really, and er explain to them what my belief is with regards to how a particular incidences should have, you know, unfolded or if something happens on a particular pitch that I’m not necessarily
happy with then that we will discuss that, afterwards as well and I ask him what he thought about you know what do you think about that action”.

Second, all parents encouraged participation in sport either through taking their children to clubs or being involved in sport as a family:

“Their Dad was very much into football and er sort of encouraged it”/ “You know on days off or weekends they quite often he will take them playing tennis or you know knock the football around on the on the green or at the park”

Consistent with Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory, parent's served as models that children could watch, imitate, learn and develop from. It seemed most parents influenced their child’s sport values by introducing them to sport; “I mean from the age of 3 I started taking him to erm … for both the children I took them to different sports clubs”.

These findings further support the role of parents during the different developmental phases for young athletes (Cote, Baker and Abernethy, 2007). During the sampling years (6-12 years), a value held by the parents of the importance of sport and the overall development of their child is reflected in the providing of opportunities for their children to enjoy and be involved in various types of sporting activities (Cote, 1999). This was reflected in the following accounts:

“Yeah I guess so hence the the desire to take them to the sport clubs you know I’ve always recognised that that’s a really you know important extra-curricular thing but I guess if they had not been into it, then that would have been fine I would have encouraged it I mean you know we play lots of games anyway you know we’re regular swimmers you know even from when they were small I would always take them swimming every week you know we probably don’t go every week now but we go a lot you know erm, erm … or play rounder’s on the beach or chuck the Frisbee around you know…”
“Participant: Yeah getting pelted with a football hour after hour you know whenever he was awake and I was you know, (Laughs) around it would be can we go and play football and I would say yes you know ... Interviewer: And I suppose it’s you promoting that by the fact you would say yes all the time Participant: I would always say yes Interviewer: You wouldn’t just say no no I’m not doing that today Participant: Yeah no I would always say yes ...”

One participant admitted to being, “quite pushy with them actually”, stating she often had to ensure her child went to their sport club even if they did not necessarily want to:

“Erm so its important with that and erm on the times that she doesn’t want to go its just like no you need to go you know its cold I know its going to get harder with the winter, cold and dark but you need to go and she loves it when she’s there”.

Awareness of value transmission

From the analysis, a lack of awareness emerged as parents struggled to articulate how their children come to develop certain values or specific strategies they used to foster positive values. Parents described how the development of values “just happens naturally” or is something that they “don’t think about its just there” and is “naturally part of the household”. Hellison (2013), who has experience teaching values and life skills to disengaged youth in America, questioned the idea of automatic value transfer. Indeed, Bardi and Goodwin (2011) proposed that effective value transmission requires repeated reinforcement and consistency in message and actions. Parents’ lack of awareness of how to promote positive values could prove problematic. Some behaviours discussed, although well intended, may be misguided.
“P: … Well if he wins he gets I must admit I use, first of all to get him to start wanting to win I use to bribe him
I: Yeah yeah ok
P: I'd say if you win today if you score a goal today (taps table) every goal you score I'll give you a tenner …”

Although such actions have good intentions, parents may not realise the potentially detrimental effect this could have on children's sporting development. For example, parents might consider the possible implications such actions could have on their child, such as fostering ego orientation and subsequently status values (Lee et al., 2008).

There was, however, evidence that education can highlight to parents the effect they can have on their children's sporting development. One participant spoke of the work of Carol Dweck (Dweck, 2008; Yeager & Dweck, 2012) and how reading about mindset had made them "more aware now":

"P: Er winnings important because people feel good when they’ve won … er but I'm very clear with my boy I, I don’t ask him the score I'm not interested in the score I ask him how he played
I: Yeah yeah
P: How did you play, er give yourself give me a-a percentage you know how hard did you work
I: Yeah yeah
P: And it's all about the effort that he puts in - Dweck I'm afraid
I: Yeah
P5: Yeah it's all about its all about the effort that he puts in"

Future research should evaluate the effectiveness of educational programmes for parents on how they can most effectively support their child's sporting development and the subsequent effect this may have on the attitudes, behaviours and even potentially values of parents and their children. Other important factors may also need to be considered. Although evidence indicates performance and motivation can be influenced by environmental factors, values are considered relatively stable (Schwartz, 1992) and interventions aimed at modifying values may prove ineffective. Research evaluating the effectiveness
of modifying other psychological constructs such as resilience (Challen, Noden, West & Machin, 2010) and mindset (Donohoe, Topping & Hannah, 2012) have found short-term differences, but limited enduring changes.

However, there are theoretical considerations for value change with Bardi and Goodwin (2011) proposing five facilitators of value change (priming, adaptation, identification, consistency maintenance and direct persuasion) that would benefit from empirical testing. Particularly in sport, Dubois (1986) demonstrated value change for instructional and competitive league soccer players over the course of a season, but the results were tentative as the observed change could be related to increased exposure to organised sport and the competitive emphasis of the leagues.

**Limitations**

The participants who took part in the study had children mostly involved in sport at school/club level. As a result, it is unclear if the findings would generalise to parents of children who compete at elite levels. Further, there may be differences between mothers and fathers, who can occupy different ‘roles’ within the family and consequently have differential parental influence on effective value transmission to their child. Although fathers are often an athlete’s most significant other (Greendorfer, 2002), it is can be more complex as there are many different facets to parent influence, as well as factors that influence effective value transmission.

