

Children's experience of youth sport: A case study.

Reon Sadiman

A thesis submitted to
Auckland University of Technology
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Sport and Exercise (MSPEx)

29 July 2017

Faculty of Health and Environmental Sciences

Primary Supervisor: Dr Simon Walters

Secondary Supervisor: Adrian Farnham

Abstract

It is widely recognized that sport can offer a range of health benefits for children, encompassing physical, social, emotional and psychological domains. Despite this, research both internationally and in New Zealand suggests that attrition rates for youth participating in sport after the age of 15 years are high. A range of reasons have been highlighted as to why children drop out of sport which include a lack of fun, limited playing time and perceptions of poor teaching or coaching, or pressure from parents. Parents and coaches have therefore been identified as key influencers whose actions and involvement can determine children's sporting experiences. The purpose of this qualitative descriptive case study was to explore children's (aged 7-13 years) experiences of sport within a New Zealand context. It was hoped that the information and experiences provided by the participants in this case study could be used to improve the experiences of children engaging in adult controlled sport in the future.

The focus of this instrumental case study were: a 12-week urban-based community led tag rugby programme; capturing the perspectives of children (aged 7-13 years) who participated in the programme; the perspectives of parents of these children who attended a 'culture change' educational workshop (a Good Sports community module); and researcher observations of both the sporting environment experienced by these children, and of the Good Sports community module delivered for the parents. A total of 14 children, and 4 parents were involved in focus group discussions (children) and individual interviews (parents). These focus groups and individual interviews were used to capture the perspectives of both children and parents' who were involved in the tag rugby programme and Good Sports community module. Self-determination theory provided the theoretical framework

for analysis, which revealed factors that either enhanced or undermined children's enjoyment of sport.

From the perspectives of children and parents who were involved in this case study it was discovered that in line with literature on children's sport, fun was the main reason these children played sport. However, some children did place some importance on winning. Findings from this case study suggest that the importance placed on winning may be a result of these children viewing the need to win and perform well as a means to make their family proud of them. The triangulated findings of this case study suggest that a child's ideal sporting environment should involve: freedom to socialise with friends and team-mates; equal game time for all; the opportunity to make their families proud; positive sideline comments to both teams playing; less emphasis on winning; and for parents to just be there and show a genuine interest in their sport participation.

Findings from this case study are not designed to be generalizable to a larger population, but in line with the purpose of an instrumental case study, it is argued that these findings can be used to facilitate insights for the reader to enable a deeper understanding of the phenomenon studied, which is to help determine what creates a positive sporting environment for children.

Table of contents

Attestation of Authorship.....	i
Acknowledgements.....	ii
Ethical Approval.....	iv
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Background	2
Context of the Research	6
Original study design: A single sports team	6
Modified study: A tag rugby community	7
Methodology	8
The Research Question and Purpose	9
Aims of the Research.....	9
Structure of Report	10
Chapter 2: Literature Review	12
Benefits of children's sport and the relationship with ongoing health.....	12
Self-determination theory (SDT).....	13
Sideline behaviour	19
Parental influences.....	23
Early specialisation versus early sampling	24
The coaches' influence	27
The impact of positive and negative adult behaviour on children	30

The media.....	33
Previous and current interventions with children’s sport	35
Children’s voice	39
Need for further research	40
Conclusion.....	41
Chapter 3: Methodology	43
Introduction	43
Research Paradigm	43
Research Position.....	44
Researcher Background	45
Research Methodology	47
Methods.....	49
Research design.....	49
Participants.....	50
Data collection.....	51
Focus groups.....	51
Parent interviews.....	52
Observations and field notes.....	53
Data analysis	53
Familiarisation with data	54
Initial coding.....	54

Searching for themes.....	54
Reviewing themes.....	55
Defining and naming themes.....	55
Producing the report.....	56
Ethical Considerations	56
Consultation	56
Informed and voluntary consent.....	57
Confidentiality and anonymity.....	58
Minimisation of risk	59
Avoidance of conflict of interest.....	60
Treaty of Waitangi.....	60
Partnership.....	60
Participation.....	61
Protection.....	61
Rigour and Trustworthiness	62
Summary	64
Chapter 4: Findings.....	66
The perspectives of children	68
Having fun	68
“Because your family members will be proud of you”	70
We just want to have a run	71

The impact of parent comments: “Be a little nicer!”	73
The perspectives of parents.....	77
Sport – a vehicle for personal development	77
The value of winning	79
We enjoy it just as much as our children do.....	81
Insider researcher field notes	82
Observations of the tag rugby programme	83
Observations of Good Sports Community Module	84
Conclusion.....	86
Chapter 5: Discussion	88
The perspectives of children	88
Having fun	88
“Because your family members will be proud of you”	91
We just want to have a run	94
The impact of parent comments: “Be a little nicer!”	96
The perspectives of parents.....	98
Sport – a vehicle for personal development	99
The value of winning	102
We enjoy it as much as our children do	106
Insider researcher field notes	107
Observations of Good Sports Community Module	108

Chapter 6: Conclusion.....	110
Recommendations	111
Limitations	111
References	114
Appendices	126

Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except when explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), or material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signed



Reon Sadiman

Acknowledgements

I would first like to thank Aktive Auckland Sport and Recreation and Sport Coaching Research Group, SPRINZ, AUT University for a research grant that made conducting this case study possible. Whilst this process was long and often complicated at times, I received unwavering support throughout, and gained a lot of ‘real-world’ experience.

To my supervisors, Simon Walters and Adrian Farnham who I kept busy at times, I could not have asked for a better duo. The timing over this thesis may not have been the best on multiple occasions, but you both made it work. The insights you both shared not only shaped this case study but also me as a person. After every supervisor meeting I left with – renewed clarity, enthusiasm to write, and a few laughs too.

Simon, if it wasn’t for you I would not have undertaken this research. From supervising my co-op in the BSR to this moment now it has been a journey of ups and downs but none the less an absolute pleasure. Your knowledge, experience and support have been quite an asset to me over this process. You have nurtured my brain more than I will ever know, and instilled in me the value of looking deeper and asking ‘why’ questions.

Adrian, you came on board late but I feel have added so much in that time. A second set of eyes has been very useful for me, and I have enjoyed listening to your insights. You have done this all whilst conducting your own research and I commend you on that, and wish you all the best with your study too.

To Sandi Hackett, Norelle, and Carlene, thank you for the opportunity to work with you and your guidance along the way.

To my family, thank you for allowing me the freedom to type and pursue this study. I appreciate all the support. However, the gratitude should not stop there. Many more thanks are necessary for all the times you have; cheered me on from the sideline; taken me to sports practices and games; and for just being there.

To Dick Armstrong, my favourite football coach. As I sit here writing about children's experiences of sport I would be mistaken to not acknowledge you. At an age where many children stop playing sport I was enjoying it the most.

This thesis is about children and their experiences of sport. I would also like to thank the children who participated in this case study.

Ethical Approval

Ethical approval was gained from Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEK) on 13 May 2016, ethics application number: 16/99 (Appendix A).

Chapter 1: Introduction

This qualitative descriptive case study explores children's (aged 7-13 years) experiences of sport within a New Zealand context. Historically, children's involvement in research has been marginalised due to their perceived lack of capability and competence, and until relatively recently their perspectives were not seen to hold value or deemed to be credible (Carter, 2009). However, over the past decade it has been recognised that children's views and perspectives provide valuable insights into the social systems they are a part of—such as families and schools (Graham & Fitzgerald, 2010). This case study was informed by the work of Stake (1995) and utilised a range of data collection methods. As noted by Stake (1995), a case study is typically bound by time and place to provide context for the phenomenon being studied. The foci of this instrumental case study were: a 12-week urban-based community led tag rugby programme; capturing the perspectives of children (aged 7-13 years) who participated in the programme; the perspectives of parents of these children who attended a 'culture change' educational workshop (a Good Sports community module); and researcher observations of both the sporting environment experienced by these children, and of the Good Sports community module delivered for the parents. A total of 14 children, and 4 parents were involved in focus group discussions (children) and individual interviews (parents). These focus groups and individual interviews were used to capture the perspectives of both children and parents who were involved in the tag rugby programme and Good Sports community module. Once all relevant data was collected, self-determination theory was used to provide the theoretical framework for analysis, which revealed factors that either enhanced or undermined children's enjoyment of sport.

Background

It is widely recognized that sport can offer a range of health benefits for children, including physical (Bailey, Wellard, & Dismore, 2004), social (Burrows & McCormack, 2011), and psychological (Mutrie & Parfitt, 1998). Sport can have a positive impact on children's ongoing health and well-being, and even set a platform for engaging in healthy activities in adulthood (Kuh, Ben-Shlomo, Lynch, Hall, & Power, 2003). Despite this, research both internationally and in New Zealand indicates high attrition rates from sport among youth after the age of 15 years (Sport New Zealand, 2012; Woods, 2007). A range of reasons have been highlighted as to why children drop out of sport which include a lack of fun, parent pressures (Stein, Raedeke, & Glenn, 1999), limited playing time and poor teaching or coaching (Chambers, 1991; Seefeldt, Ewing, & Walk, 1992). More recently, Woods (2007) in discussing reasons for dropout rates among children, makes mention of the negative experiences associated with participation in sport which include verbal abuse and exclusion through elitism, and draws attention to the sporting environment created for children.

The positive and negative effects that are associated with children's sport do not result from participation per se but from the nature and quality of the sport experience (Woods, 2007). Parental support (Byrne, 1993), and involvement (Humbert et al., 2006) has been identified as having a significant impact on children's ongoing participation, actual performance, and perception of their sporting experience. Inadequate support or parental over-involvement can provide the catalyst for a more negative experience of sport for children. Only by understanding, establishing, and maintaining an appropriate degree of involvement will parents provide positive sport experiences for their children (Stein et al., 1999). Coaches can

also strongly influence children's sporting experience and personal development beyond sport (Stirling, 2013). The way in which a coach approaches the coaching of their players is important to their long term development as a person, both on and off the sports field. In more recent times there has been an increasing focus on moving away from a traditional coach-centred approach towards a more athlete-centred or humanistic philosophy. This athlete-centred philosophy looks to empower the athlete giving them more control, and emphasizes athlete development over an over-riding focus on results, outcome and winning (Kidman, 2005).

The actions of adults at children's sports games are often sensationalised by the media. Although these incidents that are reported through the media are extreme and infrequent, they nevertheless do exist (Walters, 2011). A number of interventions have been implemented internationally, the English Football Association (FA) respect programme (The Football Association, 2008), and Positive Coaching Alliance (PCA) in the US (Agans, Ettekal, & Slack, 2016). In New Zealand there are also concerns in relation to how these adult behaviours affect children's experiences of sport (Fagan, 2015). As a result of these concerns there have been a number of interventions introduced – Let Kids Be Kids (McAllen, 2015) and 'Be part of the team' (Taipari, 2014) within New Zealand, one of which is a programme called Good Sports.

The Good Sports programme is a Sport New Zealand funded initiative seeking to promote a culture change in children's sport, aiming to enhance the experiences of all children (ages 7-13) participating in organised sport. The programme was designed and is being implemented by Aktive Auckland Sport and Recreation (Aktive). Aktive is a key strategic partner of Sport New Zealand, and established as a charitable trust committed to helping people and communities across

Auckland to achieve sporting habits for life. Active has a particular focus on school-aged children and low-participation communities. The Good Sports programme is currently operating a 3-year pilot study in a large urban area of New Zealand. If perceived to be successful, then the initiative will potentially be rolled out in some format nationwide (Active Auckland Sport and Recreation, 2016). This case study is part of the overall evaluation of the programme. Specifically, this case study is designed to capture the experiences of children in an environment where parents and key adult influencers—coaches, sport leaders, administrators, and teachers—have participated in a Good Sports community module.

The Good Sports programme

Good Sports is a culture change programme designed to encourage adult awareness of how to promote positive sporting experiences for children by supporting and educating the key adult influencers in children's sport: parents, coaches, teachers, and sport administrators. The Good Sports programme utilises an approach in which lead 'trainers' run two-day 'developer' modules to train Good Sports developers. These developers then deliver community modules to, for example, parents and coaches in their own communities. These modules are designed to promote greater adult awareness of why children play sport, and what they value from the experience. Although there are examples of a number of similar initiatives worldwide (for example see the English Football Association's 'FA Respect' programme (The Football Association, 2008)), what would appear to make the initiative in New Zealand unique is that the programme is underpinned by educational research, and aims to create awareness of how adults learn and think, and ultimately modify their own behaviour. The training of the developers is underpinned by Transformative Learning Theory (Mezirow, 1978).

Transformative Learning Theory refers to the process of promoting behaviour change in adults. This process utilises stories, situations and questions that surprise and disorient – provoking an emotional reaction (Taylor, 2009). Mezirow (1978) outlines the ten phases a person goes through when involved in Transformative Learning; beginning with a ‘disorientating dilemma’. The notion of a ‘disorientating dilemma’ is taken from research into Transformative Learning in adults (Taylor, 2009), describing an experience that ‘can serve as a catalyst’ for critical reflection upon one’s assumptions. The next step involves a self-examination of one’s own feelings, followed by a critical self-assessment of their own world view or assumptions. Once they recognise their own feelings and the reasons for those feelings, then new roles, relationships, and actions are explored. A course of action is then planned, supplemented by acquisition of new knowledge. New roles are provisionally trialled to build competence and self-confidence. Finally, the model supports the process of reintegration into one’s life, often dictated by one’s own perspective. Using this model, developers are basically introduced to a framework that gets adult participants to: emotionally connect with a story (for example, a powerful story of a child who is excluded from sport in some way); to identify with their own feelings about the story (they may be angry with the coach/parent, or feel sorry for the child); to then critically reflect on why coaches or parents behave the way they do; to reflect on their own behaviours (do they identify with these behaviours in some way?); and to finally consider how behaviours could be modified in the future to bring about more positive experiences for the child. The success of this approach very much relies upon stories that are relatable to the audience.

Good Sports developers then go out into their communities to run community modules using this Transformative Learning Theory approach in an attempt to elicit

small changes in people's perspectives. Developers are encouraged to facilitate a community module designed to act as a safe space for parents and coaches to reflect and discuss issues relevant to creating positive sporting experiences for their children.

Context of the Research

Original study design: A single sports team

The Good Sports programme was piloted throughout eight areas within a large urban area of New Zealand spanning geographic areas, 'sportsville' models, and primary school sports clusters. The original research design was to be a pre- and post-evaluation of the effectiveness of the Good Sports programme as delivered in one of the eight community settings. The researcher was to be embedded within a sports team throughout the duration of their season as an insider researcher (Costley, Elliott, & Gibbs, 2010), observing the sporting environment, and collecting field note observations. The criteria for this team's selection into this original case study required the participating children to be between the ages of 7-13 years, and for their parents and the coach of the team to attend a Good Sports community module during the season. The role of the research was to examine the influence of the Good Sports programme on the experiences of children, and on the behaviour of significant adults (parent and coaches) in the immediate sport setting.

The research design included focus group interviews with the children at the beginning of the season and once again at the end of the season. The community module was planned to be held within two weeks after the initial focus group

interviews, in order to provide sufficient time to allow any potential changes in the children's sporting environment to develop and be subsequently evaluated.

Unfortunately, due to a range of unforeseen factors the planned research design had to be substantially altered. The initial sample clusters invited to participate (two schools) fell through twice, predominantly due to the ensuing challenges for the Good Sports Project Manager in securing school participation which aligned with the timing of the school sporting calendar. Eventually, a new cluster was identified and recruited for this case study. However, the facilities (sports grounds) for the tag rugby programme were withdrawn and this research was put on hold for a third time. At a later date the sports facilities were eventually secured, however, further delays in the delivery of the Good Sports community module necessitated a reconsideration of the study design, and although a pre- and post-Good Sports module evaluation was not possible due to this delay, it was decided—through consultation with the project manager—that there was still value in capturing the experiences of children in relation to their perspectives on sport, and in using the case study to evaluate some of the challenges associated with delivering Good Sports in a specific community. The Good Sports community module was still delivered to parents in the tag rugby programme, but occurred during the final weeks of the module. The modified case study, therefore, still captures the perspectives of parents relating to the Good Sports module, but the timing of the module meant that no pre- and post-module evaluation was possible.

Modified study: A tag rugby community

This case study was eventually embedded within a 12-week tag rugby programme delivered within a community initiative. Tag rugby, is a non-contact team game in which each player wears a belt that has two velcro tags attached to it,

or shorts with velcro patches. The mode of play is similar to rugby league with attacking players attempting to dodge, evade and pass a rugby ball while defenders attempt to prevent them scoring by ‘tagging’ – pulling a velcro attached tag from the carrier. This was a community led sports initiative in a low tertile decile area that sought to engage a concentrated Māori/Pasifika community in the surrounding area (Good Sports Project Manager, personal communication, September 9, 2016). The Ministry of Education (2008) defines a school’s decile as:

[...] the extent to which it draws its students from low socio-economic communities. Decile 1 schools are the 10% of schools with the highest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities. Decile 10 schools are the 10% of schools with the lowest proportion of these students.

The researcher was still embedded within the tag rugby programme as an insider researcher (Costley et al., 2010), collecting observations and field notes of the children’s sporting environment for each week of the 12-week tag rugby programme. The case study now that was ultimately decided on included observations of children participating in a tag rugby programme; focus group interviews with these children; observations of parents at a Good Sports community module (to see how the Good Sports messages resonated with them); and interviews with selected parents.

Methodology

A qualitative approach was seen as the best way to investigate the experiences and motivation of children in relation to their sporting experiences, and a qualitative descriptive methodology informed by the work of Sandelowski (2000) guided the research. A case study approach was used as the research aims to uncover

what can be learnt about a single case (Schram, 2006), which is bound by space and time (Stake, 1995). In this case, children's experiences of sport in a community exposed to the Good Sports initiative created the boundaries for the subsequent case study. The flexibility of a case study allowed the researcher to still proceed with the research even though there were delays and complications. This qualitative descriptive case study also draws upon self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000) as a guiding framework. SDT informed the collection and analysis of data in this study by providing a lens with a specific focus on the meeting of children's basic psychological needs: competency, autonomy, and relatedness.

The Research Question and Purpose

The research question for this qualitative descriptive case study was: What creates a positive sporting experience for children?

The purpose of this study was to capture the perspectives of both children and parents who were involved in a community tag rugby programme where the parents had participated in a Good Sports community module. It is hoped that the information and experiences provided by the participants can be used to inform future initiatives designed to enhance the experiences of children engaging in adult controlled sport.

Aims of the Research

The aims of this case study were:

- To capture the perspectives of children participating in organised sport, and provide them with the opportunity to have their voice heard.

- To capture parents' perspectives on how the Good Sports messaging resonated with them.
- To investigate and examine what is important to children when they are taking part in sport.
- To gain a deeper understanding of how children's motivational needs are met through sport.
- To provide recommendations for parents, guardians, coaches, managers, and other stakeholders on how to create optimal sporting experiences for children.
- To highlight the process of conducting research and working with a community, and assist future researchers or organisations looking to undertake a similar task.

Structure of Report

Chapter two presents a literature review related to the area of the children's sporting environments. The chapter begins with an overview of the benefits of children's sport and the relationship between sport and health. Subsequent themes examined in the literature review include: self-determination theory (SDT); sideline behaviour; parental influences; early specialisation versus developmental model of sport; the influence of coaches; the impact of positive and negative adult behaviour on children; the role and influence of the media; a brief overview of previous and current positive behaviour interventions is included, and a brief review of research that has considered children's voice.

Chapter three outlines the methodology and the philosophical underpinnings used in this case study. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the research paradigm utilised, provides the reader with the research position and researcher background, and introduces the case study methodology adopted. The chapter also

discusses self-determination theory and how it was incorporated into the research design. The chapter moves on to discuss the research process: research design, participants, data collection, and data analysis. Finally, the ethical considerations are discussed, followed by considerations related to the Treaty of Waitangi, and the concepts of rigour and trustworthiness in relation to this case study.

Chapter four presents the results of the case study. Each theme is highlighted staying true to the participants' own words. This chapter is made up of seven main themes in relation to children's experiences of sport. Four of these themes were derived from the perspectives of the children: 1) having fun; 2) family pride; 3) we just want to have a run; and 4) the impact of parent comments: "Be a little nicer!". The other three themes emerged from the perspectives of the parents: 5) sport – a vehicle for personal development; 6) the value of winning; and 7) we enjoy it just as much as our children do. Self-determination theory is then used to discuss each theme in relation to the three basic needs; competence, autonomy, and relatedness. The insider researcher approach utilised in the case study is also discussed and highlights the theme of cultural quotient when working with communities.

Chapter five includes an in depth discussion about the main findings of the case study, related to relevant literature.

