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Children & Sports:

How Parents and the Environment Parents Create

Lead Children to Pursue Athletic Achievement

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Children & Sports:
How Parents and the Environment Parents Create
Lead Children to Pursue Athletic Achievement

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Report

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of the University of Texas at Austin
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Master of Arts

The University of Texas at Austin

December 2011

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How Parents and the Environment Parents Create
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The University of Texas at Austin, 2011

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This study investigates parental influence on children's advancement to higher levels of competition (i.e. older age group intramural and club leagues, high school level, collegiate level, professional, etc.) in sport participation. Much past research has been conducted on parental influence, but this study furthered the research by more directly addressing television's role in parental influence among children in school grades four-six. Results indicate that a noticeable amount of parents, regardless of their personal knowledge of sport, often use TV as a teaching tool to help their children advance through their sport experiences.

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Introduction & Literature Review

How children advance through their sport experiences and begin the path toward higher level competition (i.e. levels of competition that require eight or more hours of training a week or more (Vitton 2011) is a transition that is a very popular topic within sport psychology, sport advertising, and promotion (Vitton 2011; Anderson 2009; Boden 2006; Collins 2005; Larson 2000). Parental influence is a well-documented influence within the literature (Gauze et al 1996; Eccles 1983; Parsons et al., 1983; Babkes & Weiss 1999; Backett 1990), but there is relatively little that examines to what extent parental influences actually lead children to higher levels of sport competition. This study examined both children's and parent's perceptions on parental influence and how parents influence their children's pursuit to higher levels of competition.

There are a lot of published works on children and sports and many themes of influence, like parental and relationship (Turman 2007; Marwell and Schmitt 1967; Gauze et all 1996; Eccles 1983), ethnicity and cultural (Boden 2006; Lopiano 2004; McDermott 2005), and gender influences (Lopiano 2004; Boyle et al. 2003; Riemer & Visio 2003; Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz 2000). The relationships parents have with their children play an integral part in the role that children are motivated to play sports and whether or not they pursue higher levels of competition (i.e. levels of competition that require eight or more hours of training a week or more (Vitton 2011) at older ages.

Parental and Relationship Influence

The social relationships children have with their parents, as well as other family members and friends, have been found to carry much weight within the children's perceived support and encouragement. Turman (2007) found that parents often viewed themselves as supporters and encouragers when it comes to their children's pursuit of sport (63 percent of study participants). Parents can enact various forms and types of support toward their children's sports participation. For instance, Marwell and Schmitt (1967) found that parents often used their authority to get their children to comply with their wishes regarding sport in five ways: rewarding and punishing activities, by offering their expertise on the sport, and by convincing the child that they owe their parents or their family will be proud of them for participating. Turman (2007) found that male athletes responded to parental rewards more than females; fathers used rewarding behavior as a motivational technique more than mothers did. Thus, one way that parents can encourage sports participation is through positive and negative reinforcement that take the form of rewards and punishments. Bandura's (1989) social cognitive theory of self-efficacy outlines this concept: children observe others, receive feedback in the form of positive or negative attention, and alter their behavior to avoid the negative feedback and conform to the behaviors they see around them from parents and peers.

Concerning the communication between parents and children in sport, Collins and Barber (2005) found that athletes who perceived high expectations from their parents exhibited greater levels of confidence than those who perceived lower expectations from their parents. A corollary is that athletes who believed their parents placed greater

importance on their success also showed higher levels of cognitive anxiety than athletes who believed their parents placed less importance on doing well (Collins & Barber 2005). So while children may be encouraged to compete for approval from their parents by participating in sports, a negative side effect is increased anxiety of participation.

Gauze et al (1996) found that “more positive perceptions of social relationships were associated with more positive motivational outcomes” (p. 2212). Gauze et al (1996) found three themes of how social engagement (i.e. talking during practice, cheering and supporting in competition, etc.) affected sport pursuit when conducting interviews with children in fourth through sixth grade. The survey results found that 1) higher enjoyment and perceived competence could be predicted by higher perceptions of social relationships around the sport, 2) lower stress could be predicted by higher peer acceptance and parent-child relationship quality, and 3) higher self-determined motivation could be predicted by higher peer acceptance, father-child relationship quality, and friendship quality or mother-child relationship quality (Gauze et al 1996).