Differential parental influence can be related to the sex of the child, the sex of the parent, and the sex-typed nature of the sport (Lavoi & Babkes Stellino, 2008). In relation to value transmission, it has been suggested transmission is more effective when there is a close bond, as well as the child feeling the values are inherently worthy (Knafo & Assor, 2007). It has also been
suggested that the child’s perception of parental sport knowledge may temper the degree to which they are influenced by their parent (Lavoi & Babkes Stellino, 2008).

The challenge with this type of research is to ensure there is no stereotyping of gender roles. By only targeting fathers, one might also inadvertently exclude lone-parent families, where the mother is the predominant carer for their children, who may have a child participating in sport at some level.

It is important to recognise that the nature of semi-structured interviews requires effort for the participants to attend, and consequently, the sample used in this study might be parents who take their children’s sport participation more seriously. This could be further facilitated by the recruitment of participants through a local sports club and college. However, this was necessary to ensure participants had a child actively involved in sport, but it should also be highlighted that two of the participants had training in the public services and physical education, which may have resulted in them having more knowledge around this topic than would usually be expected.

A final limitation to the study is often a difficulty with qualitative research, which is the potential for social desirability bias (Macinnes, 2008). Parent-report of indices such as physical activity and sport have been recognised as at risk for such bias (Taylor, Wilson, Slater & Mohr, 2011) with the possibility that parents may over-estimate behaviours that they consider positive (Sallis & Saelens, 2000). With a strong social expectation that parents love and value their children unconditionally (Macinnes, 2008), it is less likely that parents would comment on anything negative about their children’s sport values or how as parents they try and influence these values. However, the narratives did
reveal that children’s sport values and how they are influenced are extremely important to parents and they care greatly about them. Further, the participants did seem to speak honestly about potentially negative behaviour such, “being pushy”, the behaviour of other parents, and their child’s desire to win.

Despite the limitations, the study has advanced understanding of the relationship between children and their parents’ values. Even though there was some awareness evident of how parents influenced their child’s sport values, the sometimes mixed understanding by parents of how exactly they influenced their child’s sport values and whether they are effective in doing this provides a direction for future research. It is apparent from the wider literature on values and other aspects of sport psychology literature that parents do play a key role in the development of their child’s beliefs and attitudes, but the present research indicates that the transmission of sport values may occur ‘naturally’ without any real conscious effort on behalf of the parent. It would be beneficial for our understanding in this area to explore in more depth the potential reasons behind the differences in awareness between parents and how this could possibly be bridged, by information, raising awareness or some kind of intervention. The initial evidence from the current findings of how a parent changed their approach to the way they support their child from increasing their understanding of mindset is encouraging, but how this may relate to raising awareness of effective value transmission needs empirical evaluation.

This study is the first to apply qualitative methods to the investigation of value transmission between children and their parents. Considering values are central cognitions that are generally stable people may not consciously think about their values, unless they are challenged by a particular event or major life event (Bardi & Goodwin, 2011). Indeed, they can often operate unconsciously
guiding our attitudes and behaviours (Schwartz, 2007). The further use of qualitative methods which encourage people to think, reflect upon, and articulate their values could be a key tool to explore in depth and increase our understanding of the mechanisms behind effective value transfer.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, this study found some inconsistencies between the values parents perceived to be important for their child as opposed to what has been found in the literature and how values are effectively transmitted. The importance of winning to children emerged as well as acknowledgement of the potential negative aspects of competition and the worrying behaviour of other parents. Parents did not seem to be overly involved in the development of competence and moral values, but this could reflect their lack of involvement in this aspect of their child’s sporting development. There was however, some encouraging evidence of the influence, increased knowledge can have on a parents’ behaviour and how they effectively support their child’s sporting development. This raises the need for future research to evaluate whether appropriate intervention or information for parents can have a positive influence on the way children are supported from this crucial significant other, as they progress through sport.

**General Discussion**

This thesis examined the relationship between parents’ values and their children’s values in sport. It explored whether parents influence their children’s sport values, if it was their own values, the values they deemed important for their children in sport or their interaction that were most influential, and
pathways through which value transmission occurs. A mixed methods approach was adopted. Study 1 used quantitative methods to explore the value systems and relationships between parents and children’s competence, moral and status values, and whether children’s perceptions of their parents’ values or motivational climate mediated the relationships between the values of parents and children. Study 2 used qualitative methods to explore in depth whether parents try to influence their children’s sport values, exactly how they do this, and if they perceived such mechanisms were effective.

The evidence from both studies suggests that parents’ are important influences on children’s sport values, with similarities found between parent and child values. However, the relationships between parents’ and children’s values varied across different values with moral values having the weakest relationship, and status and competence values showing the strongest relationships, although the nature of the relationship differed for these two values. For all three values, the values parents deemed important for their children were indirectly associated with children’s own values via children’s perceptions. Motivational climate was only associated with a significant effect on children’s competence values. The findings from the second study showed parents’ generally recognised the importance of competence values, although there was some evidence of a potential slight misunderstanding around this value with competence being linked to developing a routine and enjoyment as opposed to skill development or mastery. The results also indicated some inconsistencies between the values parents perceive to be important for their child, which contradicts what has been found in the literature and how values are effectively transmitted.
The findings from both studies provide empirical support for the important influence of parents on youth sport values, with similarities found between parent and child values. Out of the three values, the least similarities were found for parent and child moral values. This could be explained by the finding in the second study that some parents’ felt the club and coach were more responsible for the development of this particular value. It was felt as the club and coach were more directly involved with their child’s sporting development, they had the most opportunity to influence this value when the opportunity arises during training or a game, where the parent may not necessarily be present or able to have a direct influence.