Chapter six concludes the thesis, with limitations, implications, and future recommendations for study identified and discussed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This review will examine literature from a range of topics that are of relevance to the way children experience sport. Although this current study focuses on children (ages 7 to 13 years) experiences of sport, literature which relates to youth sport (defined for the purpose of this thesis as young people aged between 13 to 18 years) will be included where relevant. It is known that sport can have both a positive and negative effect on a child's health and well-being. The topics covered in this review include; the benefits of sport and the effect it has on ongoing health; a background understanding of self-determination theory (SDT); the issue of sideline behaviour in literature; the influence that parents have on children in relation to sport; early specialisation versus early sampling model of sport; the coaches' influence on children; the impact of positive and negative adult behaviour on children; the role and influence of the media; and a concise overview of previous and current positive behaviour interventions that have been carried out – both within New Zealand and internationally; and a brief review of research that has considered children's voices.

Benefits of children's sport and the relationship with ongoing health

Participation in sport can offer a range of health benefits for children. At an age when they are constantly learning and growing, developing healthy lifestyle habits at this stage in life can set a platform for ongoing healthy activities in adulthood (Kuh et al., 2003). It has been suggested by Bergeron (2007) that there are three dominant domains of health; these are physical, social, and psychological health. Physical health benefits include: weight management, lowering the risk of heart disease and diabetes, and motor skill development (Bailey et al., 2004).

Burrows and McCormack (2011) present findings that show social health benefits in sport to be just as important as physical benefits, especially for young girls, with socialising and being with friends identified as the dominant motive for female sport participation. Mutrie and Parfitt (1998) identify a strong positive association between youth/children's sport participation and good psychological well-being. Evidence presented by these authors would appear to suggest a clear link between youth participation in sport, and positive health outcomes. However, concerns have been expressed about declining youth participation rates in sport (Thomson, 2000), and the possible role adult behaviour plays in this (Gould, Lauer, Roman, & Pierce, 2005).

Sport can have many benefits on children's ongoing health, therefore it would seem to be important to facilitate an environment that nurtures this. The study that I will be conducting recognises the importance of sport on children's ongoing health, and aims to gain a greater understanding of the relationship between the environment of sport and the way children experience it. This review of related literature examines the influence of adult involvement in children's sport, with a particular focus on the behaviour of parents and coaches, and the impact that these behaviours have on children participating in sport. To help guide the framework for this research self-determination theory (SDT) will be used. SDT is a motivation theory frequently used within the field of research surrounding children's sport. The next section will focus on clarifying SDT and provide a range of examples used in research within this context.

Self-determination theory (SDT)

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a motivational theory originating from the work of Deci and Ryan (1985) and helps to provide an understanding of why people

initiate and persist in behaviours (Berghe, Vansteenkiste, Cardon, Kirk, & Haerens, 2014; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). It is a macro-theory of human motivation, meaning it looks at the large scale social systems and environment that affect people's level of motivation, and as such SDT is increasingly being used to better understand motivation in sport and physical activity (Weiss & Amorose, 2008). In SDT it is suggested that people are naturally self-motivated, interested in activities they find enjoyable, and are motivated to master their social environment (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Three basic psychological needs underpin SDT, the need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness. The need for competence refers to the perception of our own behaviour as being effective, and that we have adequate ability to perform a task. The need for autonomy refers to the perception that we have control of our own actions. Finally, relatedness represents our need to feel secure, and have a sense of belonging or connection to others (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Research using SDT by Ryan and Deci (2002) has shown that satisfaction of each of these three basic psychological needs in sport contexts is associated with enhanced engagement, performance, and well-being. Coaching and parent behaviours can either undermine and thwart a person's intrinsic motivation, or support it. Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, and Thøgersen-Ntoumanis (2011) identified the concept of needs thwarting, which relates to actions that actually thwart the fulfillment of psychological needs during a person's interactions with the sport environment. This can often lead to negative consequences for health and well-being (e.g. low levels of vitality, and high levels of emotional and physical exhaustion). There are therefore, from a motivational aspect, two processes that can be identified and examined within a sporting environment: (1) how a child's

psychological needs are met and supported; and (2) how the actions of significant others (e.g., coaches and parents) can actually thwart a child's needs.

According to SDT there are three different forms of motivation. The first form is intrinsic motivation, where a person performs an activity purely for the enjoyment of the activity in the absence of any external regulators. The second, extrinsic motivation, is where a person performs an activity for an external benefit or as a means to an ends, for example every time you score a goal you get five dollars. The last form is amotivation, where the purpose for a person undertaking an activity is unknown, and the individual does not perceive any possibilities or relationship between their actions and the outcomes of their actions. When athletes are in such a state, they no longer identify any good reasons for continuing to train, and may even decide to stop practicing their sport (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Gillet, Vallerand, Amoura, and Baldes (2010) identify intrinsic motivation as being the most powerful form of motivation, as the athlete participates in the sport for themselves, regardless of any external benefit or reward.

Extrinsic motivation comes from external sources. Deci and Ryan (1985) discuss the internalisation of external motivators, and explain the different ways extrinsically motivated behaviour can be regulated. Extrinsic motivation can be present in different forms and contexts in which they come about (Deci & Ryan, 1985). It is this context of such motivation that concerns the SDT theory as these contexts can affect whether a child's motivation to play sport is internalised and so integrated into their sense of self. Deci and Ryan (1985) describe four different types of extrinsic motivations that often vary in terms of their relative autonomy. Externally regulated behaviour is the least autonomous and is performed because of external demand or possible reward. Introjected regulation of behaviour describes

taking on regulations to behaviour but not fully accepting said regulations as their own. This is the kind of behaviour where people may feel motivated to demonstrate ability to maintain self-worth. While this is internally driven, introjected behaviour does not come from one's self and is thus considered non-self determined. Regulation through identification is a more autonomously driven form of extrinsic motivation. It involves consciously valuing a goal or regulation so that said action is accepted as personally important. Lastly, integrated regulation is the most autonomous kind of extrinsic motivation. This occurs when regulations are fully assimilated with self so they are included in a person's self evaluations and beliefs on personal needs. Integrated regulation share qualities with intrinsic motivation but are still classified as extrinsic because the goals that are trying to be achieved are for reasons extrinsic to the self, rather than inherent enjoyment or interest in the task (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

It has been argued within the sport psychology literature (Berghe et al., 2014), that SDT can be used to better understand the reasons why children stop participating or stay on and persevere in sports. Studies have found that high levels of amotivation and low levels of intrinsic motivation were predictive of an athlete's intentions to dropout of sport (Calvo, Cervello, Jimenez, Iglesias, & Murcia, 2010; Sarrazin, Vallerand, Guillet, Pelletier, & Cury, 2002). These types of motivation showed a strong relationship with low levels of feelings of relatedness and autonomy. These findings are similar to those by Deci and Ryan (2000), who found that when people are put in situations that inhibit their sense of autonomy, competence, or relatedness, they may in turn experience poorer intrinsic motivation, performance, and senses of well-being. Calvo et al. (2010) advocate that an emphasis

should be made to nurture an athlete's intrinsic and self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation to facilitate their continued participation in sport.

It is not uncommon to see SDT being used in research with children. A study by Yang (2015) looked at the effects of participation in a summer sports camp on 'at-risk' boys, and used SDT as a framework to guide the collection and analysis of data. The study examined changes in motivational and physical measures among one hundred at-risk boys in a summer sports camp. The boys were aged between 10-13 years, and participated in a three week camp session. These participants also completed two questionnaires, and a pre and post-camp intervention endurance activity. A Psychological Needs Perception Questionnaire (PNPQ) was used to assess the boys' perceptions of the three psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness). A Behavioural Regulation in Exercise Questionnaire (BREQ-2) was also used, consisting of five motivational regulations: intrinsic, identified, introjected, external, and amotivated (Markland & Tobin, 2004). Results revealed that amotivation increased and intrinsic regulation decreased across the camp session. The boys' endurance performance did not significantly change across the camp period. The findings suggested that a more camper-centred programme allowing choice, and de-emphasizing competition may promote increased motivation and physical performance (Yang, 2015). These findings are relevant to my study as it looks to explore the theme of motivation in relation to children participating in organised sport in more depth by gaining children's perspectives surrounding these issues, and reinforce the importance of children's needs and what they have to say in relation to their participation in sport. Importantly, this study by Yang (2015) suggests that children would benefit most from being given a choice, and less importance being placed on competition.

Another study that incorporated SDT was one conducted by Beattie (2014) who looked at the influences on attrition (dropout) in school rowing in New Zealand. Seven participants aged 16 to 18 years of age were involved in the study which included semi-structured interviews where the participants discussed their experiences of rowing. SDT was used as the framework for analysis within the research, aiming to uncover factors that enhanced and undermined forms of athlete motivation. Findings confirmed the influence that coaches, peers, and parents had on the participants' involvement in rowing. These significant others were both positive and negative influences on the rowers, and had an impact on their experiences and motivation. Analysis of the transcripts revealed three main themes in relation to why these participants dropped out of rowing. These were; why we row, the influence of the coach, and adolescents and weight loss. These three main themes were examined in relation to how they affected the participants' psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness, and their influence on dropout. Each of the three themes were also broken down into four sub themes for why adolescents row: the rowing family, the feel of the boat, I love it but still dropped out, and effort versus results. Comparisons in the way data was analysed can be made between this case study and the study by Yang (2015), as participants perceived levels of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are similarly used to guide both the analysis and collection of data. These studies lend a potential blue print for the possible use of SDT within this field of research, and provide a means of analysis involving SDT that has been used effectively in research. These studies are relevant to the research I will be undertaking as they show real world examples of how the social environment can either nurture or impede a person's needs (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003).

The findings from the study by Yang (2015) reinforce the benefits of an athlete-centred philosophy (Kidman, 2005), which advocates a coach-teacher leadership style that caters to the athletes' needs and understandings. This athlete-centred philosophy enables the athlete to have some control over their learning and to have more control over their participation in sport, and encourages an autonomy supportive environment (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Yang (2015) also alludes to recommendations for future research made by Berghe et al. (2014) who presented an overview of a large number of studies that have used SDT as a lens through which motivational dynamics within school physical education can be understood. These particular recommendations for future studies describe elements which influence situations that promote or inhibit the satisfaction of a person's need for autonomy, competence, or relatedness. One element that has been identified as a factor in influencing athlete motivation is the behaviour of adults at children's training sessions and games.

Sideline behaviour

The importance of spectators at sports games can boost morale for athletes by way of chants and cheers (Parker, 2005). However, the practice of inappropriate sideline behaviour can often have a negative effect on athletes causing distractions and embarrassment, especially for young athletes (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004). This issue of inappropriate sideline behaviour has been highlighted in the literature. A New Zealand study by Kidman, McKenzie, and McKenzie (1999) observed and recorded parenting behaviour during children's sport competitions. A systematic Parent Observation Instrument for Sports Events (POISE) was used to observe 250 parents during 147 games from 7 different team sports. The teams comprised of both female and male children aged between 6-12 years. The study concluded that a

considerable number of the comments made from the sideline by parents were negative. Kidman et al. (1999) suggested the need for ongoing research into the effects of parental verbal behaviours, together with the search for an appropriate intervention to alleviate negative verbal behaviours. The results from this study give rise to some concern as perceived parental pressures to perform well have been associated with decreased enjoyment, and subsequent dropout (Brustad, 1988). The significance of this research in terms of my study is that it has identified a problematic attitude exhibited by sideline spectators in New Zealand, in this instance namely parents. This reveals a potential gap in the research that my study will help to fill, as little research has been undertaken on why some parents exhibit such behaviours in and around their child's sporting environments.

In the context of New Zealand specific research, Walters, Schluter, Oldham, Thomson, and Payne (2012) examined coach behaviour from the sideline, and later drew upon children's voices. A cross-sectional observational study was conducted on children's team sport coaches to observe coach behaviour from four main sports; netball, rugby, soccer, and touch rugby. Over the course of one season (20 games per sport, 80 in total), 10,697 coach comments were observed and recorded. These comments were categorised as positive, negative, or neutral. A breakdown of the nature of comments made by coaches revealed the most common type of comment was neutral (43.0%), followed by positive (35.4%), and negative (21.6%). This data revealed that over one in every five comments made by coaches in all sports was negative. A further breakdown of these comments by sport revealed that rugby union coaches had the highest percentage of negative comments and lowest percentage of positive comments out of all the sports. This ratio of negative comments exhibited by coaches is less likely to promote a positive environment for children (Randall,

1992), and more likely induce feelings of resentment, which has been a factor identified as contributing to children withdrawing from sport (Smoll & Smith, 2006). Another area of concern identified in relation to the findings by Walters et al. (2012) was in the breakdown of the neutral comments. A significant percentage of neutral comments were classified as ‘instructional’ in nature (96%). Although instruction in itself has not been identified as psychologically damaging to athletes, high rates of instruction have been argued to reflect a command-centred style of coaching that is not athlete-centred, and is more focused on outcomes and results than on athlete development (Walters et al., 2012).

The POISE is an established valid and reliable instrument that has been used to measure adult behaviour at children’s sporting events in previous studies. Kidman et al. (1999) adapted and utilised POISE to collect data on specifically parents’ behaviours at their children’s sporting events, and subsequently Blom and Drane (2008) used the POISE to observe parental behaviour in children’s sport in the United States. Walters et al. (2012) adapted this earlier intent of POISE to include the collection of data from both parents and coaches. Walters et al. (2012) use of POISE involved the researcher covertly observing adult behaviour, in order to avoid the Hawthorne effect. The Hawthorne effect is a commonly acknowledged phenomenon where a study subject’s behaviour alters as a result of the subject being made aware that they are being observed (Eckmanns, Bessert, Behnke, Gastmeier, & Rüdén, 2006). In summary, the findings of both observational studies conducted in New Zealand to date with parents (Kidman et al., 1999) and coaches (Walters et al., 2012) raised cause for concern with adult sideline behaviour.

Internationally, a study in Canada by Holt, Tamminen, Black, Sehn, and Wall (2008) offered new insights into parental involvement in children’s sport. Interviews

were conducted with 16 people from four families (four fathers, four mothers, eight children) to find out: values associated with sport, parents' and children's behaviours during sporting events, ways in which parents responded to the child doing something well or badly, and memorable incidents associated with children's sport. These interviews were supplemented with observations of youth soccer in the 10-14 year age range at indoor soccer centres in the same Western Canadian city where the families resided. Parents' verbal reactions were divided into six concepts on a continuum from 'more supportive comments' to 'more controlling comments'. More supportive comments were made up of praise/encouragement (35%), and performance contingent feedback (5%). Neutral comments included instruction (35%), and striking a balance (10%). The more controlling concepts were negative comments (10%), and derogatory comments (5%). The study also discovered that parents felt feelings of empathy with their children which they showed by sharing the emotions their children felt in sport, and these emotions appeared to change in relation to dynamic game and contextual circumstances. Furthermore, an interesting discovery alluded to by these researchers was that where parents thought that they possessed knowledge of and expertise in sport, they then perceived that this enabled them to make comments to their children.

A limitation of the instruments used to examine sideline behaviour has been due to different interpretation. This can be seen by the work of Kidman et al. (1999), and Blom and Drane (2008) who in their studies both classified instructional comments as negative, as they argued that from an athlete-centred coaching perspective telling children what to do takes away from the decision making process of the athlete, and inhibits their learning. However, Walters et al. (2012) categorised instructional comments as neutral. The rationale for adapting this was made after

drawing upon previous research on the benefits of effective instruction by Smoll and Smith (2006), who point out that instruction in itself is neither negative nor positive, and skilled instruction can enhance athletic potential. Walters, Payne, Schluter, and Thomson (2015) acknowledged that over-use of instructions can be problematic from an athlete-centred coaching perspective, and the high rates of instruction offered is not conducive to creating an autonomy-supportive climate for children. However, the categorisation of negative comments in their study related to verbal behaviours that were aggressive, critical, or scolding in nature. This may pose potential challenges for researchers looking to conduct observations in this field, as there may be multiple interpretations as to what is meant by an adult's words or actions in and around children's sporting environment.

Parental influences

As examples from literature and the media illustrate, parents are a dominant influencer in their children's lives, as they are often involved in taking their children to and from games and practices. It has been suggested that children's sport has become increasingly adult controlled and regulated (Coakley, Hallinan, Jackson, & Mewett, 2009), with adults involved in various significant roles such as coaching, supporting, and the organising of games. Parents play many important roles in organised children's sport programmes, although the impact they have is not always a positive one (Gould et al., 2005). Parents can have an influence on a child's motivation to play sport and their subsequent enjoyment. This is illustrated by Brustad, Babkes, and Smith (2001) who showed that the feedback and behaviour of a parent has an effect on how long a child stays involved in a particular sport, as well as how they perceive their own abilities. A later study by Omli, LaVoi, and Wiese-Bjornstal (2008) pointed out that the emotional bond shared between a parent and

child, combined with the element of competition, may in part explain why some parents engage in inappropriate sideline behaviour. Parental involvement in sport can be intense, as they provide emotional support, cheerleading, coaching, equipment, transport, and fees (Green & Chalip, 1998). Furthermore, it has been suggested by Hellstedt (1988) that it is possible for parents to become too involved and invested emotionally in their child's sporting activities. This extreme involvement can not only lead to parents placing unrealistic expectations on children, but also setting unrealistic performance goals as well that can cause children to stop enjoying sport due to the pressures to perform, and ultimately leading them to withdraw from playing.

Conversely, it has been shown by a range of studies that not enough involvement by parents can also lead to less desirable outcomes. A study on competitive swimmers aged between 6 to 17 years conducted by Power and Woolger (1994) reported a significant relationship between parental support and a child's enthusiasm for their sport. They found that the children in their study were heavily dependent on parental involvement, and concluded that children with less motivated parents would not participate in sport. This study's findings support the theory by Hellstedt (1987), who suggested that under-involved parents do not provide enough support to facilitate a child's desire to participate in sport. The key finding in relation to parental influences is that the most important aspect is not involvement per se, rather it is the level of parental involvement, as research shows that parents tend to either become more controlling or disengaged as their child moves into adolescence.

Early specialisation versus early sampling

The Developmental Model of Sport Participation (Côté, Baker, & Abernethy, 2007; Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007) provides a comprehensive framework that

outlines different pathways of sport involvement in childhood. The Model of Early Sport Development by Côté et al. (2007) shows that there are two proven pathways from childhood to elite sport participation – the early specialisation route, and the early sampling model advocated by Côté, Lidor, and Hackfort (2009). These two pathways are underpinned by opposing elements – the early specialisation route believes in deliberate practice, where an individual engages in repetitive performance of intended cognitive or psychomotor skills (Duvivier et al., 2011). In contrast the early sampling model believes in participation in deliberate play defined by Côté and Vierimaa (2014) as unstructured play activities that are intrinsically motivating, designed to maximise fun and enjoyment, and provide immediate gratification.

The early specialisation pathway is characterised by a high volume of deliberate practice and a low amount of deliberate play in a single sport and focuses on performance. Several authors support early specialisation as a suitable path toward elite performance (Ward, Hodges, Williams, & Starkes, 2004), and some people still support recommendations made by Ericsson (2003) of early specialisation in one particular sport for 10,000 hours of deliberate practice (Helsen, Hodges, Winckel, & Starkes, 2001). This was based on the research of Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Römer (1993) whose study of musicians and deliberate practice found that most experts began training at 5 years of age. Ericsson et al. (1993) concluded that if training did not begin early enough, late beginners would be unable to catch up to peers who began specialised training earlier. A criticism of applying this theory by Ericsson et al. (1993) to a sporting context is that this research focused on musicians, and although similarities may exist, in essence they are different contexts.

The concept of early specialisation has some merit in selected sports where peak performance occurs at a younger age such as gymnastics and figure skating, and early specialisation may be a requirement for expert-level performance (Baker, 2003). However, whilst there is some association between early specialisation and expertise development, it could be argued that the physical and psychosocial costs of early specialisation outweigh any of the positive developmental consequences for engaging in early intensive training (i.e. deliberate practice) in a single sport (Baker, Coble, & Fraser-Thomas, 2009). Côté et al. (2009) highlight that this early specialisation route can have costs of overuse injuries (Law, Côté, & Ericsson, 2007), burnout (Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Loehr, 1996), and dropout (Wall & Côté, 2007).

The alternative pathway—early sampling during childhood—involves exposing children at young ages to a broad range of sports, and allowing them to engage in deliberate play. By partaking in a variety of sports children are allowed to experience a number of different physical, cognitive, and social environments. The multiple abilities acquired through participating in various sports during childhood provide children with the foundational physical, personal, and mental skills required to go on and specialise in one sport during adolescence if they desire (Schmidt & Wrisberg, 2000). Sampling various sports allows children to experience different social interactions with peers and adults, further developing a child's emotional and social skills that can have a positive effect on them if they decide to specialise in the future (Côté et al., 2009).

Côté et al. (2009) compared the benefits of early specialisation with sampling of a range of sports during childhood. They noted that most studies of elite athletes identified that exposing athletes to a broad range of sports not only had a

long term beneficial effect on athlete development, but exposure to such a broad range of sports was often more enjoyable for children. Consequently, early specialisation was described as intensive, which could lead to boredom, and burnout or withdrawal from sport. Recommendations made by Côté et al. (2009) suggest that children who enjoyed their experiences of sport in childhood were not only exposed to psychological benefits, but also early enjoyment of sport has been linked with continued participation in sport as children grow older.

