"What Makes ‘em Tick?” The Impact of Parenting Style and Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate on Student Athletes’ Motivation Orientation in the Context of Intercollegiate Athletics

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WHAT MAKES ‘EM TICK? THE IMPACT OF PARENTING STYLE AND PARENT-
INITIATED MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE ON STUDENT ATHLETES’

MOTIVATION ORIENTATION IN THE CONTEXT OF

INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

by

Logan Kateryna Lyons

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Human Development and Family Studies

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2020
ABSTRACT

“What Makes ‘em Tick?” The Impact of Parenting Style and Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate on Student athletes’ Motivation Orientation in the Context of Intercollegiate Athletics

by

Logan Lyons, Doctorate of Philosophy
Utah State University, 2020

Major Professor: Travis E. Dorsch, Ph.D.
Department: Human Development and Family Studies

The present dissertation was designed to investigate the relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics. Study 1 was designed to investigate the relationship among these parenting variables and student-athlete motivation within the context of intercollegiate athletics. A sample of 156 student athletes aged 18 to 25 ($M = 20.45, SD = 1.60$) from two different Division I universities in the Intermountain West, completed a 74-item questionnaire composed of items related to parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation. Findings suggest that authoritative parenting style and a parent-initiated mastery motivational climate are predictive of a task orientation. These findings highlight the potential role of parenting styles and practices in relation to the enhancement of student athletes’ task motivation in sport. Giving potential insights into how key stakeholders, can bolster student-athlete
well-being and satisfaction within the intercollegiate experience. Study 2 was designed to investigate both the student-athlete and parent perception of the role parents play in the development of motivation. Twelve individuals from five families ($n = 5$ student athletes; $n = 7$ parents) were interviewed individually using a semi-structured interview guide. The qualitative findings suggest that parenting behaviors such as relationship quality and connection, are potential facilitators of student athletes’ motivation orientation. The present work extends the current understanding of the role parents play within the intercollegiate context and answers calls for an intensified focus on the role of parents in intercollegiate sport, offering a springboard for theoretically and practically meaningful future research.

(164 pages)
PUBLIC ABSTRACT

“What Makes ‘em Tick?” The Impact of Parenting Style and Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate on Student athletes’ Motivation Orientation in the Context of Intercollegiate Athletics

Logan K. Lyons

Motivation has become a widely studied construct in intercollegiate athletics, as coaches and administrators have sought to maximize the socioemotional and performance aspects of athletic competition. While researchers acknowledge parents as having an important role in the socialization of motivation, research in this area has largely focused on sport-specific parenting practices, failing to account for the broader components of global parenting style that may influence parent-initiated motivational climates, and subsequently the motivational profiles exhibited by developing student athletes. The present study was designed to investigate the relationship among global parenting style, parent-created motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation within the context of intercollegiate athletics. A sample of 156 student athletes aged 18 to 25 (M = 20.45, SD = 1.60) from two different Division I universities in the Intermountain West region of the United States completed a 74-item questionnaire composed of items related to global parenting style (PSDQ), parent-initiated motivational climate (PIMCQ-2), and student-athlete motivation (TEOSQ). Due to relative homogeneity of parenting styles and practices among the study sample, mediation analyses were used to determine the relationship between authoritative parenting style and student-athlete task motivation as
mediated by parent-initiated mastery climate. Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for each of 5000 bootstrapped samples yielding an indirect effect of .76 (95% CI = .31, 1.46, \( p = .03 \)). Present findings highlight the importance of the parent-child relationship, specifically the role of parenting styles and practices in the enhancement of student athletes’ intrinsic motivation. Importantly, doing so would hold the potential to bolster student-athlete well-being and satisfaction with the college experience, two stated goals of the NCAA.
DEDICATION

To my parents, who taught me to never fear the mountains in the distance, and to believe in things all the way, implicitly and unquestionably. I would be nothing without your unconditional and unwavering support. Thank you.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge everyone who played a role in this tremendous academic journey.

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I would also like to collectively thank the Families in Sport Lab at Utah State University. The mission of the lab is to understand the impact families have within the athletic context, and my work within the lab has provided me with countless opportunities to engage in real-life research and program implementation. I have learned so much from the undergraduates and other colleagues who work tirelessly within the lab. I would like to personally thank Emily Cook, Justin Sheets, and Madeline Ricketts for their work on the qualitative portion of my dissertation work. I appreciate their efforts and insights throughout the qualitative process, and thoroughly enjoyed mentoring each of them throughout this process. I am also honored to be a part of the seminal students’ cohort that helped build the foundation of the FiS lab, I know that there will be great people and work to come from it for many years to come. Finally, I would like to especially thank my FiS brothers, Dr. Keith Osai, Ensign Marshall Grimm, and Michael King for being a fortress of support, for always having my back, and for truly being like brothers throughout this crazy journey.

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intercollegiate athletics for years to come.

Finally, I would like to thank my major professor and chair of my doctoral committee, Dr. Travis Dorsch. Travis always saw my potential and the mountains I could climb, especially when I could not. His unwavering support and guidance throughout this process has helped me to grow and flourish into an academic that I could have never even imagined. His passion for his craft provides a fast-paced environment filled with countless opportunities to learn and grow. He is always trying to find ways to help his students strive for greatness and provides the tools and support to make that greatness a reality. His compassion and kindness allowed me to tackle huge endeavors while feeling like I could not fail. He consistently makes his students feel cared for, motivated to succeed, and allows us each to dream big. To Travis, I am the success I am today because of the guidance and support you provided. I am so grateful to have had the opportunity to be your student. Thank you.

Logan K. Lyons
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CHAPTER 1
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Researchers and practitioners have long sought to maximize human athletic performance, and this desire has inspired a broad corpus of motivation research within the sport science literature (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985; Duda, 2001; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Harwood, Spray, & Keegan, 2008; Ntounmanis, 2001; Smith, Cumming, & Smoll, 2008). Much of this work is derived from seminal studies in educational psychology (see Ames, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dweck, 1986; Nicholls, 1984), and has been adapted to the context of sport. Most theories of motivation highlight aspects of the individual and environment as important to human experiences and outcomes, and one often-overlooked component of the athletic environment is the parent-child relationship. While motivation researchers have acknowledged parents as important socialization figures, empirical studies have largely failed to examine the specific ways parents may serve as important antecedents to athletes’ motivational profiles (c.f., Froiland, 2015; Simpkins, Price, & Garcia, 2015).

Although parents are thought to be most important in the early developmental years, contemporary research indicates that parents remain important support systems for children into and through the college years (see Lowe & Dotterer, 2018 for a review). Within the athletic context, emerging research also highlights the impact of parent involvement on the well-being of intercollegiate athletes (Dorsch et al., 2016a; Dorsch et al., 2016b). Despite this, there remains a dearth of understanding regarding the potential impact of parenting style on student-athlete motivation during college, which also
coincides with the developmental period of emerging adulthood (see Arnett, 2013).

In light of this gap, the present dissertation was designed to investigate the relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics.

**An Historical Understanding of Motivation**

Scholars from multiple disciplines have sought to better understand the psychosocial construct of motivation, particularly with regard to its impact on human behavior (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2000; Dweck, 2013; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Harlow, Harlow, & Meyer, 1950; Maslow, 1946; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Weiner, 1979). Interest in this construct remains relevant in contemporary literature because the human experience affords complex practical and theoretical inquiry related to why individuals think, feel, and behave the way they do. Unfortunately, studying and predicting behavioral outcomes, as well as the motivational factors that may drive them, also poses certain challenges.

Motivation is defined colloquially as “the reason or reasons one has for acting or behaving in a particular way” (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2015, p. 435). Despite the now-recognized shortcomings of Freud’s psychosexual theory (Peters, 2015) he and his contemporaries made vast and fundamental contributions to psychology’s understanding of human motivation. Specifically, Freud’s theorizing was the first to emphasize the importance of the unconscious mind. Indeed, an important aspect of his legacy is his description of motivation through aspects of fixated desires and obsessive incentives, and
his work therefore informs multiple facets of present understanding of the parent-child relationship (Freud, 1923).

The first explicit empirical definition of motivation was forwarded by Maslow, who operationalized the construct as “a man’s desire for self-fulfillment, namely the tendency for him to become actually what he is potentially” (1943, p. 119). Over the last half century, scholars have failed to agree on a singular operational definition of motivation, ranging in views of motivation as an internal mechanism (Broussard & Garrison, 2004) to a functional application of effort (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). With such a varied understanding of what motivation is, perhaps it is also important to understand what motivation is not. As a latent construct, motivation is not directly observable, is not the same as desire or its end-product satisfaction, is not always conscious, and is not always controllable (Denhardt, Denhardt, & Aristigueta, 2008). Despite ambiguity across (and within) disciplines, motivation continues to be something researchers seek to understand and practitioners seek to enhance.

Given the myriad ways scholars have operationalized motivation, it stands to reason that the theories developed to explain it have been complex. A foundational theory of human motivation is Maslow’s (1953) hierarchy of needs. Conceptually, Maslow posited that humans possess an inner drive to satisfy five needs, beginning with the fulfillment of basic physiological needs and ending with the fulfillment of more self-actualized psychological needs. Depending on how mollified an individual is at the more basic levels, that individual’s higher-order needs will serve as sources of continued motivation (Maslow, 1946). As depicted in Figure 1.1, physiological needs include air,
shelter, water, food, sleep, and sex. *Safety and security* needs include protection against danger, threat, and deprivation. *Social* needs include the ways friendship and family provide a context for intimacy, affection, belonging, association, and acceptance. *Esteem* needs include self-esteem, confidence, and achievement. Finally, *self-actualization* needs include creativity and authenticity (Maslow, 1954).

![Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs](image)

*Figure 1.1. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954).*

An important tenet of Maslow’s hierarchy is that an already satisfied need does not serve as a continued motivator of behavior. Instead, once a need is fulfilled, the next highest-order level becomes the most salient motivator of an individual’s future behavior (Hamner & Organ, 1978). Said differently, behavior is goal-oriented, and it is not past accomplishments that catalyze motivation, but rather the potential of achieving the next salient goal that motivates humans. One criticism of Maslow’s theory is that it was not
widely tested; however, findings from a recent study suggest that when homeless individuals attempt to focus on aspects of self-actualization before their basic physiological needs are met, they have a more difficult time planning small incremental steps toward positive lifestyle changes (Henwood, Derejko, Couture, & Padgett, 2015).

**Contemporary Advances in Motivation Research**

In building from Freud, Maslow, and others, contemporary motivation scholars have begun to craft specialized theories of motivation that are operationalized within specific domains of achievement (e.g., relationships, education, work, sport). This trend in the literature aligns with Ryan and Deci (1985, 2017), who suggest that individuals have unique motivations in different contexts, and vary in the underlying attitudes and goals that activate behavior across these settings. Their widely-utilized self-determination theory (SDT) operationalizes motivation based on the degree to which an individual’s behavior is intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation is defined as “the tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacity, to explore and to learn” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70). Intrinsically motivated behaviors are performed simply for the enjoyment of the activity, occur without peripheral incentives, and are thought to be most closely linked to an individual’s sense of self (Deci, 1975; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Studies suggest that intrinsic motivation is not an automatic expression (see Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2017); instead, intrinsic behaviors are thought to be dependent upon available supports for three basic psychological needs: *competence* (feeling effective), *relatedness* and *autonomy*
The opposite of intrinsic motivation is extrinsic motivation. Extrinsically motivated behaviors are often linked to incentives or rewards (e.g., a salary at work; praise from mom or dad in sport), and are easily extinguished when the reward is removed or decreased (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2017). The primary tenets of SDT suggest that optimally motivated individuals are intrinsically motivated in most aspects of their behavior, but are able to integrate aspects of extrinsic motivation into their behavioral schemas (Deci & Ryan, 2017). Decades of related work suggests that individuals experience less interest and spontaneous engagement in activities for which they were initially intrinsically motivated and then later receive tangible rewards, for example scholarships or professional contracts, (see Atkinson, 1964; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Ryan & Di Domenico, 2016). In other words, for tasks that are inherently rewarding, external rewards should not be used to motivate further engagement because it will likely lead to a decline in intrinsic motivation.

Alongside Deci and Ryan’s self-determination theory was other contemporary work related to motivation in the classroom. For example, expectancy-value theories were largely based on the work of Atkinson (1964), which sought to link achievement performance, persistence, and choice most directly to individual’s expectancy-related and task-value believes (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Eccles and colleagues used these assumptions to study the impact of attainment value, intrinsic value, utility value and cost when it comes to the motivation to complete a task. Finding that aspects of ability and performance expectation can predict performance in areas of mathematics and English,
whereas task values predict course plans and enrollment in various subjects (Eccles, 1987). This work echoes findings within the self-determination literature, suggesting that when individuals connect value to an activity they are more likely to be motivated to participate and work hard, whereas ability and performance can only predict performance and not the forethought of participating in the activity.

A second widely-recognized theory of motivation, achievement goal theory, posits that (a) people are motivated to demonstrate competence, and therefore engage in activities they feel they do well, and (b) motivation is influenced by the personal meaning one assigns to perceived success and failure (Ames, 1992). Comprised of a compellation of subtheories, achievement goal theory (AGT) explains how individuals’ approach, engage in, and respond to subjective successes and failures in different achievement activities (see Elliot, Dweck, & Yeager, 2017). Originally conceptualized in the field of educational psychology, AGT posits that human motivation should be defined in terms of personal thoughts and perceptions, rather than innate, biologically determined qualities (see Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). This operationalization of motivation positioned researchers to define “success” and “failure” as constructed psychological states that are subjectively rather than objectively experienced (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980).

Achievement goal research has traditionally focused on two types of goals: task (representing a concern for the demonstration of competence compared to one’s own past performances) and ego (representing a concern for the demonstration of competence relative to another; Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals high in task goal-orientation define achievement through competence in a skill or acquiring mastery of a
skill or task. Individuals high in ego goal-orientation define achievement through demonstrating competence and outperforming others, especially if they are able to use less effort to do so (Dweck, 1986; Nicholls, 1984). Important to consider in relation to AGT is that task and ego orientation are orthogonal (i.e., distinct and overlapping) constructs, that can (and often do) exist simultaneously (Sommet & Elliot, 2017).

**Motivation in the Athletic Context**

As scholars conducted studies using STD and AGT in educational settings, sport scientists became increasingly interested in applying these theoretical lenses in another achievement domain – athletics (e.g., Duda, 1995; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). In leading this movement, Duda and colleagues (Duda, 1995; Duda & Nicholls, 1992) modified the AGT framework to apply to athletes in competitive sport settings, a contribution that has shaped decades of work in sport (Duda, 2013; Reinboth & Duda, 2006). In line with the original conceptualization of AGT, task- and ego-orientation were posited to be orthogonal (i.e., uncorrelated) predictors of athletes’ motivational outcomes in sport (see Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Harwood, Keegan, Smith, & Raine, 2015).

*Task* orientation in sport was operationalized as the desire to produce an adequate performance based on personal standards rather than superior performance to a competitor (Duda, 1993; Reinboth & Duda, 2006). Maintaining high task orientation was hypothesized to allow an individual to focus on effort and personal improvement in the sport setting (see Lemyre, Roberts, & Ommundsen, 2002). Conversely, *ego* orientation was operationalized in sport as the desire to establish superiority over teammates and
competitors, without having to exert more effort than necessary (Duda, 1993; Reinboth &
Duda, 2006). Maintaining high ego orientation was hypothesized to lead athletes to focus
on demonstrating superior competence, and to feel successful when showing
preeminence over a teammate or competitor with similar or less effort (Harwood,
Cumming, & Fletcher, 2010). Another important distinction between task and ego
orientation lies in the individual’s reaction to performance mistakes. Contemporary
research related to achievement goal orientations suggests that task-oriented individuals
view mistakes as a chance to grow and improve whereas ego-oriented individuals view
mistakes as failure and thus may adopt avoidance behaviors in the future (Monteiro et al.,
2018). Due to the orthogonal nature of task and ego orientations (see Duda & Nicholls,
1992), there exist four possible goal “profiles” in athletes: (1) high task-high ego, (2) high
task-low ego, (3) low task-high ego, and (4) low task-low ego. Importantly, athletes’
position in these profiles has the potential to greatly impact performance-related
outcomes such as enjoyment and effort (White, 1996).

Research in sport science suggests that athletes in the high task-low ego and high
task-high ego profiles are motivationally similar (i.e., not statistically different; Fox,
Goudas, Biddle, Duda, & Armstrong, 1994). Indeed, it seems that any motivational
profile that includes high levels of task orientation affords more adaptive motivational
outcomes in sport settings, regardless of competitive level (Harwood & Biddle, 2009).
Moreover, previous research highlights the fact that individuals with higher task
orientation are able to participate in more challenging practices, work harder, and have a
decreased rate of dropout (Harwood et al., 2015). From a practical standpoint, high task
orientation is associated with higher levels of enjoyment and perceived effort, both of which are related to greater intrinsic motivation (Hom, Duda, & Miller, 1993). Additionally, coaches report preferring athletes who view effort as more salient than outcomes because these athletes are typically more motivated to regularly exert themselves in training and competition (Harwood et al., 2015; Pensgaard & Duda, 2002). In short, higher perceptions of task orientation have the potential to foster higher levels of enjoyment and perceived effort, both of which may enhance intrinsic motivation in a recursive fashion (Reinboth & Duda, 2006).

Building from seminal findings in the sport science literature (e.g., Duda, 2001; Fox et al., 1994; Keegan, Harwood, Spray, & Lavallee, 2009; Monteiro et al., 2018), a number of researchers have linked positive outcomes in sport with higher levels of task orientation. Specifically, Duda and colleagues (Pensgaard & Duda, 2002; Reinboth & Duda, 2006) noted that athletes with higher task orientation engage in more voluntary training, give their best effort in competitive and non-competitive settings, exhibit persistence in the face of challenging situations, select challenging sport activities and competitors, perform more consistently over time, and provide continual effort to improve performance. In comparison, athletes who do not have high levels of task orientation (and especially those who also have high perceptions of ego orientation) often hold back effort in training situations, experience performance flaws when comparing themselves to a successful competitor, choose challenges that are too difficult or too easy, and often drop out of sport due to burnout or lack of confidence. These findings are robust across a range of youth and adolescent sport contexts (e.g., Harwood et al., 2010;
Hom et al., 1993; Monterio et al., 2018; Ntoumanis, 2001; Reinboth & Duda, 2006) and have resulted in a persistent call for practitioners to enhance young athletes’ task orientation in sport.

Although motivation researchers now understand many of the outcomes associated with high task motivation, research has largely failed to examine the specific ways parents may serve as important antecedents to athletes’ motivational profiles (see Froiland, 2015; Simpkins et al., 2015). In relation to development of motivation, Veroff and Peele (1969) and Scanlan (1988) hypothesized that athletes’ motivation is developed via three distinct stages. Stage 1 is *autonomous competence*, and involves the athlete being able to master his or her environment. This stage typically occurs during early childhood and is focused on a child’s ability to master athletic skills through self-testing and practice (Fadlelmula, 2010). Developmentally, children become more purposeful in their movements during this stage, and ultimately more coordinated in their approach to sport-related tasks (see Ball, Bindler, & Cowan, 2014). Because young athletes are still attempting to achieve competence across a range of physical skills and sports (see Côté, 1999), they are often egocentric and fail to notice others who are participating as teammates or competitors. Therefore, their participation is considered largely autonomous.

The second stage of motivation development is *social comparison*, and is marked by children and adolescents who are beginning to directly compare themselves to teammates and competitors (Scanlan, 1988; Veroff & Peele, 1969). This stage occurs as young athletes learn to be competitive via the developmental processes of modeling, social comparison, and differential treatment (Veroff & Peele, 1969). During this stage,
athletes begin to develop theory of mind, and therefore gain a sharper understanding of
the multiple interpretations different individuals can have of the same event (Carpendale
& Chandler, 1996). As a result, children often move away from an egocentric perspective
of achievement (Piaget & Inhelder, 1972) toward a differentiated understanding of effort
and success (see Elliot & Dweck, 2005; Keegan et al., 2009; Nicholls, 1989).

The third stage of motivation development is the integrated stage. Within this
stage, adolescent athletes begin to prioritize self-improvement while also remaining
aware of social comparison – all in an effort to maximize motivation and performance.
Importantly, the rates at which athletes progress through these stages depends on
individual perceptions of competence, as well as the valence athletes ascribe to social
comparison. Both are thought to increase until an athlete is able to understand and
differentiate between task and ego orientation (Scanlan, 1988). This three-stage sequence
represents the normative trajectory for athletes across a developmental sequence;
therefore, it is important for developmental sport scientists to acknowledge that the
maturation of one’s motivational profile is an individual process that unfolds over time,
as influenced by a number of internal and external factors (Harwood et al., 2010).