As suggested previously, the nature of the parent and child relationship altered depending on the type of value. Parents’ own values did not have a moderating effect on competence and moral values but they did influence child’s status values. The mediating role of perception in the relationship between parents’ status values for their children and children’s own status values was particularly salient when parents themselves had low to moderate status values. Moreover, parents’ own status values were also associated with a direct effect on children’s own status values. A possible explanation could be that while a parent may not actively promote status values, they may make such values salient through subconscious actions (cf. Ames, 1992). It is also important to consider that in the second study parents highlighted the importance of winning to their children. However, this is in disagreement to what has generally been found regarding children’s hierarchy of sport values (Lee et al, 2000; Freeman et al, 2013; Whitehead & Gonçalves, 2013) where winning has been consistently ranked least important. This could reflect a mis-alignment between what children actually find important in sport and what parents’
perceive to be important to their children. Further, this may influence what values parents promote or subconsciously transmit, which may serve as an explanation for the interaction found for status values. But while these findings contradict previous research, the consistent indirect effect of perception across all three values, provides further support for the important role of perception in effective value transmission (Knafo and Schwartz, 2003; Gniewosz & Noack, 2012; Freeman et al., 2013).

The qualitative second study was able to explore in more detail exactly how parents try and influence their children’s sport values. The findings highlighted some inconsistencies between the parents in terms of their awareness on how values are effectively transmitted and the approaches they adopt. For example, parents were generally not consciously aware of how they transmit their values to their children and suggested it often just happened “naturally”. However, some parents suggested that they try to influence their child’s values by using opportunities from both the child’s experience in sport and from what is observed on television to discuss incidents as a way of educating their child. Further, other specific behaviours emerged from the interviews such as parents playing sport with their children that could be an example of ‘modelling’ and may be an effective way to transmit values. As such, it could be that parents may just see this kind of behaviour as ‘playing’ without actually recognising it as a vehicle for effective value transmission.

The results from both studies highlight the importance of parents’ own values, children’s perceptions of these, and motivational climate on children’s sport values. Despite the influential role parents have on their children’s sport values, a lack of conscious awareness of how they influence their child’s sport values, could have associated issues. Although every parent will likely want to
do their best for their child, a lack of knowledge on the effect certain behaviours can have on their children could be detrimental to their children’s sporting development.

The insight garnered by qualitative methods certainly proved beneficial and supports the further use of this approach to increase the depth of our understanding in a field dominated by quantitative methods.

It has been proposed that mixed methods research has much to offer the field of sport and exercise psychology when both quantitative and qualitative methods are combined effectively (Moran, James & Kirby, 2011). Such an approach can offset the respective weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative methods by drawing on the complementary strengths of each other to provide stronger and more accurate inferences (Sparkes, 2015). Further, by seeking corroboration between quantitative and qualitative data, mixed methods research can enhance validity, by effectively triangulating the findings (Hesse-Beber, 2010).

Considering values are essentially cognitive constructs that guide actions (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992) attitudes, and behaviours (Schwartz, 2007), examining their relationship between parents and their children presented challenges. Along with the expected biases associated with such research, including social desirability and demand characteristics, the researcher was mindful of external pressure and influences on children that may impact the honesty of the responses. It was therefore important that the environment the children completed the measures in was carefully controlled and steps were taken to ensure parents didn’t influence the responses. However, it is also important to consider the potential extraneous variables that could have influenced the present research. The relationship between the values of parents
and children can not only be influenced by the gender of the children and parents, but also the strength of the relationship between them, the children’s perceptions of parents’ sporting knowledge, and the sex-type nature of the sport (Lavoi & Babkes Stellino, 2008). Although some steps were taken to address such issues, the potential impact of such variables on the findings should be considered. Further, it is also important to note that the findings may be representative of parents and children of a particular sporting level (Club, district and county) and not generalisable to children in sport at recreational or elite level.

Although the findings are the first to provide empirical evidence as to how parents influence their children’s sport values and further our understanding, the findings of study 2 suggest that future research may explore the role of other adults (e.g., role models) in shaping youth sport values. There is also scope for future research to continue exploring the mechanisms behind effective value transmission. Given the potential negative associations when children perceive word-deed inconsistency to value messages (Knafo & Schwartz, 2003), increased knowledge of how to prevent this from happening is worthwhile. This is further compounded by the results from the Study 1 which highlighted that it was the values parents deemed important for their children that were arguably most influential on the children’s own sporting values and the role perception played in predicting children’s own sporting values.