The coaches' influence

Although parents play a significant role in children's sporting experiences, coaches have also been identified as having a major influence on a child's sporting experience and personal development beyond sport (Stirling, 2013). Results from a survey in Quebec, Canada, showed that 96% of children surveyed felt that their coach was more important in influencing their behaviour, than their teachers (65%), or parents (55%) (LeBlanc & Dickson, 1996). Bartholomew et al. (2011) pointed out that the influences that a coach presents do not always have a positive effect. Poor coaching practices (for example, placing the outcome of competition above the physical and emotional welfare of players, or using fear and humiliation as a 'teaching' tool) have been described by athletes, both young and old, as demotivating and distracting, and they can have the potential to lead to dropout from sport as children move into adolescence (Gearity & Murray, 2011). Previous research has shown that emotionally abusive behaviour by coaches in sport is also prevalent, and often normalized as a necessary way to attain successful athletic performance (Gervis & Dunn, 2004). This behaviour has a strong association with the win-at-all-costs mentality for coaches and also parents, which Schuette (2001) believed eventually filters down to the children themselves, i.e., children eventually

start to identify with the notion that winning is of paramount importance and enjoyment.

Multiple authors in this field of study have come to the conclusion that children are often less interested in the concept of winning, and in turn placing an overemphasis on competition and winning can have a negative influence on children (Kidman & Lombardo, 2010; Sport New Zealand, 2012; Walters, 2011; Yang, 2015). Indeed a study in New Zealand conducted by Burrows and McCormack (2011) which investigated women's views and experiences of sport found that young women between 15 to 17 years of age were less interested in winning and competition as motives for participating in sport. Those interviewed placed the importance of having fun, the opportunity to socialise, and the chance to excel above the thrill of winning. For some young women, competitive sport can be a 'turn-off', making them anxious about their ability and reluctant to take part (Burrows & McCormack, 2011). This finding is important as it relates directly to a person's feelings of competence, one of the three psychological needs that underpin SDT. As discussed earlier within the review, competence relates to a person's perception and belief that they have adequate ability (Deci & Ryan, 2000). As research suggests this psychological need is supported or thwarted depending upon a child's sporting environment, and the behaviours of their coach (Bartholomew et al., 2011).

The way in which a coach approaches teaching their players is important to their long term development as a person, both on and off the sports field. In more recent times there has been an increasing focus on coaching underpinned by a more athlete centred philosophy (Kidman, 2005). This philosophy is based around the concept of promoting a sense of belonging, and letting athletes have a role in the decision making process, thus giving the athlete more control. It is this control that is

seen to allow the athlete to grow in a way that best suits them. This relationship allows the athlete to have a voice, and fosters trust between a coach and their player(s). The ultimate aim of an athlete-centred approach is to empower athletes to learn through discovery, and allow athletes to take some ownership of their training and actions (Penney & Kidman, 2014). There are also positive implications from the coaches' perspective too, as McMahon and Zehntner (2014) contend that it enables coaches to work alongside an athlete, in a socially collaborative manner which can result in increased player engagement, competence, and motivation. In contrast, Kidman (2005) describes the traditional and dominant coach-centred approach as controlling and often disempowering, due to the coach wanting to achieve their own objectives which are usually results based.

An athlete-centred coaching approach challenges the traditional coach-centred philosophy that is still exhibited by many coaches today (Kidman, 2005), by encouraging a shift away from the win-at-all cost mentality and replacing it with a greater focus on player development. Kidman and Lombardo (2010) advocate for coaches to move away from a coaching style dominated by instruction, and use more questions to encourage athletes to problem solve and become less coach-dependant. Beattie (2014) discovered that when coaches engaged in an athlete-centred approach, by for example involving the athletes in decision making, the athletes sense of autonomy was enhanced and subsequently their motivation increased. Athlete-centred coaching has also been linked with longer-term participation in sport (Kidman, 2005).

This athlete-centred coaching approach is central to creating an autonomy-supportive environment for children playing sport. Coaches can either exhibit a more autonomy-supportive coaching style which helps children to identify, nurture, or

develop their intrinsic motivation or exhibit more of a controlling coaching style that pressures children to think, feel, or behave a specific way (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Research by Oliver, Markland, Hardy, and Petherick (2008) compared the effects of autonomy-supportive versus controlling environments and found that controlling styles were seen to undermine a child's enjoyment, and intrinsic motivation, whilst autonomy-supportive styles have been associated with enhanced performance and persistence, more in-depth information processing, and greater well-being in children. The behaviours that form an autonomy-supportive coaching style include: providing children with as much choice as possible within specific limits and rules; providing rationale for tasks, limits, and rules; allowing children the opportunities to take initiatives and do independent work; providing non-controlling feedback; avoiding overt control and criticism; and preventing any ego-involvement from taking place (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Together, these behaviours represent an autonomy-supportive environment, and show how important a coaches' influence can be.

The coaches' influence is strengthened by the fact that they are often perceived as role models, they are looked up to by their athletes giving them an abundance of power, and making their actions all the more important. It would seem to be vital that in order to create an autonomy-supportive climate, coaches move to follow the advice of Kidman and Lombardo (2010) and move away from a coach-centred approach, as the impact on an athlete is often less than ideal. However, just as easily as they have the power to demotivate athletes, they can also impact their athletes in a positive way.

The impact of positive and negative adult behaviour on children

In contrast to inappropriate adult behaviour in children's sport, good sideline behaviour, positive parental involvement, and positive coaching practices can aid in skill development (Smoll & Smith, 2006), reinforce feelings of self-confidence (Hamstra, Cherubini, & Swanik, 2002), and lead to ongoing involvement in sport (Ullrich-French & Smith, 2006). Creating positive sporting environments for children is therefore an important issue. This concept is not new. Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1979) describe a positive sporting environment as one where the coach encourages their players after mistakes, rewards effort, and facilitates participation in sport as a learning experience to help children develop their abilities. Nevertheless, evidence shows a dropout rate of approximately 70% of youth participating in sports in the US after the age of 13 years (Woods, 2007); this is a significant number of children who stop playing sport for one reason or another. Similar dropout rates have been reported in New Zealand, where findings from the 2011 Sport New Zealand's Young People's Survey (YPS) conducted by Sport New Zealand (2012) found a common trend amongst those surveyed which showed once a student reached 15 years of age they participated in less sport, and expressed lower levels of enjoyment of sport. Seefeldt et al. (1992) studied reasons for children dropping out of sport programmes, and the leading reasons were: no longer interested in sport, it was no longer fun, the coach played favourites or was a poor teacher, and a desire to participate in other activities. Other reasons also include: lack of playing time, dislike of the coach, and too much competition (Chambers, 1991). Although children drop out of sports for a range of reasons (Gould, 1987), Woods (2007) mentions negative experiences as the predominant reason for dropout.

The positive and negative effects that are associated with children's sport do not result from participation per se but from the nature of the sport experience. The

quality of adult leadership has been shown to be an important feature in determining the nature of a child's sporting experience (Byrne, 1993). As Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986) suggest, parental support can have an impact on children's participation and performance in sport. Indeed early research has made the link between parental support and encouragement, and a child's initial enrolment in extracurricular activities. A survey by Spreitzer and Snyder (1976) of 264 adults positively correlated parental encouragement and support with sports participation in childhood.

Parent involvement is strongly linked to adolescent participation in sport, through providing support in various ways such as transport, paying fees, and giving encouragement (Humbert et al., 2006). In the study on New Zealand school aged rowers by Beattie (2014), participants acknowledged that parent support did not go unnoticed, and saw this parental involvement as key to feeling part of a "rowing family" (p. 48), and a sense of relatedness to their parents. Participants discussed being able to grasp the value of what their parents got out of their involvement in sport. While the participants really appreciated the parental support, they did not like it when parents got over involved in crew selections or put too much emphasis on performance outcomes. Similarly, some of the participants interviewed in a study by Fraser-Thomas and Côté (2009) spoke of developing a close bond with their parents through the early morning car rides to training and experiencing the highs and the lows of their sport with them. This close bond that develops can fulfil a child's need for feelings of relatedness with their parents, which is an important contributing factor to explain why people continue to take part in activities like sport (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Findings reported by Anderson, Funk, Elliot, and Smith (2003) support earlier research that shows that adults play an important role in a child's experience of extracurricular activities. Encouragement and allowing children to make some of their own decisions regarding which activities to participate in can contribute to children enjoying their activities, which is an important indicator for ongoing participation. Fraser-Thomas, Côté, and Deakin (2008) believe that a good relationship between a parent and their child is one that promotes choice for the child, and the parent supports the child's decisions. This often leads to parents having children who stay physically active and remain engaged in sport. By developing these good relationships in sport between parents and coaches, parents and players, and coaches and players, Petitpas, Cornelius, and Van Raalte (2008) argue that children will experience a more positive personal experience through sport. This is important for my study, as an aim of this study is to allow the children involved the opportunity to voice their experiences, and offer their perspective. They will be able to provide an insight into what they feel entails a good relationship between both a player and coach, and a player and their parent(s). This will also provide children involved with my study the opportunity to discuss what factors they believe impact on creating a good relationship with a coach or parent.

The media

The actions of adults at children's sports games are often sensationalised in the media, although these incidents that are reported through the media can be extreme albeit they are infrequent. However, a brief examination of recent media coverage makes it apparent that inappropriate behaviour by adults does exist. In an incident at a junior-grade (6-8 years of age) rugby match in New Zealand, the game was stopped early when a parent of one of the players reportedly 'manhandled' a

child from the opposition team. According to reports, the child's parents rushed onto the field and more parents soon followed (Radio New Zealand, 2015). In Brisbane, Australia, spectators at an under-12s soccer match were locked out from attending a rematch after a game was called off due to an outbreak of fighting by spectators (Bita, 2014). In Canada an under-10s minor hockey league in Vancouver is warning parents that it will ban spectators if they continue to verbally abuse referees, players and coaches (Keller, 2015). Although the majority of parents do not engage in this sort of excessive behaviour, these examples illustrate how episodes such as these can ruin a child's experience and have a negative effect, which could ultimately cause children to dropout of sport (Petlichkoff, 1993). This is not only a problem solely exhibited by parents as similarly extreme cases involving coaches exist in the media too.

It is not difficult to find examples of inappropriate behaviour by coaches on the sideline. By way of illustration Bita (2014) reported an incident in Brisbane, Australia where a coach at an under-13s soccer match was accused of king hitting (punching someone so hard they get knocked out) and then head-butting a parent from the rival team who told him to tone down his swearing. Furthermore, in Seattle, United States (US) a coach and a parent from an opposition team got into a violent altercation, which resulted in the coach and parent being removed from the under-12s football league (Swaby, 2014). Another extreme case of inappropriate coaching behaviour occurred in Vancouver, Canada in 2013 where a coach was jailed for 15 days after purposely tripping an opposing player at an under-10s ice hockey game (Keller, 2015). These extreme events reported in the media at children's sports events have heightened awareness of the issues, and have contributed to the introduction of interventions.

It is events like these highlighted in the media that have prompted action from people calling for a change with regard to behaviour on the sideline. One simple New Zealand message to ‘Let Kids Be Kids’ has resonated across the world with requests from Australia, America, Ireland, Sweden, Argentina, and Syria to join the call to take action against aggressive parents at junior sports (Fagan, 2015). This underlines the need for not only intervention but also further research into the area of children’s sport both in New Zealand and internationally. Let Kids Be Kids is a campaign to create awareness for parents around appropriate behaviour on the sideline at children’s sports matches. The campaign initiated by Rene Naufahu involves a series of educational videos based on players’ experiences of sideline abuse. These videos include supportive appearances from players from the All Blacks, Silver Ferns, and the national Manu Samoa rugby team. The initiative is about helping kids to love sports, an issue that resonates with many New Zealanders (McAllen, 2015).

Previous and current interventions with children’s sport

The development of interventions to influence a positive change in the environment that children play sport in is nothing new. Many interventions exist that aim to address the issue of poor sideline behaviour in New Zealand; the New Zealand Rugby Union’s (NZRU) ‘Applaud’ programme (Field, 2013), the tv/web campaign ‘Let Kids Be Kids’ (McAllen, 2015), and Sport Hawke’s Bay’s campaign ‘Be Part Of The Team’ (Taipari, 2014), to name a few. Internationally, the English Football Association (FA) Respect programme is one of the most internationally well-known interventions aimed at improving child, youth, and adult experiences in sport. The FA Respect programme is intended to raise awareness and standards in the affiliated game within the United Kingdom. The FA ‘Your game, Your say, Our

goal' 2008-2012 strategic framework highlighted the statistic that 7,000 referees drop out each season due to abuse from players and spectators. Stemming the loss of referees due to negative experiences is one of the two main desired outcomes for the FA Respect programme. The second is to improve the standard of behaviour of spectators, including parents, and thus reduce bullying and verbal abuse experienced by children at youth and children's football games (The Football Association, 2008).

The FA Respect programme was piloted for ten weeks in 2008 among a number of leagues within the national game at under-10, under-16, and open-age level. Three different interventions were tested at the matches: designated spectator areas, codes of conduct with sanctions, and only the captain being allowed to talk to the referee. External evaluation of the pilot was undertaken by Brackenridge, Pitchford, and Wilson (2009), which included semi-structured interviews to benchmark the attitudes of key stakeholders (referees, spectators, players, and coaches). To provide richer explanations of their experiences of the pilot project, longitudinal data was used from week-by-week online surveys of behaviour assessments by referees, and intermittent longitudinal data from face-to-face and telephone interviews with a sample of key stakeholders during weeks one, five and ten. Participants reported on a total of 583 matches and the key finding was that out of the three interventions, having designated spectator areas was the most popular among all stakeholders, being regarded as a safety improvement and an improvement in sight lines for all. The idea of signing up to a code of conduct was well received but thought to require some reinforcement, particularly with consequences if codes were broken. Having only captains speaking to the referee was welcomed with only a few reservations, mainly about whether under-10 captains could cope with the responsibility.

Although the overall picture from the research looks very positive, it would appear that there are a few reasons why caution should be exercised when interpreting these results. Firstly, insufficient responses were received during the benchmarking semi-structured interviews for any meaningful analysis. Without strong benchmarking data at the start of a programme intervention, it is difficult to know whether any changes can be attributed to the intervention or to some other cause. Secondly, there was also considerable drop off in the number of people completing the on-line surveys towards the end of the pilot. The purposive selection of experimental teams – whose leagues volunteered and selected them for the pilot – may have produced a positive skew or Hawthorne Effect (Eckmanns et al., 2006). Finally, there was an absence of data from women and girls. No female teams appeared in the experimental sample, and the limited number of female survey respondents meant that no gender analysis could be conducted. Due to this pilot study some amendments for the 2008-09 season were made. These included; codes of conduct which were promoted for all players, spectators/parents, managers, and referees, with clear sanctions. Captains took more responsibility for managing their players, and there was a drive to enhance referees' match management skills in order to enhance their effectiveness. The FA Respect programme was then rolled out across all levels of football in the United Kingdom, and once again evaluated externally by Brackenridge and Pitchford (2009).

As can be seen, the FA Respect programme used academics for evaluating their intervention. However, it would appear that there are currently a limited amount of interventions that have included the involvement of academics and been underpinned by research in the design, or implementation process. One such intervention that has involved the use of academics throughout was a study by Smith

et al. (1979). In this study, Smith et al. (1979) developed and assessed an experimental training programme called the Coach Effectiveness Training programme (CET). This programme was designed to enhance the ability of Little League Baseball coaches to relate more effectively with their players. The initial sample consisted of 34 Seattle-area male Little League Baseball coaches. All of the coaches were involved with coaching players aged between 10 to 15 years. Eighteen coaches were randomly assigned to an experimental group, thirteen were assigned to a no-treatment control group, and three were lost due to team mergers or changes in residence. The mean age of the coaches was 36 years old, and coaches had an average of eight years coaching experience. The coaches in the experimental group were exposed to a preseason training programme designed to assist them in relating more effectively to children. Behavioural guidelines were presented and modelled, and behavioural feedback and self-monitoring was used to enhance self-awareness and to encourage compliance with guidelines. Trained coaches were evaluated more positively by their players, and a higher level of intra-team attraction was found on their teams despite the fact that they did not differ from controls in won-lost record. Those children that played for the trained coaches exhibited a significant increase in general self-esteem compared with scores obtained a year earlier – whereas control group children did not.

Most interventions have been largely behaviourist in design, where the focus is predominantly around targeting changes in a person's behaviour (Weegar & Pacis, 2012). However, the Good Sports intervention that my study is embedded within aims to encourage people to think more deeply about the issues related to children's sport. This approach focuses on promoting deeper thinking, with the philosophy that as a person's thinking changes, so too does their behaviour (Fosnot, 1996).

Constructivist approaches are about developing a deeper understanding, and view learning as a search for meaning (Kumar, 2006). This approach guides problem solving and learning, which helps to develop new perspectives, whereas, it has been argued that a behaviourist approach ignores the role of mental processes altogether (Weegar & Pacis, 2012). This is an area that, to my knowledge, is unexplored in research on this topic of children's sport to date. This case study, therefore, is part of an evaluation of a programme underpinned by Transformative Learning Theory, and has the potential to add to the existing body of knowledge.

After examination of the literature related to this topic it becomes apparent that little has been done—to rigorously draw upon research to plan, implement and evaluate an intervention—since the study by Smith et al. (1979), over 30 years ago. My research will aim in a small way to bridge this gap and provide a relevant insight into what creates a positive sporting experience for children engaging in adult controlled sport.

Children's voice

Historically, the views of children have held little value in societies, although the perspectives of children are increasingly being acknowledged as legitimate, valuable, and a basic human right (Lansdown, 2011). In spite of this, it has previously been claimed that children have traditionally been marginalised in research, as some experts in the field of developmental psychology often perceive children as less competent than adults (Morrow & Richards, 1996). This perception seems counterintuitive, as it would appear to be important that the views of children themselves be taken into consideration for a truly athlete-centred model of sport to materialize.

One such study that investigates the views of children is a New Zealand study by Walters et al. (2015) that centred around gaining a better understanding of how the behaviour of coaches and parents affect children. Walters et al. (2015) conducted 8 focus group interviews with a total of 30 children (16 boys, 14 girls) aged between 6-11 years of age, drawing upon children's views of sport. The children were divided into 4 groups of 6-9 participants by age (6-8 years, and 9-11 years), and location (urban school, and rural school), and each group of participants were involved in two focus group interviews. The first focus group was kept simple, with children asked what they liked and disliked about their sport. These likes and dislikes were then explored further. In the second focus group for each of the groups, the children were specifically asked to identify what they liked and disliked about the coaching and parental behaviours they had observed or experienced.

Much can be taken away from this study when working with children, and seeking their perspectives and opinions. From the over-recruitment methods utilised (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, & Robson, 2001), to the way the researcher tried to avoid influencing the children by asking questions that did not lead the children into giving answers that the researcher wanted to hear. My study will aim to build upon the research of Walters et al. (2015) by gaining a wider view of children's perspectives about their sporting experiences before and after a Good Sports intervention, and utilise SDT to delve deeper into children's own motivations for engaging and persisting in sports. This will allow children to have an important role in shaping key aspects of an intervention that largely targets and impacts on their sporting environment, and subsequent enjoyment.

Need for further research

There has been past research in this area of adult controlled sport that has looked at the perceptions of children in relation to the behaviour of adults purely on the sideline at sports games. However, little research looks at the wider context of a child's sporting environment away from the field of play. This proposed study will give a voice to children aged between 7-13 years who participate in adult controlled sport, enabling them to share their own feelings and experiences related to adult behaviour on, off, and around the field of play. This will allow an insight into the perceptions of those that are most affected by adult behaviour, the children. With more insight comes more knowledge that can potentially be used to inform future programmes and interventions that can create a more positive sporting environment for children in New Zealand.

Conclusion

Involvement in sport can be positive for children's ongoing physical, social, and psychological health, but only if an autonomy-supportive environment is created by significant adults. These significant adults are predominantly made up of coaches and parents, who play an important role in helping to develop each of the three basic psychological needs underpinned in SDT: competence, autonomy, and relatedness. It is understood that the facilitation of these needs indicate a greater likelihood for a person to persist in sport, and have greater levels of intrinsic motivation. Recent research recommends a move away from a coach-centred approach, towards an athlete-centred coaching approach which is seen as a better way to facilitate a child's development, and enjoyment of sport. Whilst the media highlight issues of poor sideline behaviour at children's sporting games, and the negative impacts that it can have on a child's enjoyment of sport, interventions that look to curb these poor

behaviours are seen to be in effect across the sporting codes. However, the majority of these interventions are behaviourist in nature, and my study will look to explore how a constructivist approach can influence the way significant adults think about, and engage in children's sport.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

This section will examine the methodological framework and the philosophical underpinnings of this case study. A description of the research design is included, outlining the specific procedures followed throughout the research process, including participant recruitment, data gathering, and analysis of the data collected. Attention is given to a range of ethical principles, and the strategies used to minimise potential risks are presented alongside considerations related to the Treaty of Waitangi. Lastly, issues concerning rigour will also be discussed, specifically relating to notions of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability related to qualitative research.