Overall the research shows that multiple relationships need to be considered more fully to understand the link between relationships children have with others and the motivation those relationships bring. Thus other individuals can be very influential in how children perceive and are motivated to participate in sports activities.

According to Eccles' (1983) expectancy-value perspective, “perceptions of others' beliefs influence expectancies for and values placed on achieving success, which directly determine achievement behaviors” (p. 86). The expectancy-value perspective relates to children and sports competition as children may perceive their parents as

expecting higher levels of success and will push their children to achieve higher results (Turman 2007). According to Harter's (1978) competence motivation theory, positive feedback and reinforcement are identified, "following successful mastery attempts as leading to enhanced perceptions of competence and control, positive affect, and intrinsic motivation" (p. 44). Harter's (1978) competence motivation theory can aid in outlining of how parental positive reinforcement shapes children's perceptions of their own competence and internal motivation to gain mastery of the sport.

Without positive reinforcement from the start, children lose the positive relationships necessary to motivate themselves independently as they grow older. Babkes and Weiss (1999) studied parental attitudes and behaviors effects on child motivation later on in life. Babkes and Weiss (1999) found "children who perceived their parents to be positive role models, to possess more positive beliefs about their competency, and to provide more frequent positive feedback about their performance successes reported higher perceived competence, enjoyment, and intrinsic motivation" (p. 56). Again, research offers that higher positive parental encouragement yields more motivated children in sports.

Gauze (1999) found that the "more positive perceptions of parent-child relationship quality, friendship quality, and peer acceptance would be associated with higher enjoyment, perceived competence, and self-determined motivation as well as lower stress" (p. 2212).

Russell (1987) found that parental influence was different between the mother and the father. A focus on parental influence from differences between fathers and mothers

reveals that, in general, mothers perform more care-oriented interaction, and fathers participate in more active play (Russell 1987). Backett (1990) states that fathers in the study viewed playing with children and being a source of pleasure were highly meaningful ways of demonstrating fatherly involvement. Backett (1990) saw sports as an activity where fathers could interact with their children without a lot of specific knowledge and input from the mother. The use of sports was seen as efficient as it could be used when little time was available for bonding activities (Backett 1990).

Harrington (2006) found that fathers enjoyed sport interaction because “that is something that you can actually be involved in what they are doing and have some common areas of interest and conversation and something that you know about that they know about” (p. 18) Fathers desire interacting with their children in areas that they feel competent in and one that will garner mutual input and engagement from their children. One father said he valued sport conversation with his children because it “lubricates your conversation until you get into the groove of talking” (Harrington, 2006, p. 18). Sports and sports related activities can be perceived as a conversational topic among fathers, as well as mothers, to bring children around to more mature and equal-level conversations. For this reason, sport may also stand out as a motivation for children because they link it to more attention from their parents (Harrington 2006).

Another social influence to consider is from teammates, peers, coaches, as well as friends’ or teammates’ parents and guardians. Lave and Wenger (1991) conducted a study on children involved in organized swimming (a typically individual-oriented sport) and found a large social influence component. It could be suggested that swimmers

interaction with others is a form of social learning whereby they develop the skills and identities related to swimming (Lave & Wenger 1991). The sense of identity arose from training, competing, and social pre/post practice activities (Lave & Wenger 1991).

Perceptions of group-belonging may impact the level and motivation by which individuals approach practice and other sports-related activities. For instance, Light (2010) found that a sense of group-belonging during practice often came from the social events surrounding practice. A ten-year-old child from Light's study explained how they all talk and socialize while waiting for their coach to give them direction (Light 2010). Light (2010) found that swimmers bonded over the struggle practice presented. Enduring the tough workouts together made the children more committed to completing workouts.

In general, this research shows that the group dimension clearly offers a sense of belonging, which can be highly motivational, even within a highly individualized sport pursuit. Light (2010) found that most parents focused on the social dimensions when they were asked to describe the benefits their children received from participating in swim club.

Ethnicity and Cultural Influences

Boden (2006) notes that the media, especially in western cultures, plays an important role in affecting how children consume sport, and are motivated by it. She states that, "not only are they 'media savvy' in their ability to critically evaluate the cultural images that bombard them, but they are also skilled at interpreting modes of fashion and what this can communicate about one's personality (Boden, 2006, p. 289). This implies that along with evolving technology and advertising effects, children are

changing their ways of valuing sport and the social climate around sport. The influence of the media on children consumers is a force to be considered in evaluating children's motivation to pursue sport as a lifestyle choice. Boden (2006) adds that parents act as gatekeepers more than ever before (Martens et al., 2004) determining how much media their children will consume (pg. 289).