Despite the utility of this three-stage conceptualization of motivation
development, there remains a gap in our understanding of the primary external influences
that may guide the development of athletes’ motivational profiles. This is surprising,
given our understanding of the role of coaches (see Duda, 1993; Harwood et al., 2015;
Pellestier, Frotier, Vallerand, & Briere, 2001; Pope & Wilson, 2012; Quested et al.,
2013), peers (DeFreese & Smith, 2013; Duda, 2001; Keegan et al., 2009; Monterio et al.,
2018; Ntoumanis & Vazou, 2005; Smith, Ullrich-French, Walker, & Hurley, 2006), and parents (Dorsch, Smith, & McDonough, 2009; Fredericks & Eccles, 2005; Woolger & Power, 1993) in sport. While the sport literature widely acknowledges parents’ sport involvement practices as an important influence on motivation during childhood and adolescence (Brustad, 1992; Dorsch, Smith, & Dotterer, 2016; Fredericks & Eccles, 2005; Stefansen, Smette, & Strandbu, 2018; Woolger & Power, 1993), less work has investigated motivational climate in sport.

Work that has been designed to examining motivational climates in sport has largely focused on the role that coaches play in creating mastery or performance environments for their children in sport (Granero-Gallegos et al., 2017; Reinboth & Duda, 2006). In a mastery climate, achievement is self-referenced, and effort is viewed as a marker of competence and success (Duda, 2001; Reinboth & Duda, 2006). Conversely, in a performance climate, achievement is other-referenced (i.e., by comparing oneself to others), and performance-related outcomes such as scoring and winning are viewed as signs of competence and success (Duda & Hall, 2001; Keegan et al., 2009). Research in this area has targeted the impact of coach-initiated motivational climates on outcomes such as athlete stress (Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986), well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and perceptions of support and pressure (Dorsch et al., 2016c).

Despite the focus on coaches as the primary creators of motivational climates in sport, scholars have also investigated the impact of parent-initiated climates on athlete motivation (e.g., Harwood & Knight, 2016; Neely, McHugh, Dunn, & Holt, 2017; White, 1998). Findings from this literature suggest that athletes who perceive their parents to
create a mastery climate subsequently rate themselves higher on scales of task orientation. In comparison, athletes who perceive their parents as creating a performance climate rate themselves higher on scales of ego orientation (Reinboth & Duda, 2006; White, 1998). Importantly, when parents create a performance-focused motivational climate, athletes are more prone to develop an ego orientation, and thus subsequent outcomes such as higher levels of stress and performance anxiety (Harwood & Knight, 2016; O’Rourke, Smith, Smoll, & Cumming, 2011). When parents create a mastery-focused motivational climate, athletes are more prone to develop a task orientation and experience subsequent outcomes such as perceived competence, enjoyment, and intrinsic motivation in sport (Babkes & Weiss, 1999; Keegan et al., 2009; Neely et al., 2017).

These findings, in conjunction with decades of research from the educational setting, suggest that there is a relationship between parental behaviors and young people’s motivation orientation. However, an important conceptual gap remains, namely an understanding of why parents create mastery or performance climates in sport. In short, research has thus far failed to examine potential antecedent characteristics of the parent (e.g., parenting style) that may actually drive parent-initiated motivational climates, and subsequently, athletes’ motivation orientation in sport. To address this present lack of understanding, the proposed research was shaped by the literature on parenting styles and practices.

**Parenting Style**

Theories of parenting and child guidance date back as far as the 17th and 18th
centuries (e.g., Locke, 1693; Rousseau, 1762). Two contemporary approaches to understanding parenting styles are the *dimensional* and *typological* approaches. The dimensional approach considers parenting characteristics, for example warmth, to lie on a continuum (e.g., Maggio & Zappulla, 2013). In contrast, the typological approach considers parenting characteristics to be categorical, resulting in prototypical parenting “styles” (e.g., Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Rather than targeting specific parent-child interactions, research framed by the typological approach has targeted general patterns and climates of parenting, allowing researchers to define parenting using more discrete definitions (see Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Perhaps the most well-known of the typological approaches is Baumrind’s (1971) conceptualization of parenting style. Parenting “styles” in this framework are posited to emerge based on an individual’s scores on two orthogonal variables: *demandingness* and *responsiveness* (see Figure 1.2). According to Maccoby and Martin (1983), demandingness is marked by a parent who compels mature, responsible behavior from a child; whereas, responsiveness is marked by a parent who responds to a child’s needs in a supportive and accepting manner. Combined, these two constructs predict four parenting styles (see Figure 1.2). *Authoritative* parents exhibit high demandingness and high responsiveness, and produce a mutually respectful, loving relationship with the child. This style of parenting is demonstrated by parents who maintain firm expectations for their children, but also engage in a very supportive and warm relationship (Larzelere, Morris, & Harrist, 2013).
Parenting in the Athletic Context

To date, the family and sport literatures have not explicitly examined parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate as sequential antecedents of athletes’ motivation orientation in the intercollegiate sport setting. Despite this, there are conceptual and theoretical reasons to believe that more global parenting characteristics may indirectly impact motivational outcomes among student athletes. For example, Woolger and Power (1993) found positive parent involvement (i.e., promoting enjoyment and learning of new skills) to be associated with positive athletic outcomes (i.e., enjoyment, enhanced performance). Baumrind (2013) suggested that authoritative parents are likely to be encouraging and supportive, fostering both autonomy and conformity in their children. In sport, parents who adopt authoritative patterns of interaction may be more likely to encourage their children to learn new skills, while also serving as an excellent support system if their children become frustrated or disinterested (Woolger &
Power, 1993). Over time, these patterns of interaction may lead a child to perceive the sport climate as mastery focused. Baumrind’s theory suggests that authoritarian parents will be more likely to be controlling and overcritical, potentially leading to children’s perceptions of a performance-focused climate. Indeed, the sport literature also indicates that perceived pressure to perform may cause undue stress in an athlete (VanYperen, 1995; O’Rourke, Smith, Smoll, & Cummings, 2014). Moreover, demandingness, in the absence of reciprocal communication and emotional support from a parent, may leave an athlete to feel helpless or even depressed (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2002; O’Rourke et al., 2014).

A breadth of literature suggests that parents are an integral part of the sport experience for youth and adolescents (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2009; Holt et al., 2008; Knight et al., 2016). Not surprisingly, much of this work has sought to highlight the role of and/or enhancement of parent involvement in organized youth sport contexts. As defined by Stein, Raedeke, and Glenn (1999), parent involvement is the time, energy, and financial resources parents invest in their children’s sport participation.

Emerging research in youth sport suggests that parent involvement can be associated with children’s perceptions of support or pressure (Harwood & Knight, 2016), or support and pressure simultaneously (Dorsch et al., 2016c). Aspects of the parent-child relationship such as support and pressure are important to consider because the perceived quality of parent involvement is more predictive than the quantity of parent involvement (Stein et al., 1999). Importantly, children’s schemas for defining parent-child interactions as either supportive or pressuring are largely reliant on the child’s (and family’s) values,
experiences, and expectations. Indeed, whereas one athlete may feel excessive pressure from a moderately involved father, another may feel support from a father involved in a similar way. And, in line with Bronfenbrenner’s (1979, 1999) ecological perspective, both of these parent-child relationships are shaped by the proximal and distal sport contexts in which the interactions occur. Specifically, Bronfenbrenner posited that the contexts in which an individual lives impact development, and are driven by complex and reciprocal processes that involve not only the actors within the immediate environment but also within the interaction of the various levels of context surrounding an individual (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Said differently, it is not only a parent’s attendance at a game that may impact the experience of a child, but also the quality of the relationship between the child and parent, the interaction between the parents and the coaches, the outcome of the game, or even the perceived parental beliefs that are being portrayed to the child through various parenting behaviors.

Although the vast majority of research investigating parents in sport has been conducted in youth settings, recent work suggests that parents continue to play a significant role in the athletic lives of their children into adolescence and beyond. In a systematic line of studies with over 1000 NCAA student athletes, Dorsch and colleagues, found that roughly 40% of the variance in student-athlete outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, athletic satisfaction, well-being, individuation) is predicted by parent involvement (2016a, 2016b). In light of this, the present dissertation rests on the thesis that parents continue to be important figures of influence for student athletes throughout the college years. This presumption aligns with conceptual and theoretical work in the
sport, family, and human development literatures (see Arnett, 2000, 2013, 2015; Côté, 1999; Dorsch, Smith, Wilson, & McDonough, 2015; Lowe & Dotterer, 2018; Schachter & Ventura, 2008).

The Present Dissertation

The present two-study dissertation was designed to investigate the relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics. In pursuing this aim, the two complementary studies were designed to not only establish a more comprehensive understanding of student-athlete motivation and two of its potential antecedents, but also to equip key stakeholders (e.g., administrators, coaches, sport performance consultants) with improved strategies to enhance and individualize targeted interventions. Ultimately, the present research will afford researchers and practitioners an opportunity to enhance student-athlete well-being and satisfaction throughout the intercollegiate athletic experience, two stated goals of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA, 2016).

Study 1 of this dissertation was designed to investigate the relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics. Specifically, seeking to address how parenting style may be related to student athletes’ motivation orientation, and how this relationship may be mediated by parent-initiated motivational climate. Previous literature highlights a link between parent-initiated motivational climate and intrinsic
motivation (e.g., Duda, 2001; Keegan et al., 2009; White, 1996). Moreover, it has been shown that individuals who perceive a mastery climate score higher on task orientation, whereas individuals who perceive a performance climate score higher on ego orientation (Reinboth & Duda, 2016; White, 1996). However, what remains unknown is the potential impact of parenting style on parents’ creation of the motivational climates in which their athletes participate. Study 1 will explicitly address this gap, and has the potential to highlight one avenue through which administrators, coaches, and practitioners may be able to bolster student-athlete well-being and satisfaction with the college experience.

Study 2 of this dissertation was designed to broaden understanding of motivation in intercollegiate athletics by investigating student-athlete and parent perceptions of the role parents play in the development of student athletes’ motivation orientation. Although empirical studies have illuminated the implications of motivation on athlete outcomes (e.g., Duda, 2001; Keegan et al., 2009; Reinboth & Duda, 2016), the contemporary literature has largely failed to examine the situated contexts in which motivation develops. One such context is the family, in which a potential socializing influence of athlete motivation is parents. As suggested by Keegan, Spray, Harwood, and Lavallee (2010), parents play a large role in the development of motivational climates. In building from Study 1, this study was designed to target specific participant experiences related to the socialization of motivation among NCAA student athletes. In doing so, this work answers calls for an intensified focus on the role of parents in intercollegiate sport (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b) and offers a springboard for theoretically and practically meaningful future research.
CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1: THE IMPACT OF PARENTING STYLE AND PARENT-INITIATED MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE ON INTERCOLLEGIATE STUDENT ATHLETES’ MOTIVATION ORIENTATION

Introduction

Motivation has become a widely studied construct in the context of sport, as researchers, practitioners, and coaches have sought to maximize the socioemotional and performance aspects of athletic competition (e.g., Duda, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Harwood, Spray, & Keegan, 2008; Ntounmanis, 2001; Smith, Cumming, & Smoll, 2008). The highest level of amateur athletic competition in the United States occurs among members of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), wherein key stakeholders are interested in achieving goals such as winning individual and team conference and national championships (Bongiglio, 2011). To this end, there exists tremendous interest in enhancing the athletic potential and output of intercollegiate student athletes. In light of this desire, psychological skills training, once viewed as taboo, has become commonplace in today’s intercollegiate athletic setting. Importantly, one of the most common reasons coaches request psychological skills training for their student athletes is to enhance motivation (NCAA, 2016).

When a student-athlete is motivated, a traditional first step for a practitioner or coach is to assess the *hows* and *whys* underlying the athlete’s lack of motivation. This is

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1 Co-author: Travis Dorsch.
often accomplished by examining how the athlete characteristically internalizes successes and failures in competitive and noncompetitive settings (Duda & Nicholls, 1992). Survey instruments can assist such a trait-based assessment, and are adept at grouping student athletes based on the theoretical dimensions of motivation orientation (Duda, 2001; Duda & Nicholls, 1992). However, one weakness of this approach lies in the assumption that athletes who share a certain motivational profile are motivated via the same underlying mechanisms (Ntoumanis, 2001). When practitioners make this assumption, they often fail to help individual athletes to overcome setbacks related to motivation because they are assuming practices that worked with other athletes will work with everyone. Therefore, there exists a practical and theoretical need to account not just for the motivational profiles manifest in student athletes, but for the potential antecedents that may drive student athletes’ motivation orientation in the athletic context. One potential antecedent of this orientation is the parent-child relationship.

While researchers have acknowledged parents as having an important role in the socialization of motivation (e.g., Côté, 1999; Dorsch et al., 2009; Harwood, Cumming, & Fletcher, 2010; Keegan et al., 2010), these studies have largely focused on sport-specific parenting practices, and therefore fail to account for the broader components of parenting style that may influence parent-initiated motivational climates, and subsequently the development of motivation orientation in their student athletes. Despite adolescence being a period in which youth begin to individuate and become more dependent on their peers as sources of competence information (Recchia, Wainryb, & Pasupathi, 2013), research highlights parents as a continued influence into and through the college years.
(Arnett, 2000, 2015; Schachter & Ventura, 2008). Indeed, recent literature suggests that parent support-giving, contact, and academic and athletic engagement are associated with student-athlete well-being and individuation in the college setting (Dorsch et al., 2016a). While Dorsch and colleagues’ research illuminates the potential impact of parenting practices on NCAA student athletes, it does not examine the potential role of broader parent socialization influences.

An appropriate theoretical framework to assess the impact of parents on student athletes’ motivation orientation is Bronfenbrenner’s bioecological model of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1999, 2005). In its early iterations, Bronfenbrenner’s (1979) theory highlighted the importance of context on an individual’s development. Specifically, Bronfenbrenner posited that one’s environment exists as a series of ‘nested systems,’ each of which has the potential to impact an individual’s development. Within this theory, the **microsystem** represents the immediate interactions experienced by an individual (e.g., the parent-child relationship). The **mesosystem** represents the links between two or more microsystems (e.g., the parent-athlete-coach relationship). The **exosystem** represents the influences that an individual never experiences but that impact her or his development (e.g., a parent’s relationship with a boss at work). The **macrosystem** is represented by overarching influences that impact the individual (e.g., cultural imperatives, laws, or social expectations). In a later addition to the theory, Bronfenbrenner also detailed the impact of the **chronosystem** (i.e., the impact time has on the development of an individual; Bronfenbrenner, 1999).

The most mature form of Bronfenbrenner’s theory acknowledges multiple
ascribed and achieved characteristics that influence one’s development, as well as the repeated interactions that take place between and among individuals (i.e., proximal processes) in varied developmental contexts over time. This perspective has come to be known as the *process-person-context-time* (or PPCT) model of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Within the PPCT model, *process* describes the proximal interactions that occur in the individual’s daily life that impact her or his development. *Person* represents the biological or genetic characteristics that impact an individual’s developmental trajectory (e.g., age, gender, intelligence, mental characteristics, temperament). *Context*, drawn from the original model, represents the four nested systems that impact the individual’s development. The final component of the PPCT model is *time*. In Bronfenbrenner’s conceptualization of time, the chronosystem was expanded to include both the timeframe during which something occurs in someone’s life (losing a parent at age 10 versus age 60) as well as the timeframe during which it occurs historically (growing up during the Great Depression versus the economic boom of the 1950s).

In practice, the PPCT model affords a unique lens through which to view the role parents play in the development of their children’s motivation orientation over time. Specifically, the framework allows for the consideration of multiple aspects of developmental influence, not only the individual experience. For example, in a study conducted by Holt and colleagues (2008), parents’ roles in youth sport were examined via observation and interviews. Specifically, their research examined children’s experiences at the microsystem level, related to the proximal processes that occurred within the
family unit. Additionally, the authors examined the broader influence of the exosystem by focusing on policies within the communities under investigation, noting that parents who were educated on these policies had children who experienced more positive developmental outcomes.

In attending to all four components of the PPCT model, the present study sought to explore the conceptual relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics (see Figure 2.1). Previous literature has established a link between parent-initiated motivational climate and athlete motivation (Duda, 2001; White, 1996). Moreover, it has been shown that athletes who perceive a parent-initiated mastery climate score higher on task orientation, whereas athletes who perceive a parent-initiated performance climate score higher on ego orientation (White, 1996). However, what is not yet known is the potential impact of parenting style on the formation of parent-initiated motivational climates. To address this gap, the present study was specifically designed to investigate the link among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics.

Figure 2.1. The conceptual relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics.
In assessing the impact of the perception of parents’ parenting style on student athletes’ motivation orientation, person characteristics will be addressed. In assessing the potential mediating influence of parent-initiated motivational climate on this association, the present study also addresses important proximal processes (e.g., communication) as well as the context (e.g., sport) in which the processes take and/or have taken place. Finally, the present study addresses time by acknowledging that children’s perceptions of parents’ parenting style and the parent-initiated motivational climate (having occurred over the course of the student-athlete’s development) may impact their present motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics.

Conceptually, the present work was informed by past research demonstrating a link between perceived motivational climate and athletes’ motivation orientation (e.g., White, 1996). Based on the knowledge that there is an established relationship between parent-initiated motivational climate and student athletes’ motivation orientation, this dissertation was designed to answer the following research question: What is the relationship among perceived parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation orientation? In quantitatively addressing these questions the aim of this study is to understand the aspects of parenting (e.g., perceived parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate) that are related to the outcome of student-athlete motivation orientation. The present study extends previous findings by hypothesizing a potential antecedent to parent-initiated motivational climate: perceived parenting style. In adopting a typological approach, I sought to understand the general patterns of parenting, while acknowledging the contributions of multiple facets related to the parent-child
relationship (see Maggio & Zappulla, 2014).

Method

Participants

One hundred fifty-six student athletes from two Division I NCAA institutions in the intermountain west region of the United States participated in the study. The sample represented student athletes from both institutions relatively evenly, with 84 student athletes (53.8%) participating from the first university and 72 student athletes (46.2%) participating from the second. Participants were recruited through gatekeepers (e.g., coaches and administrators) within both universities’ athletic departments. Past research on intercollegiate student athletes suggests working with gatekeepers is the most effective and efficient means to gain access to this time-protected population (see Dorsch et al., 2016a). The sample was self-selected student athletes with at least one parental figure (e.g., biological parent, legal guardian, identified caregiver) on whom they were able to report. Student athletes were asked to identify the parent or caregiver that was most involved in their athletic careers. Across the sample, 48.1% reported on their mothers and 51.9% reported on their fathers.

Student-athlete participants ranged in age from 18 to 25 years ($M = 20.45$, $SD = 1.60$). The sample was comprised of 67 males (42.9%) and 89 females (57.1%), with 81.4% of the sample identifying as White, 10% as Black, 2.1% as Asian, 4.1% as biracial, and 2.4% as other. These demographic markers roughly match the age, gender, and racial makeup of the student-athlete populations at both institutions. The student-
athlete sample, while representative of the athletic departments at both institutions, is not an accurate subsample of student athletes across the NCAA. The NCAA reports that 47% of all Division I student athletes are female, 53% male; 56% are White, 21% are Black, and 22% report Other (NCAA, 2018). The sample of student athletes participated in 10 different intercollegiate sports, including basketball, cross country, football, golf, gymnastics, soccer, softball, track and field, tennis, and volleyball. Student athlete respondents represented an academically successful cohort of student athletes, reporting an average cumulative GPA of 3.44, which is approximately one-fifth of one letter grade higher than the 3.25 average reported across all NCAA institutions (NCAA, 2016). Student athletes reported that 58.0% of their mothers and 62.8% of their fathers had completed a bachelor’s degree or higher. Seventy-six percent reported that their parents were married, 16.7% reported having divorce parents, and 7.3% identified their parents as cohabitating, being in an alternative relationship, or never marrying.

**Procedures**

Prior to data collection, the study protocol was reviewed and approved by an Institutional Review Board for the protection of human subjects. Subsequent to approval, an email was sent to key stakeholders (i.e., athletic administrators, coaches, athletic department liaisons) at the respective universities detailing the purpose of the research and what would be asked of student-athlete respondents.

At the first university, a trained undergraduate research assistant attended practices or team meetings to recruit student-athlete participants (the primary researcher serves as a sport performance consultant for her University’s athletic department and was
therefore not permitted to be present in this capacity). The universities were labeled first and second based on the order in which contact to the respective athletic departments was made. Written permission from administrators and coaches was obtained before these face-to-face meetings occurred. In addition to completing basic ethical training related to human participant research, the undergraduate research assistant was also competent in the overall purpose of the project, allowing them to be confident in their ability to appropriately answer any questions from potential participants.