Research Paradigm

This qualitative descriptive case study is situated within a post-positivist paradigm. Ritchie and Lewis (2014) state that from a post-positivist perspective there is an acknowledgement that multiple realities exist, and that our view of the world is constructed by our own perceptions and observations of the environment around us. From a post-positivist perspective people often experience similar situations but interpret them in various different ways. The methods adopted in this case study were accordingly designed to have congruence within a post-positivist perspective, creating space for each participant in the study to share their own individual views and experiences, and their perspectives of the meaning of their sporting environment.

Research Position

The ontological aspect commonly referred to as a person's 'worldview' has a significant influence on qualitative research (Giddings & Grant, 2002). How a person perceives the importance of aspects of their reality is directly influenced by their own worldview, and there are many possible worldviews a person can have (Greene, 1994). These different ways of seeing the world can influence how a person experiences events in their life (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). The ontological position of this proposed research, concerned with the nature of the world will be informed by subtle realism. Blaikie (2007) describes subtle realism as knowing an external reality exists but only through the socially constructed meanings that people have.

Qualitative research is not only driven by a researcher's ontology but also their epistemological position. Epistemology refers to how we come to know what we know (Maxwell, 2011). For a researcher conducting a qualitative study Ritchie and Lewis (2014) refer to the process of inductive logic, where knowledge is built from the bottom up through observations of the world. This inductive approach formed the epistemological position for the research process adopted in this case study. Through the use of this inductive process evidence was first collected, and knowledge and theories subsequently built from this.

It is important at this stage to acknowledge my own position and worldview, especially in relation to children's sport.

Researcher Background

When using qualitative research methods there is a need for researchers to maintain a level of transparency throughout the research process, and equally endeavour to remain neutral and objective (Guba & Lincoln, 1982). In order to be transparent it is recommended that researchers conducting a qualitative case study provide context about their own personal experiences, and are open about the perceptions and assumptions they bring to their study (Morrow, 2005). I am a sport and recreation graduate from AUT, and am interested in sport and recreation generally but have a keen interest in children's experiences of sport. Through the research I have conducted at both undergraduate and postgraduate level, and through personal experiences and observations, I believe that children can gain a lot from their experiences of participating in organised sport. I have spent time as a student teacher at a secondary school, and have experience coaching secondary school basketball. This prior experience of engaging with students in a school and sporting competition setting was beneficial in assisting me in my roles as an insider researcher within a more unfamiliar environment. My role in this case study was to elicit a deeper understanding of the experiences of children in a community where the Good Sports programme was being delivered. I was interested in exploring the subsequent impact of Good Sports on a group of children involved in playing sport.

Due to the participatory approach of this research (Costley et al., 2010), where the researcher was embedded in a tag rugby programme in a low decile area having frequent interactions with participants, the issue of reflexivity was considered. Reflexivity is an attitude of attending systematically to the context of knowledge construction, especially to the effect of the researcher (Malterud, 2001). This consideration for reflexivity is important, as the perspective or position of the

researcher shapes all research, and in turn different researchers will approach a study situation from various different positions or perspectives. In other words, the researcher is someone who extracts knowledge from observations and conversations with others and then transmits that knowledge to an audience. Based on the stance he or she assumes in relation to the observations and conversations they are implicated in the construction of knowledge. This understanding of reflexivity acknowledges the implications and significance of the researcher's choices as both observer and writer (Bryman, 2004).

A number of steps were followed to foster reflexivity, and adhere to a reflexive research design. A reflexive journal was kept by the researcher, as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985). This is a type of journal where regular entries are made by the researcher during the research process. In these entries, the researcher records methodological decisions and the reasons for them, the logistics of the study, and any reflections upon what is happening in terms of one's own values and interests. Along with this reflexive diary, the research included regular meetings with experienced research supervisors. These meetings fostered dialogue, lead to the development of the researcher's understanding of a study situation, and provided context in which the researchers' – often hidden – beliefs, values, perspectives and assumptions were revealed and contested (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). The dangers of subjective assumptions were explicitly discussed in these meetings. Consequently, this resulted in a more conscious attempt to be as objective as possible in observation recordings throughout the research process.

Research Methodology

In this research, case study was used as the methodological framework and the design was informed primarily by Stake (1995). A qualitative descriptive case study approach was chosen as an appropriate design because it is commonly used when: the research aim is to answer “how and “why” questions; you cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study; or you want to cover contextual conditions as it is believed they are relevant to the phenomenon under study (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The value of a case study lies in its ability to uncover what can be learnt from a single case or cases (Schram, 2006), and these cases are bound by space and time (Stake, 1995). Case studies are not designed to be generalizable; rather they invite the reader to draw conclusions that may also be applicable to their own situation (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Further, these conclusions may provide knowledge that can be used to solve practical problems (Swanborn, 2010). In this study, the flexibility of a case study approach allowed the researcher to proceed with the research even though there were significant complications. It is this flexibility as discussed by Flyvbjerg (2011) that is a key strength of a case study framework.

Stake (1995) classifies case studies into three types: intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. In an intrinsic case study, the intent is to better understand the case, and find out what can be learned from the case (Stake, 1995). Instrumental case studies, according to Stake, can potentially provide greater insight into an issue beyond the case being studied. Lastly, a collective case study is essentially an instrumental study undertaken using multiple cases to develop a theory related to a particular occurrence (Stake, 1995). Stake (1978) critiques that one cannot confidently generalize from a single case to a target population of which that case is

a member, since single members are often a poor representation of whole populations. However, Stake (1978) also argues that case studies may offer valuable insights that may be used by others when they read the case findings.

This study adopted an instrumental case study approach. Stake (1995) argues that in instrumental studies the case itself is often of secondary interest, playing a supportive role and facilitating understanding of something else, for example, examining a person with an ailment to learn more about the ailment and not the person. This kind of case study is often undertaken when the researcher is interested in a particular situation, and wants to gain a deeper understanding of a particular phenomenon (Stake, 2005). This study fits within an instrumental case study as the research question was to better understand the factors that can contribute to the creation of a positive sporting experience for children, and to use that understanding to enhance sports practices (organisational practices, and coaching and parent behaviour).

Qualitative description is an inquiry into the experiences as lived by the individual; it works towards an accurate description of events, and the meanings that people ascribe to those particular events (Maxwell, 1992). Sandelowski (2000) states the goal of qualitative descriptive studies are to produce a comprehensive summary of events, and are the methodology of choice when a straight description of a phenomena is desired. A qualitative descriptive methodology was chosen because the research question for this case study was to learn more about what creates a positive sporting experience for children. A qualitative descriptive approach draws on naturalistic enquiry to attempt to give a rich description of events, with minimal interpretation by the researcher (Kayes, Mcpherson, Taylor, Schluter, & Kolt, 2011). Guba and Lincoln (1982) suggest that naturalistic inquiry has five defining features:

the acknowledgement of multiple realities, the inquirer and object under study interact and influence each other, the aim is to develop a specific body of knowledge, an action may be a consequence of multiple interacting factors best studied in their natural context, and the inquiry is influenced by the inquirer's values and paradigm used. All of these features are congruent with this case study.

This qualitative descriptive case study also drew upon self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) as a theoretical lens which provided a guiding theoretical framework to inform data collection and analysis. Although themes were interpreted through an SDT lens, this study is not a qualitative interpretive paradigm as it is not using a grand theoretical framework (e.g., phenomenology) (Sandelowski, 2000). SDT informed the questions asked during focus group and individual interviews, and informed the examination of the data for a more comprehensive analysis. SDT was used in this case study to help understand how children's experiences of sport influenced the meeting and/or thwarting of their basic psychological needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness. As discussed in the literature review chapter, SDT is largely used to understand people's motivation in sport and physical activity, suggesting that people are naturally self-motivated (intrinsically motivated), active, and interested in pursuing activities that are enjoyable to them (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The use of SDT was included in this case study to gain a deeper understanding of how children's motivation needs are supported.

Methods

Research design

Case studies are typically bound by time, place, context and activity, allowing the study to maintain focus and avoid the common problem of being too broad (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The case studied was defined by the sporting environment of children aged between 7-13 years who participated in a 12-week community led tag rugby programme. This qualitative descriptive case study utilised focus groups, individual interviews, insider researcher observations, informal conversations, and field notes. An inductive thematic analysis was used to analyse the data, using the SDT framework to add depth to the analysis. The decision to use focus groups for the children was made due to the age of participants (7-13 years). Vaughn, Schumm, and Sinagub (1996) suggest the use of focus groups instead of individual interviews when conducting research with children of this age group (7-13 years), due to the less intimidating nature of being interviewed in an environment with their peers around them. Individual interviews were preferred for the parents, as the one-on-one nature of the interview would allow the parent a more private environment where they didn't have to worry about being judged by other parents over what they had said, and could speak more freely (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

Participants

Participants were selected from those children taking part in the tag rugby programme. Following guidelines received from our institution's ethics committee, the organisers of the tag rugby programme facilitated recruitment by approaching various parents of children participating in the programme, and asking them if they would be interested in their children being involved in research focusing on children's experiences of sport. Participant information sheets (Appendix B) inviting these children to take part in the case study were delivered to potential participants. Each group was provided with information sheets (Appendix B) to give to their

parent(s) or guardian(s). A total of 14 children were involved in the focus groups, participant assent (Appendix B) was attained for each, and consent (Appendix B) was given by a parent or guardian.

The four parents interviewed were chosen from those who attended the Good Sports community module. All parents were advised during the community module that there was an opportunity to participate in a research project, the purpose of which was explained to them. At the conclusion of the community module, the parents were each provided with participant information sheets (Appendix C), and if interested gave their consent (Appendix C) prior to being interviewed. The criterion for selection was simply those parents that attended a Good Sports community module and had children playing in the 12 week community led tag rugby program.

Data collection

The range of methods used to collect data from participants included: three focus group interviews (with children), four individual interviews (with parents), insider researcher observations, informal conversations, and field notes.

Focus groups

Focus group interviews were conducted in a semi-structured nature, following guidelines set out by Ritchie and Lewis (2014). Finch and Lewis (2014) suggest that focus groups may be more advantageous than individual interviews due to the spontaneity that arises from their stronger social context as the group interaction is explicitly used to generate data and insights. This stronger social context offered a greater opportunity for the children to share ideas and for language to emerge in a more naturalistic setting than in an individual interview (Finch & Lewis, 2014). Kreuger and Casey (2000) also put forward the notion that focus

groups are a more natural environment than individual interviews because participants are influencing and influenced by others – much like in real life. These focus groups were also seen as the optimal approach to better facilitate discussion between participants and allow a deeper understanding of the participants' thoughts and feelings relating to their experiences of sport (Finch & Lewis, 2014).

Each focus group interview consisted of between four and five children, which was seen as small enough to allow each participant the opportunity to share their observations and insights and yet large enough to provide a diverse range of perceptions (Krueger, 1994). All focus group interviews were audio recorded and later fully transcribed by the researcher (Ritchie & Lewis, 2014). Each focus group varied in length from 25 to 35 minutes in duration. The protocol for focus groups is outlined in Appendix B, accompanied by a list of the questions that participants were asked.

Parent interviews

Semi-structured individual interviews were conducted, following the same guidelines set out by Ritchie and Lewis (2014). These individual interviews were used to gain an in-depth insight into parents' experiences and perceptions of their children's sporting environment (Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2014). As questions relating to this topic were seen to overlap with the notion of parenting styles and how a parent raises their child, interviews were seen as an appropriate method of data collection for addressing more sensitive topics that people might be reluctant to share in a group (Milena, 2008).

Again each individual interview was audio recorded and later transcribed by the researcher into written form (Ritchie & Lewis, 2014). Individual interviews

varied in length from 15 up to 30 minutes in duration. The protocol for individual interviews is outlined in Appendix C, accompanied by a list of questions that each participant was asked.

Observations and field notes

The researcher was also embedded within the sports competition, acting as an observer and collecting field notes. These field notes are reflective notes that were used as data for the case study, and did not record any identifiable information of players, coaches, or parents. Observations were seen as a way to provide the researcher with a chance to learn things about the environment that would add depth and nuance to the findings from the participant interviews, and to offer the chance to triangulate some of the data that emerged (Angrosino, 2005).

Data analysis

When analysing data in a qualitative descriptive case study, Sandelowski (2000) recommended the use of simultaneous collection and analysis of qualitative data. To align with this recommendation, an initial inductive thematic analysis was conducted following the six steps for conducting a thematic analysis laid out by Braun and Clarke (2006): familiarisation with data, initial coding, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report. Once dominant themes were uncovered using this inductive process, each theme was then subsequently further analysed using an SDT lens (Deci & Ryan, 2000) to add additional depth to the analysis.

This approach by Braun and Clarke (2006) was seen as a valid and reliable approach to analyse data thematically, as their six steps have been utilised by many

other researchers undertaking thematic analysis in their research (e.g., Beattie (2014)).

Familiarisation with data

After each interview the audio-recordings were transcribed by the researcher, and re-read to immerse the researcher in the data. Notes were also made at this time to draw attention to items of interest that emerged from the data. This repeated reading of the data enabled the search for meanings and patterns before initial coding began. This process of familiarising oneself with the data facilitates interpretative skills needed to analyse the data (Lapadat & Lindsay, 1999). The field notes were also read and re-read at this stage.

Initial coding

Once the initial phase of familiarisation was completed, the phase of initial coding began. This phase involves the production of initial codes from the data. The software program QDA ‘miner lite’ was used to assist with the management and analysis of data (focus group, interview, and field notes). As units of interest were identified, a new code was created (for example, when children spoke about ‘fun’). When all data had been initially coded and collated, a long list of different codes was identified across the data set.

Searching for themes

An inductive process then followed, with the coded units of data being examined for themes. At this stage, themes were ‘named’ as they emerged from the data, and identified into dominant themes, and sub-themes. The focus of this step was to sort the different codes into potential themes. Essentially this step involves

analysing the codes, and considering how different codes may combine to form an overarching theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Reviewing themes

During this step it became evident that some themes did not have enough data to support them, and others collapsed into each other forming one theme. Patton (1990) suggests that data from themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes. Regular meetings with research supervisors skilled in qualitative research aided this process, and confirmed emerging themes. The process of member checking was also employed to ensure stability of themes, and make sure that participant's views were accurately described (Brink, 1991). At the end of this step, an impression of what the different themes were, and how they fit together was established.

Defining and naming themes

When all themes were mapped out, further refinement was undertaken to identify the 'essence' of what each theme was about (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This step helped to identify what was interesting about the data and why. For each individual theme, a detailed analysis was conducted, and the 'story' that each theme told was uncovered in relation to the research question. Each theme was considered individually, and in relation to the others to ensure that there was not too much overlap between themes. As part of this refinement process sub-themes were revealed, these are essentially themes-within-a-theme.

At this stage, all dominant themes and sub-themes were agreed upon by the researcher and the supervisory team. The data was then re-examined—theme by theme—through the lens of SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This was, in effect, a

secondary analysis, and each theme (e.g. coach behaviour) was considered through an SDT lens. The data was examined to reveal how coach behaviour supported and/or thwarted children's basic psychological needs.

Producing the report

Once all themes were fully worked-out, the final analysis and write-up of the report began. The task of writing up a thematic analysis is to try to tell a complicated story that provides a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive, and interesting account of the data – within and across themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). These themes came from multiple data sources (focus groups, individual interviews, and observations), invoking the process of triangulation. In qualitative research the notion of triangulation refers to the use of multiple data sources to develop a comprehensive understanding of a phenomena (Patton, 1999). Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe, and Neville (2014) consider triangulation as a good way to increase the validity of study findings, and provide confirmation of findings (or expose contradictions in the data), ideally adding breadth to the phenomenon of interest.

Ethical Considerations

The Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) granted ethical approval for this study on 13th of May 2016 (Appendix A). Below are the salient ethical considerations for the case study.

Consultation

Children are a 'vulnerable population'. This term implies that they are part of a disadvantaged—in some way—sub-segment of the community, and require utmost

care and augmented protections in research (Shivayogi, 2013). Talking about sporting experiences was perceived to be ‘low risk’ but in the likelihood children related stories that proved to be upsetting then guidance from AUT Health and Counselling was sought. AUT Health and Counselling was consulted as a means of providing guidance for protecting the interests and wellbeing of both the researcher and participants (see Appendix D). However, as their capacity is bound to tertiary students and adults further consultation was sought in relation to protecting the interests of the participants. Youthline was subsequently consulted in relation to offering the participants counselling or post-interview support should they require this. This organisation agreed to offer this service to both the participants and their whanau/families, should they require it (see Appendix D).

This consultation influenced the location of focus group interviews to be conducted within a venue in the local community centre well known to the community and all participating in the case study so that participants would feel more comfortable, as they would be in an environment that was familiar to them and they felt safe.

Informed and voluntary consent

Participation in any research project must be voluntary and based on adequate participant understanding of what participation will involve. It is important to provide information that will enable potential participants to understand what participation will involve (Wiles, Heath, Crow, & Charles, 2005). This was applied to allow participants to be free to make their own informed decisions about participating in the case study. An insider researcher approach allowed the researcher to develop partnerships with potential participants to ensure that their views were

respected (Alderson, 2004), and to help ensure that information was provided in appropriate ways, using appropriate language (Jones, 2004).

For the focus groups all children and their parents/guardians were provided with participant and parental information sheets (Appendix B), given to them by the organisers of the tag rugby programme. Similarly, parents involved in the individual interviews were provided with participant information sheets (Appendix C). Each child participant was also provided with participant assent and parental consent forms (Appendix B), whilst parent participants were provided with participant consent forms (Appendix C). These were filled out before they were able to participate in the study. In the context of research, assent is simply an agreement that refers to the participant agreeing to undertake or participating in the research (Cheah & Parker, 2014). Consent on the other hand is a legally binding agreement, and can only be given by a person who is aged 16 or older. Consent to participate is required for all research. In relation to research with children, consent on behalf of a legal minor can only be given by parents or legal guardians (Wiles et al., 2005).

Confidentiality and anonymity

The security of research data was undertaken in accordance with AUTECH policy. This policy states that researchers are responsible for keeping information (including the identity of participants) confidential and secure. This process often requires coding of data and removal of identifying material from documentation.

To adhere to ethical guidelines no individuals are identified in this case study. Pseudonyms of participants were used on all documents so no potential identifying features were exposed. No specific reference was given to participants demographics. Individuals were given pseudonyms, as to not identify anyone

involved in the case study. This information was outlined on the information sheet (Appendices B and C), and participants were reminded of this at the beginning of the focus group or individual interview.

Minimisation of risk

The nature of interviewing people can sometimes reveal negative feelings and experiences for the participant. While it was not the intention of the case study to cause any embarrassment or discomfort it was recognised that there is always potential for emotional distress. No more than a total of one hour of the participant's time was required for the study. This comprised of one 15-30 minute focus group or individual interview (two weeks before the end of the competition), and the time taken to read information forms and attain written consent/assent.

Whilst the risk of harm to a participant's health was seen as being low, and the intention of the research and researcher was not to cause embarrassment or discomfort, participants only answered the questions they felt comfortable answering. All participants had the ability to withdraw from the study at any time, and were reminded of this during the interview process. Participants were reassured at all times that they did not have to answer any questions if they did not want to, and could leave the interview at any time. The findings from the participants' stories from the focus groups may be read by their parents and coaches, however they were written up and reported in such a way that all participants are non-identifiable. This includes the use of coded data and pseudonyms to protect participant's identities. No information that could be used to identify any participant is included in any of the project reports or publications.

To further minimise risk, a risk assessment was conducted. Among the measures put in place to control risk was the counselling services offered by Youthline (see Appendix D) to participants and their whanau/families should they require it.

Avoidance of conflict of interest

No conflicts of interest were identified in this case study.

Treaty of Waitangi

When conducting research in New Zealand, it is necessary to take into consideration the Treaty of Waitangi. This founding document of New Zealand is most commonly upheld in research through the principles of partnership, participation, and protection (Health Promotion Forum of New Zealand, 2002).

Partnership

The principle of partnership was implemented throughout the research by recognizing that the participants were a partner in this research. The aim of this research was to create an athlete-centred sporting environment for children. The philosophy underpinning athlete-centred coaching is that sport is designed to meet first and foremost the needs of the participants – not significant adults (Kidman, 2005). A key aim of this research was for children to potentially have input into the future design and implementation of children's sport in New Zealand. The information and knowledge and co-operation of the participants was formally acknowledged within the research outputs.

Participation

Children have traditionally been marginalised in research, and in line with this case study, Lansdown (2011) argues the perspectives of children should be acknowledged as legitimate, valuable, and a basic human right. Participants were given the opportunity to have a voice. Their stories were used to better enhance the experiences of children participating in sport. The opportunity for participants to member check transcripts was given via email and a follow-up phone call. This process was used to allow participants to feel the reporting accurately reflected their views and ensured they were comfortable with any of their comments being made in a public space.