In conclusion, this thesis has contributed to the development of value theory by providing empirical evidence of the relationship between parents’ values and their children’s sport values. Further, the findings provide a parental perspective on what is important to children in sport and highlight, the specific relationships between parent and child values. The results also emphasise how
such relationships may differ depending on the value type, with a potential lack of conscious awareness from parents on how they effectively transmit their values. Although it is important to consider the challenges and limitations associated with this type of research, the findings from both studies provide direction for future research and advance our understanding about the role of parents in shaping children’s sport values.
Youth Sport Survey

Introduction

We would like to know what young sports-people think about things that go on in their sport. Please help us by ticking boxes or circling numbers on the following pages. Use only one answer for each question. Read each page carefully because the numbers mean different things on different pages! We do not need your name. We have given you a number so you can be completely honest. There are no right or wrong answers so please ask if you don't understand.

ID number

Please put down today's date. ______/____/____

BEFORE YOU BEGIN, PLEASE ANSWER THE QUESTIONS BELOW.

1. When were you born? ______/____/____
   (Day) (Month) (Year)

2. What gender are you? TICK ONE ONLY
   Female
   Male

3. Write in your NATIONALITY ........................................

4. Write in your MAIN SPORT ........................................

5. Are you a CAPTAIN in your sport? TICK ONE ONLY
   Yes
   No

6. How long have you been competing in this sport? TICK ONE ONLY
   Less than 1 year
   1 year
   2 years
   3 years
   4 years
   More than 4 years

7. How often do you take part in your sport through training/playing a week? TICK ONE ONLY
   Never
   3 -4 times
   1 -2 times
   4 -5 times
   2 -3 times
   5+ times

91
8. Within the last year what is the best team you have played for? **TICK ONE ONLY**

| Recreational only |  
|-------------------|---
| School or Club    |  
| District or County|  
| Regional or Above |  

1 School or club means playing **FOR** your school or sport club against another school or sport club, not playing **WITHIN** your school or sport club.

2 Regional or above = e.g. South East, National Squad or for your Country in internationals.
What is important to me in sport?

Please CIRCLE one of the numbers beside each item to show how important it is to you in your main sport. This is what the numbers mean:

-1 = This idea is the opposite of what I believe.
0 = This idea is not important to me.
1 = This idea is slightly important to me.
2 = This idea is quite important to me.
3 = This idea is important to me.
4 = This idea is very important to me.
5 = This idea is extremely important to me.

BEFORE YOU BEGIN please read through the list to find which idea is most important to you and which idea is least important. Mark those ideas first, then go through the list again and mark the other ideas.

When I do sport it is important to me that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>opp</th>
<th>not impnt</th>
<th>slight impnt</th>
<th>quite impnt</th>
<th>impnt</th>
<th>very impnt</th>
<th>extra impnt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I show that I am better than others</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I try to be fair</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I win or beat others</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I improve my performance</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I do what I am told</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I show good sportsmanship</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I am a leader in the group</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I become a better player</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I look good</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I always play properly</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I use my skills well</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I help people when they need it</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I set my own targets</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Your parent’s involvement in sport

Please CIRCLE one of the numbers beside each item to show how much you agree with each statement. This is what the numbers mean:

1 = I strongly disagree with this statement.
2 = I disagree with this statement.
3 = I do not disagree or agree with this statement.
4 = I agree with this statement.
5 = I strongly agree with this statement.

I feel that my parent...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither disagree or agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Is most satisfied when I learn something new</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Makes me worried about failing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Looks satisfied when I win without effort</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Makes me worried about failing because it will appear negative in her eyes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Pays special attention to whether I am improving my skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Says it is important for me to win without trying hard</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Makes sure that I learn one thing before teaching me another</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Thinks I should achieve a lot without much effort</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Believes enjoyment is very important in developing new skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Makes me feel bad when I can’t do as well as others</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Looks completely satisfied when I improve after hard effort</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Makes me afraid to make mistakes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Approves of me enjoying myself when trying to learn new skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Supports my feelings of enjoyment to skill development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Makes me worried about performing skills that I am not good at.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Encourages me to enjoy learning new skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Tells me that making mistakes are part of learning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS AND THAT YOU GAVE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION
THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP
What is important to my parent in sport?

Please **CIRCLE** one of the numbers beside each item to show how important your parents think it is when you do **sport**. This is what the numbers mean:

-1 = This idea is the opposite of what my parent believes.
0 = This idea is **not important** to my parent.
1 = This idea is slightly important to my parent.
2 = This idea is quite **important** to my parent.
3 = This idea is important to my parent.
4 = This idea is very important to my parent.
5 = This idea is extremely important to my parent.

**BEFORE YOU BEGIN** please read through the list to find which idea is most important to your parents and which idea is least important. Mark those ideas first, then go through the list again and mark the other ideas.

My parent thinks that when I do sport it is important that....

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I show that I am better than others</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>2. I try to be fair</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I win or beat others</td>
<td>-1</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. I improve my performance</td>
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<td>5. I do what I am told</td>
<td>-1</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. I show good sportsmanship</td>
<td>-1</td>
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<td>7. I am a leader in the group</td>
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<td>8. I become a better player</td>
<td>-1</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS AND THAT YOU GAVE ONLY **ONE** ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP
How I feel about my sport

Please CIRCLE one of the numbers beside each item to show how much you agree with each statement. This is what the numbers mean:

1 = I strongly agree with this statement.
2 = I agree with this statement.
3 = I do not agree or disagree with this statement.
4 = I disagree with this statement.
5 = I strongly disagree with this statement.