Lopiano (2004) states, "The print and electronic media are a huge influence on the values of parents, the aspirations of our daughters and the support of peer groups in that critical 10-14 years old period" (p. 26). The assumption that sports is a field dominated by a largely male demographic in terms of participation and journalistic coverage in both print and broadcast media does not accurately reflect the achievements made by women in this area. Lopiano (2004) examined the effects on females and how that female influence can impact how children see sports.

Another cultural factor to be considered in our society is the accessibility of certain types of sports. Summer camps are a highly popular influence, especially for those families who can afford to send their children to camps regularly. According to the American Camping Association (ACA 2005), more than 10 million American children attend camp annually. There are over 12,000 day and resident camps in the United States (McDermott, 2005, p. 34-37). Many of these camps have special themes related to particular sports (football), academic activities (math camps), or the arts (theatre camp). Others align with a particular religion or cultural identity. The ACA has standards that camps must meet certain cultural standards in order to be credited with their approval. There is a whole set of cultural expectations associated with attending summer camp: the

counselors expect cooperation, and organization. They often encourage children to do group activities and build very western-valued skills and thoughts (McDermott, 2005).

Phinney, Lochner, and Murphy (1990) created an ethnic identity model applicable to minority adolescents. Phinney's model (1993) has three stages with an optimum outcome of identity achievement resulting in a positive sense of oneself as a minority group member” (p. 179). All these studies saw establishing identity and finding social acceptance as the optimal outcome of pursuing sports aligned with ethnic values, even within cultural climates outside of the ethnic group’s origin.

Ponterotto and Pedersen (1993) found that Phinney’s three stages constitute the process by which minority children “explore ethnic issues and negotiate survival in a bi-cultural world” (p. 23). Ponterotto and Pedersen found that children who achieve stage three--Phinney’s (1989) ethnic identity achievement--gain a buffer against the negative impact of prejudice and discrimination.

In considering cultural factors, many other factors, like gender role expectations, overlap. In western cultures, many advertising and promotional efforts concerning sport have resulting in overwhelmingly negative consequences and backlash. Phinny’s (1993) model relates to children in sports because children in different areas of the world grow up valuing different sports; identifying with one sport over another is influenced by regional factors as well as social factors.

Gender Influences

Lopiano (2004) states that many ads portray sports as unfeminine with “characteristics, such as strength, power or aggression, or to appear less than physically

beautiful because of sweat, dirt and other disruptions commonly experienced in sports” (p. 25). Lopiano notes that corporations play a major role in making sport a heavily male-dominated activity. While corporate support of women's sports in recent years has increased, there is still a tremendous gap between men's and women's sports from general sponsorships to professional athlete purses (Lopiano 2004). Many advertising campaigns have strove to correct this skewed presentation of women's roles in sport; the most well-known might be the Dove campaign for real beauty started in 2004.

Still, Lopiano (2004) further notes that “madison avenue and the corporations that fund these mass media images create the aspirations of women. What do we want those aspirations to be? Who in the corporation is making those decisions? How can corporations best demonstrate their respect for women and girl consumers?” (p.24).

Lopiano (2004) states that there is a new trend emerging: the embracing of a stronger, more skilled, more competitive female athlete. She considers our children to be in the midst of the most significant cultural change in our social expectations of women.

Currently, the over-sexualized and highly physical depiction of women still lingers in sport advertising (Lopiano 2004), but there are more and more campaigns in front of children demonstrating the acceptance of stronger women and equality in sport between the genders.

Recent studies support that girls participating in masculine sports and activities are more acceptable than boys participating in feminine sports and activities (Boyle et al. 2003; Riemer & Visio 2003; Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz 2000). Boyle (2003) suggests that

males are more sensitive than females to stigmas associated with participating in certain sports because sport in itself is widely accepted as being masculine.

Bigler and Liben (2001) found that stigma consciousness was higher for children who did not participate in feminine sports and physical activities than for children who did participate in feminine sports and physical activities (p. 46). The typical sports that males are engendered to avoid include: dance, ballet, gymnastics, and weightlifting (Bigler & Liben 2001).