Protection

Guidelines for confidentiality were outlined in the information sheet, and consent/assent forms (Appendices B and C). Participants were also assured about confidentiality prior to the focus group or individual interview. Participants of the study are not identified. Pseudonyms were used on all working documents to ensure no written records will link the data to an individual. No party other than the researcher and his supervisors had any involvement with the collection and/or analysis of data . The participants were not placed in any harmful situations. Focus group and individual interviews were conducted in a meeting room at the venue of the tag rugby programme, facilitating convenience for both the participants and researcher, and providing a safe and private space for discussion. Participants faced no monetary cost. Their only cost was in terms of the time required to complete the focus group or individual interview. Care was taken to ensure that the time needed

for focus groups or individual interviews was clearly communicated prior to consent being given.

Rigour and Trustworthiness

Numerous frameworks have been developed to evaluate the rigour or assess the trustworthiness of qualitative data. In adopting the framework by Guba and Lincoln (1982), the work of Sandelowski (2000) was drawn upon to relate the notion of rigour specifically to a qualitative descriptive case study. A case study approach needs to stay true to the words of the participants, and researchers conducting such studies should aim to seek descriptive validity, or an accurate accounting of events (Sandelowski, 2000). Baxter and Jack (2008) mention that researchers engaging in case study research should ensure that enough detail is provided so that the readers can assess the validity or credibility of the work. This was achieved by ensuring that data was collected and managed systematically, and analysed using proven methods discussed by Braun and Clarke (2006).

The first criterion of the framework by Guba and Lincoln (1982) is credibility. Credibility deals with the question, ‘How congruent are the findings with reality?’ (Shenton, 2004). This refers to the confidence one can have in the ‘truthfulness’ of the data. In this case study, credibility was established by three methods, triangulation, member checking, and frequent debriefing sessions (Carter et al., 2014). With regard to triangulation, data was collected from multiple sources, and through multiple methods (focus group interviews, individual interviews, and field notes). van Maanen (1983) refers to this as one way of triangulating via data sources to check out bits of information across informants, with individual

viewpoints and experiences verified against other participants. The second method of triangulation was the use of two focus groups, consisting of 5 participants each (Vaughn et al., 1996). This corroboration was used to compare the experiences and needs described by one individual with those of others in a comparable position (Shenton, 2004). The purpose of triangulation is to reduce the disadvantages associated in the use of any single data source, method, or investigator (Long & Johnson, 2000). A process of member checking, as suggested by Brink (1991) was also used to ensure stability of the data. On completion of the data analysis, member checks or respondent validation took place via email and to check the accuracy of facts presented during focus group and individual interviews. This crosschecking also helped to maintain reflexivity by encouraging self-awareness and self-correction (Hall & Stevens, 1991). Lastly, frequent debriefing sessions with my supervisors allowed for the opportunity to discuss alternative approaches, draw attention to flaws in the current course of action, provide a sounding board for developing ideas, and helped recognize any biases (Shenton, 2004).

Transferability is concerned with the extent to which other researchers can apply the findings of the study to their own research in similar settings (Merriam, 1998). Case studies are not designed to be generalizable (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). However, Stake (1995) argues that instrumental case studies can potentially provide a greater insight by inviting the reader to draw conclusions that may also be applicable to their own areas of study or interest. Guba and Lincoln (1982) suggest that it is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that sufficient contextual information about the fieldwork sites is provided to enable the reader to decide if such a transfer could or could not be made, as the reader would be able to tell if the context of the research is comparable to his or her context, or is not. Shenton (2004)

recommends providing information relating to the number of organisations taking part in the study, any restrictions in the type of people who contributed data, the number of participants involved, the data collection methods employed, the number and length of data collection sessions, and the time period over which data was collected. This information is included from the outset in the write-up of this study, along with a sufficient thick description of the phenomenon under investigation to allow the reader to have a proper understanding of the phenomenon.

Dependability refers to how stable the findings are over time and confirmability to the internal coherence of the data in relation to the findings, interpretations, and recommendations (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Guba and Lincoln (1982) mention that an audit trail can be used to accomplish both dependability and confirmability simultaneously. An audit trail, as proposed by Sandelowski (2000) involves details of all sources of data, collection techniques and experiences, assumptions made, decisions taken, meanings interpreted, and any influences on the researcher. For this case study the purpose of this audit trail is to allow others to decide on the worth of the case study by following the trail taken and comparing it with their own conclusions made from the information. This demonstrates the degree to which the researcher has remained true to the data and the boundaries of the sample (Long & Johnson, 2000).

Summary

This chapter has detailed the use of a case study approach and discussed the use of a post-positivist paradigm that underpinned this approach. The motive for using SDT as a theoretical lens has been explained as well as outlining how it was

used in this research. The methods for participant recruitment, data collection, and data analysis were described and justified. Furthermore, the ethical considerations for this case study, and how rigour was maintained were outlined. In summary, the conducting of this study, from design to dissemination, will attempt to stay true to recommendations by Sandelowski (2000) for qualitative descriptive studies, and by Stake (1995) in relation to an instrumental case study.

Chapter 4: Findings

In qualitative descriptive research Sandelowski (2000) states that the purpose is to produce a straight description of events, with an attempt at minimal interpretation on the part of the researcher. This is the approach adopted in this chapter, with an attempt to present the identified themes as an accurate representation of the participants' experiences and stories. In doing so, I attempt to stay true to an instrumental case study approach as advocated by Stake (1995). Findings of instrumental case studies are not designed to be generalizable to a larger population, but instead the aim is to present findings to facilitate insights for the reader to enable a deeper understanding of the case studied. In line with the methodological frameworks adopted in this study, an inductive thematic analysis was conducted – which followed recommendations highlighted by Braun and Clarke (2006). Once dominant themes were uncovered using this process, each identified theme and the data therein was then further analysed using an SDT lens (Deci & Ryan, 2000) to add additional depth to the analysis.

In relation to SDT, feeling competent (one's perception of having adequate abilities), having a sense of relatedness (connection to others and a sense of belonging), and having some level of autonomy (control of thoughts, behaviours and actions) were found to be important to the child participants in this case study. Since the nature of a child's sporting environment can either enhance or undermine their enjoyment of sport (Woods, 2007), it was perhaps no surprise to see data from this case study reveal the strong influence that coaches, peers, and parents had on the level of enjoyment.

Findings from the children's focus group interviews will be presented first, followed by the findings from the parent participants. The insider researcher observations will be interspersed throughout this section when necessary, but a dedicated section of insider researcher observations will also be included. The themes identified will be briefly related to literature in this section, but a more in-depth discussion related to literature will follow in the next chapter. Analysis of the transcripts revealed seven main themes in relation to the children's experiences of sport. Four of these themes were derived from the perspectives of the children: 1) having fun; 2) family pride - "because your family members will be proud of you"; 3) we just want to have a run; and 4) the impact of parent comments: "Be a little nicer!". The other three themes emerged from the perspectives of the parents: 5) sport – a vehicle for personal development; 6) the value of winning; and 7) we enjoy it just as much as our children do. Each theme that emerged was examined in relation to how they affected the participants' psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). While each of these basic needs are examined in relation to the data, it should be acknowledged that autonomy, competence and relatedness often do not exist in isolation from one another but are interconnected.

The insider researcher approach utilised in this case study revealed the theme of cultural quotient when working with communities. Although cultural quotient does not directly relate to children's experiences of sport, it was deemed useful to explore and report on the insider researcher insights into working with sporting interventions in communities. This theme was not analysed using an SDT lens and was only included to provide the reader with an insight into what it was like working with communities, and into the challenges of conducting research across multiple programmes.

Throughout this section it should be acknowledged that brief reference to relevant literature will be included where pertinent; however the discussion chapter (Chapter 5) will compare and contrast the relevance of these findings in relation to literature in more detail. Names used in this section are pseudonyms, in order to protect the identity of participants and to adhere to ethical guidelines.

The perspectives of children

Having fun

The dominant reason given by children for playing sport was, quite simply, because it was fun. The notion of fun is represented by Peni's (age 8) answer below:

Reon: "Why do you play sport?"

Peni: "Because it's fun."

Much like Peni, many of the other children in the focus group interviews played sport primarily because it was "fun". It is important to acknowledge that fun can be derived from different things for different children. For some, this relates to the exhilaration, freedom and sheer joy that playing can bring to them. For example, just "running with the ball" was identified as the reason by one participant (Tom) for why they enjoyed playing sport. The children interviewed enjoyed playing sport for a number of different reasons: the social aspect, they just loved playing, and the physical health benefits sport provided. These sub themes can be seen respectively through the responses by Tai (age 10), James (age 9), and Patrick (age 10) to the question "What do you enjoy most about playing sport?"

Tai: "Playing with your friends."

James: "Chasing the ball."

Patrick: "To keep you fit."

Being with friends was a common observation by children. This observation highlights that there are clear links to feelings of relatedness associated with this theme of fun, as children in this case study derive fun from being with their friend, and Deci and Ryan (2000) distinguish relatedness as the desire to feel connected to others. After identifying fun as the main reason why they played sport, many of the children involved in the focus groups identified that the connection they have with their friends and team-mates when participating in sport was particularly important to them. For example, when Leo (age 10) was asked, "What do you enjoy most about playing sport?"

Leo: "Playing as a team."

These examples show that the children from this case study in part find sport fun because of the social interaction with friends and team-mates. Just as important to children as the social aspect of health are the physical benefits of playing sport. The comment made by Patrick relating to the importance of the physical health outcomes from playing sport is further reflected by Tim (age 9) who mentioned that he enjoyed playing sport "because it makes your body feel fresh". Children in this case study enjoy experiencing positive health outcomes as a result of participating in sport. Therefore, by seeing and feeling improvements which can be attributed to sport participation a child's motivation to continue to engage in sport may arise from within because it is intrinsically rewarding.

When playing sport the notion of "running with the ball" is related to SDT. The importance of this theme shows that those children interviewed found intrinsic enjoyment from just playing the game. These children's motivations for playing

sport were internally driven as they found the element of play rewarding “because it’s fun”.

“Because your family members will be proud of you”

Winning was identified as important to some of the children in the tag rugby programme. However, this was related primarily to the notion of family pride. This was highlighted by the following comment from Niko (age 9) when asked “how important is winning to you?”

Niko: “10/10”.

Reon: “Why do you feel that way about winning?”

Niko: “Because your family members will be proud of you.”

Niko’s excitement towards winning shows us that some children view winning as a way to make their families proud of them. Sione’s (age 11) comments reveal that family pride comes not only from winning, but performing well:

Reon: “What do you enjoy most about playing sport?”

Sione: “Um um um tackling people!”

Reon: “Why do you enjoy some of these things?”

Sione: “So people can be proud of you, all of your family members.”

Niko and Sione’s comments on family pride present some nuance to the issue of winning and losing in sport. In this view, winning does not reflect an end in itself. Rather, winning presents a means to another end: making their family proud. One observation during the tag rugby programme captures this phenomenon. An older brother of one of the children playing on the field walked over to watch his younger brother play. The younger brother’s team was on defence 10 metres away from his own goal line. The younger brother heard his brother clapping loudly and cheering him on, and lowered his stance as he tracked the ball coming closer to his side of the

field. The younger brother's team was stretched and the girl stepped inside of him as his brother watched from the sideline, still clapping with enthusiasm. From my perspective the younger brother gave extra effort to chase down the girl from the other team who had the ball, desperately diving to make the tag; but he just missed and the girl scored. The older brother walked away, and the younger brother who had dived to try to make the tag was on the ground; he appeared to be a little dejected that he had missed the tag in front of his brother, and even slapped the ground with his hand in disappointment. After a few moments the boy picked himself up off the ground as he watched his brother walk away, and carried on playing with his shoulders slumped forward.

From an SDT perspective this observation mentioned above supported the words of the children and show how closely connected feelings of competency and relatedness, and the theme of family pride is to some children. Thus some children view performing well and possessing adequate abilities in front of family members as a means to please their family. If a child's parents or other family member are happy with their performance during a game then the child will often feel better about themselves, leading to improved feelings of competency (Brustad, 1993). However, as this observation shows if a child does not perform a task to a certain standard as signalled by a family member, they may feel disheartened and their sense of competence may be undermined.

We just want to have a run

Children were asked "what did you enjoy most about the competition?" Getting more playing time and having fun were the dominant responses. Children not only want to play but they want others to play and for playing time to be divided

more evenly among team mates. This notion of ‘fair play’ is reinforced by the responses of Fetu (aged 9), and Talia (aged 9), to the question – “If you were the coach what would you do differently?”

Fetu: “Say if the game had to uh go for 15 minutes and then another 15 minutes, and I had 40 in my team. I would let 20 go on and then when it is half time I’ll let the other 20 go on.”

Talia: “Let people play fairly, like let people on the game so they all get the same amount of time.”

The notion of ‘fair play’ emphasized by the comments above show an association between playing time and children having a sense of relatedness. Children want to feel like they belong, and are connected with others around them (Walters et al., 2015). They notice when they don’t get to play as much as others but also when others don’t get to play as much too. The level of playing time a child gets may even help to decide if they feel like a valued member of a team or not. This is revealed by Tamati’s (aged 10) response:

Reon: “How does it make you feel that you don’t all get equal playing time?”

Tamati: “Like I’m not a part of the team.”

Another child, Lily (age 9) showed similar emotions when asked the same question:

Lily: “Makes me feel like I’m not important like the others.”

Lily’s feelings towards the lack of importance she felt when playing time was not equal, and Tamati’s feelings of exclusion from the team show the potential impact that un-equal playing time can have on a child’s feelings of relatedness.

Playing time was very important to children in this case study. Field observations conducted revealed that during the tag rugby programme every child was given the opportunity to play. Substitutions were regular throughout games, with coaches often seen giving the children coming off the field high fives and praise. During a few weeks of the early part of the tag rugby programme there was a larger turnout of children. This meant significant numbers of children on the sideline waiting to play and looking a little restless and bored. One of the facilitators running the programme grabbed a whistle and took those children waiting to play onto one of the fields not being used, divided them into two teams, and started refereeing a game for them. From an SDT perspective, the need for relatedness is a powerful one for these children. Interestingly, it is not only representative of just a need themselves to belong, but extends to empathising with their peers and friends. They want their friends to feel as though they belong also.

Findings from this case study may also shed some light on children's reasons for dropping out of sport. Children in this case study find enjoyment in playing sport, and if this enjoyment is taken away from them as Emma (age 10) suggested it would "probably make them not want to play anymore". Similarly, Mary (age 8) believed "they'd leave". These comments raise concern for how un-equal playing time may impact on a child's intrinsic motivation to continue to participate in a sport where they get less game time than their peers.

The impact of parent comments: "Be a little nicer!"

Parents and coaches have a strong influence on the enjoyment of sport for children, as they provide emotional support, cheerleading, coaching, equipment, transport, fees (Green & Chalip, 1998), and often decide playing time. However, the

comments they make from the sideline can impact upon children's enjoyment of sport. This can result in children feeling as though they are being told off, being criticised, or being told what to do. When discussing parent and coach comments, interview responses revealed the importance of tone of voice, such as those from Elai (aged 9):

Reon: What about any of the other parents, do they say or do anything?

Elai: [They] just tell us what to do.

Reon: And how does this make you feel?

Elai: Sometimes it's annoying because they are like yelling at you.

When the children were asked "Would you get your parents to do anything differently?" Jenny (aged 9) and Charlie (aged 10) alluded to a similar desire to change the way parents convey their opinions:

Jenny: "Umm I want my mum to just express herself but not in a yelling way."

Charlie: "Be a little nicer. Talk nicer. Like say good job."

The way parents interact with their children in and around their sporting environment can have an impact on children's feelings of competency. Not only by saying more positive things but also talking in a nicer manner, as the earlier comment by Charlie states. It is not only the things a parent says but the way they say it can either improve a child's feelings towards how they perceive their own abilities when playing sport, enabling them to feel good about themselves or in the case of negative comments from parents, impacting upon their self-esteem (Walters, 2011).

Although instructional comments aren't emotionally negative per se, if they are delivered in an overly loud manner (i.e. yelling or shouting), children can feel annoyed and become distracted from the sport that they are trying to focus on (Omli

& Wiese-Bjornstal, 2011). Of course, sometimes being loud occurs in a supportive manner. During the last week of the tag rugby programme, there was a passage of play that resulted in many of the parents and supporters becoming excited on the sideline. A child's skilful display of footwork to avoid many of the opposition players from tagging them left the parents in awe. They cheered noticeably louder during that short phase of play than any other time during the whole tag rugby programme. This may have been due to the last week of the programme being more of a 'finals night' and an increased element of competition was added. Charlie's response supports the idea that children like hearing reinforcing comments from their parents as it makes them feel good about themselves. Madi's (aged 10) reply offers a similar view:

Reon: "What do they (parents) say when they come and watch you?"

Madi: "Like good job, nice try, nice touch."

Reon: How does it make you feel when you hear some of these things?

Madi: "Pretty happy, yeah."

There is a distinct association between a child's sense of autonomy and the nature of the comments that parents make on the sideline. It is important for a child to be in control of their own thoughts and actions to allow them to grow and learn (Kidman, 2005). Children appear to want and need to be free to concentrate, away from comments that may have the best of intentions but often leave children feeling distracted. The response by Anika (aged 10) below emphasizes this:

Reon: "What do they (parents) say when they come and watch you?"

Anika: "Pass the ball, pass the ball!"

Reon: "How does it make you feel when you hear some of these things?"

Anika: "Annoyed because they keep talking to me while I am playing and focusing."

If parents focus on a losing outcome, children may not feel very good about themselves. This can be seen from the comments by Caleb (aged 11):

Reon: "What about after a game where you lost, what do your parents say?"

Caleb: "You could have won."

Reon: "How does hearing this make you feel?"

Caleb: "Disappointed, I mean sad."

Comments that have a focus on winning, losing and avoiding mistakes may lead to lower perceptions of competence (Holt et al., 2008), and appear to impact not only on children's enjoyment but their desire to keep participating (Grant & Pope, 2004). From an SDT perspective, the need for competency for the children in this case study is important. The comments made by a parent can either facilitate this competency – helping children to feel good about themselves and their abilities, or hinder it – lowering a child's self-efficacy and belief in their own abilities. Observations of parent and coach comments over the course of the tag rugby programme were largely instructional in nature:

Coach: "Spread the ball."

Parent: "Chase it all the way up there."

Coach comments observed and recorded within the field notes over the competition tended to be made up of instructional comments, with the occasional reinforcing comment. Whilst parent comments were a mix of both instructional and reinforcing, they tended to lean more towards reinforcing comments. Comments from coaches tended to be more frequent than parents comments. These parents tended to only comment or cheer when a try was scored or a good passage of play took place, but coaches' comments occurred consistently throughout games.

Based on the researcher's observations of the tag rugby programme, the sporting environment created by adults did not appear to put undue pressure on the children to win. Parents seemed more interested in their children playing and enjoying themselves than if their team won. However, there was a relatively high level of instruction offered, which can reinforce for children that it is important to play the game 'well', and can reinforce outcome over process. Overall, apart from the instruction, children were not told off, and the tag rugby programme provided a space where children were given the freedom to just play, make mistakes, and learn from them. Fresh fruit was available most weeks of the programme which allowed for children to consume a healthy food option before games started. This also gave the children the opportunity to socialise and play with their peers whilst they ate. Overall, a positive social experience was created in this programme. However, the children offered insight into the nature of comments that they value from both coaches and parents when they are playing their sport.

The perspectives of parents

Sport – a vehicle for personal development

In most cases, emotional support provided by parents serves as a precursor for children's enjoyment of sport (Brustad, 1988). This strong influence of parents over the early experiences of sport for their children makes gaining an insight into parent's experiences of their child's sport noteworthy. Parents want their children to play sport as they believe it will help them develop as a person (Wiersma & Fifer, 2008). The feeling that personal development through sport was important emerged from the parent interviews:

Reon: "Do you think it is important for your child to play sport?"

Parent #1: “Yip. I believe it is important for them to play sports. It teaches them a lot actually. Um just in them finding the way that they are. I think it teaches them a lot to become better people through sports. That’s what I believe.”

Parents viewing sport as a vehicle for personal development for their children is not a new theme (Wiersma & Fifer, 2008). Research does suggest to support the learning environment promoted through sports can have positive influences on a child’s personal development (Bailey et al., 2004; Mutrie & Parfitt, 1998; Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, & Jones, 2005). The remarks of another parent interviewed during the tag rugby programme further confirm the importance of personal development through sport:

Reon: “Why do you want them (your children) to play sport?”

Parent #1: “Um, I think for me. Growing up playing sport you get this competitive edge right, and you want to see your kids succeed or be happy just like you were [...] Make them better than what they used to be, and to see an end result in them ya know. Which is basically champions really. Um not so much on the sports field but just as a person [...]”