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Neither agree or disagree</th>
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PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS AND THAT YOU GAVE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION
THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

Thank you for your help. You have now finished. Please pass the questionnaires back to the researcher.
Appendix 2 – Questionnaires for parents

Youth Sport Survey

Introduction

We would like to know what young sports-people and their parent most involved in their sport think about things that go on in their sport. Please help us by ticking boxes or circling numbers on the following pages. Use only one answer for each question. Read each page carefully because the numbers mean different things on different pages! We do not need your name. We have given you a number so you can be completely honest. There are no right or wrong answers so please ask if you don’t understand.

ID number

Please put down today’s date. _____/____/____

BEFORE YOU BEGIN, PLEASE ANSWER THE QUESTIONS BELOW.

1. When were you born? _____/____/____
   (Day) (Month) (Year)

9. What gender are you? TICK ONE ONLY
   Female
   Male

10. Write in your NATIONALTY ..........................................................

11. Write in your MAIN SPORT ..........................................................

12. Are you a CAPTAIN in your sport? TICK ONE ONLY
    Yes
    No

13. How long have you been competing in this sport? TICK ONE ONLY
    Less than 1 year
    1 year
    2 years
    3 years
    4 years
    More than 4 years

14. How often do you take part in your sport through training/playing a week? TICK ONE ONLY
    Never
    3 -4 times
    1 -2 times
    2 -3 times
    4 -5 times
    5+ times

15. Within the last year what is the best team you have played for? TICK ONE ONLY
    Recreational only
    Club
District or County
Regional or Above¹

¹ Regional or above= e.g. South East, National Squad or for your Country in internationals.
What is important to me in playing* sport

Please **CIRCLE** one of the numbers beside each item to show how important it is to you in your **main sport**. This is what the numbers mean:

- **-1** = This idea is **the opposite of what I believe**.
- **0** = This idea is **not important** to me.
- **1** = This idea is **slightly important** to me.
- **2** = This idea is **quite important** to me.
- **3** = This idea is **important** to me.
- **4** = This idea is **very important** to me.
- **5** = This idea is **extremely important** to me.

**BEFORE YOU BEGIN** please read through the list to find which idea is **most** important to you and which idea is **least** important. Mark those ideas first, then go through the list again and mark the other ideas.

**When I do sport it is important to me that...**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. I show good sportsmanship</td>
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<td>20. I am a leader in the group</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. I become a better player</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>22. I look good</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>23. I always play properly</td>
<td>-1</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>24. I use my skills well</td>
<td>-1</td>
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<td>25. I help people when they need it</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>26. I set my own targets</td>
<td>-1</td>
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<td>2</td>
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</tbody>
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**PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS AND THAT YOU GAVE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION**

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP**

*If you are not actively involved in playing sport, please still complete the questionnaire but answer as you think you would if you were playing sport or how you were if you played sport previously.*
Your involvement in sport

Please **CIRCLE** one of the numbers beside each item to show how much you agree with each statement. This is what the numbers mean:

1 = I strongly disagree with this statement.
2 = I disagree with this statement.
3 = I do not disagree or agree with this statement.
4 = I agree with this statement.
5 = I strongly agree with this statement.

For my child I feel that as a parent I...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strong disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither disagree or agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>19. Am most satisfied when they learn something new</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Make them worried about failing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Look satisfied when they win without effort</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Make them worried about failing because it will appear negative in my eyes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Pay special attention to whether they are improving their skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Say it is important for them to win without trying hard</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Make sure that they learn one thing before teaching them another</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Think they should achieve a lot without much effort</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Believe enjoyment is very important in developing new skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>28. Make them feel bad when they can’t do as well as others</td>
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<td>30. Make them afraid to make mistakes</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>31. Tell them they should be satisfied when they achieve without trying hard</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>32. Approve of them enjoying themselves when trying to learn new skills</td>
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<td>35. Encourage them to enjoy learning new skills</td>
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<td>36. Tell them that making mistakes are part of learning</td>
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PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU ANSWERED **ALL** THE QUESTIONS AND
THAT YOU GAVE ONLY **ONE** ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION
THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP
What is important for my child in sport?

Please CIRCLE one of the numbers beside each item to show how important it is for you when your child does sport. This is what the numbers mean:

-1 = This idea is the opposite of what I believe.
0 = This idea is not important to me.
1 = This idea is slightly important to me.
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3 = This idea is important to me.
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BEFORE YOU BEGIN please read through the list to find which idea is most important to you when your child does sport and which idea is least important. Mark those ideas first, then go through the list again and mark the other ideas.

When my child does sport it is important to me that they...

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<th>Item</th>
<th>the opp</th>
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<tr>
<td>24. Use their skills well</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Help people when they need it</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Set their own targets</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS AND THAT YOU GAVE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

Thank you for your help. You have now finished.
The Role of Parents in Youth Sport Values

Information Sheet

Dear Parent/ Guardian,

We are inviting the participation of children, aged 11-16 years and their parent who is most involved with their sport to participate in a research study on Youth Sport Values. We welcome all sporting levels and backgrounds. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part there will be no disadvantage to you of any kind and we thank you for considering our request.