Bigler and Liben (2001) note that research “contended that feminine sports and activities are assigned less value and lower social status in society than masculine sports and activities” (p. 39). According to Bigler and Liben (2001) children are aware that their participation, or association with a socially inappropriate sport would put them at risk of stereotype, but they state that children do not seem to fully understand why or how the stereotypes are communicated or manifested. This opens the door for future research: acknowledging that children learn, but not outlining where the children stated they learned the stigmas from. In line with other past research, we can draw there are a variety of sources this learning comes from (i.e. media, culture, parents, camp counselors, coaches, etc.).

And where gender stands out as a main factor in how children pursue sport, there is some research stating there are sports where gender roles have no effect. Anderson (2009) found that “the components that make up athletic identity [self- perceptions of athletic appearance; competence; importance of physical activity and sports; and encouragement for activity from parents, teachers, and friends, etc.] operate in relation to

level of activity” (p. 14). The results show that combining multiple positive self-views and perceptions of encouragement will have a positive impact on the level of activity the child seeks to perform at (Anderson 2009). Where other findings saw ethnicity, and especially gender, as major factors in sport pursuit, Anderson (2009) notes that if a child feels positively about a few key aspects of the sport (i.e. their competence level, mastery, social acceptance, etc.) they will be motivated to move into higher-level competition.

Overall, the existing literature cites a few central themes to children’s pursuit of sport: parental and relationship, ethnicity and cultural influences, gender influences. Parents are viewed as key influencers on their children and their experiences within sport. This project further delves into how kids themselves actively prepare, with the help of their parents, for higher-level competition. Because of these factors and an overall lack of understanding how gender and parental influence impact sports participation at a higher level two research questions were posed:

RQ1: How are parents influencing children’s preparation for high school-level sport competition?

RQ2: What cultural background trends exist for children who seriously adopt sports at a young age, and plan to pursue competition at higher levels?

Methods

The study was based on semi-structured interviews with parents and children (grades four through six).

Settings and Participation

The fieldwork was conducted at the University of Texas at Austin. The researchers hired Think Group Austin, a market-research firm, to recruit participants. Think Group Austin maintains a database of participants who are recruited via social media, newspaper, and booth sign up at special events. Potential participants were asked a series of screening questions to determine if they were qualified to participate in this study. The qualification was that participants must have children between the ages of seven to 12 years of age. Furthermore, that their children must participate in some form of organized sport and that they have at least watched sports on television together. All participants were given written information about the study. Those who met the eligibility criteria were invited to sign up and were paid \$65 as a financial incentive.

Study Design

Semi-structured interviews with parents and children were conducted to find their views about sports on TV, video games and how those mediums relate to the child's current participation in sport.

Questions were designed with past studies' examples in mind (Ryska 2003; Lavoie, Stellino 2008). Scales similar to Ryska's (2003) Multidimensional Sports-personship Orientations Scale were used to measure how parents' regarded

their role in their children's sport participation. The guiding questions were used flexibly, and allowed for impromptu questions and conversations. Examples of the interview and survey questions we asked can be found in Appendix A.

University IRB approval was obtained.

Data Analysis

All interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. The main interviewers read all the transcripts to delve into the data. Survey responses were analyzed using SPSS software. The material from each interview was coded and charted. In this project, child and parent responses were coded differently, but analyzed together to allow for more in-depth answers.

Results

Research question one assessed whether or not parents influence their children's preparation for high school level sports competition (i.e. practice, attitudes, and motivation).

Supporters and Encouragers:

Regarding the first research question, children as well as parents shed light on how parental influence guides children's decisions and motivations in sport. Like Turman (2007) found, parents within this study outlined their role in their children's pursuit of sport as supporters and encouragers. Many parents expressed the idea that they want to keep their children busy in sports and give them the chance to choose what they want to play and experience a variety of sports so they can find something they can be really excited about and develop passion for (Parent 2,3,4,7,8,9,11,12,14, and 16). Virtually all interviewed parents see their children pursuing sports at some higher level, i.e. higher age groups intramural and club play, high-school level, some mention college level).

Roughly two thirds of the parents interviewed expressed that they actively encourage their children to participate in sports and attend practice. Some are very open about stating what they want their kids to be involved in but are also quick to add that they do not force their children to participate. Parent 18 said,

She's just getting to that age where she's kind of--she doesn't really want to do it. And we never try to force any of them to do something. She tried soccer, didn't like it. So she did--she finished out that season and that was it . . . You just have

to find their interests and encourage them to do that for sure. I want one of them to be in gymnastics but we will see

Three fourths of all parents interviewed answered that they consciously make an effort to talk to their children about respect for social conventions, rules and officials, their teammates and opponents, and their full commitment toward sport participation. Six of the twenty parents interviewed said they coached youth sports at one time or another and were very adamant about teaching their children proper sportsmanship.