It is believed that not only by participating in one sport but by sampling many others, children can further develop as a person (Côté et al., 2009). Côté et al. (2009) acknowledge this exposure to multiple environments and people as a way for children to experience different social interactions with peers and adults, further developing their emotional and social skills. Parents often recognise this, for example:

Reon: "Do you encourage your child to just play and focus on one sport or to try out multiple sports?"

Parent #2: "Just, do multi. Try any sports you can be good at like touch, tag, league, footy, yeah."

Reon: "Why, why do you encourage that?"

Parent #2: "Just want them to be the best really. To develop themselves, yeah."

When asked the same question another parent further elaborated:

Parent #1: Uhh, no I get my kids to play as many sports as they can. Um.. I grew up playing many different sports from basketball, cricket, to tennis, to rugby, to league, and I believe my kids should be doing the same as what I was entitled to [...] Um I'm not one to just hold them to one sport, it's I guess you are suffocating them from every other sport that's available, and they might find something that they really enjoy ya know, and it may not be that sport that you have chosen for them. So it helps the kids make choice for themselves too.

These examples above show that these parents are aware that their children are autonomous individuals, reinforcing research into the importance of autonomy in relation to sport as a means for personal development. Providing children with the freedom and choice to play different sports, and having control over what sport they ultimately decide to play is seen as being important from these parents' standpoint.

The value of winning

In line with parents' views on the developmental benefits of sport, parents also recognise that children play sport mainly because of the social aspect, such as

being with friends (Coakley et al., 2009; Meisterjahn & Dieffenbach, 2008). However, parent attitudes about winning are likely to impact their children in some shape or form, if parents recognise the value of winning (Heeren & Requa, 2001). This tension between winning and enjoyment emerged in the following exchanges:

Reon: "What does your child enjoy about sport?"

Parent #3: "Uhh most of it is practically hanging out with his mates. Um he enjoys basically whatever his mates are into, they'll do it together and they're happy. Um, I think second to that it's, they enjoy winning most definitely [...]"

Reon: "What do you say after a game they have won?"

Parent #4: "The games they have won I say well played [...] Yeah I suppose when you win a game because that's what's um, as a parent kids know you are overwhelmed with a win, and uh everyone goes into the game to win. No one goes into a game to lose the game."

This value placed on winning by parents can have implications on a child's feelings of relatedness and competence. As exhibited above, children are adept at noticing how their parents feel and act, particularly if these actions are as a result of their actions. From an early age children tend to engage in role-modelling behaviour in relation to their parents (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004). It should be seen as no surprise that if children sense that when they win their parents are overwhelmed with happiness, they may associate winning as a way to please their parents and make them happy. Conversely, if a child senses that their parents are displeased when they don't win, they will associate a loss with disappointing their parents. This need to

feel a sense of belonging (Deci & Ryan, 2000) may help to explain why some children place such a high value on winning.

Observations of the tag rugby programme revealed that parents' comments were generally positive after games. When their child had lost, parents tended to be more reassuring to their children. Sometimes comments were entirely unrelated to the game, and were just the parent telling the child to go get some food from the sausage sizzle or to go get some fruit before they left to go home. A brief conversation witnessed during the observations, related to when a parent had arrived to the game late. The first question the parent asked was about winning, which reaffirms the earlier findings on parent's perceived importance of winning. Whilst, the child's reply supports the findings of the focus group interviews, that winning is not an over-riding concern for children:

Parent: "Hi, how are you? Are you winning?"

Child: "Yes, I think so."

We enjoy it just as much as our children do

Parents value their children's game time, and enjoy watching them play sport. Most of the parents interviewed said they would feel angry if their child played much less than other children in their team. This is highlighted below:

Reon: "How would you feel if your child was always on the bench or played much less than other children on their team?"

Parent #3: "[...] Yeah it would make me angry, to be honest [...] Ya know you don't come to the game to watch your child stand on the sideline. Ya know you just don't, it's. Unless you are just happy to stand there and watch them ya know support the team, that's fine by me but as a parent that's not

what I came to sports for. I came to watch my son on the field giving it a go, so yeah.”

Similar to findings by Wiersma and Fifer (2008) this case study presents the idea that a child’s level of playing time may influence not only the child’s enjoyment but also their parents. This idea was reflected by each parent interviewed. When asked the same question another parent answered:

Reon: “How would you feel if your child was always on the bench or played much less than other children on their team?”

Parent #2: “I would feel disappointed really. If they put them on the field for say five minutes, and then off. Five minutes in the first half and then five minutes second half, not really much game time ay. Yeah I know the feeling, when some parents are watching cause I’m a coach as well, I coach kids as well, and I know the feeling of parents when I sub them (their children). I try to balance them out, the game time on the field [...]”

Parents’ enjoyment from seeing their child play sport reveals a strong relationship with parents’ feelings of relatedness towards their children. The findings suggest the child’s sports environment provides a stage for parents to not only enjoy their child playing sport but also share in their sports experience.

Insider researcher field notes

The purpose of these insider researcher observations and field notes were threefold: to observe the children’s sporting environment of the tag rugby programme, to observe the Good Sports community module, and to observe how the tag rugby programme operated behind the scenes. Observations and key themes to emerge are reported below with regards to the Good Sports community module, and

from behind the scenes of the tag rugby programme. Observations of the children's sporting environment are not included in this section of the findings, as they are already interspersed throughout findings from the children's, and parent's perspectives. It was discovered through these insider researcher observations that for a programme to be successful whoever engages with the community must be equipped with cultural quotient.

Observations of the tag rugby programme

The focus of this case study was a 12-week urban-based community led tag rugby programme. Those who participated in the tag rugby programme were separated into different grades based on their age; these included an under-8s, under-10s, youth (13-17 years), and an open grade. Observations from this case study focused on the sporting environment experienced by those children participating in the under-8s and under-10s grades.

Every week before games children were seen socialising with their friends, dancing, eating fruit, and chasing each other. When games began this playful nature was still present, as children's laughter regularly filled the air, and many smiles were seen running around the field of play. Even when children made mistakes they tended to still have a smile on their face. In one instance when a girl playing in an under-8s tag rugby game played the ball instead of handing the ball over to the other team, the girl, her team-mate, and the opposition all laughed and carried on playing. This observation shows that children seemed to be under minimal pressure from parents whilst playing, and the environment was largely friendly in nature and not competitive.

In general most parents were less concerned with their children's team winning and were heard to be pleased that the tag rugby programme gave their children the opportunity to run around, play sport, and socialise. Throughout the 12-week tag rugby programme coach and parent comments observed tended to be a mix of both instructional and reinforcing, with coaches comments leaning towards instructional, and parents comments towards reinforcing. Parents enjoyed watching their children play during the tag rugby programme that they were seen to be disappointed when their children's games ended, and heard requesting more games for their children to play. The overall reaction to the tag rugby programme from the parents was a positive one, many enjoyed the sense of community produced, and praised the safe environment that was created for the children to play.

Observations of Good Sports Community Module

The Good Sports community module occurred during the last week of the 12-week tag rugby programme. The developer facilitated the module for four parents, and three teenagers also attended. In line with transformative learning approach, the developer used the powerful stories of overbearing parents displayed in the *Trophy Kids* US video to create a 'disorientating dilemma'. Combined with questions to prompt reflection and discussion, the video was used as a catalyst for sparking awareness of a person's behaviour. Good Sports community modules are aimed at educating key adult influencers with regard to appropriate ways to engage in the children's sporting environment.

The Good Sports messaging did not appear to resonate with the participants. Whilst the session prompted some good discussion between the participants, and those parents in attendance agreed with the key messages of Good Sports, they ultimately believed that you play sport to win. The Good Sports organisation

reflected on the modules and acknowledged that it is important when working with communities, sport organisations need to consider working with people who are known to that community, have mana, or be equipped with the cultural quotient to enable them to optimise their effectiveness. In Māori culture mana in broad terms is about prestige, power and status (Moeke-Pickering, 1996). Earley and Ang (2003) refer to cultural quotient as an individual's capability to relate and work effectively across cultures – this can include national, ethnic, and organizational. Working in communities without any of these traits may result in participants not feeling comfortable enough to share more delicate issues as they might struggle to relate to the person or view them as an outsider.

Furthermore, three teenagers were invited to participate in the Good Sports community module conducted with parents. When the topic shifted to winning the three teenagers were at first tentative to share their thoughts to the discussion but once one teenager was prompted to speak the other two were eager to join in and voice their opinion. Once the teenagers had spoken, one parent was quick to praise how he enjoyed hearing the teenagers “fresh perspectives”. Similar to the remark by Tai during one of the children's focus groups, two of the teenagers made comments that it was all about having fun with their mates.

Importantly, views from parents after the community module highlight an underlying tension in this community. While there is an agreement that fun, socialising and play are important parts of the sports environment, there also seems to be an implicit pressure on children to perform as a way of making your family proud. Quite simply, my informal conversations and observations reveal that sport is predominantly about playing well and striving to win. Despite scenes of free play throughout the tag rugby programme, some parents at the community module shared

afterwards the importance of a focus on performance with the facilitators of the tag rugby programme: “the reason kids have to perform is the family name.” Some parents even felt the strict parent approach modelled in the *Trophy Kids* car ride scene was “normal” and “the way” parenting is done. One parent from the *Trophy Kids* video who pushed his child throughout childhood and teen years to strive to become a top basketball player, ultimately ending in feelings of resentment from the son towards the father as he got older.

Conclusion

The observations of children’s experiences and analysis of children’s and parent’s interview responses would appear to confirm previous research with children. Children play sport primarily to have fun and to be with their friends. An interesting additional finding from the current case study is that these children are at the age and developmental stage when they themselves start to identify with outcomes and winning, which appears to clash with their pure desire for fun. Making their family proud is important to them and seen to be achievable through performance and winning. This highlights the significance of parents and family in shaping children’s perspectives of sport. Overall, although the tag rugby programme was a family oriented programme, with a focus on fun, it is also apparent that the notion of sport as a competitive enterprise is somewhat entrenched.

Key findings from this case study are that children want to play and parents want to watch their children enjoying themselves, but results matter. Children don’t place a great deal of importance on winning but recognise that their parent’s take pride in their performance. Consequently, children at this age may start to buy into

the view that winning is a way to make their family proud of them. The notion of 'fair play' is displayed by children wanting their parents to "be a little nicer" with their comments to all children, even opposition players, and focus less on winning and mistakes.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this case study was to capture the perspectives of both children and parents who were involved in a tag rugby programme where the parents had been exposed to a Good Sports community module. In the previous chapter data from focus group interviews (with children), individual interviews (with parents), insider researcher observations, informal conversations, and field notes were analysed using an inductive thematic analysis following recommendations by Braun and Clarke (2006). This process was undertaken to align with a qualitative descriptive methodology, and provide a straight description of events, with minimal interpretation (Sandelowski, 2000). Self-determination Theory SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) was then used as a theoretical lens to further examine the data.

Each of the dominant themes uncovered in the previous chapter will be discussed in more detail with the discussion drawing upon previous research in relation to the findings. In staying true to an instrumental case study approach as advocated by Stake (1995), it is re-emphasised that these findings are not proposed to be generalizable to a larger population, although findings from this case study may be used by the reader to provide potential further insight and develop understanding of children's experiences of organised sport.

The perspectives of children

Having fun

Fun was the dominant theme to emerge from this case study in relation to why children play sport. Throughout focus group interviews the children in this case

study spoke repeatedly about fun. Even when asked “If you were the coach what would you do differently?” one child Julian (age 10) answered:

Julian: “Let them have fun.”

The findings presented on this theme of fun support previous research internationally and in New Zealand that having ‘fun’ is the primary reason for children participating in sports (Petlichkoff, 1992; Walters et al., 2015). Although published over two decades ago, a systematic review by Petlichkoff (1992) discussed many points still relevant today, reporting insights from more than 10,000 young people aged between 10-18 years from 11 cities across the United States who discussed their feelings about their sport involvement. The results highlighted that: participation in organised sport declines sharply as children get older; “fun” is the key reason for involvement and “lack of fun” is one of the primary reasons for not continuing; winning plays less of a role than most adults would think; and not all athletes have the same motivations for involvement. The findings of this current case study indicate that little has changed in 25 years; children play sport primarily because they enjoy it.

The more recent study by Walters et al. (2015) utilised focus group interviews with a total of 30 children aged between 6-11 years to examine how adult behaviours can affect children’s enjoyment of sport. Walters et al. (2015) study may provide a more similar context to this case study than the study reported by Petlichkoff (1992) due to the similar age group of participants and geographical location – New Zealand. Those children involved in the study by Walters et al. (2015) spoke of sport primarily being a source of fun. The prevalence of this theme is voiced by many of the children involved in this case study, and throughout

children's sport literature which should emphasise the importance of creating an enjoyable sporting environment for children.

Additionally, children participating in this case study placed little importance on winning. During the focus groups children were asked about the importance of winning to them, David (age 8) responded that it was "not that important", and emphasized that to him it was more about team work than winning or losing. This further mirrors findings from Visek et al. (2015) and Walters et al. (2015). Fun means different things to different people, and Visek et al.'s study of fun in youth sports ranked 81 separate ways of defining fun, of which 'winning' was rated number 30. Some parents interviewed also acknowledged this, as shown by the response below:

Reon: "How important is winning to you?"

Parent #4: "Winning doesn't really matter, as long as the kids have fun, yeah."

The observations and informal conversations conducted with parents on the sidelines during the tag rugby programme confirmed this. Overall, most parents were less concerned with their children's team winning and were heard to be pleased that the tag rugby programme gave their children the opportunity to run around, play sport, and socialise.

As noted, different children derive fun from different things. As results from this case study show, the children interviewed derived fun predominantly from their social interactions with friends and team-mates whilst playing sport, and the sheer enjoyment of running and playing. The social environment that sport promotes enables the formation of strong connections with other people. It is this facilitation of a person's basic need for relatedness – as discussed by Deci and Ryan (2000) – that

can impact on children's sporting experiences, through the supporting of an intrinsically motivating environment. A child's level of intrinsic motivation, where a person performs an activity purely for the enjoyment of the activity in the absence of any external regulators, has been identified as the most powerful form of motivation, with low levels of intrinsic motivation seen to be predictive of an athlete's intentions to dropout of sport (Calvo et al., 2010). This 'pure' enjoyment of playing was viewed as a significant reason why some of the children in this case study found sport to be fun.

“Because your family members will be proud of you”

The theme of family pride appears to be a new finding to arise from this case study on the topic of research into children's sport. In this case study comments by children during focus group interviews revealed that children have strong feelings towards winning, individual performance, and family pride. This relationship between family pride and winning presents the notion that some children may view winning as a means of making their family proud of them. Atkinson (1964) proposes that the motivation to achieve is a learnt drive that is a result of two opposing forces: the need to succeed and the need to avoid failure. It is this drive to succeed which is fuelled by hope and pride. Although the work of Atkinson (1964) is dated, findings from this case study demonstrate this link between pride and success, with some of the children participating in this case study discussing their motivation for winning was to make their family proud.

Research on this notion of family pride in sport is scarce, particularly among literature on children's sport. Tamminen et al. (2016) explored the accounts of emotions as social phenomena among Canadian varsity athletes, reporting that

athletes may feel pride as a group-based emotion due to the function of his or her identity as a team member, and this group-based emotion may not need to occur in the presence of others. Tamminen et al. (2016) suggest that emotions such as pride should be viewed as social and relational, instead of treated as manifestations in the individual. It should be noted that this study by Tamminen et al. (2016) looked at athletes aged between 18-26 years. Therefore, it is noted with caution when comparing their findings with the findings from this case study with children aged between 7-13 years. A further caution may be that Tamminen et al. (2016) discuss pride in terms of internal pride (pride in oneself) and external pride (pride in ones team-mates), as opposed to pride that is presented in this case study, which pertains to pride as more of an external motivation that children view to satisfy their need to feel competent in front of their parents and other family members, and a sense of relatedness with them.

This drive for basic psychological needs satisfaction as discussed by Deci and Ryan (2000)—where a child is inherently motivated to satisfy their fundamental needs for competency, relatedness, and autonomy—is perhaps evident throughout this theme of family pride. To satisfy the needs of competency and relatedness children may feel that they need to either win or perform well, or both in front of their parents and family. This highlights the significance of the motivational environment created by coaches and parents. An environment which encourages children to strive to impress others is not reflective of the autonomy-supportive climate advocated by Mageau and Vallerand (2003). Breslin et al. (2017) conducted a cross-sectional study on 211 children aged 8 and 9 years from areas of low socio-economic status to determine the influence of psychological need (competence and social relatedness) satisfaction on physical activity levels and well-being. Their

findings showed that athletic competence and parental relatedness positively predicted children's well-being and physical activity levels. Breslin et al. (2017) also suggest that parental involvement may offer the opportunity to increase children's physical activity levels, and well-being. This suggestion by Breslin et al. (2017) offers some insight into the importance of creating an autonomy-supportive environment to facilitate longer-term involvement in sport for children.

The notion of pride is more prevalent in literature relating to children's education (Pekrun et al., 2004; Valiente, Swanson, & Eisenberg, 2012), particularly the premise that pride in one's ethnic or cultural heritage is associated with increased academic achievement (Byrd & Chavous, 2009). Valiente et al. (2012) discuss children's feelings of pride in their achievement in particular academic subjects can predict performance in those subjects, with high feelings of pride in a student's achievements being positively correlated with higher academic performance. Similarly, Pekrun et al. (2004) show that pride positively correlates with students' academic self-efficacy, academic interest and effort, and overall achievement. These authors' findings, although in an educational context, could provide some insight into feelings of pride and sport performance, as well as pride and longer term involvement in sport.

Although relating to education, Pekrun et al. (2004) present a positive correlation between pride and a student's academic self-efficacy. This is emulated in children's sport research by Brustad (1993) who mentions that as well as affecting a child's physical activity choices, parents also to some degree impact on a child's perceived self-competence, self-efficacy, and perceived control. The observation in this case study of the boy showing extra effort to chase down an opposition player in front of his older brother, and feeling dejected on the ground after missing the tag,

suggests a link between a child's feelings of competency and the theme of family pride. However, as further research into family pride is needed in relation to children's sport, the connection between a child's competency and family pride can only be implicitly inferred by this case study. This highlights the lack of literature around the notion of family pride, and presents an avenue for future researchers to explore in relation to children's sport.

The notion of family pride is potentially problematic. For these children participating in sport, the desire to make their families proud could be argued to be a form of external motivation. As noted by Deci and Ryan (1985), introjected regulation occurs when people take on regulations to their behaviour and is therefore internally driven; however, it does not originate from the self and is therefore considered not to be self-determined. What this means for these children is that if they are not 'successful'—playing well, winning, or scoring—then they may experience feelings of low self-worth or esteem as they may feel as though they have let their parents down.

We just want to have a run

As the case study findings show, children just love playing sport. However children not only want to play but want others to play and for playing time to be equal. This notion of 'fair play' was a strong theme to emerge in a previous New Zealand study by Walters et al. (2015), where children felt it was important that they got equal opportunities to experience equal game time irrespective of gender or ability. They also wanted to have the opportunity to try different positions. Coaching practices driven by an overriding focus on winning were perceived as being unfair, and as far as these children were concerned, sport needed to be fair.

In this case study, during focus groups, children were asked if they wanted to try different playing positions; many of the children said yes or nodded their head. Interestingly, when these children were asked “how does it make you feel if you can’t pick your positions?”, some of the children voiced that they would rather be on the field in a position they didn’t particularly like than not playing at all. This is illustrated by the words of Jasmine (age 8) below:

Jasmine: “Um yeah ok, depending on what position.”

Reon: “What if you got a position you hated?”

Jasmine: “At least you are playing.”

Observations from the tag rugby programme confirm that children are eager to play, often asking their coaches on the sideline if there was enough time for them to go back on the field and play.

In relation to a child’s enjoyment of sport, Burnett (2001) alluded to the fact that children can become frustrated with a lack of playing time and an overemphasis by coaches on winning. Other studies have also concluded that a lack of playing time is one of the main reasons why children dropout of sport (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2008; Sarrazin et al., 2002; Weiss & Petlichkoff, 1989). Therefore, it would seem to be fundamentally important that coaches and parents recognise that whilst children do enjoy winning, it might also be important to them that other children are not treated unfairly in order to achieve this. Findings from this case study mirror similar findings from studies on children’s reasons for dropping out of sport. Petlichkoff (1992) argues that the structures of organised sport are such that only the strong children survive, often leaving less skilled children sitting on the bench or being cut from the team completely so that the more skilled children can contribute to the team’s success.

The amount of playing time a child receives can have more than just an impact on a child's enjoyment of sport, Canning (2007), suggests that experiences from playing can increase the level of empowerment and autonomy in children. This presents an association between a child's level of autonomy and their amount of playing time. Ultimately, children want the freedom to just play (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2008), and without the pressures of winning. It has been shown by Reeve and Deci (1996) that not only does pressuring people to win by establishing competition within a controlling context lead to less intrinsic motivation, but also that perceptions of one's own autonomy can mediate this effect. This may in part help to explain why a child may choose to continue to play for a team with a strong emphasis on winning, quite simply because they are getting playing time.