Recruitment meetings lasted approximately 10 minutes, and included a brief explanation of the study purpose, as well as a step-by-step outline of what was be expected of each participant during data collection. Additionally, the research assistant shared the potential impact of student athletes’ participation on knowledge generation, highlighting the potential for positive outcomes among future generations of NCAA student athletes. The research assistant then explained the safeguards in place to maintain privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity among study participants. Student athletes were reminded that their participation was voluntary, and that at any point they would be able to terminate their participation without consequence. At the conclusion of each recruitment meeting, student athletes were encouraged to ask questions regarding the study purpose or protocol. Before leaving, the research assistant provided fliers to head and assistant coaches containing a brief set of instructions and a link to the online Qualtrics questionnaire. Within one hour of each recruitment meeting, the primary researcher sent emails to coaches and requested that they forward them to student athletes. Emails included a brief set of instructions and the same link to the online
Qualtrics questionnaire.

The geographical location of the second university necessitated an amended recruitment strategy. Specifically, student athletes were introduced to the study through personal emails that were sent through a third-party representative and member of the university’s athletic department. These emails included information that was identical to the face-to-face recruitment meetings held at the first university. This email also included a brief set of instructions and the same link to the online Qualtrics questionnaire.

Once a student-athlete at either university clicked on the survey link, he or she was asked to provide informed consent to participate via electronic signature, and was then directed to the 74-item online survey protocol. Survey completion took approximately 20 minutes for most student athletes. At both universities, the survey link remained active for six weeks to allow student athletes adequate time to participate. During this six-week period, reminder emails were sent to coaches, and subsequently forwarded to student athletes, at weeks two and four to maximize response rates. The 74-item study-designed instrument is included in Appendix A.

Measures

Demographics. Student-athlete and family demographics were collected, including the institution at which the student-athlete was enrolled at the time of survey completion, age, gender, biological sex, race, nationality, sport or sports in which the student-athlete was participating, parents’ attained level of education, parents’ marital status, and cumulative collegiate GPA.

Parenting style. Student athletes’ perceptions of parenting style were measured
using the 32-item version of the Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ), which assesses adolescent children’s perceptions of their parents’ parent style (Robinson et al., 2001). The extent literature using this measure has found high correlations between parent and child perceptions when using this measure. The instrument was shortened from the original 62-item version created by the same authors in 1995. Participant responses were scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Theoretically, the shortened PSDQ demonstrates convergent validity when comparing PSDQ scores to the parenting typologies originally set forth by Baumrind (1971). The measure uses seven dimensions to categorize parenting into Baumrind’s (1971) three typologies of parenting (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive). Authoritative parenting includes the dimensions of connection (warmth & support); regulation (reasoning/ induction); and autonomy granting (democratic participation), an example item “I feel that my parent gave my praise when I was good as a child.” With an internal consistency score of .86. Authoritarian parenting includes the dimensions of physical coercion, verbal hostility, and non-reasoning/punitive, with an internal consistency score of .82. An example item being, “I feel that my parent yelled or shouted at me when I misbehaved as a child.” Finally, permissive parenting includes one dimension of indulgent, with an internal consistency score of .64. An example item being “I feel that my parent found it difficult to discipline me as a child.” The authoritative and authoritarian subscales demonstrated satisfactory reliability, with internal consistency of scores ranging from .85 to .89 in the present study. The current study presents the typologies (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, permissive) which were informed by multiple
continuous variables (i.e., connection, regulation, autonomy granting, physical coercion, verbal hostility, nonreasoning/punitive, and indulgent) that have been shown in past literature to contribute to parents’ creation of motivational climates, and ultimately student athletes’ adoption of motivation orientation.

**Parent-initiated motivational climate.** Student athletes’ perceptions of parent-initiated motivational climate were assessed using the 18-item Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire-2 (PIMCQ-2; White et al., 1992). This instrument has most commonly been used to measure athletes’ perceptions during late childhood and early adolescence; however, its composition suggested it would also serve as a valid and reliable measure of student-athlete perceptions. The full instrument is comprised of three subscales: (1) *learning and enjoyment* (example item: “My parent is most satisfied when I learn something new.”), (2) *worry-conducive* (example item: “My parent makes me worried about failing.”), and (3) *success-without effort* (example item: “My parent thinks I should achieve a lot without much effort.”). The first subscale is associated with a mastery climate, and the second two are associated with a performance climate (White et al., 1998; White & Duda, 1993). Participant responses were scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The second and third subscales were summed and considered to represent performance climate, which has been used in related research (White et al., 1998). The three subscales demonstrated satisfactory reliability, with internal consistency scores of .70, .74, and .82 in the present study.

**Student athletes’ motivation orientation.** Student athletes’ perceptions of their
motivation orientation were assessed using the 13-item Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ; Duda & Nicholls, 1992). Although the scale was based on research conducted in the academic context (e.g., Nicholls, 1989), the TEOSQ was designed as a sport-specific inventory, and has demonstrated validity and reliability in a number of athletic domains. Respondents were initially asked to think of when they feel most successful in sport (i.e., “I feel most successful in sport when…”). The inventory consisted of seven items measuring ego orientation (example item: “…I can do better than my teammates.”) and six measuring task orientation (example item: “…I do my very best.”). Participant responses were scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). To determine the participant’s motivational profile, the six ego-related items were summed and divided by six, revealing a mean ego score. The seven task-related items were summed and divided by seven, revealing a mean task score. The TEOSQ has been established in numerous youth and adolescent sport settings, demonstrating high internal consistency of the task ($\alpha = .81$ to $.86$) and ego ($\alpha = .79$ to $.90$) orientation scales (Lochbaum & Roberts, 1993). The two subscales demonstrated satisfactory reliability in the present study, with internal consistency of scores of $.82$ for task orientation and $.79$ for ego orientation, respectively.

**Data Analysis**

Descriptive statistics were calculated based on the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) to assess the means, standard deviations, and distributions of all study variables. An observed variable mediated regression using Hayes’ PROCESS SPSS add-in (Hayes, 2013) was utilized to conduct the primary analyses. The PROCESS
SPSS add-in is a computational tool that statistically simplifies the implementation of mediation, moderation, and conditional process analyses with observed variables (Hayes, 2013). This approach is more appropriate than structural equation modeling, given the observed (i.e., not latent) nature of the variables in the present study (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017). As depicted in Figure 2.2, the parenting style typologies are created out of means derived from the respective dimensions (Robinson et al., 2001). The present analysis assessed both the direct and indirect impacts of perceived authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting, and permissive parenting on student athletes’ task and ego orientation via the hypothesized mediators of performance and mastery parent-initiated motivational climate. The direct and indirect impacts of neglectful parenting on student athletes’ task and ego orientation were not assessed in the present study because (a) Baumrind’s original parenting typologies did not include neglectful parenting, (b) Dimensions of neglectful parenting are not include in the PSDQ, and (c) no parents of

![Figure 2.2](Image)

*Figure 2.2. The observed variable mediated regression model to be tested using Hayes’ PROCESS SPSS add-in (Hayes, 2013).*
student athletes within the sample fit this profile.

**Mediation Analysis**

Mediation was tested by assessing the significance of the cross product of the coefficients for parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate (the $a$ path), and the parent-initiated motivational climate to student-athlete motivation path, controlling for parenting style (the $b$ path). An $ab$ cross product test was recognized as perhaps the best all-around available method to test mediation (Sheets, 2002) because it tests the statistical significance of the difference between the total effect, or $c$ path, and the direct effect, or $c'$ path, which would reveal the relationship between parenting style and student athletes’ motivation orientation after controlling for the effect of the hypothesized mediator (parent-initiated motivational climate). MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer (1995) showed that in normal least squares models, $ab$ is algebraically equivalent to $c-c'$. Therefore, the significance of the cross product of coefficients directly tests mediation in a more parsimonious way than the better-known casual steps approach proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986).

**Regression Analysis**

During the mediation analysis it became clear that the current sample didn’t have enough power to find a model with good fit. A multiple linear regression was conducted to determine the predictive contributions of parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate to student athletes’ motivation orientation. During this analysis, the
homogeneity of the sample was noted. Specifically, most of the sample reported perceived authoritative parenting, with higher item scores in the dimensions of connection, regulation, and autonomy granting. The sample was also skewed toward parent-initiated mastery-focused motivational climate and (unusually for an elite sport sample) higher scores in task rather than ego orientation. While these are orthogonal in nature (meaning student athletes can rate high on aspects of both), it was clear that the majority of the sample had more pronounced task than ego orientation. Based on the homogeneity of the sample, we narrowed the research question to specifically investigate the degree to which an authoritative parenting style and mastery-focused parent-initiated motivational climate predicted task orientation within the sample of student athletes. These regression pathways are detailed in Figure 2.3.

![Figure 2.3. Student athletes’ task orientation regressed onto authoritative parenting style and mastery-focused parent-initiated motivational climate.](image)

**Results**

**Descriptive Statistics**

Correlations between parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation were assessed, and are presented in Table 2.1. As
noted in the table, the correlations between authoritative parenting and parent-initiated
mastery climate ($r = .16$) and parent-initiated mastery climate and task orientation ($r$
$= .34$) were positive and statistically significant. Conversely, the correlation between
parent-initiated mastery climate and ego orientation ($r = -.07$) was negative and not
statistically significant. The direct pathway between authoritative parenting and task
orientation ($r = -.10$) was also negative and not statistically significant, whereas the direct
pathway between authoritative parenting and ego orientation ($r = .07$) failed to reach
statistical significance.

Table 2.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Authoritative</th>
<th>Authoritarian</th>
<th>Permissive</th>
<th>Mastery</th>
<th>Performance</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Ego</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>-.23**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>-.89**</td>
<td>-.18*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mastery climate</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance climate</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.88**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task orientation</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ego orientation</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$M$  

| $SD$     | 4.2          | 1.9          | 2.2        | 4.03     | 2.20        | 4.25 | 2.02 |
| Range    | .37          | 3.7          | .49        | .48      | .60         | .53  | .76  |

Range  

| 2.2-4.5 | 1.0-3.0 | 1.5-3.3 | 2.4-5.0 | 1.0-3.6 | 2.6-5.0 | 1.2-4.7 |

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Mediation Results

The mediation analysis showed that the primary process measure, parent-initiated
motivational climate, as measured by the PIMCQ-2, did not significantly mediate the
relationship between parenting style and student athletes’ motivation orientation. As seen
in Table 2.1, the mean score for authoritative parenting was highest, reflecting greater endorsement of this parenting style than either authoritarian or permissive parenting. In closely examining the model parameters, it became evident that the model’s assessment of 31 pathways (see Figure 2.2), when combined with relative homogeneity across parenting style endorsement, led to a lack of power to sufficiently detect a mediational effect of parent-initiated motivational climate on the relationship between parenting style and student athletes’ motivation orientation.

**Regression Results**

A multiple linear regression was subsequently calculated to predict task orientation from authoritative parenting style and a mastery-focused parent-initiated motivational climate. Results indicated that the predictors explained 14% of the variance, $R^2 = .14$, $F(2,153) = 12.66$, $p < .001$, finding that task orientation was significantly predicted by authoritative parenting ($\beta = -.31$, $p = .04$), and mastery-focused parent-initiated motivational climate ($\beta = 1.31$, $p = .00$).

Despite homogeneity across the study sample, three exploratory examinations were conducted to more fully understand the variables of interest. First, student athletes’ ego orientation was predicated based on authoritarian parenting style and performance-focused parent-initiated motivational climates. The results indicated that the predictors explained 2% of the variance, $R^2 = .02$, $F(2,152) = 1.27$, $p > .01$, and that neither authoritarian parenting style ($\beta = -.73$, $p = .12$), nor performance-focused parent-initiated motivational climate ($\beta = .20$, $p = .64$), were significant predictors of a student athletes ego orientation. Second, student athletes’ task orientation was predicted based on
authoritarian parenting style and performance-focused parent-initiated motivational climate. The results indicate that the two predictors explained 2% of the variance, $R^2 = .02$, $F(2,153) = 1.57, p > .01$. The analysis revealed that authoritarian parenting was not a significant predictor of task orientation ($\beta = -.621, p = .13$), and performance-focused parent-initiated motivational climate ($\beta = -2.70, p = .46$) was also not a significant predictor.

**Discussion**

Although researchers have examined motivation in the context of intercollegiate athletics (McAuley, Duncan, & Tammen, 1989; Miller & Kerr, 2002), few empirical efforts have been made to better understand the role parents play in student athletes’ development of motivation orientation. Recent literature suggests that aspects of parent involvement (e.g., support-giving, contact, academic and athletic engagement) are linked to student-athlete well-being and individuation in the college setting (Dorsch et al., 2016a); however, little is known about how these parent antecedents may impact student athletes’ sport-related motivation orientation. The present study was designed to fill this gap by investigating the link among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics.

While the results of the present study did not support mediation of the relationship between parenting style and student athletes’ motivation orientation, results do extend past research in this domain. Specifically, data from the present study highlight the significant link between parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate. To my
knowledge, this finding has yet to be documented in sport or parenting research. Importantly, in the present study, findings suggest that student athletes who perceived their parents to be mastery focused, also perceived their parenting style to be authoritative.

Data from the present study also highlight that as levels of parent-initiated mastery climate increased, so too did student athletes’ task orientation. In other words, athletes who perceived their parents to be focused on aspects of learning, and fun rather than performance, demonstrated higher levels of task orientation in the sport setting. These findings align with seminal work conducted by Duda (2001) that showed a significant relationship between parent-initiated motivational climates and athletes’ motivation orientations. Through an applied lens, it is important to consider that in settings where learning and improvement are emphasized, athletes are more likely to have a higher task orientation.

Findings from the present research also align with emerging parenting style literature. Specifically, Bandura (2010) has suggested that authoritative parenting styles are imbued by democratic communication, shared goals and expectations, and supportive learning environments. Indeed, these ideals are similar to the emphasized facets of mastery motivational climates (see White, 1996). Authoritative parents, as well as parents who initiate a mastery focused motivational climate, maintain goals and expectations that are child-focused, and reinforce learning and fun rather than winning and competition. Future interdisciplinary work examining these constructs should attempt to assess their convergence in the context of sport. This would shed further light on the link among
parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate, and potentially their separate or shared impact on student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics.

The contributions of the present study should be viewed in light of its limitations. A primary limitation of this research turned out to be the relative homogeneity of student athletes’ parents with respect to parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate. Although student athletes were diverse across age, gender, sport, and family structure, the majority of them viewed their parents as possessing an authoritative parenting style, and creating mastery focused motivational climates. Moreover, the vast majority of student athletes reported high task and low ego orientation. The present study is therefore limited in its ability to extend theoretical understanding of authoritarian and permissive parents in the context of intercollegiate athletics. While there is evidence to support the assertion that elite athletes are likely to rate themselves high in task and ego orientation (Duda, 2001), this was not seen in the present sample. Future researchers should seek more diversified samples in order to avoid having homogeneity across study variables. Specifically, a study could be designed to target parents who are authoritarian or permissive in their parenting styles. Investigating such a cohort would strengthen understanding of the relationship between parents’ demandingness and responsiveness and their student athletes’ perceptions of subsequent motivational climates.

A second limitation of this study is the measure used to determine parenting style. Although the PSDQ has been used to determine aspects of parent authoritativeness within the familial system (Robinson et al., 2001) it has limited ability offer a comprehensive
picture of the type of parenting practices (i.e., proximal processes; Bronfenbrenner, 2005) that are engaged in on a day-to-day basis. Future scholars should to use measures of parenting style that tap the actual interactions between parents and athletes. Researchers could also use qualitative or mixed methodologies to gain a more nuanced understanding of the important parenting constructs that may lie antecedent to parent-initiated motivational climates and/or student athletes’ motivation orientation in sport.

The present study was designed to investigate the link among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics. Results highlight a link between parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate. Specifically, findings suggest that authoritative parenting and mastery focused parent-initiated motivational climate are associated with student athletes’ task orientation in a simultaneous, rather than sequential, way. Future work in the areas of sport and family science should continue to investigate the role parents play in the development and adoption of athletes’ motivation orientation. Scholarly efforts in this vein could help key stakeholders create more inclusive and effective programming related to enhancing motivation among the athletes with whom they work. Such programming would emphasize the importance of the parent-child relationship, specifically the role of parenting styles and practices in the enhancement of student athletes’ task orientation. Importantly, doing so would enhance the potential to enhance student-athlete well-being and satisfaction with the college experience, two stated goals of the NCAA (2016).
CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2: PARENT AND STUDENT-ATHLETE PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTAL IMPACT ON THE DEVELOPMENT AND ADOPTION OF MOTIVATION ORIENTATION AMONG NCAA STUDENT ATHLETES

Introduction

Motivation in sport is essential for athletic effort and accomplishment, yet little research has been designed to understand the antecedents of motivation in an athletic setting (Keegan et al., 2010). While many theories of motivation highlight the internal determinants of motivation, such as individuals’ beliefs, cognitions, and values (Ames, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Weiner, 1986), a breadth of literature also considers external influences (e.g., coaches, peers, and parents) to be important in the development of motivation (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Keegan et al., 2010). Although there has been a deliberate empirical effort to conceptualize and measure these external influences (e.g., Keegan et al., 2010), the focus has remained largely on the role of coaching (see Harwood, Spray, & Keegan, 2008) and peers on an athletes’ motivational outcomes (see Smith et al., 2006).

There is an emerging corpus of literature acknowledging parents as important socializers within the athletic setting (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2009), and a broader corpus of literature highlights the developmental outcomes associated with parent involvement (e.g., Côté, 1999; Flouri & Buchanan, 2004; El Nokali, Bachman, & Votruba-Drzal,

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2 Co-Author: Travis Dorsch.
2010). Most recently, the positive youth development literature has highlighted the role parents play in fostering positive experiences and outcomes through sport (see Holt, 2016). Although this area of research sheds light on the potential role parents play in young athletes’ socioemotional and athletic development, less attention has been paid to the role of parents in the development of young athletes’ motivation orientation. The work that has been conducted in this area has largely been built from investigations of youth and adolescents participating at the local and regional levels (c.f., Keegan et al., 2010). As a result, there is limited knowledge of athletes at the highest end of the amateur sport spectrum, intercollegiate sport. To address this gap, research is needed to investigate the role of parenting factors in the development of student-athlete motivation orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics.

Parents are an important component of children’s social development, and they remain influential figures into early adulthood (Arnett, 2001; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Schachter & Ventura, 2008). The impact of parents on the development of children and adolescents is widely documented in the family, human development, and psychology literatures; however, scholars in the sport sciences have devoted less collective effort to examining this relationship. Within the parenting literature there are numerous constructs dedicated to understanding the parent-child relationship. Two that are relevant to the present study are parent involvement and parent expectations because they map onto the Baumrind’s (1971) fundamental constructs of responsiveness and demandingness.

Parent involvement is used to describe the interest family takes in a child’s life, whether through avenues of the child’s education, health, sport, and overall wellbeing.
Broadly, parent involvement is defined as the combination of commitment and active participation on the part of the parent to the child, and the child’s needs (LaBahn, 1995). Studies of parent involvement have used a variety of measures, and a variety of theories to better understand the impact parents have on their children’s outcomes. The general consensus within this literature is that parent involvement plays a significant role in children’s socioemotional, developmental, and academic functioning (Ferrar, 2009; Galindo & Sheldon, 2012). Over the past five decades, research on parent development in sport has also increased (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2016c; Gould, Feltz, Horn, & Weiss, 1982; Holt et al., 2008; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973; Stein et al., 1999). Collectively, this research highlights the importance of parents in the socialization of youth into and through sport, a process that is posited to contribute to children’s psychosocial development over time.

Parental expectations have been operationalized as the boundaries, rules, and roles children are expected to adopt and pursue (Baumrind, 2013). Expectations are the degree to which parents control or place demands on their children (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). In the parenting literature, expectations are seen as a tool to define the openness in a parent-child dyad. Of utmost concern is whether parents are democratic in the way they set boundaries and expectations for their children, with or without the input of the child (Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). If setting boundaries and expectations without their children’s input, parents are said to be demonstrating higher levels of behavioral control, monitoring, and authority (Barber, 1996). The existing literature suggests an association between parental expectations and children’s rebellious behavior and other externalizing behaviors such as substance abuse (Matejevic, Jovanovic, & Jovanovic, 2014).
In delineating a framework for understanding parenting style, Baumrind (2013) posited four parenting styles -- *authoritative, authoritarian, permissive,* and *neglectful* -- categorized by complementary levels of responsiveness and demandingness. The focus of Baumrind’s work was parents’ behavioral and psychological control as they relate to outcomes of parental warmth and support. Findings across Baumrind’s many studies, as well as those of her colleagues and contemporaries, suggest that parent expectations are created and maintained within the parent-child dyad. For example, *authoritative* parents, while generally responsive and warm, are also demanding, meaning these parents set high expectations for their children but also help them face adversity with warmth and support. On the contrary, *authoritarian* parents place high expectations on their children, but offer less (or no) warmth and support (Baumrind, 2013).