TV as a Teacher:

An interesting trend found within the results is that a notable percentage of parents (four out of twenty) viewed watching sports on TV as a way to teach their children how to improve their own personal athletic performances.

Those parents responded that they do not really limit the amount of televised sports their children consume with the exception of being in bed by a certain time regardless of what is playing. While at home watching typical sports events, a lot of the time children will bounce back and forth from their own amusement to what is playing on TV; parents who said they used TV as a teaching tool also said they call their children, interrupting their play, to come to see what happened on the TV. Parent 10 said,

We would watch it and we would call Gabe in and be like, “Gabe, come and look what they’re doing! See? That’s what you’re going to be. And that’s the way this [technique, form] needs to be . . . Because he stays busy throughout the year with sports so he’s kind of--his time at home’s kind of a break from it and then we’re like, “No Gabe, come look.” And he is like, “Uh.” But sometimes he does take it

in . . . he'll do his stance . . . and he's like "Is this how you do it?" We're like, "Yeah, do it just like that in the game!"

Most parents who called their children to the TV to see something happen were trying to show their children positive things they could learn from the televised sports. Only one parent (Parent 13) used televised sports to point out negative aspects of sport. Parent 13 stressed the idea that professional-level athletes, especially NBA players, often "showboat" and demonstrate attitudes he did not want his child to imitate. By pointing out the attitude, he was trying to convince his child of how distasteful the attitude was, and influence his child to avoid the behavior in his own athletic experiences.

Research question two assessed the extent to which cultural background, race, and ethnicity influenced pursuit of competition at higher levels. This goes into a little more detail with two or three specific interviews, where the child was older and already thinking of the practical application of competition within their own lifestyles.

Parental Knowledge as a Factor:

There were patterns found in the background of children who stated they were very motivated to perform in a sport at a professional level. These children came from households where the parents were knowledgeable about sports, and actively tried to teach their children to perform well and behave like achievements were not big deals. The general idea is much like how Parent 20 put it, "act like you've been there when you score a goal."

Many of the parents who coached youth sports at one time or another were very knowledgeable and maintained a certain distance from their children when it came to

their children's performance in sports. Parent 8 said, "I'm just being a typical dad . . . I want my son to be the best, and he'd miss a ball. I'm you know screaming at him . . . I'm a coach . . . out here, it's not daddy, its coach."

Within the interviews it was easy to pick out, amongst the older children, those that had been coached by their parents for some time to think about sports as a fixed aspect of their futures. Children 6 (twins) spoke of playing at higher levels like it was a common theme of conversation at home,

Yeah, but whenever we get to like high school or college, we might get drafted to like a different team . . . other people think it's not fair sometimes. Because mostly you try to help out your brother than the other people.

To align with the mature attitude, children 6 also talk about TV in a similar way, "and the only reason we watch sports, so whenever we play sports, we won't get like confused or stuff."

Child 10 repeatedly embraced the idea of moving up in levels as he get older. He looked up to athletes like Vince Young and Colt McCoy and said he wanted to become like them. He said it's like he's on that track toward being like them already.

Discussion

Overall, the findings of this study are consistent with current published research (Gauze et al 1996; Eccles, Parsons et al., 1983; Babkes & Weiss 1999; Backett 1990). Parents have been found to play a very important role in shaping their children's pursuit of sport participation at higher levels (i.e. older age group intramural and club leagues, high school level, collegiate level, professional, etc.), especially when the children are first starting their athletic careers (school grades four through six).

An interesting result of the study points to parental knowledge of sport, which has been linked to children's motivation within sport (Harrington 2006; Turman 2007; Harter 1978), can be combined and supplemented with the use of televised examples.