What is the purpose of the study?

This project is being undertaken as part of a Masters programme in Sport and Health Sciences. Values can guide an individual’s goals, perceptions and behaviours. Exploring youth sport values allows us to understand more about the underlying motivations that can have an impact on sport participation and development. Parents are hugely influential in the development of their children, but exactly to what extent this is also true for sport values has yet to be identified. This research will be the first step in building our knowledge of what factors influence the transmission and development of youth sport values as we look to improve youth sport development and participation.

What Type of Participants are Needed?

We require children, aged 11-16 years and their parent who is most involved with their sport from any background who are actively involved in sport of any kind.

What will Participants Be Asked to Do?

We will ask you and your child to fill out some details about yourselves; such as date of birth, gender, nationality and information regarding sport involvement. Then your child will fill out four questionnaires about the following:

1. What is important to them when they do sport
2. Your involvement in their sport
3. What they perceive you to find important about when they do sport
4. How they feel about their sport

You will also fill out the same questionnaires about the following:

a) What is important to you when you do sport
b) Your involvement in their sport
c) What is important to you when your child does sport
This should take approximately 20 minutes and will then be the end of you and your child’s involvement in this study.

Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

**Can Participants Change their Mind and Withdraw from the Project?**

You may withdraw from participation in the project at any time and without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind. You may also request that any information collected from you be destroyed or deleted and not used either now or in the future.

**What use will be made of the data?**

All information obtained will be entered stored on computer in coded form. The questionnaires will then be shredded but the computerised raw data will be retained securely for a period of 7 years from collection. The computerised raw data will be analysed to help us what is important to children when they do sport and how this is influenced by their parent/guardian.

No names are requested on the questionnaire so you and your child will not be identified individually and your confidentiality is assured. Results of this study may be published but any data included will in no way be linked to any specific participant. You are most welcome to request a copy of the results of the project should you wish.

**What if Participants have any Questions?**

If you, or your child, have any further queries regarding the above study please do not hesitate to contact us on the details provided below.

**The Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and Health Sciences has reviewed and approved this study.**

Yours sincerely,

Luke Goggins
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lpg204@exeter.ac.uk

Dr Paul Freeman
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Professor Craig Williams
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Appendix 4 – Information sheet for schools

The Role of Parents in Youth Sport Values
Information Sheet for Schools

Dear School,

We are inviting the participation of school pupils, aged 11-16 years, and the parent who is most involved in their sport to participate in a research study into the similarities between the sport values of children, their parents and the degree to which children accurately perceive such values.

What is the aim of the project?

The Children’s Health and Exercise Research Centre is devoted to research into children’s health and well-being with a focus on why children participate in sport. Based on work conducted approximately 20 years ago in the South West, where questionnaires were developed to explore youth sport values. Using this questionnaire, we are interested in re-visiting this topic of what values pupils attach to sport and the influence parents may have on the development of these values. This is particularly beneficial as the findings will further our understanding of the factors that can influence child participation in sport and this can then be utilised to improve participation and promote sustained involvement in exercise and the subsequent health benefits associated with this.

What type of schools, pupils and participants are needed?

The study requires school children aged between 11 and 16 years old and their parents to participate. Children and parents can be from any state or private school, with any sporting level or background.
What will schools, pupils, and their parents be asked to do?

We would like pupils age 11-16 and their parent most involved in their sport to complete several questionnaires about their values and involvement in sport. We will obtain parental consent for their children to participate in the study. However we do require permission from the school to allow us the opportunity to collect data. It is provisionally thought, that data could be collected at a parents evening, as the child and parent are waiting for appointments. Alternatively another possibility could be during a convenient lesson where the study could be outlined to the children, who would then be able to take the questionnaires home for their parents to complete and they can bring them back in soon thereafter for collection at an arranged convenient time.

Please be aware that schools, pupils and parents may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to themselves of any kind.

Can schools/participants change their mind and withdraw from the project?

Schools, pupils and parents may withdraw from participation in the project at any time and without any disadvantage to themselves of any kind. They may also request that any information collected from them to date be destroyed or deleted and not used either now or in the future.

What data or information will be collected and what use will be made of it?

We will ask the child and parent to fill out some details about themselves; such as date of birth, gender, nationality and information regarding sport involvement. Then the children will complete four questionnaires about the following:

5. What is important to them when they do sport
6. Their parents involvement in their sport
7. What they perceive their parents to find important about when they do sport
8. How they feel about their sport

The parents will then fill out the same 3 questionnaires about the following:

d) What is important to them when they do sport
e) Their involvement in the child’s sport
f) What is important to them when the child does sport

This will be the end of their involvement in this study.

All information obtained will be entered and stored on a computer in coded form and individual results will be confidential to the participant and the research team. Results of this study may be published but any data included will in no way be linked to any specific participant.
If the parent, child or school have any further queries regarding the above study please do not hesitate to contact us on the details provided below.

The Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and Health Sciences has reviewed and approved this study.

Yours sincerely,

Luke Goggins  
MRes Researcher  
lpg204@exeter.ac.uk

Dr Paul Freeman  
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Appendix 5 – Child information sheet and assent form

The Role of Parents in Youth Sport Values
Information Sheet for Participants

Thank you for showing an interest in taking part in this study. This sheet will tell you a bit more about the study and what we would like you to do. Please read it carefully before you decide whether or not you would like to take part. If you have any questions about the study or would like more information please just ask. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part there will be no disadvantage to you of any kind and we thank you for considering our request.