The impact of parent comments: “Be a little nicer!”

What parents and coaches say holds great importance to children. The New Zealand study by Walters et al. (2012) found that coaches' comments on the sideline at children's sports games tend to fit one of three high level categories; positive (reinforcing or hustle), neutral (instructional, questioning, or other), and negative (correcting, scolding, sarcasm, or contradicting), with 50% of comments being instructional or negative. In this case study, coach and parent comments observed over the tag rugby programme tended to be a mix of both instructional and reinforcing, with coaches comments leaning towards instructional, and parents comments towards reinforcing. The comments observed were predominantly situated in the positive and neutral categories, as determined by Walters et al. (2012), whilst not many negative comments were observed throughout the tag rugby programme.

Similar to the findings in this case study, Omli and Wiese-Bjornstal (2011) investigated parent-spectator behaviour at youth sport events in the United States, asking children aged between 7-14 years to describe how parents actually behaved at youth sport events, and how they wanted parents to behave. Three parent ‘roles’ emerged from the data – supportive parent, demanding coach, and crazed fan. Generally, participants believed that parents should not coach from the sideline because in relation to sport children should listen to what the coach says rather than what parents say. The children also indicated that parents need to control their emotions during youth sport events to avoid acting like a ‘crazed fan’. Children preferred it when parents engaged in attentive silence, encouragement, and praise behaviours. When it came to cheering, children wanted parents to display empathy by cheering both teams so everyone has fun, and not cheer so loud as to make other children feel bad. This also draws parallels with the earlier described notion of ‘fair play’, showing that social factors in children’s sporting environments can have an effect across multiple themes presented in this case study. Children in the study by Omli and Wiese-Bjornstal (2011) didn’t like it when parents argued, blamed, yelled, said mean stuff, and fanatically cheered. This is emulated in this case study when Jenny (age 9) and Charlie (age 10) talked about wanting their parents to express themselves “but not in a yelling way”, and to “be a little nicer”.

Comments made by parents that have a focus on winning, losing and avoiding mistakes may reduce a child’s feelings of competency in their own skills (Holt et al., 2008). Deci and Ryan (2000) believe that the need for competence is perhaps the most straightforward psychological need, because a child that is interested and open can better adapt to new challenges in changing contexts. By moving the focus away from winning and avoiding mistakes parents can remove the

pressures a child may feel to perform (Petlichkoff, 1996). Ross, Mallett, and Parkes (2015) recommend that the removal of pressure and expectations that a child feels may be enough to stop some children from dropping out of sport. High parent expectations, pressure, and criticism have been correlated with increased stress, fear of failure, drop-out, lowered intrinsic motivation, reduced enjoyment, less belief in competence, and lower self-esteem in children (Brustad et al., 2001; Sagar & Lavallee, 2010; Wankel & Kreisel, 1985). This can be related to when Caleb (aged 11) talked about feeling sad and even associated feelings of disappointment when his parent's comments focussed on winning after a game that he had lost. Caleb's comments about how parental pressure to perform and win affected him help to demonstrate the potential impact that parent's, whose comments focus on winning, can have on their children.

Not only the things parents say but the way they say it can either improve a child's feelings towards how they perceive their own abilities when playing sport, enabling them to feel good or bad about themselves (Walters, 2011). Omli and Wiese-Bjornstal (2011) state that children often become embarrassed, annoyed, and become distracted when parents comments are delivered in an overly loud manner (i.e. yelling or shouting). This is reiterated in this case study when Ben (aged 9) mentioned during a focus group that parents on the sideline during his games would regularly yell "pass the ball, pass the ball!" as he played. This often would lead to Ben becoming "annoyed because they keep talking to me whilst I am playing and focusing". Therefore, parents should heed this advice from children like Jenny, Charlie, and Ben in relation to what they like to hear, and how verbal comments are relayed to them.

The perspectives of parents

Sport – a vehicle for personal development

The value of sport participation has gathered some empirical support, however there is evidence that involvement in sport can have a negative effect on children and adolescents (Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1993). The difference between whether sports build character or undesirable behaviours has less to do with the playing of the sport and more to do with the philosophy of the sport organisation, quality of coaching, nature and degree of parental involvement, and participants' individual experiences (Petitpas & Champagne, 2000; Smith & Smoll, 2002). Although research on the effects of sport participation on youth development is not conclusive, there is considerable empirical support for the type of learning environment sports facilitate that is conducive to fostering self-esteem, persistence, resilience, and skill development in children (Bailey et al., 2004; Mutrie & Parfitt, 1998; Petitpas et al., 2005). Findings from this case study support the perspective that sport participation can facilitate a learning environment for development in a range of domains. For example, Manu (aged 9) mention playing sport to “get faster”, and Sefina (aged 8) stated feeling “sort of happy because there is always another time” after playing games where she had lost. These responses by some of the children involved in this case study present a positive association between sport and youth development, with these examples relating specifically to skill development, persistence, and resilience.

Parents want their children to play sport as they believe it will help them develop as a person (Wiersma & Fifer, 2008). This view was shared by the parents involved in this case study. Throughout individual interviews, parents talked about sport as a way for their children “to develop themselves”, and “become better people through sport”. Using sport to foster personal development is a prevalent theme

evident throughout literature on the topic of children's sport (Brady, 2004; Caine & Krebs, 1986; Petitpas et al., 2008). Petitpas et al. (2005) reviewed literature on youth development through sport, and provided a framework for planning youth sport programmes that are structured to promote psychosocial development in participants. The review by Petitpas et al. (2005) presents concerns for the belief that sport participation teaches skills and attitudes that are important for adult life, suggesting that the emphasis on winning at all costs exhibited in youth sport has a detrimental effect on a young participant's psychosocial development. Four potential areas of concern for children's personal development through sport include: overbearing parents, questionable coaching tactics, losses in self-esteem, and high youth sport dropout rates. However, Petitpas et al. (2005) argue that if children's sporting environment includes coaches and parents that focus on effort, self-improvement, and intrinsic motivation, then there is considerable support for the notion that youth sport participants in this environment are most likely to display a strong work ethic, persist in the face of failures or disappointments, and commit the time and effort necessary to foster intrinsic motivation and develop positive life-skills. As noted by Parent #1 – "Just, probably just the environment and the team [...] Good behaviour, good on the field and off the field as well".

Sport presents many opportunities for children to learn, grow, and develop (Petitpas et al., 2005). The study by Visek et al. (2015) of fun in youth sports ranked "learning and improving" as number 4 out of 81 separate ways children defined fun. This is confirmed by findings from this case study, as can be seen in the exchange between the interviewer and Saia (age 8) below:

Reon: "How important is winning to you?"

Saia: "5/10."

Reon: "Why do you say that score?"

Saia: "I don't really mind winning and losing."

Reon: "You don't really mind, why's that?"

Saia: "Um because our team always loses."

Reon: "How does that make you feel?"

Saia: "Alright. Like, I can do better."

Parents interviewed also shared this same importance of personal development over winning:

Reon: "Um how important is winning to you?"

Parent #4: "To be honest it's not about winning really. It's more [...] encouraging and having fun out there, than winning [...] just help them develop to be able to understand winning and losing, as long as they are displaying good sportsmanship really."

Côté et al. (2009) highlight two pathways from childhood to elite sport participation – the early specialisation route, and the early sampling model. The early specialisation pathway focuses on a high volume of deliberate practice in a single sport. The early sampling model involves exposing children to a broad range of sports, and is seen by many authors as the more preferred pathway for developing more positive outcomes for children (Côté et al., 2009; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 2000). Sampling different sports at an early age for children can be important because the exposure to different physical and tactical skill sets, and social interactions that being involved in different sports and sporting environments provide for children (Côté et al., 2009). This is displayed by some parents from this case study who talked about wanting their children to "try any sports you can be good at", and believing that their kids should be entitled to have the freedom they experienced when they were young

and “not just hold them to one sport”. This freedom and autonomy reflected by these parents’ comments to allow their children to choose the sport they play can be positive to a child’s experiences of sport, as too much involvement from parents has been shown to have a negative impact (Hellstedt, 1988). Deci and Ryan (2000) view this freedom as an essential aspect of healthy human functioning, and this perceived autonomy is required for motivation to be intrinsic.

The value of winning

The notion of winning is deeply embedded at all levels of sport (Cumming, Smoll, Smith, & Grossbard, 2007). It is a complex notion, as children can start to identify positive outcomes with winning and ‘success’. Although parents see sport as a vehicle for personal development for their children, results presented in this case study show that parents are also aware of the value of winning and being a winner. These parent attitudes about winning are likely to impact their children in some shape or form (Heeren & Requa, 2001). This may be of some concern because children do not identify winning as a major reason for enjoyment in sport (Cumming et al., 2007; Meisterjahn & Dieffenbach, 2008; Visek et al., 2015). In sports, winning is commonly associated with success and losing with failure (Cumming et al., 2007). The idea of being a winner is seen by many parents as a precursor for success in later life. Parents from this case study share this same view about being a winner, with one parent describing sport as a way to turn children into “champions” both on and off the field. There are some who argue about the association between losing and failure, instead viewing losing as an opportunity for a child to grow and learn (Barth, 1966). Therefore, parent’s views towards the notion of winning and the perceived importance it holds for children could be a reflection of a parent’s own attitudes (Gerber, 1998), rather than the child’s. Findings from this case study present another

interesting dynamic for why children may perceive winning as being important, the theme of family pride as discussed earlier – where children may view winning as a way to make their family proud of them.

Research on the value of winning by Heeren and Requa (2001), used observations and interviews with a girls high school field hockey team in the United States to investigate the values gained through their participation in sport. Due to the team's lengthy record of success, the main value discovered was winning. Contrary to many other authors who tend to emphasize more negative consequences of having a high value placed on winning, Heeren and Requa (2001) suggest that winning can have generally positive results for not only the players but the wider community. The winning tradition exhibited by the team helped to draw players to the team, and garner interest from the parents. The study by Heeren and Requa (2001) discovered the spirit of togetherness was a dominant attitude exhibited by players, which helped to create a strong family orientated environment. Contrasting with findings from this case study and previous research (Meisterjahn & Dieffenbach, 2008), some of the players in Heeren and Requa's (2001) study mentioned that they would rather be on a "really winning hockey team, than on a really losing basketball team", even if they believed they were better at basketball than hockey. This reveals that the importance of winning may attract some players to be involved in a particular sport. However, it could be the attitude of togetherness and a strong family environment that retains the player. Heeren and Requa (2001) note that many of the same girls that played in the hockey team also play in the same volleyball team, and they just aren't winning. When they are in volleyball, they fight and don't get along well, and when they are in hockey they all play together. It changes them. This suggests that winning may be associated with a strong family environment and togetherness in some situations.

This relationship between winning and a strong family environment draws similarities between the findings from this case study in relation to the notion of family pride. This case study suggests that the motivation some children have to win may be driven by the need to make their family proud of them. It should be acknowledged that this study by Heeren and Requa (2001) involved a different age group (13-18 years) from the ages of the participants in this case study (7-13 years).

The findings by Heeren and Requa (2001) lend itself to a child's need to feel a sense of belonging (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and may help to explain why some children place such a high value on winning. This sense of belonging may not just be with their team-mates but also with their parents. Findings presented in this case study show that children are adept at noticing how their parents feel and act, particularly if these actions are as a result of their actions. Fredricks and Eccles (2004) discuss role-modelling in childhood development, from an early age children tend to engage in such role-modelling behaviours in relation to their parents. This role-modelling behaviour (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004), coupled with a child's need to feel a sense of belonging (Deci & Ryan, 2000), may help to understand the value of winning from a child's perspective. A child may sense that when they win their parents are overwhelmed with happiness, and from an early age begin to make an association between winning and their parent's happiness. In relation to SDT this is a prime example of introjected behaviour. The notion of introjected behaviour as discussed by Deci and Ryan (1985) describes taking on regulations to behaviour but not fully accepting said regulations as their own. Whilst in this case study these behaviours to win displayed by some of the children were internally driven, they did not come from the children themselves and thus were considered non-self

determined. This kind of behaviour is typically exhibited where people feel motivated to demonstrate ability to maintain self-worth (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The value placed on winning can have implications on a child's feelings of relatedness and competence. If a child senses parental happiness when they win, but conversely senses that their parents are displeased when they don't win, that child might then associate a loss with disappointing their parents due to role-modelling behaviours (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004). Therefore, children who lose or perform poorly throughout a sports season may start to feel less competent in their own abilities because they feel that they have let their parents down, and as a result of this might begin to have a lowered sense of relatedness with their parents. This regulated behaviour exhibited by some children is driven by the often unintended external demand of parents. This demand in turn may prompt a shift in a child's perceived locus of causality (reasons for) their involvement in sport, and attitudes to winning and performing well from internal to external (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

From a child's perspective, the value of winning presents similarities between the earlier mentioned theme of family pride, where a child views sport as an avenue to make their family proud of them through winning and performing well. However, the overwhelming body of evidence suggests that an over-emphasis on winning can create extremely pressurised environments for young children (Brustad et al., 2001; Burnett, 2001; Sagar & Lavalley, 2010). What this case study reveals is that children can feel as though they either make their family proud or let them down through their performances in sport. The net effect of this is that children's enjoyment of sport can start to move away from the purely intrinsically motivated reasons they stated (fun, belonging) and become goal oriented. Although the parents

are well-intentioned, it is likely from my observations, that they are unaware of the impact this may have on their children's experiences of sport.

We enjoy it as much as our children do

Findings from this case study show that parents value their children getting regular game time just as much as children do. Feelings of anger were evident throughout parents' individual interviews when the issue of playing time and their child not playing as much as others in their team was raised. Parents mentioned that this issue of playing time would "make me angry" and "I would feel disappointed". On multiple occasions over the course of the tag rugby programme parents enquired about the possibility of their children playing more than one game during the evening the tag rugby programme was held each week. Parents were even heard to be a little disappointed after their children's games had finished. For example:

"Aww is it over already? Do we get another game?" – Parent.

"Is anyone using the far field, the kids could have another run?" – Parent.

The findings from a study by Wiersma and Fifer (2008)—aimed at understanding the positive and negative aspects of parental involvement in youth sports from a parent's perspective—mirror the desire from parents displayed in this case study to see their child play. The study by Wiersma and Fifer (2008) included 55 parents in the United States, and through a series of 10 focus groups revealed that parents involved in children's sport found joy in observing their child's enjoyment, improvement, development, and success. The authors described this satisfaction as 'vicarious involvement,' where parents' enjoyment and satisfaction is positively gained through watching their children's enjoyment and success. Consequently, a child's level of playing time may influence not only the child's enjoyment but also

their parents. In this case study parents voiced their displeasure when discussing the issue of playing time, with one parent stating – “I came to watch my son on the field giving it a go”.

Dorsch, Smith, and McDonough (2009) present the idea of child-to-parent socialization – essentially how children influence their parents. Both parent-to-child (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998) and child-to-parent (Huh, Tristan, Wade, & Stice, 2006; Snyder & Purdy, 1982) socialization has been investigated in relation to children’s sport. This case study presents some notion of parent-to-child socialization – “as a parent kids know you are overwhelmed with a win”. This quote from the parent interviews show how observant children can be. Snyder and Purdy (1982) examined changes in parents due to having a child involved in sport, and found parent participants described an increased interest in sport as a result of their children’s sport participation. This can have a potential flow-on effect to the children where they see their parents’ enjoyment on the sideline as a result of watching them play, and more often than not if a parent is engaged then the child will often role model this behaviour (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004).

Parents that are engaged in their child’s sport can satisfy a child’s need for relatedness just by being there and paying attention, as relatedness refers to a child’s desire to feel connected to others, and to be loved and cared for (Deci & Ryan, 2000). These feelings of relatedness can resonate with a child when they have a parent that enjoys watching them play sport, and engaging in the supportive parent role that children prefer, as mentioned by Omli and Wiese-Bjornstal (2011).

Insider researcher field notes

Observations of Good Sports Community Module

Drawing upon my experiences observing, interviewing and listening to key influencer conversations in this case study, it would appear to be important to acknowledge that one size does not fit all. Based on the observations of the Good Sports community module from this case study it would appear that approaching a respected member or members in the community to work with and where circumstances dictate, on an organisation's behalf, can be an effective solution. This person will often have more knowledge about the community, and because they are a part of the community should be better equipped to distinguish what will work and won't work in relation to that particular community. This may potentially enable more open and honest dialogue to take place within such community modules.

Observations of the Good Sports community module suggest that to optimise the effectiveness when working in communities, sporting organisations need to consider working with people who are known to that community, have mana, or the cultural quotient to work across cultures and communities. Cultural quotient or cultural intelligence as it is also known by, is a term understood as the capability to relate and work effectively across cultures (Earley & Ang, 2003). Cultural quotient consists of three dimensions; motivational, cognitive, and behavioural (Ng, Van Dyne, Ang, & Ryan, 2012). According to Van Dyne, Ang, and Livermore (2010) a person possessing adequate cultural quotient will; show interest, and drive to adapt and work through challenges and conflicts that often occur in cross-culture work (motivational); have knowledge of cultural norms, values, practices and conventions (cognitive); and exhibit appropriate verbal and non-verbal actions when interacting with people from different cultures, based on the cultural norms, values, and practices of specific settings (behavioural).

This idea of cultural quotient may also be of consideration for researchers when conducting research and working with communities from different cultures. The effectiveness of a researcher to engage with communities of different cultures is determined by their ability to be aware of different cultural values and norms, and engage with them appropriately allowing the community they are working with to feel comfortable enough to share their true thoughts and feelings.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

The findings of this qualitative descriptive instrumental case study expose many themes that may help us to build on existing understanding of what helps to create a positive sporting experience for children. Through an SDT lens it reinforces the importance of nurturing children's needs for feelings of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Satisfaction of each of these basic psychological needs has been shown to increase a child's intrinsic motivation and drive to persist in an activity, in this case children's sport. From the perspectives of the children and parents involved in this case study it was discovered that in line with literature on children's sport, fun is still the main reason children play sport. However, some children at this age start to place importance on winning. Findings from this case study suggest that this importance placed on winning may be a result of children viewing the need to win and perform well as a means to make their family proud of them. According to the children, parents, and insider researcher observations of the environment in this case study, a child's ideal sporting environment should involve:

- Freedom to socialise with friends and team-mates,
- Equal game time for all,
- 'Nicer' sideline comments to both teams playing,
- Less emphasis on winning, and
- For parents to just be there and show a genuine interest in their sport participation.

Insider researcher observations generally reinforced the insights offered by both children and parents. Findings from this instrumental case study are not designed to be generalizable to a larger population, but instead this case study aims to present findings to: facilitate insights for the reader to enable a deeper understanding of children's experiences of sport; provide recommendations for parents, guardians, coaches, managers, and other stakeholders on how to create a

positive sporting experience for children; and highlight some considerations for those conducting research and working with a community.

Recommendations

Sporting organisations need to continue to work with parents and coaches to educate them about what makes a positive sporting environment for children. This includes fun, belonging, and just being present. What organisations could consider is that parents should be educated on how important it is to their children to make them proud, and the impact that that may have on children's enjoyment. What needs to be considered is that if a child does not play well, or loses, that parents need to be aware that their children may feel as though they have let them down.

The finding of this case study related to the notion of 'family pride' is potentially an important one and requires consideration by organisations who provide education for parents in relation to children's sport. Parents themselves are possibly not aware of the pressures experienced by children who want to make their parents proud. This is possibly an aspect that the Good Sports module could consider as they move forward.

This case study also suggests the importance of cultural quotient when working with communities. Similarly, sport organisations need to consider working with people who are known to that community, have mana, or be equipped with the cultural quotient to enable them to optimise their effectiveness. Possessing this cultural quotient will allow the capability to relate and work effectively across communities of differing cultures – this can include national, ethnic, and organizational.

Limitations

Findings from this case study come from the perspectives of children and parents involved in a tag rugby programme that had been exposed to a Good Sports community module in a low socio-economic area. The sample predominantly consisted of Māori and Pasifika families, with their children who were aged between 7-13 years. In order to gain participants' perspectives, children were involved in focus groups, and parents were involved in individual interviews'. This was supplemented by researcher field notes and observations. The number of parent participants involved in this case study due to logistical constraints – i.e. only 4 parents interviewed individually, is clearly a limitation of this study. Although sample size is often less relevant in qualitative research, this small number of participants may provide a limited representation of tag rugby programme parents' perspectives. Researcher observations and field notes may also be a limitation of this study, in the sense that bias could become apparent in the form of: selective memory (remembering or not remembering experiences or events that occurred at some point in the past); or, exaggeration (the act of representing outcomes or embellishing events as more significant than is actually suggested from other data) (Brutus, Aguinis, & Wassmer, 2013).

Nevertheless, it is hoped that this case study may be seen to make a contribution to the existing literature on children's sport. It confirms earlier findings that showed: children view fun as having more importance than winning; the impact that parents have on children's enjoyment of sport; children value their playing time; and the value of winning seen by both parents and children. In addition, this case study reveals what would appear to be a new theme in children's sporting research – the notion and impact of family pride. This may prove to be an avenue worthy of future research. Results of this study hold important implications for parents,

coaches, sports administrators, and the wider family, as they play significant roles in a child's sport experience.