Importantly, children who are raised in authoritative homes have been shown to experience more positive outcomes, higher academic-performance, higher self-esteem, better social skills, and less delinquent behaviors (Hirata & Kamakura, 2018). Children who are raised in authoritarian homes are often just as successful academically, but have lower self-esteem, and have trouble facing challenges and adversity (Baumrind, 2001). In the context of the present study, understanding parent and child perceptions of how parental expectations are created and maintained over time may shed light on how motivation orientations are developed among NCAA student athletes.

At a more proximal level, the motivational climate literature offers valuable insight into parents as socializers in youth sport (see Harwood et al., 2015; O’Rourke et al., 2011). Motivational climate, a construct most identified with achievement goal theory
(AGT), is operationalized in the educational literature as the situational and environmental cues that create a psychological environment in which athletic performances take place (Ames, 1992). Motivational climates have been described as either mastery- or performance-focused, and are dictated by the interactions that take place within the social environment. A mastery climate includes collaborative tasks, democratic leadership, recognition for effort or improvement, private and individual evaluation, and sufficient time for everyone to learn, and is marked by little or no expectation for performance-related outcomes (Duda & Hall, 2001). Conversely, a performance climate includes competitive tasks, autocratic leadership, recognition of normative ability, segregation by ability, public evaluation, and time for only the advanced individuals to complete a task (Ames, 1992).

Research in sport has shown that athletes’ perception of a mastery climate is predictive of positive outcomes such as enjoyment and persistence during adversity, whereas perceptions of a performance climate are predictive of negative outcomes such as anxiety, reduced enjoyment, and burnout (Harwood et al., 2008; O’Rourke et al., 2012). Despite parents being acknowledged as an essential contributor to children’s experiences and outcomes in sport, little work has examined the link between parent-initiated motivational climate and NCAA student athletes’ motivation orientation.

Beyond the motivational climates created by significant others, an additional aspect of AGT is motivation orientation individuals demonstrate in achievement contexts (Ames, 1992). Specifically, AGT posits that goals are competence-based and therefore motivate individuals to succeed in evaluative settings. In the original form of the theory,
there were two distinct goal orientations, task and ego. An individual high in task orientation is thought to be primarily focused on learning, enjoyment, and mastery of skill. This type of goal orientation is associated with intrinsic interest, and self-referenced comparisons (Dweck, 1986). More explicitly, task-oriented individuals rely on internal comparisons with past achievement and/or one’s own maximum potential (Duda, 2001). Through an applied lens, individuals high in task orientation are regarded as being more adaptive, and more likely to give continuous effort in the face of adversity or unexpected circumstances (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

Individuals high in ego orientation are primarily focused on demonstrating competence, competition, and comparing well to others. This type of goal orientation is associated with extrinsic interest, and other-referenced comparison (Dweck, 1986). More explicitly, ego-oriented individuals compare themselves to others and evaluate competence in a particular domain based on these comparisons (Dweck, 1986). Individuals high in ego orientation are regarded as being more likely to select easier tasks, be preoccupied by social status, and to attempt to avoid difficult circumstances (Bortoli, Bertollo, Comani, & Robazza, 2011; Dweck & Legget, 1988). Importantly, unlike mastery and performance climates, task and ego orientations are thought to be orthogonal, meaning an individual can be high on both, low on both, or somewhere in between (Duda, 2001).

One theoretical framework that may offer a lens into the role of parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate on student-athlete motivation orientation during this life stage is family systems theory (FST). Specifically, FST offers a unique lens
through which to understand student athletes by highlighting families as dynamic systems of influence. The theory’s origin lies in the notion that the family is a “super personality,” rather than simply a legal and functional connection among individuals (Burges, 1926). The theory’s contemporary assumptions stem primarily from the field of biology, and assume that members of systems (in this case, a student-athlete’s family) act interdependently and not in isolation; see Smith & Hammon, 2012.

In the social sciences, the tenets of FST are derived primarily from the work of interventionists and therapists who are interested in dysfunction within the family unit. The first tenet is that the locus of pathology (i.e., the dysfunction of a family) lies not within a single individual, but represents dysfunction of the entire system (Batelson, Jackson, Haley, & Weakland, 1972). A second tenet is that the behavior of a family is the result of circular causality, meaning behavior is driven by multiple forces and is self-reinforcing in nature. A third tenet is that roles and rules within families are created to foster homeostasis (i.e., stability), and that the roles and rules help create boundaries that exist within the family. Importantly, the rules, roles, and boundaries that exist within a family are heuristic and its members can both implicitly and explicitly know them.

Researchers have classified the boundaries of a family from open (i.e., a system that provides democratic opportunities for individuals to seek interactions outside of the family) to closed (i.e., a system that fosters an enmeshment between members and creates restrictions related to interactions outside of the family) (see Smith & Hammon, 2012).

Because of its broad scope, FST was employed as a heuristic framework for the design and execution of the present study rather than as an explicitly tested theory. One
benefit of employing FST in this way is that it has not yet been used to explore the socioemotional aspects of elite athleticism (e.g., motivation) developmentally in an intercollegiate setting. Therefore, its use provides a potentially fruitful path forward as we aim to understand the impact of parenting styles and parent-initiated motivational climates on student athletes’ motivation orientation in NCAA athletics.

In building from Study 1 of this dissertation, as well as past literature examining parent involvement in organized youth and intercollegiate sport (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2009, 2015, 2016a, 2016b), the present study was designed to investigate student-athlete and parent perceptions of the role parents play in the development of student athletes’ motivation orientation. We employed a qualitative approach in an effort to explore participants’ subjective interpretations of how parents shape student athletes’ motivation orientation in intercollegiate sport. In line with FST, the present study addressed student-athlete and parent perceptions of the parent-child relationship, and therefore extends past research examining only the experiences of student athletes. In extending past literature in this way, the present study complements Study 1, affording a deeper understanding of the way parents may impact student athletes’ motivation orientation in the intercollegiate athletic setting.

The quantitative results of Study 1 allow for an understanding of the statistical relationships that exist among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation orientation. However, the quantitative results fail to explain the potential mechanisms that may drive those relationships. In order to better understand these potential mechanisms, as well as the processes that shape student athletes’
motivation orientation, a qualitative approach was employed in the present study. The current study was consequently designed to expand on what was learned in Study 1, and to extend the current knowledge related to the impact that parenting style has on parent-initiated motivational climate and the outcome of motivation orientation.

Method

Methodology

The present study used social constructivist interpretive framework (Charmaz, 2003) for design and analysis. As such, the ontological compass guiding this work was a belief that realities are constructed through lived experiences and interactions with significant others (in the case of this study, family members). In line with the study purpose, a qualitative approach utilizing narrative methodology was employed. Adopting this approach allowed for depth in understanding, specifically with regard to how this set of parents helped shape their student athletes’ motivation in the context of intercollegiate athletics.

The narrative approach to qualitative research is rooted in the humanities, history, and anthropology, but has emerged more recently to be relevant in areas of education and human development (Clandinin & Huber, in press). Narrative inquiry is typically used to compare and contrast individuals’ lived experiences and/or to form a biographical record of individuals’ lives (Clandinin & Huber, in press; Creswell, 2003). As such, employing this design allowed an uncovering the similarities and differences in relational processes among athlete-parent systems while enhancing understanding of how parenting style and
parent-initiated motivational climate may influence student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of NCAA athletics.

Utilizing a narrative approach also allowed for a way to assess the chronological nature of parent-child interactions over the course of development, something not possible with the data collection strategies employed in Study 1. Specifically, the present methodology allowed for the critical analysis of families’ experiences and understandings, while ultimately yielding a collective description (i.e., narrative) of events that happened within the context of the parent-child sport relationship over time (Clandinin & Huber, in press).

Throughout the process of creating the familial narratives, inductive and deductive interpretation were used in a complementary fashion. The theoretical foundations that informed the hypotheses examined in Study 1 were used as a guide for an initial round of deductive coding. Specifically, the researchers used the model depicted in the previous study to help direct the narrations and create a comprehensive mapping among study variables. Inductive methods were also used in the present study to allow space for unique participant experiences to add flesh to the quantitative results. Therefore, the methodology employed in the present study afforded a more generalizable understanding than that gained from Study 1, providing a more nuanced appreciation of the potential role parents play in the development of motivation orientation among NCAA student athletes.

**Participants**

The sample of parents and student athletes was recruited from the student-athlete
population base at the first university that participated in Study 1. Researchers decided to use only one university due to its geographical location and feasibility of conducting parental interviews in a timely manner. The final question of the Study 1 questionnaire allowed student athletes to self-select themselves for recruitment into Study 2. The question outlined the recruitment criteria a student-athlete who indicates a willingness to discuss their relationship with at least one parental figure (e.g., biological parent, legal guardian, identified caregiver) within the context of an interview, and have at least one parental figure that was willing to participate in a separate, complementary parent-aimed interview. The question also outlined what would be asked of the student-athlete as an interview participant, “Interviews will be conducted in person or over the phone, will take about 30-minutes, and will be held confidentially.” To avoid issues related to the consent of minor participants, student athletes who were 17 years or younger were not recruited to participate. Previous research using qualitative methodology suggests that saturation can be achieved by way of in-depth interviews with approximately 10 participants (e.g., Bowen, 2008). Therefore, the goal was to recruit five student athletes, so there would be a total of 10 participants when counting the parent participants.

At the conclusion of Study 1, 45 student athletes indicated an interest in participating in Study 2. In order to select the final five families, researchers enlisted the help of a key stakeholder within the athletic department. Previous research involving intercollegiate student-athlete populations (Drosch et al., 2016a, 2016b) found that using key stakeholders can expedite the process of finding a desired sample of student athletes. In the present study, an academic advisor was used to act as the liaison within the athletic
department. The research team decided that such an individual would be uniquely positioned to assess the familial dynamics that may exist between the student athletes and their parents, and that the advisor would not present the unethical pressure to participate the way a coach or administrator might.

To ensure that a diversified sample was recruited, the advisor was instructed to use a purposeful sampling strategy to help narrow the list of 45 down to 5. Specifically, we aimed to recruit student athletes from a range of sports, representing a variety of geographic regions, races/ethnicities, and socioeconomic backgrounds. An effort was made to recruit male and female student athletes, and the descriptive results from Study 1 were used to ensure we recruited parents who represented a range of parenting styles.

Upon analyzing the data from these five parent-athlete dyads, it was determined that thematic saturation – the point at which “new” data were no longer being uncovered – was reached (Charmaz, 2003). Five student athletes who took part in Study 1 were recruited to participate in the present study. These five student athletes, plus seven of their family members (n = 12) eventually participated, resulting in a total of 10 interviews (two pairs of parents were interviewed simultaneously). Student athletes were all intercollegiate athletes at a Division I university in the Rocky Mountain region of the United States. They represented five different sports (soccer, basketball, volleyball, track and field, and cross country) and ranged in age from 18 to 21 years (M = 19.6, SD = 2.8). The student-athlete sample represented the sociodemographic makeup of the athletic program at the university with two being from middle-class families, two being from upper middle-class and one being lower middle-class. Two are funded through full
athletic scholarships, two are funded through partial athletic scholarships, and one is funded fully with an academic scholarship. Four of the student athletes identified as White and one reporting being African-American. There were four United States citizens and one international student in the sample. Parent participants were married \((n = 4)\), divorced \((n = 2)\), single \((n = 1)\), and ranged in age from 50 to 58 years \((M = 43.4, SD = 2.7)\). All seven parents reported having completed at least some college, with three reporting achieving a Bachelor’s degree and one gaining a professional degree. Three of the seven had participated in intercollegiate sport during college. All participants have been assigned pseudonyms to protect the identities of individual participants.

**Family 01.** The participants from Family 01 \((n = 2)\) were Jenna and her mother Julie. Jenna was 18 years old at the time of data collection, and reported being the youngest of four children. She was a freshman on the varsity soccer team at the time of the interview. Julie and her husband were separated and lived in separate residences, but lived close to their children and continued to amicably co-parent. Julie was an intercollegiate volleyball player, who earned a master’s degree after exhausting her own eligibility. Julie reported being currently employed and living in the same city where Jenna was attending college.

**Family 02.** The participants from Family 02 \((n = 3)\) were Drew and his parents Sue and Bruce. Drew served a religious mission after graduation from high school, was 21 years old and married, and a freshman participating on the varsity track and field team at the time of data collection. Sue and Bruce were married and the parents of five boys and two girls. They reported residing together in Idaho, approximately a three-hour drive
from Drew’s university. Bruce earned a bachelor’s degree and was employed full-time, whereas Sue was employed part time, and had not attended college. Neither parent participated in intercollegiate athletics, but most of Drew’s six older siblings were successful high school athletes.

**Family 03.** The participants from Family 03 \((n = 3)\) were Erin and her parents Suzy and Jack. Erin was a 20-year-old junior transfer on the varsity cross country team. Suzy and Jack reported being married and had eight children, of which Erin was the second youngest. Suzy was employed full-time and Jack was employed part-time at the time of the interviews. Neither Suzy or Jack participated in intercollegiate athletics.

**Family 04.** The participants from Family 04 \((n = 2)\) were Karissa and her mother Kathy. At the time of data collection, Karissa was a nineteen-year-old sophomore on the varsity volleyball team. Kathy and Karissa’s father were divorced, and he had been uninvolved in Karissa’s life since her birth. As a single mom, Kathy earned a college degree and reported working full-time to support her five children. Karissa identified two older siblings who were also intercollegiate student athletes at the Division I level.

**Family 05.** The participants from Family 05 \((n = 2)\) were Drake and his father Wade. Drake was a 20-year-old junior on the basketball team. Wade had never married Drake’s mother, and they shared only Drake as a child. Although they were not married, Drake’s parents raised him together and maintained an amicable relationship even though they reported living in different cities. Wade played intercollegiate soccer, earned a bachelor’s degree, and worked full-time at the time of the interview.
Procedures

Prior to data collection, the study protocol was reviewed and approved by an Institutional Review Board for the protection of human participants. Subsequent to approval, recruitment emails were sent to a purposefully selected sample of student athletes who participated in Study 1 (see Coyne, 1997). Recruitment emails outlined the study protocol and offered potential participants insight into the study purpose. Student athletes were asked to discuss the study with their parents before agreeing to participate. Consenting student athletes then took part in an in-person, semistructured interview designed to gain insight into how their parents impacted their motivation as an intercollegiate student-athlete. Subsequently, parent participants took part in separate, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews. The goal of parent interviews was to gain insights into how they perceived their influence on the development of their children’s motivation in sport. Parent interviews were conducted over the phone to limit time and distance constraints. Interviews ranged from 20 to 45 minutes with an average of approximately 35 minutes.

Semi-structured interview guides were developed and used throughout each interview. Guides included three broad, open-ended questions, which were the same for student athletes and parents (with the necessary perspective change used to reframe each question). These broader questions were derived from past theoretical work in this domain and from the surveys used in Study 1. Specifically, questions were aimed at helping researchers to add context to the quantitative results from Study 1. Student-athlete interviews began with the open-ended question: “How would you describe your
relationship with your parents?” Follow-up probes (e.g., “What is the quality of your relationship?” “What type of expectations did they have for you as a child?”) were then utilized to facilitate discussion of student athletes’ past experiences. The follow-up probes allowed for the unique aspects of the parent/child relationship to be shared that may exist outside of what was expected based on the results of Study 1. A second question was then asked to account for parents’ engagement styles: “What type of support did your parent provide for you throughout your athletic career?” A final question was asked to facilitate understanding of how the parent-child relationship shaped student athletes’ motivation orientation across the developmental years: “What motivates you as an athlete?” These questions and probes were used to better understand student athletes’ perceptions of parenting styles, the parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation.

Parent interviews began with the open-ended question: “How would you describe your relationship with your child?” As a follow-up, parents were asked “What type of support did you provide for your child throughout their athletic career?” A final open-ended question was asked to glean parents’ understanding of their children’s motivation in sport: “How would you describe your child’s motivation as an athlete?” These questions, and probes were used to better understand parents’ perceptions of parenting styles, the parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation. Both semi-structured interview guides can be found in Appendix B.

Data Analysis

Analytic procedures were completed by the primary researcher (Ms. Lyons), three
undergraduate research assistants, and a professor with expertise in qualitative methodologies (Dr. Travis Dorsch). This process is referred to as researcher triangulation and helps to mitigate researcher bias throughout the interpretation process (Smith & McGannon, 2017).

All 12 of the interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim by one of the undergraduate research assistants. Transcripts were then cross-checked against the original recordings for accuracy prior to analysis. Prior to analysis, the student researchers participated in an hour-long training with Ms. Lyons related to the purposes and procedures involved in qualitative research. This included a brief history of narrative inquiry (Clandinin & Huber, in press), hands on experience engaging in open, axial, and selective coding procedures, as well as a procedural discussion on the best practices of coding. During this hands-on implantation, the research assistants were each given passages from previous research and were guided through the procedures involved in open, axial, and selective coding. After a brief introduction they were asked to practice the coding procedures individually, and then Ms. Lyons facilitated a discussion related to their findings and helped to guide a formulation of a general qualitative understanding of the past research passages. During this time the three research assistants were also introduced to the purpose of the current study, and were encouraged to ask questions related to what was going to be “important” within each family narrative.

As a first step in the analytic process, the primary researcher and the student researchers independently read all 12 interviews, to (re)familiarize themselves with the interview data. A second read was then conducted whereby each member of the research
team used an inductive-deductive approach to create a comprehensive model of how parents impacted student athletes’ motivation orientation within and across each of the five families. Open coding strategies were used to inductively generate an initial set of themes from the raw interview data. Axial coding was then used to organize and refine the themes inductively, and ultimately to categorize them into a coherent hierarchical structure. Finally, selective coding was used to interpret and draw deductive conclusions related to three primary constructs: parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and motivation orientation among intercollegiate student athletes. The primary researcher and student researchers engaged in these coding steps separately, without interaction or negotiation, and came together at the conclusion of these steps for a consensus meeting. The goal of conducting this initial read and coding of the interviews individually was to develop individual case narratives for each of the five families (Clandinin & Huber, in press).

Once the open, axial, and selective coding was complete, the primary researcher and the three student researchers came together to discuss the narratives for each family. As a first step, the research team synthesized their open coding into a single coding framework (see Table 2.1). The remainder of the meeting was focused on synthesizing the research team’s axial codes, or the slightly refined themes that were derived from collapsing the initial themes of open coding. The primary researcher facilitated a discussion whereby each axial code was discussed line by line. This process continued until each familial perspective was coded and discussed. In some instances, there was agreement regarding the researchers’ interpretation of the family narrative, and at other
times there was divergence across the group. In cases of disagreement, surrounding contextual cues were discussed to develop consensus among the researchers.

As a final step, axial codes were synthesized into broader themes using the selective coding processes that had been done individually. The primary researcher created a list of the constructs of interest: parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation, and the research team collapsed the axial codes into these broader themes in order to create a model of the narrative themes (see Table 3.1). At this final step, Dr. Dorsch served as a critical friend (Hill, 2002; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2000) in order to enhance the trustworthiness and defensibility of our analytic conclusions. During this process, coding discrepancies were discussed and settled by revisiting extant theory as well as, in some cases, the original transcripts.

After the codes were finalized and a model was created, the codes, model, and initial interpretations were sent to the participants for cross-checking of the family narratives. Minor feedback was offered by participants, and these comments were used to reconcile the initial interpretations of study data. Once the manuscripts had been drafted and the description of participants and interpretations were written up, they were again sent to the participants for cross checking of the narrative’s accuracy. A final deidentification process was conducted in which student athletes and parents were afforded an opportunity to “edit out” any information that they felt was too identifying.

Results

Table 3.1 consists of the open codes that were derived from each of the interview.
Table 3.1

*Themes, Categories, Subcategories, and Second-Order Subcategories of Parental Impact on Student-Athletes’ Motivation Orientation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
<th>Second-order subcategories</th>
<th>Family dyads</th>
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<td>01 02 03 04 05</td>
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<td>Type of relationship</td>
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<td>Parental responsiveness</td>
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<td>Monthly</td>
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<td>Types of support</td>
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<td>Ego orientation</td>
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*(table continues)*
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<th>Family dyads</th>
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<td>Married</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Out-of-state</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental attendance</td>
<td>Parent played intercollegiate sports</td>
<td>SP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

S = Student athlete response.
P = Parent response.