This study found four out of twenty parents volunteered that they use TV to point out to their children proper technique, quality talent, positive attitudes, etc. The use of TV as a teaching tool was kept positive; most parents stated they only used TV to highlight positive aspects of the sports their children were interested in. Parents from the study, in general, saw the use of televised sports as a positive influence for their children's pursuit of sport. This study found that televised sports play a significant role within the home. Most families in the study volunteered that they leave the TV on with sports playing just for background noise. As a few parents stated, they trust televised sports; when they have it playing on TV, they do not have to worry about seriously foul language or adult content popping up on the TV for their children to see. Some parents regulated what kind of sports their children could watch on TV (i.e. certain sports were viewed as too violent). Many parents said they regulated only the hours spent watching TV; sport events that ran

later in the evening on a school night most children were forced to miss as it interfered with their academic schedule. More parents might have provided similar examples, if asked more directly about their exact uses of TV as a teaching device for their children. Future research should ask parents to detail their use of TV in teaching their children sport concepts.

Information gathered regarding gender influences revealed a few interesting points. First was that of all the parents interviewed, no mothers said they coached their children in sports, but one third of the fathers said they did coach their children in an organized league at some point in time. This reinforces the literature that states fathers' roles within parent-child relationships are often sports-centered, as it allows them to interact with their children in a way that allows for mutual knowledge and communication. Second, the findings demonstrated that both male and female children pursue sports at higher competition levels when their parents are supportive and knowledgeable about the sport they are playing in. Of the twenty surveyed, 11 children answered as being male and four answered as being female, and five did not answer that question at all. Even though males outnumbered females, the percentages of those who answered as being serious about pursuing sports at higher levels were similar. Approximately one out of three male and one out of three female children stood out as serious about their pursuit of sports in the future. They were also the children that answered as being older (ten to 12 years of age) and more aware of the rules of the sports they were interested in.

Limitations

First, the population of interviewees consisted of families from the Austin area only; families signed up voluntarily to participate in the study and the third party company that signed them up took the first 20 families. The study does not have a representative sample. Future research should strive to find more participants who better represent the national population.

Second, parents and children responded to interview questions with each other in the room. Children might answer differently when not supervised by their parents, and parents might be answering more for their children to hear them make certain points, than for interviewers to collect accurate information. Future research needs to find ways to gain child and parent point of views independently of each other. It would be interesting to see a cross-questioning approach, to see what questions get answered differently, if any, and why. Future research would benefit from the use of methodological approaches that examine actual parent-child interaction in various situations, not just within one-time interviews.

Third, obtaining a combination of parent, child, and coach reflections of the athletic experience may provide a more accurate picture of sport participation and motivation. While parental influence was found to be highly important in child motivation, it is not the only influence that matters (Light 2010).

Conclusion

As our society continues to stress an emphasis on children sport participation, sports will be a large part of the family environment. As this study has demonstrated, parents play an important role encouraging, motivating, and supporting their children's participation in athletics. The use of TV and easy-to-access sport media coverage provides a valuable look at how parents engage their children in the sport socialization process. As sport, family, and technology continue to intersect in meaningful ways, scholars are presented with multiple directions for future research. Most important is the way in which parents use TV to supplement, and even compensate, for their knowledge level about sport. Having easy-to-access resources like TV sports coverage, might make it easier for parents to motivate their children to reach higher competition levels; it might also mean implications for more intense competition at those higher levels because more children will get there.

Appendix

A.

Questions directed toward Children:

- 1) What is your favorite sport? Do you have any teams that you like to cheer for? What makes that team great?
- 2) Do you like watching sports on TV? Tell me about an exciting moment--what is it like watching with your parents?
- 3) What do you do when your favorite team loses? Can you tell me the rules of your favorite sport?
- 4) Do you work hard at being a good athlete? Do you think you are a good athlete? Are the kids you play against/with good athletes?
- 5) Do you like getting trophies/awards? Who is your favorite athlete? Do you pretend to be like them when you play?

Questions directed toward Parents:

- 1) Tell me about the last time you and your child watched sports together?
- 2) What kind of athlete do you encourage your child to be?
- 3) Probe for their ideas on: social conventions, rules/officials, one's full commitment toward sport participation, respect for opponent, negative approach toward sport.
- 4) How important is it that you and your child both enjoy watching the same teams/sporting events?
- 5) Do you and your child play video games? What kinds do you own? Are there any rules around playing them in the house?

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Véronique Vitton, Karine Baumstarck-Barrau, Sarah Brardjanian, Isabelle Caballe, Michel Bouvier, and Jean-Charles Grimaud. *Journal of Women's Health*. May 2011, 20(5): 757-763. doi:10.1089/jwh.2010.2454.