What is the project about?
This project is being undertaken as part of a Masters programme in Sport and Health Sciences. We are interested in investigating what is important to children when they do sport and see if this is related to what their parent most involved in their sport finds important when they do sport. We also want to see if this is related to the kind of involvement your parent has in your sport.

Who can take part?
We are inviting any children, aged 11-16 and their parent who is most involved in their sport, no matter how much sport they like or do, to take part in the study.

What will you have to do?
Should you agree to take part in this project, you will be asked to fill out some details about yourself; date of birth, gender, nationality and information about your involvement in sport. Then you will fill out four questionnaires about the following:

a) What is important to you when you do sport
9. Your parent’s involvement in sport
10. What you think is important to your parent’s when you play sport
11. How you feel about your sport

This should take approximately 20 minutes and will be the end of your involvement in this study.

Can I change my mind?
Yes! You can stop the study at any time without having to give a reason. You may also request that any information collected from you to date be destroyed or deleted and not used either now or in the future.

What will we do with the information?
All the information collected will be entered stored on a computer and the results will be confidential to the University research team. The questionnaires will then be shredded but the computerised raw data will be retained securely for a period of 7 years. The computerised raw
data will be analysed to help us what is important to children when they do sport and how this is influenced by their parent/guardian.

No names are requested on the questionnaire so you will not be identified individually. Results of this project may be published but any data included will in no way be linked to any specific participants. You are most welcome to request a copy of the results of the project should you wish.

What if I have any questions?
If you have any questions then please feel free to ask before, during or after the research.

What do I have to do next?
If you have read and understood everything that we would like you to do and are happy to take part please give your parent or legal guardian the form attached to this sheet to sign to confirm they are happy for you and them to take part. You can then complete the questionnaires.

The Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and Health Sciences has reviewed and approved this study.

Thank you,

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Dr Paul Freeman
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C.A.Williams@exeter.ac.uk
The Role of Parents in Youth Sport Values
Assent form for children

I have read the Information Sheet about this project and understand what it is about. All my questions have been answered and know that if I think of any other questions I am able to ask them at any moment.

I know that:-

1. My parents/guardian have given permission for me to take part in this project about ‘Youth Sport Values’.

2. My participation in the project is entirely voluntary;

3. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without any disadvantage;

4. I can stop at any time and nothing will happen to me if I want to stop;

5. The questionnaires will be shredded once the data has been inputted on to a password-protected computer but any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained securely for 7 years;

6. The results of the project may be published but my anonymity will be preserved.

I agree to take part in this project.

........................................................................................................... ........................................
(Signature of participant) (Date)

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of Sport and Health Sciences
Dear Parent/Guardian,

Thank you for participating in our study. We are aiming to explore youth sport values as it allows us to understand more about the underlying motivations that can have an impact on sport participation and development. Parents are understandably hugely influential in the development of their children, but exactly to what extent this is also true for sport values has yet to be identified. This research will be the first step in building our knowledge of what factors influence the transmission and development of youth sport values as we look to improve youth sport development and participation. It is hoped these results specifically will be able to raise awareness of the influence parents can have on values in youth sport and how they may be able to more effectively transmit such values to their children.

We are interested to see whether the sport values of parents has an influence on the kind of involvement they have in their child’s sport, the sport values of their children and if this also has an impact on the child’s satisfaction in sport. We are also keen to see if there are similarities in the values of the parent and child.

The questionnaires you have just completed will be analysed by statistical software. All information obtained will be stored on computer in coded form and individual results will be confidential to the participant and the research team. Results of this study may be published but any data included will in no way be linked to any specific participant. It is important to note that you may withdraw you or your child’s participation in the study at any time without any disadvantage to you of any kind.

If you, or your child, have any further queries regarding the above study please do not hesitate to contact us on the details provided below.

Thank you again for your participation and involvement in this research.

Yours sincerely,

Luke Goggins
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lpg204@exeter.ac.uk

Dr Paul Freeman
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01392 724 774
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Parents and Youth Sport Values
Information Sheet

Appendix 7 – Information sheet for interviews

Dear Parent/Guardian,

We are inviting the participation of parents who have children, aged 11-16 years actively involved in sport to participate in a research study on Youth Sport Values. We welcome all sporting levels and backgrounds. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part there will be no disadvantage to you of any kind and we thank you for considering our request.

What is the purpose of the study?

This project is being undertaken as part of a Masters programme in Sport and Health Sciences. Values can guide an individual’s goals, perceptions and behaviours. Exploring youth sport values allows us to understand more about the underlying motivations that can have an impact on sport participation and development. Parents are hugely influential in the development of their children, but exactly to what extent this is also true for sport values has yet to be identified. This research will be the first step in building our knowledge of what factors influence the transmission and development of youth sport values as we look to improve youth sport development and participation.

What Type of Participants are Needed?
We require parents from any background who have a child actively involved in any sport at any level.

What will Participants Be Asked to Do?

We will ask you to participate in an interview about your sporting values and the sporting values of your child. We will also ask you for some details about yourself such as date of birth, gender, nationality and information regarding sport involvement.