Reoccurring and relevant aspects were used to establish axial codes, and were ultimately used to establish the model seen in Figure 3.1. The goal of this figure is to provide the reader a roadmap of the general findings found within the family narratives. Although the theme of family factors is included (e.g., family structure, parental geographical location, parental attendance, parent played intercollegiate sport) within the table, these were ultimately viewed as irrelevant to our overarching research question, they are included here to provide a comprehensive accounting of our analytic interpretation. Table 3.1 includes responses from parents and student athletes from each family (“S” represents a student-athlete’s response, and “P” represents parents’ responses). Note that in the cases where two parents were interviewed (Families 02 and 03), the “2” represents at least one parent’s acknowledgment of the theme in question.
Using the model depicted in Figure 3.1, the qualitative themes were organized to represent the conceptual/theoretical progression from parenting style to parent-initiated motivational climate, to student athletes’ motivation orientation. In drawing from Study 1 of this dissertation, interviews were designed to address these concepts sequentially, and therefore coded data follow a progression from parenting style to student athletes’ motivation orientation, via parent-initiated motivational climate.

Importantly, the following narratives depict each family’s perception of how parents play(ed) a role in the development of student athletes’ motivation orientation at the intercollegiate level. Each section outlines our general findings related to parenting style (aspects of the parent-child relationship, responsiveness, warmth, and expectations),
the perceived parent-initiated motivational climate (either *mastery* or *performance* focused), as well as student athletes’ motivation orientation (aspects of *task* and *ego* orientation).

**Family 01**

**Parenting style.** Jenna and Julie both describe the perception of an authoritative parenting style, with high levels of warmth and responsiveness, high standards of success, and a democratic style of creating expectations. Jenna describes her relationship with both of her parents as being “close.” Because Julie lives in town, Jenna sees her weekly and described talking to both of her parents on the phone weekly. When Julie was asked to describe her relationship with Jenna, she responded “pretty healthy…. I think we have a really great relationship and I love spending time with her.” It was clear that Julie and Jenna maintain a mutual admiration for the other. Julie specifically stated, “she is pure joy in my life.” There was also evidence of unconditional support in her parenting style, as much of the interview data related to how Jenna felt supported by her parents no matter what her ambitions were, “they were always there for me…they really cared about what I cared about.” On a lighter note, Julie described a time where Jenna was upset she didn’t stay for post-game communication: “she still wants me at every game and if I don’t stay and talk to her after the game…even though I will see her in an hour, she gets upset.” This highlights the important role that Julie plays as a support figure for Jenna, and the humor with which this story was shared speaks to the unconditional support embed within their relationship. The consistent positive and supportive comments in relation to the mother/daughter relationship illuminates the warmth that exists between
Julie and Jenna.

Julie corroborated that she and Jenna talk on the phone weekly, speaking to her more during the season than in the offseason. This weekly communication and the way Jenna and Julie portray their relationship highlights the continued responsiveness that continues to exist between mother and daughter, a relationship that has clearly impacted Jenna’s brining. Similar to most college freshman and their parents, both participants alluded to a change in the topic of conversation during the college transition. Specifically, topics related to college issues (e.g., what classes to take) and were more future-oriented than focused on any current drama. However, Julie shared that Jenna still seeks advice and is open to her opinions: “I raised all of my kids to be independent and constantly encourage them to stay true to themselves.” Julie described herself as a sounding board for Jenna, always allowing for her to seek advice and guidance, but she ultimately expects Jenna to make her own decisions. Jenna agreed: “I haven’t really involved (my parents) as much as I did in high school because I have been trying to be more independent in college. I don’t get them involved with like playing time issues or teammate issues.” This supports the assertion that Julie has always pushed her children to become more independent throughout the collegiate process, but remains happy to provide a listening ear when warranted, which mirrors aspects of responsiveness that was evident within their relationship.

When discussing aspects of parental expectations, Julie admitted to having high expectations for all of her children. Though high, Julie shared that Jenna helped to create her own goals and that “the goal was never perfection, because that’s unrealistic.” When
asked how she would help Jenna deal with failure Julie’s response was, “she might bomb a test and then we talk about it, I help her walk through it…reassuring her that we (as parents) are not going to think any less of her.” Jenna corroborated that her parents had high expectations for her, and supports their democratic parenting style by alluding to Jenna’s involvement in the co-creation of goals and expectations.

Jenna consistently described that her parents value effort over performance. In one instance, she noted, “they expect me to just do my best in everything and they don’t want me to lose out on opportunity because I was slacking.” She also stated, “I made goals for myself and then they instilled them in me.” This bolsters the premise that the Jenna’s parents have an authoritative parenting style. While Jenna’s parents set high expectations for her and her siblings, each expectation was discussed, and was realistic in nature. Most importantly, in the face of adversity Jenna’s parents helped to support her by providing guidance and advice to help her face and overcome challenges.

In some cases, Jenna reported feeling “pressure” from her parents. This pressure was not to perform or succeed, but to be the best she could be. Jenna shared that “sometimes there was a lot of pressure…like ‘I want to please my mom.’” This pressure, however, came from a place of reciprocity, as Jenna described also feeling pressure to do her best so that her parents would feel pride in her effort. This was an interesting aspect of the mother/daughter relationship that likely impacts Jenna’s motivation orientation as a student-athlete.

**Parent-initiated motivational climate.** Jenna shared that her mom had more involvement in her athletic experience than her father. She also voiced that her parents
were always willing to invest in her athletic experiences (e.g., paying for fees and equipment), but that her mom was the one who always attended practices and games. Specifically, Jenna describes Julie as a “team mom,” who would bring oranges, help organize tournaments, ensure teammates got to games and practices, and get to know her teammates at all levels. This was in contrast to her dad, who was like, “just do your best and that is good enough for me.” Jenna also shared that her parents’ involvement was mastery focused: “they always encouraged me to have fun and do my best.”

An interesting aspect of Jenna and Julie’s interviews was an anecdote both shared related to when Jenna was specializing in youth soccer. Jenna showed potential at a young age to be a competitive elite soccer player. Julie was approached at a game and asked if Jenna would be interested in playing in a more competitive league. To Julie’s surprise, Jenna wanted to stay in the recreational league because she wanted to play with her friends. Without question, Julie respected Jenna’s choice. This provides evidence of a mastery climate, as Julie was allowing Jenna to sacrifice a performance opportunity to stay with her friends and have fun. It was clear that Julie’s intention was to help Jenna decide what her athletic career would look like, and she was happy to support her in the decision to focus on fun rather than competition.

This same child-centered goal was noticeable during Jenna’s college recruitment process. Julie shared that Jenna was originally unsure about wanting to participate in Division I soccer at the intercollegiate level. Given Julie’s own athletic background, she continued to provide advice, describing what the experience might be like and what it may take: “I was really honest with her. ‘This is what it is like. This is what it takes to get
recruited.” Julie also shared that she made academics just as important in the decision, stating, “I asked her, ‘do you want to go to this kind of school for academics? If you’re looking at this kind of school, then this is what you are looking at and the life of a student-athlete is very hard.’” This supportive communication speaks to the democratic goals that imbued Jenna and Julie’s relationship. It was clear that Jenna felt unconditional support from both of her parents, that she was continually encouraged to do her best, and that even though Julie remained involved she wasn’t involved in a negative capacity.

When asked if Jenna’s experience would have been different without the influence of her parents, she responded, “there were some moments in my soccer career where I wasn’t very motivated…but my mom really pushed me to keep going and helped me to have a better experience. Without her I probably wouldn’t have been as competitive and still playing.” When asked what aspects of Julie’s involvement may have hindered her motivation, Jenna responded, “I feel more extrinsically motivated in intercollegiate athletics, because I want to please my mom and my coaches. I want my mom to see that all the money that she has put into me is worthwhile.” This was an interesting comment because it seemed to contradict much of what had come before in the interviews. Upon further probing, Jenna explained that the pressure to please her mom didn’t negate the positive impact her mom had on her athletic experience, only that now she wants to make her proud. This reflects a mastery climate, as Jenna still saw Julie as unconditionally supportive in the realm of athletics, pushing her to do the things she wanted to do and not expecting specific performance goals or competitive outcomes.

*Student-athlete’s motivation orientation.* When asked to share what motivates
Jenna, Julie responded, “she is internally motivated which I am very proud of, but she is
defiantly very influenced by external motivations as well.” Julie continued, “she loves the
camaraderie with the girls [current teammates]. She loves the physicality of the game, she
loves structure and she is a competitor, loving to win.” Jenna’s response to the same
question showed a similar balance of internal and external motivations: (e.g., “just better
than I was before” and “impress coaches”). The responses from Julie and Jenna support
the notion that Jenna is internally motivated, wanting to be better than her previous self,
but that she has a competitive edge, and is also motivated by external sources. Primarily
this manifested as pleasing her coaches by doing what is asked of her or putting her best
effort forth to make her parents proud.

Overall, Jenna demonstrated a high task orientation and a high ego orientation.
Motivation orientation is orthogonal meaning task and ego orientation are unrelated.
Indeed, most high achieving athletes are high in both, affording them the opportunity to
be motivated in multiple ways. In understanding Julie and Jenna’s experiences, it became
clear that Jenna is motivated to do her best and to put her best effort fourth and to have
fun, which embodies task orientation. However, it was also clear that she is competitive,
wants to win, and finds motivation in external figures (i.e., coaches, parents), thus
embodying ego orientation as well.

Family 02

Parenting style. Similar to Family 01, Drew described his mom and dad to be
somewhat authoritative, in that they provide warmth and support to his endeavors. When
asked to describe his relationship with his parents Drew responded, “I have a pretty good
relationship with my parents…. I’m always open with them and try to share everything with them…I’ve always felt that if I shared things with them they could trust me more.”

This was almost verbatim to his parent’s response. This speaks to the warmth of the parent-child relationship that exists within this dyad. Bruce also shared that Drew is currently involved in his business up in Idaho, providing weekly support helping out with social media and advertising. This speaks to the ongoing closeness of their relationship and the cohesiveness that must exist for them to work together in this capacity. In addition, there were numerous anecdotes shared that allude to an overall family closeness. Bruce shared stories related to how siblings were also a huge part of Drew’s support network. Sharing that Drew was “inspired and motivated by his older brother who helped him quite a bit in the technique and worked with him a lot and helped him to get better.” Drew also shared stories related to how his older siblings had motivated him and helped him to improve. It was clear that family is an important support for Drew, there were numerous recollections of siblings providing support both related to sport or non-sport related topics, as well as extended family coming to support him at meets.

While addressing parental expectations, Drew shared that he didn’t feel his parents had very high expectations for him, and rather that they set pretty realistic expectations for his academic and athletic endeavors. When asked about the expectations his parents had his response was, “they never said like you have to do this…but they knew I could do good, and they supported me and wanted me to do well.” To the same question Bruce responded, “I think we’ve always more, mostly been focused on the beat your own record, to not compare yourself with others or siblings, to be able to each time
you’re doing it to improve your own PR [personal record].” While Sue responded with, “they knew that we liked to see them do well in things and that we liked to see them like get good grades and stuff like that, they knew that but most of them were self-motivated and always strived to do good.” Sue also added, “I don’t know if it was really anything we did as parents but we’d [parents] try to support them in what they did.”

An allusion to an authoritative and democratic style of parenting was reiterated throughout both Drew and Bruce and Sue’s interviews. Drew, stated “It was kind of like our expectations, we worked together to create them, that’s why I do really love my parents, it wasn’t like they set the standard and I had to follow it, we both set the standard and we knew what the expectations were.” This reiterates that Drew may not have felt covert expectations, but that he did feel a part of the process in setting and meeting the standards that his parents expected.

**Parent-initiated motivational climate.** The Peros created a mastery-like climate for Drew throughout his athletic career. Drew said, “It was like they really cared a lot about what I wanted to do so they would support me and they’d help me get to those things that I wanted to do.” This alludes to a child centered performance goals which is exhibited in a mastery climate. Drew also shared that he was always trying to throw the discus further than he had before, he was not concerned with his competitors and only focused on his own personal record. This task-oriented goal speaks to a mastery component over a performance one, which was reflected in a few of the comments of his parental support. However, when talking with Bruce, the more overt comments were ultimately performance related. Bruce constantly mentioned accolades and awards that
Drew had earned. There were numerous times throughout the interview where Bruce would say “I don’t want to brag, but.” While this is a sign of pride and admiration for his son and his accomplishments, the way in which they were shared provides insight into the importance of winning and achieving success within the sport. Drew specifically shared, “My dad loved it [being a sport parent], like he would get really worked up and be like you need to do this or that wasn’t good.” Rather than allowing for Drew to debrief his performances, his father would call him after each competition and discuss what had gone wrong. Drew viewed this a positive, also stating, “he would never get to the point that he would try coaching me or step in front of my actual coach in school.” Even though the perspective of Drew was that his dad was positively impacting his athletic experience, throughout the interview it was readily apparent that Bruce is ultimately an over involved sport parent.

Bruce shared stories related to Drew going to special camps to learn better techniques, camps that were very “prestigious” and “hard” to qualify for. One such camp is nationally recognized as the best in the nation and one that produces many state champion throwers. Importantly while sharing these stories Bruce continued to use “we,” repeatedly using “we” to describe Drew’s experiences and training. This mirrors the over involved parenting literature, where parents are vicariously living through their children and often personally invest in the training and outcomes of competitions.

**Student-athlete’s motivation orientation.** When asked, “what motivates you as an athlete,” Drew resounded, “If I am beating myself then I know that I am doing better and it is kind of like a staircase that you keep walking up and try to get to the top for some
time. Then once you get to the top you keep going to the next top.” When asked what motivates Drew, Bruce response, “He has always been self-motivated ... he would push himself all the time.” While Sue responded with, “I just think he wants to be the best he can be. He always just pushes himself but I didn’t know, it may be that he feels good about himself.” While the initial glance evokes a task response, with Drew’s need to be the best version of himself. Within Drew’s response, the idea of never being satisfied evokes an ego orientation, the allusion of a never-ending staircase alludes to a performance orientation rather than a mastery one. Interestingly even with the overinvolved performance climate, there are defiantly attributes related to a task orientation. The overwhelming theme from Drew himself was the idea of being the best he could be, which alludes to having a more pronounced task orientation. However, he like his father, spent a great deal of time talking about his PRs (personal records) and the competitions he has won which speaks to also having a high ego orientation.

**Family 03**

**Parenting style.** The Nelson family is a clear representation of an authoritarian parenting style, one that has high expectations set but little aspects of warmth and responsiveness within the parent-child relationship. Erin was the only student-athlete to describe her relationship with her parents as “distant,” sharing that her relationship with her parents is “demanding” and “not terribly emotional.” Interestingly when her parents, Jack and Suzy were asked to describe their relationship with Erin, Suzy replied, “as a family, we are very close. I try to make contact with her often and keep track of her.” Jack’s response was, “I feel like we have gotten closer since she has left home … She
[Erin] talked me into getting Snapchat, so we could talk more often.” This delineation in the closeness of the relationship is interesting, while the responses from Jack and Suzy somewhat support the fact that Jack is closer to Erin than Suzy is, it seems that Erin has a much more negative ideation of the parent-child relationship. This illuminates the lack of warmth and responsiveness that may be relevant to the parent-child relationship.

Furthermore, Suzy specifically discussed that Erin reaches out to her when she is having health problems or emotional things that are impacting her life, and only reaches out to Jack when she needs money. This was completely contradicted by Erin, in fact Erin shares that she doesn’t have an emotional relationship with her mother at all, and that she is more likely to reach out to Jack if she is struggling with school or relationship stuff. This incompatibility is supportive of a distance relationship and one where Erin and Suzy have separate interpretations of the relationship they have with one another. This also lends to a theme of an authoritarian parenting style, in that there is not a lot of support and warmth between Erin and her mother.

The parental expectations for Erin are extreme and unrealistically high and mirror an authoritarian parenting style. Suzy was quoted, “as long as they do their best that is all that we would ask.” However, in the same response she also said “I was never going to accept mediocrity.” The ladder comment was one that was imbued throughout the interview. Suzy constantly suggested that she placed high, unattainable, expectations for her children to reach. When asked what role Erin played in creating these expectations Suzy said, “We kind of took the lead with her for what she wanted and needed, we tried to feel out what she wanted and then pushed her to achieve it.” Erin’s response to this line
of questioning was very similar. She shared, “It was expected that we would all [her siblings] get a 4.0, regardless of what classes we were taking or what extra-curricular we had. In running I was expected to be leading the team, setting school records and winning state titles.” The unrealistic nature of Suzy’s expectations was the only congruent perspective shared between Erin and her parents.

When asked how Suzy would help her deal with failure, Erin responded “They would be pretty disappointed and they would voice that disappointment. Until I either kind of changed up my act or until I decided to quit running all together and pursue something that I could be the best at.” This also mirrors the authoritarian parenting style, alluding to a lack of warmth and support in the face of adversity. Importantly though, these unrealistic expectations are not seen as negative in Erin’s perspective. “In a way their expectations have been good because I defiantly haven’t been able to slack off, so I am kind of a perfectionist and I have a very high drive to compete and to put forth the most effort every day.” It was clear that Suzy had relative control over Erin and her siblings. She shared that she would have “weekly interviews” with each of her children. While this sounds like a supportive way to gain insights into your children’s goals and ambitions, the description of these interviews was solely based on the expectations that hadn’t been met and what they could be doing better in the weeks to come.

**Parent-initiated motivational climate.** A performance climate is overwhelmingly evident within the Nelson family. It was clear that Suzy cared about the success of her children in sport. When asked what type of sport parents they were, Jack responded sharing that they weren’t the type of parents that were ridiculous. He shared “some of the
parents were down right ridiculous, because if their child didn’t win the regional competition but they still qualified but didn’t win, they wouldn’t take them to national competition because they didn’t win.” Adding that as a couple they tried to be at as many meets as possible throughout Erin’s high school career and still continue to try to be there, especially since she has moved to a university closer to home.

An interesting aspect of their motivational climate can be found in the reasons why Erin transferred. According to Erin she transferred because she had a “toxic” relationship with her coaches at her previous institution. She described being asked to do unhealthy and somewhat unethical things to herself in order perform well. When her parents discuss Erin’s experience at the previous institution they share that they really liked the coaching staff, that “we felt like they were in line with what we [parents] wanted but we felt like they were maybe a little too laid back with her.” This directly contradicts the experience that is described by Erin, and again mirror a performance climate.

Finally, there was a moment of vulnerability within the interview where Suzy actually admitted to her unrealistic and demanding expectations for success and performance. She said, “I am a little embarrassed to say this but I am a very competitive person and I don’t want to be mediocre. I am not oaky with it, and I think I ingrained that into my children.” This was a moment when the interview was focused on Erin’s current injury related to overuse. Erin shared that she has been unable to compete in this current season because of an injury related to pushing through pain and overuse. Erin and Suzy both discussed this perseverance through pain is a direct result from the need to succeed
and outperform her previous self and those around her.

Student-athlete’s motivation orientation. When asked what motivates her, Erin responded “I think a lot of my long-term goals. I would like to see my athletes career take me somewhere, like it is something I generally love doing and it makes me happy. I would like to continue doing it for as long as I can and I would like to sign a contract somewhere after college.” To the same question Suzy responded, “She just has been a person that she doesn’t want to be mediocre she wants to be the best she can be. I have seen that with her even when she was a young girl. It was a driving factor for her.” Jack’s response to what motivates Erin, was “she is not going to settle for anything less than her best.”

Throughout the interview there were themes of both task and ego orientations within Erin’s perspective of her own motivation. She shares aspects of wanting to outperform her previous performances but overall, she has a much more prominent ego orientation. One story that exemplifies this was shared by Jack, “She (Erin) is very competitive, she did a half marathon last summer and she (Erin) saw that someone had posted that they got a faster time than her (Erin) and she immediately corrected it.” This exemplifies how important titles and success is to her. As an example, a mastery focused athlete wouldn’t even be concerned with the comparison to another, this need to correct and remain on the top defiantly shows her inner ego orientation.