The interview should take approximately 30-40 minutes, but this will then be the end of your involvement in this study.

Can Participants Change their Mind and Withdraw from the Project?
You may withdraw from participation in the project at any time and without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind. You may also request that any information collected from you be destroyed or deleted and not used either now or in the future.

What use will be made of the data?
All information obtained will be entered stored on computer in coded form. The interview will be recorded and then transcribed so the information can be analysed to identify and report themes.
or patterns within the data. The recording will then be deleted and the transcripts shredded but the computerised raw data will be retained securely for a period of 7 years from collection.

No names are requested on the details you provide or in the interview so you will not be identified individually and your confidentiality is assured. Results of this study may be published but any data included will in no way be linked to any specific participant. You are most welcome to request a copy of the results of the project should you wish.

**What if Participants have any Questions?**

If you have any further queries regarding the above study please do not hesitate to contact us on the details provided below.

**The Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and Health Sciences has reviewed and approved this study.**

Yours sincerely,

Luke Goggins  
MRes Researcher  
lpg204@exeter.ac.uk

**Dr Paul Freeman**  
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P.Freeman@exeter.ac.uk

Professor Craig Williams  
01392 724890  
C.A.Williams@exeter.ac.uk
Appendix 8 – Demographics questionnaire for interview participants

Parents and youth sport values

Introduction

We would like to know what level of sport your child participants in. Please help us by ticking boxes or circling numbers on the following pages. Use only one answer for each question. Read each page carefully because the numbers mean different things on different pages! We do not need your name. We have given you a number so you can be completely honest. There are no right or wrong answers so please ask if you don’t understand.

ID number

Please put down today’s date. _____/____/____

BEFORE YOU BEGIN, PLEASE ANSWER THE QUESTIONS BELOW.

1. When were they born? _____/____/____ (Day) (Month) (Year)

16. What gender are they? TICK ONE ONLY

Female

Male

17. Write in their NATIONALITY ..............................................................

18. Write in their MAIN SPORT ..............................................................

19. Are they a CAPTAIN in your sport? TICK ONE ONLY

Yes

No

20. How long have they been competing in this sport? TICK ONE ONLY

Less than 1 year

1 year

2 years

3 years

4 years

More than 4 years

21. How often do they take part in their sport through training/playing a week? TICK ONE ONLY

Never

3 -4 times

1 -2 times

4 -5 times

2 -3 times

5+ times

22. Within the last year what is the best team they have played for? TICK ONE ONLY

Recreational only

School or Club¹

District or County

¹Note: School or Club should be checked if your child is in an organized sport setting such as a school sports team or a club team.
Regional or Above

+ School or club means playing FOR your school or sport club against another school or sport club, not playing WITHIN your school or sport club.
+ Regional or above= e.g. South East, National Squad or for your Country in internationals.
Could you please describe your own sport values.
  - How has this changed over time?
  - Could you please describe what is most important to you in your sport.

Could you please describe what you do as a parent to put your sport values into practice.
  - Could you possibly provide some examples

What types of values do you emphasise for your child in their sport?
  - What do you do as a parent to promote the development of these values?
  - Could you possibly provide some examples
  - Do you feel successful in these efforts and explain why

What do you feel is important to your child in their sport?
  - How has this changed over time?
  - What evidence do you see from your child as to what is important to them in their sport.
  - Could you please describe what you feel your child’s sporting values are
  - Would you say this is something you have given much consideration to previously, if so why or why not?

Value _________ *(1) has often been discussed in the research. If I could possibly get your views on __________, as a parent do you think this value is important?
  - Could you please describe what you feel could be the potential impact this value could have on your child?
  - How do you feel you express this particular value to your child?
  - Could you please provide examples
  - How important do you think this value is to your child?
  - What evidence do you see from your child of how this value is expressed?

Value _________ *(2) has often been discussed in the research. If I could possibly get your views on __________, as a parent do you think this value is important?
- Could you please describe what you feel could be the potential impact this value could have on your child?
- How do you feel you express this particular value to your child?
- Could you please provide examples
- How important do you think this value is to your child?
- What evidence do you see from your child of how this value is expressed?

Do you feel your sporting values are similar to the other parents you encounter in your child’s sport?

Looking at youth sports in general, what do you see as some of the negative values being learned by participants?
- Can you please provide examples

Looking at youth sports in general, what do you see as some of the positive values being learned by participants?
- Can you please provide examples

Do you feel your own sporting values are something you often think of and are aware of?
- Could you please elaborate as to why this may be the case?
- How do you feel you transmit your values effectively to your child?
- Could you please describe what impact you feel your values have on your child?
- Could you please provide examples of how you have come to know this?
- How does your child express this?

*(1) – In previous research winning has often come out as the least important value. While we expect this to potentially happen also with the first study we are conducting, we will wait to see what value is ranked last from the data we will collect in the first study and insert that value here.

*(2) In previous research enjoyment has often come out as the most important value. While we expect this to potentially happen also with the first study we are conducting, we will wait to see value is ranked first from the data we will collect in the first study and insert that value here.
References


Gniewosz, B. and Noack, P. (2012) ‘What you see is what you get: The role of early adolescents’ perceptions in the intergenerational transmission of academic values’, *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 37, pp. 70 – 79.