Family 04

Parenting style. Of all the familial dyads Karissa and Kathy seemed to have the closest relationship and depicted an authoritative-like style. When asked to describe their
relationship Karissa shared, “I don’t think it could be better…. I go to her for everything, she’s the one who supports me the most, like fires me up the most, we’re best friends. We do everything together, I don’t know, it’s just fun, we love each other. This was reiterated by Kathy who said, “We have a very, very close relationship, we’re very open with one another, I think that I’m her confidant. I’m also her person, she loves me fiercely, and I love her fiercely.” It was clear throughout the interview that there is a mutual respect and admiration between Karissa and her mom. Karissa shared that she attributes this close relationship to the fact that she didn’t grow up with a father, sharing that as she grew up it was just her mom there to support her.

Kathy shared that she speaks with most of her children on a daily basis, but that she expects a call home from Karissa at the end of the day, and that it is something she looks forward to in her own daily routine. This consistent contact reiterates their close relationship, but an important component of this support was shared by Karissa. She said, “If I ask her (Kathy) to come up, like if I needed something, she would come right up.” This continues to show the close and consistent support that Kathy continues to provide throughout Karissa’s intercollegiate career. The two also shared that because Kathy lives so close to Karissa’s school that they see each other more often than they expected to during Karissa’s intercollegiate career. Karissa shared that Kathy often attended her in-state competitions, and always attempted to be there. Kathy shared that while growing up it was harder to make it to all of her children’s sporting events, “between juggling work and transportation, it was hard to make it to all the sporting events.” She continued to share that she did end up at Karissa’s events more than the older children’s simply
because she was the youngest and she had more time and resources during that time.

In addition to the mutual admiration shared by both mother and daughter, Karissa also has shared a great deal of gratitude that likely plays into her motivation and dedication to her intercollegiate career. While describing her relationship with Kathy, Karissa shared “she would die for me to have an opportunity to be the best and to have everything I’ve wanted.” Karissa shared that growing up money was a huge struggle for the family, and that Kathy would work day and night at two jobs to support the family. Karissa shared that she grew up running and playing soccer because they were relatively inexpensive activities, but when she decided to do volleyball Kathy didn’t hesitate to support that passion. Even though volleyball was much more expensive, Kathy was more interested in supporting her child’s passion than about the cost of those opportuneness. This support has motivated Karissa throughout her life to be the best version of herself she shared, “seeing her (Kathy) work all night and all day so that we could have those experiences has only helped me to develop that work ethic, to fight for what I am passionate about, there is no one who’s going to be more supportive of my dreams than she is.” This narrative was corroborated by Kathy’s comments related to always willing to sacrifice her own time to provide for her children, especially when it came to helping them pursue their goals and dreams.

When asked about parental expectations, Karissa shared that Kathy, “absolutely, yes,” set high expectations for her and her siblings throughout their lives. Karissa shared, “She (Kathy) expects the best of us and for us to try our best, that it’s enough as long as we’re doing everything we possibly can and not selling ourselves short, that we can
become all we can.” It was clear through Karissa’s narrative that Kathy set high expectations for her but that her expectations were not specific achievements or mile markers to hit in performance. The expectation set by Kathy was simple, in that she expected her children, Karissa included, to do their absolute best. Kathy shared, “all my kids have been high achievers and to them I’ve always said, success to me is being your very best, I don’t care if you are the best I care that you are your best.”

When asked what would happen if Karissa didn’t meet Kathy’s expectations, Karissa confessed that she didn’t know, that she had never felt like she had failed her mom in reaching her maximum efforts. She shared, “I think my expectations are higher than my mom’s, she believed in me so much, I guess I wanted more out of myself and wanted to show her that her time and effort was worthwhile.” Neither Kathy or Karissa’s specifically shared a theme of democratically set expectations but throughout the narrative it was clear that Karissa plays a strong role in setting expectations and that Kathy is there as a support to whatever end Karissa has in sight. This is reiterated by Kathy when she said, “to me success isn’t how many championship rings you have, it’s honestly that she has healthy relationships, that she’s happy in her decisions, that she’s happy.” It was clear throughout the interview that Kathy allows her children to set their own expectations, and only consistently expects them to do their best and to go for their dreams.

An important expectation that was also reiterated throughout the narrative was gratitude. Kathy shared that she expects her children to be grateful for those who have scarified for them, whether it be their teachers and coaches who have put their time and
energy into them or for the time and effort she has exhibited as a mother. This gratitude coming with a pinch of respect, sharing that respect and gratitude are more important than liking your teachers or coaches. She shared a specific instance where Karissa was struggling with one of her coaches and she comically added, “I could have marched down there and yelled at the coach for benching my child, but instead I told Karissa that she needed to respect his decision and talk with him about how to earn a starting position.” This reiterates that Kathy values her child’s character and effort over performance goals like playing, and expects effort and respect over achievement on the court.

**Parent-initiated motivational climate.** When asked specially about Karissa’s athletic experience Kathy continued to exude an authoritative and unconditional support. Kathy shared, “I have put everything I’ve had into whatever my children wanted to do, whatever the passion was at the time I totally got behind it, whatever it was that they loved I would work my tail end off to do it so.” This support didn’t include specific performance expectations, in contrast providing support for passion over performance. Kathy shared a story about Karissa’s brother, who athletically is preforming very well at the intercollegiate level but wants to purse a medical career and his athletics are interfering with that. Rather than pressuring him to continue with his intercollegiate career she has encouraged him to pursue his passion, sharing, “sometimes you can be great at something and you just don’t love it, and if you don’t love it then the fight isn’t worth it.” Another example of how Kathy values her children’s effort and desire over performance and supports their decision to purse their passions no matter the cost, even in this case, the loss of a full scholarship.
Karissa shared that Kathy tried to attend all of her games as she grew up, always there as a sounding board for her to bounce ideas off of. Kathy specifically shared a story related to Karissa being “bummed” about not having a starting role during her freshman season. She shared, “I am just not one of those parents, I don’t care if my kid is the best and is sitting the bench, I am not the coach that is not my area.” This is an important addition because it illuminates the difference between an involved parent who continues to support and guide their child and an overinvolved sport parent who crosses the boundaries. Kathy continued to share that she has been less involved during her children’s intercollegiate careers, sharing that “they have coaches for guidance and advice, I don’t know anything about playing collegiate anything.” This is again reiterating that Kathy provides support to her children athletically by physically and emotionally investing in her children’s athletic experiences but that she doesn’t create pressurized or unhealthy boundaries.

Another important aspect of Kathy’s motivational climate is the continuance of her expectation that her children will have respect and gratitude for the experience and opportunity to play at the intercollegiate level. Sharing that she ultimately doesn’t care how well Karissa is performing but expects them to have a positive attitude no matter the outcome of the match. Kathy specifically noted a match where Karissa was playing very well, and competitively, likely due to the fact that she was playing a team that didn’t recruit her. “She was very confident, thinking she was all that and a bag of chips, but she felt like she wasn’t getting the ball enough and she started to put and nothing pisses me off more than that.” She continued to say that after the game she talked to her about it and
said, “I was yelling, I’m a yeller, and I said if you’re going to stand out there and pout and have an attitude then you might as well stand there and let a ball drop because you are failing yourself.” This is a great example of how Kathy created a motivational climate themed with mastery over performance because this story in particular was a performance where Karissa played very well and the team ultimately won. However, Kathy could care less about winning and success if it doesn’t come with the character that is expected of her children.

**Student-athlete’s motivation orientation.** When asked what motivates Karissa, Kathy responded, “she wants recognition from others, it simply isn’t enough that I love her, and this is my two-cent psychology here, but I really have always felt that she just wants to succeed so she can have a claim and so that he (her father) will know who she is.” This was an interesting point made by Kathy because it supports that Karissa is ultimately motivated to succeed and win to gain recognition from her absent father, which was not specifically mentioned by Karissa, but could be alluded to by her response. When asked what motivates her Karissa responded, “I want to be the very best, I want to become all that I can become in every way.” She went on to describe that what truly motivates her is being an unexpected competitor for her size and background, sharing that she has goals of going to the Olympics and being an inspiration to other girls who didn’t think they could achieve “hard things.” Throughout the interview she also shared that she is motived to make her mom proud, to make her feel like her sacrifices and dedication to her were worthwhile.

Lastly, Karissa shared, “I want to be uncommon and do the things no one
expected of me, to do the things other people aren’t willing to do and to do hard things, the hard things motivate me.” This final statement alludes to her wanting to overcome her past and be more than was expected of her. Kathy shared intimate details of her father simply not being interested in her, not helping to pay for opportunities for her and simply not expecting much of her. I suspect the “no one” of Karissa’s narrative is her absent father, and her ability to be motivated by the “hard things” in her life is a testament to the support she has felt from her mom.

**Family 05**

**Parenting style.** Drake described his relationship to his dad as close, sharing that even though he grew up in his mother’s house that she isn’t involved in his athletic stuff and so he feels much closer with his dad during this time. Throughout the interview it was apparent that Wade and Drake’s mother had an authoritative like parenting in relation to the relationship and athletic expectations that were created. However, Drake shared aspects of his relationship with his mother that were closer to an authoritarian relationship, especially in relation to academic goals and standards. Drake also shared that he feels really similar to his dad when he was his age, “I’m really him when he was younger, so he gets it.” Wade shared a similar narrative, sharing that they were close, “when he was younger he would just follow me around and we spent a lot of time together, that changed when he wasn’t with me full time, but we have always been close.”

During high school, Drake went to a boarding school that was far away from home. During this time Wade shared that he felt closer to Drake, sharing “I felt when he
was away (at high school) that the communication was obviously less but that he was
more open to actually talking about things.” This same theme was reiterated now, “with
Drake being gone again, it’s funny he calls me more now during his season, when I am
sure he is busiest.” This need for connection from Drake shows the closeness between
father and son but also the important role Wade continues to play throughout his son’s
athletic career.

When asked how expectations were created in the home, Drake responded with a
laugh and said “I just did what my mom said.” On a serious note he began to discuss how
he really didn’t feel huge expectations from them especially in sport, but that his mom
and dad both expected him to stay out of trouble and to do well in school. “If I broke the
rules I would get into big trouble, you never want to break the rules, but with black
parents especially.” Again, in a comical tone he discussed how his parents always pushed
him to do well in school and that they expected him to study and to stay out of trouble. “I
think that was the biggest thing when I was going to leave (for high school), it really was
about getting me off the block and away from that life.” Drake continued to share stories
related to the violence he grew up around and how sport was a way for him to succeed
and to leave that life behind, but that his parents were much more concerned with him
staying out of trouble and getting good grades.

When asked about parental expectations, Wade responded with, “His mother
always had higher expectations for him but he had them for himself too. We both wanted
the best for him and wanted him to have a better life for himself.” Along with the
emphasis on school that Drake shared, Wade said, “We always made school important,
we both went to college, he always knew he had to get good grades in order to play sports.” An important thing that Wade did share was that his personal intercollegiate experience was so focused on sport that even with a 4-year degree he did not feel prepared for the world after college, something that he did not want for Drake. When asked what would happen if he didn’t meet these expectations Wade responded, “fortunately for us he is really a smart and good kid and obviously athletic. We knew early on he was going to do something and wanted to make sure he made the best of whatever it was.” This response supports that there were expectations for Drake but that they were not performance based, each also shared a notion that there were no benchmarks expected of Drake on the court. It was clear from both Drake and Wade, that Drake’s mother played more of the primary parenting role but that even she didn’t expect performance benchmarks from Drake.

When asked what would happen if Drake did not meet the parental expectations, Wade responded with “he puts a lot more pressure on himself than we ever did. In terms of school we just always expected him to try his best, like I said he really was a great student and he wanted to get out of here and he knew that school and good grades would help him out.” This notion of effort over performance was reiterated throughout the narrative and was corroborated by Drake saying “they wanted me to try my best, and that was easy, meeting my own expectations was harder on me I think.”

**Parent-initiated motivational climate.** When it came to the discussion of the parent-initiated motivational climate both Drake and Wade discussed a mastery or learning focused climate. There was never any expectation of performance or competition from either Wade or Drake’s mother. When specifically asked, Wade responded with “he
was always pushing himself harder and harder to get better and better, but that was all him. As parents we only really cared about his school work and as long as that was on track we just wanted him to have fun on the court.” Wade even referenced not being one of those crazy helicopter parents, sharing that he played intercollegiate sport and that he knows how hard it is to juggle the demands of that life. Sharing “of course I wanted him to take advantage of his abilities but I was never going to be one of those parents, he had enough on his plate, I just was here to be a listening ear for him.”

The only expectation within the athletic realm was related to respect. Wade shared, “I mean he is very aggressive on the court, and he has a hot head. We used to talk about that sometimes after a game, respect is huge for me, I always wanted him to respect his coach and the refs and his opponents.” This was also reiterated by Drake who described his father as being a huge influence when it comes to respecting those on the court, he said “it’s funny because if I have a bad call all I want to do is yell and sometimes I do, but when I call home I always immediately apologize for it because I know my dad cares more about my mouthing off than the score.”

When discussing what Drake felt his parents did provide in the motivational climate, he responded with “work ethic.” Drake spent a great deal of time discussing how his parents modeled an exceptional work ethic for him, that his parents work really hard always taking on new shifts so that he could have the things he needed. He describes how this work ethic has transitioned to himself, “like I’ll be in the gym and hurting or frustrated and I think how lucky I am to have to push this hard to do something I love, not all are this lucky.” The gratitude that was imbued throughout Drakes interview is
uncommon of intercollegiate athletes of his age. He has such a gratitude for his coaches and his parents and wants them to continue to push him to be great. He shares that the most influential coaches in his life have been those who “never let me get away with anything, when I’m doing something wrong, they’re not afraid to tell me, just like my mom.” Adding that he values a coach that gets to know his players and creates a real relationship with them, sharing “it’s hard to respond to a coach who doesn’t know you.”

Another interesting component that was shared within Drake’s narrative was that he was grateful that his parents were not overinvolved. He shared that he has had teammates who have “overinvolved” parents, “it put a lot of pressure on them, his dad was one of the coaches and that is never a good idea.” He continued with “it’s hard for parents to separate from being a dad and then try to be a coach, it just puts a lot of pressure on them to succeed.” He shared that he liked that his dad was not one to overstep his parenting boundary, that he understood what it meant to be an intercollegiate athlete and so just listened to me complain and did not add fuel to the fire.

**Student-athlete’s motivation orientation.** When asked what motivates him Drake responded, “just wanted to be the best,” and “I just want to be good enough so that I can make money doing something I want to do.” This was reiterated by Wade who said, “he is absolutely self-motivated and motived to be his best.” He added, “he gets so frustrated when he drops in rank as an individual or when the team doesn’t win, always taking it personally, but he’s never afraid to work harder, staying later at practice, always looking towards the next step.” It is clear throughout the narrative that Drake is motivated by his performances, he wants to be the best. However, there is a component from both Drake
and Wade that suggests that Drake is motivated to be the best so that he can achieve whatever he wants to achieve. Rather than being satisfied by a win, he is only motivated to push a little hard the next time, always looking at what is next.

Discussion

The present study was designed to investigate student-athlete and parent perceptions of the role parents play in the development of student-athlete motivation orientation. By employing narrative approach and framing the study within a family systems perspective, we sought to gain an experiential understanding of how different family members view the impact of parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate on student athletes’ motivation orientation in NCAA athletics.

In situating the present findings within the extant literature, a number of important interpretations emerged. First, with the exception of one student-athlete who shared a somewhat negative relationship with her parents, most families agreed that the parent-child relationships were close and generally positive. While each family was unique in the way these markers were defined, family members shared aspects of warmth, responsiveness, and a general enmeshment among the individuals interviewed. Across narratives, a cohesive theme was found, namely that student athletes had a desire for continued parent involvement in their athletic lives. This acknowledgement of the important role many parents continue to play during emerging adulthood aligns with previous work related to parent involvement in intercollegiate athletics (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b). It also aligns with work from the developmental literature highlighting
the important role of parents as socializers and anchors of support through late adolescence and into early adulthood (Arnett, 2000, 2013). Notably, each family in the present study suggested that patterns of parent-child communication have changed since high school, and that student athletes do not share everything with their parents, but that they still rely on them as support figures when facing adversity.

In relation to parental expectations, the majority of student athletes reported that their parents had high expectations for them as young children, both athletically and academically. Most also shared feelings of having been supported to attain and accomplish “hard things,” rather than having felt external pressure. Three of the student athletes described placing higher expectations on themselves than their parents did, which was corroborated by the parents in these families. Of the five families in the study, four student athletes specifically referenced feeling included in setting goals and creating the expectations that their parents held, whereas only one student-athlete reported feeling “forced” to pursue unrealistic expectations.

As noted in the developmental literature, parental expectations are an important component of parenting style. Parents who maintain high but realistic expectations and create a warm and supportive climate in the face of adversity are described in the literature as authoritative (Baumrind, 2013). We interpreted this style of parenting to be most common in four of the five families who took part in this study. Parents in the outlying case, Family 03, were considered to be authoritarian because their expectations were autocratic, unrealistically high, and they expected their child to achieve high standards without the provision of regular and sufficient emotional support (Baumrind,
Another overt theme that emerged across families was the explicit role that parents play as athletic socializers (Greendorfer, 2012). While much of the sport science literature depicts coaches and peers to be the most important significant others in the sport setting, recent studies focused on motivation have specifically highlighted parents as one of many salient motivational influences (see Allen & Shaw, 2008; Keegan et al., 2009). This assertion was supported in the present study, as the majority of student athletes described their parents as the most influential figures throughout their athletic careers.

In examining each family unit, parents in three of the five families were interpreted to have fostered mastery-focused motivational climates. According to Ames (1992), mastery climates are imbued by democratic leadership, praise for effort and improvement in lieu of objective outcomes, and private (autonomous) evaluation. Families in the present study who exhibited these characteristics remain child-focused, were not concerned with the outcomes of competition, but rather the enjoyment and learning being experienced by their child throughout the intercollegiate athletic experience. Our data suggest that student athletes generally considered their parents to be “positively” involved based on the fact that they regularly attended games and invested time and money into their children’s athletic experiences. However, two of the parents also demonstrated aspects of being over-involved, thus creating more of a performance-focused climate for their child’s participation. This was exemplified in student-athlete recollections of parents calling coaches about playing time or by being overly invested in
the athletic achievement (i.e., outcomes) in the child’s sport.

According to Holt et al. (2008), it is not only parent behaviors, but also their beliefs about success and failure that define a parent-initiated motivational climate. The two families wherein parents initiated a performance climate alluded to winning as the most important outcome in sport, defined success as the student-athlete achieving a personal record or accomplishing something tangible (e.g., becoming a conference or national champion). Interestingly, these two parents were parents of track and field and cross-country athletes. While the ontological assumptions of this study (as well as its small sample size) preclude us from making broad generalizations about this, it is worth noting that student athletes in individual sports (i.e., track and field and cross-country) may be more motivated by the external rewards prioritized in a performance climate (Duda, 2001).

Through an AGT lens, those with higher task-orientation are more internally focused and process-oriented, whereas those with higher ego-orientation are more externally focused and outcome-oriented (Duda, 2001). This literature also posits that these orientations are orthogonal, meaning that individuals have aspects of both built into their motivational profile (Duda, 2001; Reinboth & Duda, 2006). Indeed, student athletes in the present study described components of task- and ego-orientation, with two describing themselves as high in task and low in ego, and three describing themselves as high in task and high in ego. These findings are generally supported in the sport motivation literature, as elite-level athletes typically self-identify as being motivated by both processes and outcomes (Duda, 2001; Harwood et al., 2015).
Of the three student athletes who were classified as high-task and high-ego, two grew up in households marked by a parent-initiated performance climate. The two student athletes who were classified as higher in task- and lower in ego-orientation grew up in households marked by parent-initiated mastery climates. These findings are not surprising, as the motivational literature suggests that the motivational climate created by close social others is predicative of an individual’s later motivation orientation (White et al., 1998). It also aligns with the findings from Study 1, which suggest a direct association between parent-initiated motivational climate and student-athlete motivation orientation. The third high task/high ego student-athlete perceived a parent-initiated mastery climate, and therefore provides a unique case to examine more deeply. It is plausible that one’s motivation orientation is not entirely driven by processes of socialization, but that there may be some biological component to it as well. Alternatively, this student-athlete may have experienced some sort of “buffering” effect based on the motivational climate(s) created by coaches or peers over the course of development. Indeed, parenting does not occur in a vacuum, and multiple social actors influence student athletes in multiple, interconnected ways.

The present study was designed to investigate student-athlete and parent perceptions of the role parents play in the development of student-athlete motivation orientation. In constructing case narratives for five families with student athletes participating in NCAA Division-I athletics, we were specifically focused on the role of parent involvement, the parent-child relationship, parenting expectations and parent-initiated motivational climates in student-athlete motivation orientation. Our findings are
of potential importance to researchers, practitioners, sport stakeholders, and families because they offer a deeper understanding of how parents may help shape student athletes’ motivation orientation in an intercollegiate sport setting. Importantly, the findings suggest that simply understanding student athletes’ motivation orientation as a “here-and-now” variable is not enough to understand how to motivate them. Instead, individuals charged with motivating student athletes need to pursue a deeper understanding of athletes’ parents and the motivational climate in which the athletes were raised. Through a family systems lens, our findings highlight the fact that families are dynamic—changing and shifting in some ways over time, but also remaining the same in many others.

Collectively, results of the present study offer initial insight into the role parents may play in the development of student athletes’ motivation orientation at the intercollegiate level. Despite this contribution to the literature, a number of limitations should be acknowledged. First, the current study used a semi-structured interview procedure, focused on aspects of parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation. The constitution of these categories was largely influenced by extant theory and literature, as well as the results of Study 1; however, it also left a potential “blind spot” in our assessment of other aspects of the role(s) parents might play in the development of student athletes’ motivation orientation. For instance, in some of the interviews, participants alluded to the modeling of hard work, athleticism, and perseverance. A focus on these types of behaviors, or others that parents may exhibit in relation to athletic experiences, would allow future researchers to
see how student athletes’ motivational behaviors may be developed. Specifically, scholars should ask parents and student athletes more nuanced questions related to how the parent-child relationship might predict athletic outcomes.

A second limitation lies in the fact that our study sample was fairly monolithic across a number of sociodemographic characteristics. Although we did seek to recruit a diverse sample of participants, this was only accomplished in relation to family structure and student-athlete gender. Importantly, there may be relevant cultural, geographical, or economic factors that lead to certain types of parenting styles and behaviors, and may even spill over into parent-initiated motivational climates. Future scholars should aim to diversify study populations to include parents who are not as close with their children, or student athletes that come from larger or smaller households. In better understanding the role these factors play in the development of parent involvement and student-athlete motivation orientation, athletic departments could engage with researchers and practitioners to create educational tools designed to enhance the student-athlete experience.

The broad parenting literature is unequivocal that parents remain important socializers throughout adolescence in into early adulthood (Arnett, 2015); however, within an intercollegiate athletic setting, parents’ influence has largely been overlooked. There have been recent advancements in theoretical and conceptual knowledge (see Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b); however, even these programs fail to recognize the developmental role parents play in the adoption and manifestation of motivation orientation. As parents are highly involved and influential in the sporting endeavors of
their children (Dorsch et al., 2015), pursuing a deeper understanding of parents’ role in the socialization of student athletes’ motivation orientation is worthwhile. In addressing this gap, the present work meaningfully extends the knowledge base by broadening the fields understanding of parent involvement in intercollegiate athletics, deliberately highlighting interrelationships among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation. In making these contributions, this study answers recent calls for an intensified focus on parental involvement in intercollegiate sport (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b) and offers a springboard for theoretically and practically meaningful future research.
CHAPTER 4
GENERAL DISCUSSION

The desire to maximize human athletic performance and to enhance the athletic experience of those participating has fostered an interest among researchers and practitioners to study the construct of motivation (e.g., Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Laios, Theodoraki, & Gargalianos, 2003; Swain & Jones, 1992). Much of the extant work in this area is grounded in theory and research from the field of educational psychology (e.g., Ames, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dweck, 1986; Nicholls, 1984), and has been more recently adapted to the setting of competitive sport (Duda, 2013). Despite consideration of various individual (e.g., temperament, ability) and environmental (e.g., coaches and peers) as factors, the parent-child relationship has remained largely overlooked as a potential antecedent of athletic motivation. While motivation researchers do acknowledge parents as important socialization figures, studies have generally failed to examine the specific ways parents may serve to shape athletes’ motivation orientation (c.f., Froiland, 2015; Simpkins et al., 2015).

Contemporary developmental research indicates that parents remain important support systems for their children into and through the college years (see Lowe & Dotterer, 2018 for a review). Within the athletic context, emerging research also highlights the impact of parent involvement on the well-being and domain-specific efficacy of intercollegiate athletes (Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b). Despite this recent empirical focus on the developmental periods of late adolescence and emerging adulthood, there remains a dearth of understanding regarding the potential impact of parenting style on student
athletes’ motivation orientation.

In light of this gap, Study 1 was designed to investigate the relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics. A sample of 156 student athletes reported on valid and reliable measures of these variables, and mediation analyses yielded an association between authoritative parenting and student athletes’ task motivation, mediated by parent-initiated mastery climate. Findings highlight the role of parenting styles and practices in the enhancement of student athletes’ task motivation in sport. Importantly, results suggest that authoritative parenting and the initiation of a mastery-focused motivational climate have a sequential impact on student athletes’ adoption of task-oriented motivation. This finding is important, as decades of motivation research provides strong and consistent support for task orientation as a desired characteristic because of the work ethic and internal motivation that is aligned with this motivation profile.

Examining parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate as potential antecedents of student athletes’ motivation orientation afforded a sharper understanding of how parents may impact student athletes’ engagement in intercollegiate athletics. This is a significant contribution to the literature because previous research in intercollegiate athletic settings has focused largely on the roles of coaches and teammates in determining student athletes’ motivation. Importantly, Study 1 provides multiple investigative paths forward for future researchers who wish to examine the sequential association of parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation
orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics.

Study 2 was intended to complement the findings from Study 1. Specifically, it was designed to investigate student-athlete and parent perceptions of the role parents play in the development of student-athlete motivation orientation. Twelve individuals from five families were interviewed individually using a semi-structured interview guide designed to tap participants’ perceptions of parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation. Data were analyzed using an inductive-deductive approach, derived from extant theory and research, as well as the results of Study 1. Specifically, emergent themes were subsumed within three a priori categories (parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, student athletes’ motivation orientation).

Interview data illuminated the important and influential role parents play in the adoption and development of student athletes’ motivation orientation. The qualitative results foster a more comprehensive understanding of the possible parental behaviors that may be associated with student athletes’ development of task and/or ego orientation in sport. The family narratives provide specific insights into the parenting behaviors and experiences that may foster the development of certain motivation profiles among NCAA student athletes. In making this contribution, Study 2 answers recent calls for an intensified focus on the role of parents in intercollegiate sport (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b) and offers a springboard for theoretically and practically meaningful future research.
An Integrated Understanding of Parent’s Influence on Student-Athlete Motivation

The primary contribution of this two-study dissertation lies in its potential to foster an interdisciplinary understanding of the sequential association of parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics. Parenting style can be thought of as the prototypical ways parents interact with their children across contexts (see Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Baumrind’s framework for understanding parenting styles, though widely used in family, child development, and parenting research, has not been used to understand sport parents. This is surprising, given the recent proliferation of parenting research in the sport sciences (Dorsch, Vierimaa, & Plucinik, in press). In an effort to fill this gap, these dissertation studies were designed to investigate the relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics.

Conceptually, our hypotheses were base in the extant literature. A meta-analysis conducted on research in the academic setting found that higher levels of parental responsiveness and demandingness (i.e., an authoritative parenting style) were predicative of academic performance both concurrently and in longitudinal studies (Pinquart, 2017). Extrapolating this finding to another achievement domain, intercollegiate athletics, it is plausible that parents who are more authoritative would be linked to more successful student-athlete experiences and outcomes over time. Although athletic “success” was not explicitly measured in the present dissertation, it was included
as a self-report variable in the demographic questionnaire for Study 1. Also, it is worth noting that the average GPA of the student athletes who took part in Study 1 was above the national college student average, suggesting that participants were successful in the academic domain. Because the majority of the participants reported having authoritative parents, this descriptive finding provides support for past research in broader achievement domains (e.g., Pinquart, 2017).

With the goal of investigating participants experiences of the link among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation, Study 2 included questions regarding the parent-child relationship and the expectations parents held for their children. The major themes that were identified in the family narratives regarding parenting style were related to high expectations, as well as warmth and support. There were instances of unrealistic expectations being set for student athletes, but overall the narratives supported parents setting high, but attainable expectations. This democratic style of parenting is a hallmark of Baumrind’s (2013) authoritative parenting style. Although the interviews didn’t specifically address (or label) what type of parenting style was evident within each family system, questions were asked about parental engagement in supportive behavioral interactions (i.e., responsiveness) and the expectations parents held for their children (i.e., demandingness) in sport. Specifically, it was clear that four of the families had parent-child relationships imbued by authoritative parenting.

Harwood et al. (2010) suggested that scholars view authoritative parenting through the lens of discipline. In Study 2 of the present dissertation, student athletes and
parents were asked to discuss how their family dealt with failures. The majority of the families alluded to authoritative interactions, less use of punitive measures, and engagement in communication to create new boundaries, expectations, or levels of support. In one counter example, a parent discussed engaging in more authoritarian parenting practices, specifically the use of control to eliminate the student-athlete’s opportunities for future failure. Fletcher, Steinberg, and Stellars (1999) found this to be an ineffective way to deal with failures, and provided evidence for an association between authoritarian parenting and a lack of well-being and external social problems. In contrast, families who discussed authoritative parenting when student athletes dealt with setbacks had student athletes who experienced greater levels of well-being and other positive psychosocial outcomes. In these families, there was evidence of better grades, more positive communication with peers, and a more seamless college transition, all of which are markers of adolescent well-being (Darling, 1999).

In discussing the parent-child relationship, a consistent theme of close and enmeshed relationships was identified. Specifically, in the Thomsen family (Family 01), there was a mutual closeness between the mother a daughter, and they both shared that they remained close during Jenna’s transition to college. Even though each of the families described parents placing high expectations on their children in sport and other achievement domains (i.e., academics), they also described parents’ provisions of support and unconditional responsiveness. These findings mirror past work that has linked parenting style to adolescent well-being (e.g., Harwood et al., 2010; Shucksmith, Hendry, & Glendinning, 1995).
The Nelson (Family 03) was the only family in which we identified themes of authoritarian parenting. Interestingly, this family was also most aligned with our hypothesis from Study 1, in that parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate appeared to be directly related to the student-athlete’s motivation orientation. According to both Erin and Suzy, the athletic expectations of Erin were unrealistically high and were set mostly by the mother. In the broader literature, this type of communication and control has been linked to less closeness in the parent-child relationship (Aquilino & Supple, 2001), which was also identified as a theme in Family 03. The Nelsons represented a distant and disconnected family system, where the student-athlete and parents reported different degrees of closeness.

Although the results of Study 1 did not support full mediation, qualitative results in Study 2 suggest that parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climates, and student athletes’ motivation orientation are closely linked. Indeed, each of the families who had an authoritative parent (or parents) also shared a focus on skill development and personal improvement (i.e., a mastery-focused motivational climate). These families described parents as being supportive of the student athletes’ athletic endeavors no matter the outcome. Seemingly as a result, student athletes placed more value in effort and achieving personal standards than achieving outcomes that compared well to teammates or competitors (i.e., high task orientation). In contrast, that family that described authoritarian parenting behaviors (i.e., high expectations but low support) described a more performance-focused parent-initiated motivational climate and a higher preponderance of student athletes’ ego orientation in sport.
In the sport literature, there is a broad understanding that parent-initiated motivational climates have the potential to create or facilitate the development of particular motivation profiles among the athletes who participate in these settings (e.g., Harwood et al., 2015; Keegan et al., 2009; O’Rourke et al., 2014). Importantly, the relationship between parent-initiated motivational climate and athletes’ motivation orientation documented in the early work of Duda (2001) and her contemporaries (e.g., Harwood et al., 2015) was supported by the quantitative findings in Study 1. While our results may have been impacted by the relatively homogenous sample (i.e., the majority of student athletes reported high mastery climates and high task orientation), there was a direct and significant association between relationship between parent-initiated motivational climate and athletes’ motivation orientation. These findings support the theoretical underpinnings of Bronfenbrenner (2005) and suggest that the dynamic aspects of the proximal environment are constantly influencing and changing the developing individual. Similar to other skills and attitudes that are socialized unto young people (see Parke & Buriel, 2006), young athletes are constantly influenced and impacted by the (parent-initiated) motivational climates in which they perform.

The link between the perceived parent-initiated motivational climate and student athletes’ motivation orientation was also illuminated by the qualitative results of Study 2. Specifically, a number of student-athlete participants suggested that their parents’ barometer for success was high effort and “trying your best” rather than winning or being the best on the field or court. Student athletes regularly shared how this was a positive aspect of their athletic experience because they felt support regardless of the outcome of
the meet, match, or game. In line with extant research and theory, as well as our hypotheses, student athletes and parents in these families recounted aspects of student-athletes’ task orientation. This finding aligns with Harwood et al. (2015), who found that athletes who perceive a parent-initiated mastery climate demonstrate a more task-heavy orientation profile. In the single family where the parents initiated a performance-focused motivational climate, the student-athlete reported a strong inclination toward perfectionism and associated athletic successes with external factors such as winning, beating other competitors, and being recognized for accomplishments.

This counter-case highlights a number of themes that are related to sport research examining aspects of parent pressure. Specifically, O’Rourke et al. (2011, 2014) suggest that parents play a meaningful role in the creation of environments that can lead to negative outcomes such as anxiety, a lack of enjoyment, and burnout. Interestingly, our data highlight the importance of unrealistic expectations (both in the classroom and in the athletic context) that may serve as an antecedent to the ego orientation of the student-athlete. This family’s narrative aligned with the findings of Appleton, Hall, and Hill (2011), and provides further insight into the significant role parents can play in predicting perfectionistic views related to athletics. Specifically, the 2011 study, as well as the results of this dissertation suggest that parents’ unattainable expectations combined with a lack of support may lead to the perfectionistic and ego-oriented motivation that can define the athletic experience for so many student athletes.
Limitations and Future Directions

Together, the findings from these two studies afford a more nuanced understanding of the sequential relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student athletes’ motivation orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics. Such understanding meaningfully contributes to the knowledge base in that it provides evidence of the contributions made by parents to the motivational outcomes of their children in the intercollegiate athletic setting. Despite this contribution, a critical analysis of this dissertation is important, as it has the potential to shape future research efforts examining the role of parents in intercollegiate athletics. As such, multiple limitations of these studies are acknowledged, each of which represent key limitations of the broader parenting and sport parenting literatures.

A major limitation of this dissertation lies in the homogeneity exhibited in the Study 1 sample. The hypothesized model was established to examine the nuanced relationships among perceived parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation orientation in intercollegiate athletics. However, due to the homogeneity that existed within the current sample, only authoritative parenting and mastery-focused motivational climates could be measured and tested as antecedents to student athletes’ motivation orientation. While fruitful findings still emerged, there were more questions than answers at the conclusion of the study. Future scholars interested in parenting style should use the findings from Study 2 to establish inductive categories of parenting style rather than the de facto typologies that are oftentimes used by Baumrind and her contemporaries. For instance, the findings reported in Study 2 suggest that
relationship quality might be an impactful predictor when looking at the parent-child relationship and its impact on student-athlete motivation orientation.

Future scholars should move away from the categories of parenting style and focus more on behavioral or other aspects of the parent-child relationship in order to be able to capture various aspects of the perceived parenting experience from the viewpoint of the child. The present study asked participating student athletes to select the parent that has been most involved in their athletic experience. While this question was meant to clearly identify a single parent and avoid the need for a family level analysis, it seems that the majority of the student athletes selected their mother. When examining these descriptive data, it became clear retrospectively that most student athletes were selecting the parent who was attending games, bringing them to practice, or the parent that was the most excited about the sport during their childhood. This may not be the best way to quantify the parent that was “most involved” or the parent that shaped student athletes’ motivational outcomes. Importantly, previous parenting literature suggests that mothers are more authoritative in nature (Baumrind, 2013), and this could explain the authoritativeness seen in the present study’s sample.

Another consideration when evaluating this dissertation is that data were cross-sectional (Study 1) and retrospective (Study 2). Literature in this area would benefit from future longitudinal work that might better assess the causal relationship among the variables of interest. Specifically, investigations could be designed to examine parenting styles during childhood, then follow up with an examination of parent-initiated motivational climates during adolescence, before ultimately examining student athletes’
motivational profiles during the intercollegiate years. This would allow for a sharper understanding of parent influences across the developmental spectrum of youth sport (see Côté, 1999), and provide scholars a window into how motivation orientation may change across important developmental milestones. Such work would provide time-sequenced information concerning the impact of parent influence on youth’s sport participation choices and experiences as well how parental behaviors shape athletic incentives and experiences. This would represent a key step in the design of intervention strategies for parents of NCAA student athletes (see Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b), and a possible way to enhance programming that already exists for intercollegiate administrators, coaches, and parents alike.

It is also important for readers of this dissertation to consider the study samples. Importantly, both studies were comprised of participants drawn from a two Division I institutions in the Western region of the U.S. Across these institutions, there are demographic norms that do not necessarily represent the whole of intercollegiate athletics. Specifically, both institutions have notably high proportions of white student athletes, and the overwhelming majority of the diversity on both campuses derives from the athletic programs. In reflecting on our sampling approach, it also became evident that the majority participating student athletes had parents that were involved in their intercollegiate lives, as well as parents who played a positive role in their athletic experiences. Within the extant sport science literature, there is robust evidence to suggest that continued parent involvement occurs across the intercollegiate setting (Côté, 1999; Dorsch et al., 2016a); however, it is also important to note that this parent involvement
does not always lead to positive outcomes for student athletes during the developmental transition to college. Future work should be designed to focus on the potential negative ramifications of certain parenting behaviors in order to better understand the true impact parents may have on the development and adoption of motivation orientation among NCAA student athletes. Additionally, in line with Mertens (2010), more work needs to be conducted with diverse samples of student athletes who represent a wide range of social, geographical, economic, and ability strata. There are many parenting behaviors and beliefs that would be influenced by the higher-order aspects of culture that undoubtedly influence parents’ and student athletes’ social indications.

An important delimitation of the present work is that both studies focus only on the impact of parents on athletes’ motivation during late adolescence and emerging adulthood. Admittedly, this a non-normative window of sport participation, as less than 4% of high school athletes continue to participate at the intercollegiate level (NCAA, 2016). This research therefore offers a limited understanding of parental influence during childhood and early adolescence, the most common developmental stages at which youth participate in sport. Multiple complementary studies or a large-scale developmental project addressing the time course of parent influence would provide a key extension to this dissertation, allowing scholars to better understand the developmental trajectories of parents and student athletes. Such work would allow scholars to draw more definitive conclusions about the direct and indirect impact(s) of parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate on student athletes’ motivation orientation in sport.

Admittedly, the development of motivation orientation is linked to a number of
other personal and family domains as well as the natural course of development itself. In the family literature, life course theory may offer an opportunity to tease out the contributions of parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate from other micro/mesosystems (e.g., coach and teammate influences). The life course perspective is characterized by several fundamental principles: (a) location, (b) timing, (c) heterogeneity among individuals, (d) social ties, (e) agency, and (f) past experiences (see Bengston, Elder, & Putney, 2005). In addressing these six factors, scholars interested in the role of parents in sport should focus on Elder’s (1998) concept of “linked lives.” Specifically, this could be done by examining the reciprocal impact of parents and student athletes on one another, a concept that would extend the work on “parent sport socialization” conducted by Dorsch et al. (2009, 2015).

An important extension of these dissertation studies will be to enhance existing programs related to intercollegiate motivation and parent involvement. The present studies highlight a relationship among parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation orientation. In drawing from the qualitative work, there is important thematic understanding that could help enhance existing programs. For example, there were many indications that student athletes still rely on their parents for financial, emotional, athletic, and academic support, and that they share a need to speak to their parents on a consistent basis (Dorsch et al., 2016a, 2016b). In most intercollegiate programs, there is a push for individuation for parents as support figures. This comes from a desire to have student athletes become more responsible and independent, but also to isolate the coach as the sole leader of the team. Practically speaking, therefore, it is
important for coaches to know that student athletes desire constant contact with their parents and that parents have the potential to serve as a great resource to student athletes during the college transition (Dorsch et al., 2016a). Said differently, a practitioner’s goal should not be to change parenting style, but rather to harness the already established parenting impact to help student athletes enhance their personal motivation on and off the field.

**Conclusion**

This two-study dissertation extends existing knowledge regarding the association of parenting style, parent-initiated motivational climate, and student-athlete motivation orientation in the context of intercollegiate athletics. Importantly, it also points to a number of potentially fruitful research paths or strategies. First, future research in this area should continue to consider how best to test theory-related influence processes (i.e., socialization, reinforcement, individuation) in sport. Doing so may help uncover alternative, and more nuanced, patterns of parent-related influence across a child’s athletic career. Specifically, because parents are seen as a primary source of competence information prior to adolescence, it may be beneficial for future researchers to consider the role of parent-initiated motivational climates during this developmental window. Indeed, it is plausible that student athletes’ motivation orientations are crystallized much earlier in development, and that peers and coaches, respectively, actually have a greater influence as youth move toward the more elite ranks.

A future research path to consider revolves around theories that might help
explain factors that could influence parenting styles and motivational climates. One potential theoretical framework is that of bioecological theory, or what has more recently become known as the process-person-context-time (or PPCT) model of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998; Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield, & Karnik, 2009). Employing this theoretical framework would open the possibility of examining additional contextual factors (e.g., athlete temperament, community sport ethic, university) that might influence (i.e., moderate) parents’ influence on student athletes’ motivation orientation in intercollegiate athletics.

The value in any scientific endeavor lies in its capacity to shed light on the multiple processes that occur in a specific social context thus producing interesting, important, or useful knowledge (Cronbach, 1975; Yardley, 2017). This two-study dissertation has drawn from the developmental, family, education, and sport psychology literatures, has incorporated qualitative and quantitative methodologies, and has employed multiple epistemological lenses to address parent influence on student athletes’ motivation orientation in intercollegiate sport. Taken together, seminal findings from both studies provide support for the sequential impact of parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate on student athletes’ motivation orientation within the context of intercollegiate athletics. Importantly, this dissertation highlights the need for continued interdisciplinary efforts to understand the parent-child relationship in sport. Such work will foster a more nuanced understanding of socialization processes, the family, and human development in meaningful family domain.


APPENDICES
Appendix A

Student-Athlete Questionnaire
Student-Athlete Questionnaire

Demographics

This portion of the survey is designed to collect information about you, your family, and your college academic and athletic career.

1. What is your age? ________

2. What is your biological Sex?
   a. Male
   b. Female

3. What is your gender identification?
   a. Male
   b. Female
   c. Other (Space provided to report)

4. Please select your race:
   a. American Indian / Alaskan Native
   b. Asian
   c. Black or African American
   d. White
   e. More than one race
   f. Unknown
   g. Other _______________________________

5. Are you an international student?
   a. Yes
   b. No

6. What NCAA sport(s) do you play?
   a. Basketball
   b. Cross Country
   c. Football
   d. Golf
   e. Gymnastics
   f. Soccer
   g. Softball
   h. Track & Filed
   i. Tennis
   j. Volleyball
7. In what college at USU is your degree program housed in? *Varied per University
   a. Caine college of the Arts
   b. College of Agriculture and Applied Sciences
   c. College of Engineering
   d. College of Humanities and Social Sciences
   e. College of Science
   f. Emma Eccles Jones College of Education & Human Services
   g. Jon M. Huntsman School of Business
   h. S.J. & Jessie E. Quinney College of Natural Resources

8. What is your mother’s highest level of education?
   a. Elementary
   b. Junior high/middle school
   c. Some high school
   d. High school graduate or GED
   e. Some college
   f. Associate degree
   g. Bachelor’s degree
   h. Master’s degree
   i. Professional degree
   j. Doctorate degree
   k. Other __________________________

9. What is your father’s highest level of education?
   a. Elementary
   b. Junior high/middle school
   c. Some high school
   d. High school graduate or GED
   e. Some college
   f. Associate degree
   g. Bachelor’s degree
   h. Master’s degree
   i. Professional degree
   j. Doctorate degree
   k. Other __________________________

10. What is your parent’s marital status?
    a. Married
    b. Never married
    c. Widowed
    d. Divorced
    e. Separated
    f. Other __________________________
11. What is your cumulative college GPA? (If you are a True Freshman, please estimate your first-semester GPA).

**Parenting Style**

Which of your parents has been most involved in your athletic career growing up?
- a. Mother
- b. Father
- c. Other (space provided to report)

*This portion of the survey includes comments about the general ways this parent interacted with you as a child. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each comment.*

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<td>2. I feel that my parent helped me to understand the impact of my behavior by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions.</td>
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<td>5. I feel that my parent gave me reasons why I should obey their rules.</td>
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<td>6. I feel that my parent explained to me how they felt about my good and bad behavior.</td>
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8. I feel that my parent encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with them.

9. I feel that my parent gave comfort and understanding when I was upset as a child.

10. I feel that my parent had warm and intimate times with me as a child.

11. I feel that my parent allowed me to give input into family rules.

12. I feel that my parent was responsive to my needs as feelings as a child.

13. I feel that my parent took my desires into account before asking me to do something.

14. I feel that my parent took my preferences into account when making plans for the family.

15. I feel that my parent grabbed me when I was disobedient.

16. I feel that my parent exploded in anger towards me as a child.

17. I feel that my parent used physical punishment as a way to discipline me as a child.

18. I feel that my parent spanked me when I was disobedient as a child.

19. I feel that my parent yelled or shouted at me when I misbehaved as a child.

20. I feel that my parent scolded or criticized me to make me improve as a child.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Almost Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Almost Always</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. I feel that my parent scolded or criticized me when my behavior didn’t meet their expectations.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I feel that my parent slapped me when I misbehaved as a child.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I feel that my parent said “because I said so,” or “I am the parent and I want you to,” when I asked them why I had to conform.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I feel that my parent threatened me with punishment more than actually giving it.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I feel that my parent stated punishments to me and did not actually do them.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I feel that my parent used threats as punishment with little or no justification.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I feel that my parent found it difficult to discipline me as a child.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I feel that my parent spoiled me as a child.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I feel that my parent gave into me when I caused a commotion about something.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I feel that my parent punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanation.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Took my desires into account before asking me to do something.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. I feel that my parent punished me by putting me off alone somewhere with little if any explanation.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate**

This portion of the survey includes comments about your relationship with the same parent in intercollegiate sport. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each comment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I feel that my parent is most satisfied when I learn something new</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel that my parent makes me worried about failing</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I feel that my parent looks satisfied when I win without effort</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I feel that my parent makes me worried about failing because it will appear negative in her eyes</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I feel that my parent pays special attention to whether I am improving my skills</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I feel that my parent says it is important for me to win without trying hard</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I feel that my parent makes sure that I learn one thing before teaching me another</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I feel that my parent thinks I should achieve a lot without much effort</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I feel that my parent believes enjoyment is very important in developing new skills</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I feel that my parent makes me feel badly when I can’t do as well as others</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I feel that my parent looks completely satisfied when I improve after hard effort</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I feel that my parent makes me</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I feel that my parent tells me I should be satisfied when I achieve without trying hard.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I feel that my parent approves of me enjoying myself when trying to learn new skills</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I feel that my parent supports my feeling of enjoyment to skill development</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I feel that my parent makes me worried about performing skills that I am not good at</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I feel that my parent looks completely satisfied when I improve after hard effort</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I feel that my parent tells me that making mistakes are part of learning</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Student-Athlete Motivation**

_This portion of the survey includes comments about your motivation in intercollegiate sport. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each comment._

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I feel most successful in sport when...</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am the only one who can do the play or skill</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can do better than my friends</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The others cannot do as well as me</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel most successful in sport when...</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I learn something that is fun to do</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Others mess up “and” I do not</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I learn a new skill by trying hard</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I work really hard</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I score the most points/goals/hits, etc</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Something I learn makes me want to go practice more</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I am the best</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. A skill I learn really feels right</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I do my very best</td>
<td>O O O O O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FOLLOW-UP OPPORTUNITY:**

Following this portion of the research, we will be looking for student athletes and parents to participate in follow-up interviews. These one-on-one interviews will focus on the ways in which the parents of student athletes have influenced student athletes’ motivation and athletic experiences. Interviews will be conducted over the phone, will take about 30-minutes, and everything disclosed will be kept confidential. Also student athletes and parents will each earn $20 for participation in this phase of the study.

By enter my name in the box below I am saying that I would be interested in participate in an interview with one of the researchers and know that my parent would be willing to participate as well. If you are not interested please leave blank.

Space for Name.
Appendix B

Qualitative Interview Protocol
Qualitative Interview Protocol

General Introduction

“Alright, we’ll get going now if you’re ready. I’d like to thank you for speaking with me today. I know schedules are hectic for everyone and I’d like to thank you in advance for sharing your thoughts and experiences with me.”

“Again, my name is Logan Lyons. My interest in conducting these interviews is to learn from NCAA student athletes about the relationship between parent involvement and student-athlete motivation in NCAA athletics. I am here to learn from you, and I want to hear your perspective on the state of parent involvement in intercollegiate athletics. You are encouraged to answer each question in any way that you feel is relevant and to share as much or as little as you’d like about each topic. I may interrupt to redirect the conversation or to ask you to restate a point, but remember, there are no right or wrong answers.”

“As a reminder, our conversation will be audio recorded and transcribed later once we return to the lab. The research team will treat the content of our conversation confidentially, and the results will be reported and published with no use of your name or identifying information. Members of the research team will be the only ones with access to the recording and its transcription, and we will not discuss your identity with anyone.

“You have the right to choose not to answer any question(s), and/or to withdraw from the interview at any point without penalty.”

“Do you have any questions before we start? (pause)

“If you’re ready to go, I’ll start the recorder…”

General Questions

1. How would you describe your parents?
   a. What is the quality of your relationship with your parents?
      i. How close are you to your parents?
      ii. What is your relationship like?
   b. Do you perceive your (mother/father) as overinvolved or underinvolved? How so?
   c. [Probe other follow-up questions that will be built off of the quantitative data analysis in Phase I]
2. What type of support did your parents provide throughout your athletic experiences?
   a. How has that level of involvement affected your athletic experience positively?
   b. Which type of support (emotional, athletic, academic, financial) do your parents typically provide during your intercollegiate experience?
   c. [Probe other follow-up questions that will be built off of the quantitative data analysis in Phase I]

3. What motivates you as an athlete?
   a. What aspects of your parent’s behavior have helped/hindered the development of your motivational style?
   b. Would you be a different athlete without the influence of your parents?
   c. How closely are your coaches coaching style to your parents parenting style?
   d. [Probe other follow-up questions that will be built off of the quantitative data analysis in Phase I.]
CURRICULUM VITAE

LOGAN KATUREYNA LYONS

2905 Old Main Hill
Logan, UT 84322
607-316-8750
logan.lyons@usu.edu

EDUCATION

Doctor of Philosophy
Human Development and Family Studies
Specialization: Families in Sport
Utah State University
Logan, UT 84322
Major Professor: Travis E. Dorsch, Ph.D.

Bachelor of Science
Psychology
Minor: Family and Human Development
Utah State University
Logan, UT 84322

TEACHING

Adjunct Professor
Utah State University, Logan, UT 84321

HDFS 1500: (3 Credits): 184 Students
Human Development Across the Lifespan

HDFS/PSY 3700: (3 Credits): 70 Students
Mental Health Advocacy and Awareness

HDFS 1500: (3 Credits): 180 Students
Human Development Across the Lifespan

USU 1010: (2 Credits): 31 Students
University Connections: Student-Athlete Section

HDFS/PSY 3700: (3 Credits): 75 Students
Mental Health Advocacy and Awareness
Graduate Instructor

HDFS 2400: (3 Credits) 85 Students  
*Marriage and Family Relationships*  
Spring 2019

USU 1010: (2 Credits) 31 Students  
*University Connections: Student-Athlete Section*  
Spring 2019

USU 1010: 25 Students  
*University Connections*  
Fall 2017

FCHD 4830: (3 Credits) 17 Students  
*Senior Capstone Project*  
Fall 2017

FCHD 1500: (3 Credits) 172 Students  
*Human Development Across the Lifespan*  
Spring 2017

FCHD 1500: (3 Credits) 112 Students  
*Human Development Across the Lifespan*  
Fall 2016

FCHD 1500: (3 Credits) 134 Students  
*Human Development Across the Lifespan*  
Spring 2016

Teaching Assistant  
Fall 2014 – Spring 2016

FCHD 1500: *Human Development Across the Lifespan*  
Utah State Concurrent Enrollment Broadcast Course  
Fall 2018

FCHD 1010: *Balancing Work and Family*  
Spring 2018

PEP 4000: *Sport and Performance Psychology*  
Spring 2015, Fall 2015, Spring 2016

FCHD 2660: *Parenting and Child Guidance*  
Fall 2015

FCHD 4230: *Family Consumer and Human Development Policies*  
Spring 2015

FCHD 1500: *Human Development Across the Lifespan*  
Fall 2014

Invited Academic Lectures

*Qualitative Methods & Application*  
HDFS 3130: Research Methods (QI)  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  
Fall 2019

*Relaxation Techniques in Sport*  
PEP 4000: Mental Aspects of Sport Performance  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  
Fall 2019
Qualitative Methods
HDFS 3130: Research Methods (QI)
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Applied Sport Psychology Practices in the Intercollegiate Setting
PEP 5700: Motivation in Sport, Physical Activity, and Recreation
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Physical Development in Early Childhood
HDFS 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Adolescent Socioemotional Development
HDFS 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan
Concurrent Enrollment
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Adolescent Identity and Important Influences
HDFS 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan
Concurrent Enrollment
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Physical Development in Early Childhood
HDFS 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Millennialhood
HDFS 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Emerging Adulthood
FCHD 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Professions in Sport Psychology
PEP 4000: Mental Aspects of Sport Performance
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Parenting the Emerging Adult
FCHD 7910: Parenting
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Parent Involvement in Athletic Settings (From Youth to Intercollegiate Settings)
PEP 6050: Graduate Sports Psychology
Utah State University, Logan, Utah

Middle-Childhood Cognitive Development
FCHD 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan
Utah State University, Logan Utah
Infancy: Physical Development and Language  
FCHD 1500: Human Development Across the Lifespan  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Fall 2016

Self-Determination Theory  
PEP 5700: Motivation in Sport, Physical Activity, and Recreation  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Fall 2016

Parent-Created Motivational Climates  
PEP 5700: Motivation in Sport, Physical Activity, and Recreation  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Spring 2016

Passion in the Athletic Context  
PEP 5700: Motivation in Sport, Physical Activity, and Recreation  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Spring 2016

Parental Impact on Youth Athletics  
PEP 4000: Mental Aspects of Sport Performance  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Spring 2016

Achievement Goal Theory  
PEP 4000: Mental Aspects of Sport Performance  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Fall 2015

Baumrind’s Parenting Styles  
FCHD 2660: Parenting and Child Guidance  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Fall 2015

Achievement Goal Theory & Self-Determination Theory  
PEP 4000: Mental Aspects of Sport Performance  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Fall 2015

Early Childhood Physical & Cognitive Development  
FCHD: 1500 Human Development Across the Lifespan  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Fall 2014

Invited Public Lectures

Mental Health & Developmental Disabilities: National Leadership Institute  
Center for Persons with Disabilities  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

May 2020

Parenting the Emerging Adult and Beyond  
Norther Utah Marriage Conference  
Weber State University, Ogden, Utah  

February 2017

Intercollegiate Burnout  
Student-Athlete Mental Wellness Presentation  
Utah State University, Logan, Utah  

Fall 2017
When Breath Becomes Air
Intro to Research and Careers
Cooperstown Central School, Cooperstown, New York

Fall 2017

Careers in Psychology
Intro to Psychology
Cooperstown Central School, Cooperstown, New York

Fall 2016

Parent Involvement in Youth Sport
Modified, Junior Varsity, Varsity Volleyball Parents
Mountain Crest High School, Hyrum, Utah

Fall 2016

Careers in Psychology & Other College Questions
Intro to Psychology Class
Cooperstown Central School, Cooperstown, New York

Fall 2015

Educational Curricula


Professional Development

Graduate Instructors Forum
Instructor: Troy E. Beckert, Ph.D
Spring 2019

Graduate Instructors Forum
Instructor: Troy E. Beckert, Ph.D
Fall 2017

Graduate Instructors Forum
Instructor: Troy E. Beckert, Ph.D
Spring 2017

Graduate Instructors Forum
Instructor: Elizabeth B. Fauth, Ph.D
Fall 2016

Graduate Instructors Forum
Instructor: Troy E. Beckert, Ph.D
Spring 2016

RESEARCH

Refereed Publications


College transitions for former high school athletes no longer engaged in varsity competition. *Identity,* 18, 18-33.


**Research under Review**


**Research in Progress**


Lyons, L. K., (in progress). Student-athlete perceptions of parental impact on motivation orientation in NCAA athletics

**Refereed Presentations**


Grant Proposals

Lyons, L. (June, 2017) Principal Investigator on an NCAA Graduate Student Research Grant titled: How far does the apple fall from the tree? Understanding the impact of global parenting style and parent-initiated motivational climate on student-athlete motivation (NCAA): Not funded, $7500.

Other Research Experiences

Project Participant Manager
ACT for Parents
Utah State University, Logan, Ut
Primary Investigator: Elizabeth Fauth, PhD.

Project Participant Manager
ACT for Caregivers
Utah State University, Logan Ut
Primary Investigator: Ty Aller, LMFT, PhD.
Graduate Research Assistant  Spring 2018-Present
*Mental Health Awareness and Advocacy: Evaluation of a College-Based Curriculum*
Utah State University, Logan Ut
Primary Investigator: Ty Aller, LMFT, PhD.

Graduate Research Assistant  Spring 2016-Fall 2017
*Promoting Positive Parent Involvement: Developing a Novel Online Education Module for Parents of NCAA Student athletes*
Families in Sport Lab, Utah State University, Logan, Ut
Primary Investigator: Travis Dorsch, PhD.

Graduate Research Assistant  Spring 2016- Fall 2017
*Renegotiating Identity: College transitions for former high school athletes no longer engaged in varsity competition*
Primary Investigator, Lydia Bell

Graduate Research Assistant  Summer 2014-Spring 2015
*Parent Involvement in Young Adult’s Intercollegiate Athletic Careers*
Primary Investigator: Travis Dorsch, PhD.

Undergraduate Research Assistant  Spring 2014
*Parent Involvement in Youth Sport*
Families in Sport Lab, Utah State University, Logan, Ut
Primary Investigator: Travis Dorsch, PhD.

**CONSULTING**

Utah State University Volleyball  Spring 2017- Spring 2020
Team Sport Psychology Consultant
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*
Head Coach: Grayson Dubois

Utah State University Soccer  Spring 2018
Team Sport Psychology Consultant
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Utah State Athletics Graduate Assistant  Spring 2017- Fall 2019
Intercollegiate Sport Psychology Consultant
*Utah State Athletic Department, Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Professional Supervision  Fall 2013-Present
Association of Applied Sport Psychology Certification
*Richard Gordin Ph.D.*

High School Team Implementation  2015-2016 Softball Season
*Box Elder, Softball Team, Brigham City*
Interim Sport Psychology Consultant  
*Utah State Athletic Department, Utah State University, Logan Utah*  
Fall 2014 & Spring 2015

High School Team Implementation  
*Skyview High School, Hockey Team, Logan Utah*  
2013-2014 Hockey Season

REACH Peer  
Counseling and Psychological Service Center  
*Utah State University, Logan, Utah*  
2013-2014 Academic Year

---

**SERVICE**

**Professional**

Peer Reviewer

- *Journal of Child and Family Studies*  
  Summer 2017
- *Journal of Amateur Sport*  
  Spring 2017
- *Journal of Child and Family Studies*  
  Fall 2016

**University**

Utah State Student-Athlete Wellness Board  
*Utah State Athletic Department, Utah State University, Logan Utah*  
Spring 2017- Fall 2019

Utah State Student Alumni Association  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*  
Fall 2011-2014

**College**

Utah State FCHD Graduate Student Representative  
Department of Family Consumer and Human Development  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*  
Fall 2015-Fall 2017

**Community**

Dance Teacher  
*Amber Perkins School of the Arts, Norwich, NY*  
May, June 2010-2014

Youth Basketball Coach  
*YMCA, Youth Basketball League, Norwich, NY*  
July 2011 & 2012

**AWARDS**

Most Influential People on Campus  
The Utah Statesman  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*  
Spring 2019
Graduate Student of the Month  
Department of Human Development and Family Studies  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Nominee for Woman of the Year  
Utah State University Student Association  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Legacy of Utah State Award  
Emma Eccles Jones College of Education and Human Services  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Legacy of Utah State Award  
Department of Human Development and Family Studies  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Graduate Enhancement Award  
Student Involvement and Leadership Center  
Utah State University, Logan Utah

Graduate Instructor of the Year  
Emma Eccles Jones College of Education and Human Services  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Graduate Instructor of the Year  
Department of Human Development and Family Studies  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Runner-up for Teacher of the Year  
Office of Researcher and Graduate Studies  
*Utah State University, Logan Utah*

Runner-up for Paper of the Year  
College Sport Research Institute  
*Spring 2017*

**PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS**

North American Society for the Psychology of Sport and Physical Activity  
Spring 2014-Present

Association for Applied Sport Psychology  
Spring 2014-Present

College Sport Research Institute  
Spring 2017