References

- Agans, J. P., Ettekal, A. V., & Slack, C. (2016). PCA Impact Comparison Report of Findings. Medford, MA: Tufts University.
- Aktive Auckland Sport and Recreation. (2016). Aktive Auckland Sport and Recreation Annual Report 2015/2016. Auckland: Aktive Auckland Sport and Recreation.
- Alderson, P. (2004). Ethics. In S. Fraser, V. Lewis, S. Ding, M. Kellett & C. Robinson (Eds.), *Doing Research with Children and Young People*. London, England: SAGE.
- Anderson, J. C., Funk, J. B., Elliot, R., & Smith, P. H. (2003). Parental support and pressure and children's extracurricular activities: relationships with amount of involvement and affective experience of participation. *Applied Developmental Psychology, 24*, 241-257.
- Angrosino, M. (2005). Recontextualizing observation: Ethnography, pedagogy, and the prospects for a progressive political agenda. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3 ed., pp. 729-745). Thousand Oaks: CA: SAGE.
- Atkinson, J. W. (1964). *An introduction to motivation*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Bailey, R., Wellard, I., & Dismore, H. (2004). Girls' participation in physical activities and sports: Benefits, patterns, influences and ways forward. London, England: World Health Organisation.
- Baker, J. (2003). Early specialization in youth sport: A requirement for adult expertise? *High Ability Studies, 14*(1), 85-94.
- Baker, J., Cobley, S., & Fraser-Thomas, J. (2009). What do we know about early specialization? Not much! *High Ability Studies, 20*(1), 77-89.
- Barth, R. S. (1966). Science: Learning through failure. *The Elementary School Journal, 66*(4), 200-207.
- Bartholomew, K. J., Ntoumanis, N., Ryan, R. M., & Thøgersen-Ntoumanis, C. (2011). Psychological need thwarting in the sport context: Assessing the darker side of athletic experience. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 33*(1), 75-102.
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report, 13*(4), 544-559.
- Beattie, R. (2014). *The experiences of adolescents rowing in New Zealand: An insight into the influences on attrition in school rowing*. Auckland University of Technology, Auckland.
- Bergeron, M. F. (2007). Improving health through youth sports: Is participation enough? *New directions for youth development, 2007*(115), 27-41. doi: 10.1002/yd.221
- Berghe, L. V., Vansteenkiste, M., Cardon, G., Kirk, D., & Haerens, L. (2014). Research on self-determination in physical education: key findings and proposals for future research. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 19*(1), 97-121.
- Bitá, N. (2014, 1 November). Spoil sports: How parents are ruining the fun for their children, *The Australian*. Retrieved from

<http://www.theaustralian.com.au/life/weekend-australian-magazine/spoil-sports-how-parents-are-ruining-the-fun-for-their-children/story-e6frg8h6-1227107677394>

- Blaikie, N. (2007). *Approaches to social inquiry* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Polity.
- Blom, L. C., & Drane, D. (2008). Parents' sideline comments: Exploring the reality of a growing issue. *Athletic Insight: The Online Journal of Sport Psychology*, 10(3).
- Bloor, M., Frankland, J., Thomas, M., & Robson, K. (2001). *Focus groups in social research*. London, England: SAGE.
- Brackenridge, C., & Pitchford, A. (2009). Respect research 2008-09 final report. London, England: Centre for Youth Sport and Athlete Welfare Brunel University.
- Brackenridge, C., Pitchford, A., & Wilson, M. (2009). Respect: Results of a pilot project designed to improve behaviour in English football. *Managing Leisure*, 16(3), 175–191. doi: 10.1080/13606719.2011.583406
- Brady, F. (2004). Children's organized sports: A developmental perspective. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 75(2), 35-41. doi: 10.1080/07303084.2004.10608557
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77-101.
- Breslin, G., Shannon, S., Fitzpatrick, B., Hanna, D., Belton, S., & Brennan, D. (2017). Physical activity, well-being and needs satisfaction in eight and nine-year-old children from areas of socio-economic disadvantage. *Child Care in Practice*, 1-17. doi: 10.1080/13575279.2017.1299108
- Brink, P. (1991). Issues of reliability and validity. In J. Morse (Ed.), *Qualitative nursing research: A contemporary dialogue* (pp. 164-186). London, England: SAGE.
- Brustad, R. J. (1988). Affective outcomes in competitive youth sport: The influence of intrapersonal and socialization factors. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 10, 307-321.
- Brustad, R. J. (1993). Who will go out and play? Parental and psychological influences on children's attraction to physical activity. *Pediatric Science*, 5, 210-223.
- Brustad, R. J., Babkes, M., & Smith, A. (2001). Youth in sport: Psychological considerations. In R. Singer, H. Hausenblas & C. Janelle (Eds.), *Handbook of Sport Psychology* (pp. 604-635). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Brutus, S., Aguinis, H., & Wassmer, U. (2013). Self-reported limitations and future directions in scholarly reports: Analysis and recommendations. *Journal of Management*, 39(1), 48-75.
- Bryman, A. (2004). *Social research methods* (4 ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Burnett, D. (2001). *It's just a game: Youth, sports & self esteem*. Lincoln, NE: Author's Choice Press.
- Burrows, L., & McCormack, J. (2011). Young women's engagement in sport. Dunedin, New Zealand: University of Otago.

- Byrd, C. M., & Chavous, T. M. (2009). Racial identity and academic achievement in the neighborhood context: A multilevel analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 38, 544-559.
- Byrne, T. (1993). Sport: it's a family affair. In M. Lee (Ed.), *Coaching children in sport. Principles and practice* (pp. 39-47). London, England: E and FN Spon.
- Caine, D., & Krebs, E. (1986). The moral development objective in physical education: a renewed quest? *Contemporary Education*, 57, 197-201.
- Calvo, T. G., Cervello, E., Jimenez, R., Iglesias, D., & Murcia, J. A. M. (2010). Using self-determination theory to explain sport persistence and dropout in adolescent athletes. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 13(2), 677-684.
- Canning, N. (2007). Children's empowerment in play. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 15(2), 227-236.
- Carter, B. (2009). Tick box for child? The ethical positioning of children as vulnerable, researchers as barbarians and reviewers as overly cautious. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 46, 858-864.
- Carter, N., Bryant-Lukosius, D., DiCenso, A., Blythe, J., & Neville, A. J. (2014). The use of triangulation in qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 41(5), 545-547. doi: 10.1188/14.ONF.545-547
- Chambers, S. T. (1991). Factors affecting elementary school students' participation in sports. *Elementary School Journal*, 91(5), 414.
- Cheah, P. Y., & Parker, M. (2014). Consent and assent in paediatric research in low-income settings. *BMC Medical Ethics*, 15(22), 1-10. doi: 10.1186/1472-6939-15-22
- Coakley, J. J., Hallinan, C., Jackson, S. J., & Mewett, P. (2009). *Sports in society: Issues and controversies in Australia and New Zealand*. North Ryde, Australia: McGraw-Hill.
- Costley, C., Elliott, G., & Gibbs, P. (2010). Key concepts for the insider-researcher. In C. Costley, G. Elliott & P. Gibbs (Eds.), *Doing work based research: Approaches to enquiry for insider-researchers* (pp. 1-7). London, England: SAGE.
- Côté, J., Baker, J., & Abernethy, B. (2007). Practice and play in the development of sport expertise. In R. Eklund & G. Tenenbaum (Eds.), *Handbook of sport psychology* (pp. 184-202). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Côté, J., & Fraser-Thomas, J. (2007). Youth involvement in sport. In P. Crocker (Ed.), *Sport psychology: A Canadian perspective* (pp. 270-298). Toronto, Canada: Pearson.
- Côté, J., Lidor, R., & Hackfort, D. (2009). ISSP position stand: To sample or to specialize? Seven postulates about youth sport activities that lead to continued participation and elite performance. *International Journal Of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 7(1), 7-17.
- Côté, J., & Vierimaa, M. (2014). The developmental model of sport participation: 15 years after its first conceptualization. *Science & Sports*, 29, 63-69. doi: 10.1016/j.scispo.2014.08.133
- Cumming, S. P., Smoll, F. L., Smith, R. E., & Grossbard, J. R. (2007). Is winning everything? The relative contributions of motivational climate and won-lost percentage in youth sports. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 19, 322-336. doi: 10.1080/10413200701342640

- Danish, S., Petitpas, A., & Hale, B. (1993). Life development interventions with athletes: Life skills through sports. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 21, 352-385.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York, NY: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "What" and "Why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268. doi: 10.2307/1449618
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Entering the field of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-17). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Dorsch, T. E., Smith, A. L., & McDonough, M. H. (2009). Parents' perceptions of child-to-parent socialization in organized youth sport. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 31, 444-468.
- Duvivier, R. J., van Dalen, J., Muijtjens, A. M., Moulaert, V. R., van der Vleuten, C. P., & Scherpbier, A. J. (2011). The role of deliberate practice in the acquisition of clinical skills. *BMC Medical Education*, 11, 101-107. doi: 10.1186/1472-6920-11-101
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Eckmanns, T., Bessert, J., Behnke, M., Gastmeier, P., & Rüden, H. (2006). Compliance with antiseptic hand rub use in intensive care units: The Hawthorne effect. *Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology*, 27, 931-934.
- Eisenberg, N., Cumberland, A., & Spinrad, T. L. (1998). Parental socialization of emotion. *Psychological Inquiry*, 9, 241-273.
- Ericsson, K. A. (2003). Development of elite performance and deliberate practice: An update from the perspective of the expert performance approach. In J. Starkes & K. A. Ericsson (Eds.), *Expert performance in sports: Advances in research on sport expertise* (pp. 49-81). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Ericsson, K. A., Krampe, R. T., & Tesch-Römer, C. (1993). The role of deliberate practice in the acquisition of expert performance. *Psychological Review*, 100, 363-406.
- Fagan, J. (2015). Global appeal of kiwi campaign to clean up kid's sport. Retrieved April 7, 2016, from <http://www.stuff.co.nz/national/71043736/global-appeal-of-kiwi-campaign-to-clean-up-kids-sport>
- Field, M. (2013, 08 June). NZRU looks to halt parents sideline abuse, *stuff.co.nz*. Retrieved from <http://www.stuff.co.nz/sport/rugby/8772818/NZRU-looks-to-halt-parents-sideline-abuse>
- Finch, H., & Lewis, J. (2014). Focus groups. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice : A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 170-198). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2011). Case study. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4 ed., pp. 301-316). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Fosnot, C. T. (1996). *Constructivism: Theory, perspectives, and practice*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press

- Fraser-Thomas, J., & Côté, J. (2009). Understanding adolescents' positive and negative developmental experiences in sport. *The Sport Psychologist*, 23(1), 3-23.
- Fraser-Thomas, J., Côté, J., & Deakin, J. (2008). Understanding dropout and prolonged engagement in adolescent competitive sport. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 9(5), 645-662.
- Fredricks, J. A., & Eccles, J. S. (2004). Parental influences on youth involvement in sports. In M. R. Weiss (Ed.), *Developmental sport and exercise psychology: A lifespan perspective* (pp. 145-164). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Gearity, B. T., & Murray, M. A. (2011). Athletes' experiences of the psychological effects of poor coaching. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 12, 213-221.
- Gerber, M. (1998). Winning isn't everything: A group work approach to sports teams. *Social Work With Groups*, 21(3), 35-48.
- Gervis, M., & Dunn, N. (2004). The emotional abuse of elite child athletes by their coaches. *Child Abuse Review*, 13, 215-223.
- Giddings, L. S., & Grant, B. M. (2002). Making sense of methodologies: A paradigm framework for the novice researcher. *Contemporary Nurse*, 13(1), 10-28.
- Gillet, N., Vallerand, R. J., Amoura, S., & Baldes, B. (2010). Influence of coaches' autonomy support on athletes' motivation and sport performance: A test of the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 11(2), 155-161. doi: 1.1016/j.psychsport.2009.10.004
- Gould, D. (1987). Understanding attrition in children's sports. In D. Gould & M. Weiss (Eds.), *Advances in Pediatric Sports Sciences and Behavioral Issues* (pp. 66-85). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Gould, D., Lauer, I., Roman, N., & Pierce, M. (2005). Parenting tennis champions: A study of professional tennis players, their parents and coaches. Vancouver, Canada: Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology.
- Gould, D., Tuffey, S., Udry, E., & Loehr, J. (1996). Burnout in competitive junior tennis players: II. Qualitative analysis. *The Sport Psychologist*, 10, 322-340.
- Graham, A., & Fitzgerald, R. (2010). Children's participation in research: Some possibilities and constraints in the current Australian research environment. *Journal of Sociology*, 46(2), 133-147.
- Grant, B. C., & Pope, C. (2004). *What's all the fuss about sideline behaviour at kids sport?* Paper presented at the the Young People, Sport and Physical Activity: Healthy Futures Conference, Hamilton, New Zealand.
- Green, C. B., & Chalip, L. (1998). Antecedents and consequences of parental purchase decision involvement in youth sport. *Leisure Sciences*, 30, 95-109.
- Greene, M. (1994). Epistemology and educational research: The influence of recent approaches to knowledge. *Review of Research in Education*, 20, 423-464.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. *Educational Communication and Technology*, 30(4), 233-252.
- Hall, J., & Stevens, P. (1991). Rigor in feminist research. *Advances in Nursing Science*, 13(3), 16-29.
- Hamstra, K. L., Cherubini, J. M., & Swanik, C. B. (2002). Athletic injury and parental pressure in youth sports. *Athletic Therapy Today*, 7(6), 36-43.

- Health Promotion Forum of New Zealand. (2002). *TUHA-NZ: A treaty understanding of hauora in Aotearoa-New Zealand*. Auckland, New Zealand: Health Promotion Forum of New Zealand.
- Heeren, J. W., & Requa, M. (2001). Winning Ways: Constructing values on a girls high school field hockey team. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 25, 417-429.
- Hellstedt, J. C. (1987). The coach/parent/athlete relationship. *The Sport Psychologist*, 1, 151-160.
- Hellstedt, J. C. (1988). Early adolescent perceptions of parental pressure in the sport environment. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 13, 135-144.
- Helsen, W. E., Hodges, N. J., Winckel, J. V., & Starkes, J. L. (2001). The role of talent, physical precocity and practice in the development of soccer expertise. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 18, 727-736.
- Holt, N. L., Tamminen, K. A., Black, D. E., Sehn, Z. L., & Wall, M. P. (2008). Parental involvement in competitive youth sport setting. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 9(5), 663-685.
- Huh, D., Tristan, J., Wade, E., & Stice, E. (2006). Does problem behavior elicit poor parenting?: A prospective study of adolescent girls. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 21(185-204).
- Humbert, M. L., Chad, K. E., Spink, K. S., Muhajarine, N., Anderson, K. D., Bruner, M. W., . . . Gryba, C. R. (2006). Factors that influence physical activity participation among high- and low-SES youth. *Qualitative Health Research*, 16(4), 467-483.
- Jones, A. (2004). Involving children and young people as researchers. In S. Fraser, V. Lewis, S. Ding, M. Kellett & C. Robinson (Eds.), *Doing Research with Children and Young People*. London, England: SAGE.
- Kayes, N. M., Mcpherson, K. M., Taylor, D., Schluter, P. J., & Kolt, G. S. (2011). Facilitators and barriers to engagement in physical activity for people with multiple sclerosis: a qualitative investigation. *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 33(8), 625-642.
- Keller, J. (2015, 20 January). B.C. minor hockey league says it will ban 'abrasive' parents, *The Candian Press*. Retrieved from <http://www.theglobeandmail.com/news/british-columbia/bc-minor-hockey-league-says-it-will-ban-abrasive-parents/article22547458/>
- Kidman, L. (2005). *Athlete-centred coaching. Developing inspired and inspiring people*. Christchurch, New Zealand: Innovative Print Communications Ltd.
- Kidman, L., & Lombardo, B. J. (2010). *Athlete-centred coaching: Developing decision makers* (2nd ed.). Worcester, England: IPC Print Resources.
- Kidman, L., McKenzie, A., & McKenzie, B. (1999). The nature and target of parents' comments during youth sport competitions. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 22, 54-68.
- Kreuger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000). *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research* (3 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE
- Krueger, R. (1994). *Focus Groups* (2 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kuh, D., Ben-Shlomo, Y., Lynch, J., Hall, J., & Power, C. (2003). Lifecourse epidemiology. *Journal of Epidemiology Community Health* 57, 778-783.

- Kumar, M. (2006). Constructivist epistemology in action. *The Journal of Educational Thought*, 40(3), 247-262.
- Lansdown, G. (2011). Every child's right to be heard: A resource guide on the UN committee on the rights of the child general comment no.12. London, England: Save the Children UK.
- Lapadat, J. C., & Lindsay, A. C. (1999). Transcription in research and practice: From standardization of technique to interpretive positionings. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 5(1), 64-86.
- Law, M., Côté, J., & Ericsson, K. A. (2007). The development of expertise in rhythmic gymnastics. *International Journal Of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 5, 251-267.
- LeBlanc, J. E., & Dickson, L. (1996). *Straight talk about children and sport: Advice for parents coaches and teachers*. Ontario, Canada: Coaching Association of Canada.
- Legard, R., Keegan, J., & Ward, K. (2014). In-depth Interviews. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 138-169). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1990). Judging the quality of case study reports. *Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 3(1), 53-59.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4 ed., pp. 97-212). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Long, T., & Johnson, M. (2000). Rigour, reliability and validity in qualitative research. *Clinical Effectiveness in Nursing*, 4, 30-37.
- Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). The coach-athlete relationship: A motivational model. *Journal of Sports Science*, 21(11), 883-904.
- Malterud, K. (2001). Qualitative research: Standards, challenges and guidelines. *The Lancet*, 358, 483-488.
- Markland, D., & Tobin, V. (2004). A modification to the behavioral regulation in exercise questionnaire to include an assessment of a motivation. *Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 26, 191-196.
- Maxwell, J. A. (1992). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard Educational Review*, 62(3), 279.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2011). Epistemological heuristics for qualitative research. In H. Soini, E. Kronqvist & G. L. Huber (Eds.), *Epistemologies for qualitative research* (pp. 9-26). Tübingen: Germany: Center for Qualitative Psychology.
- McAllen, J. (2015, 21 June). Rene Naufahu sets up sideline behaviour campaign, *stuff.co.nz*. Retrieved from <http://www.stuff.co.nz/auckland/local-news/69566619/Rene-Naufahu-sets-up-sideline-behaviour-campaign>
- McMahon, J., & Zehntner, C. (2014). Shifting perspectives: Transitioning from coach centred to athlete centred - challenges faced by a coach and an athlete. *Journal of Athlete Centered Coaching*, 1(2), 1-19.

- Meisterjahn, R., & Dieffenbach, K. (2008). Winning vs. participation in youth sports: Kids' values and their perception of their parents' attitudes. *The Journal of Youth Sports*, 4, 4-7.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective transformation. *Adult Education*, 28, 100-110.
- Milena, Z. R. (2008). Qualitative research methods: A comparison between focus-groups and in-depth interview. *Journal of the Faculty of Economics*, 4(1), 1279-1283.
- Ministry of Education. (2008). Deciles information. Retrieved 8th March, 2017, from <http://www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/Schools/SchoolOperations/Resourcing/OperationalFunding/Deciles/DecilesInformation.aspx>
- Moeke-Pickering, T. (1996). Maori identity within whanau: A review of literature. Hamilton, New Zealand: University of Waikato.
- Morrow, S. L. (2005). Quality and trustworthiness in qualitative research in counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52(2), 250-260.
- Morrow, V., & Richards, M. (1996). The ethics of social research with children: An overview. *Children and Society*, 10, 90-105.
- Mutrie, N., & Parfitt, G. (1998). Physical activity and its link with mental, social and moral health in young people. In J. Biddle, J. F. Sallis & N. Cavill (Eds.), *Young and active? Young people and health enhancing physical activity-evidence and implications* (pp. 49-68). London, England: HEA.
- Ng, K. Y., Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Ryan, A. M. (2012). Cultural intelligence: A review, reflections, and recommendations for future research. In A. M. Ryan, F. T. Leong & F. L. Oswald (Eds.), *Conducting multinational research: Applying organizational psychology in the workplace* (pp. 29-58). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Oliver, E. J., Markland, D., Hardy, J., & Petherick, C. M. (2008). The effects of autonomy-supportive versus controlling environments on self-talk. *Motivation & Emotion*, 32, 200-212. doi: 10.1007/s11031-008-9097-x.
- Omli, J., LaVoi, N. M., & Wiese-Bjornstal, D. M. (2008). Towards an understanding of parent spectator behavior at youth sport events. *The Journal of Youth Sports*, 3(2), 30-34.
- Omli, J., & Wiese-Bjornstal, D. M. (2011). Kids speak. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 82(4), 702-711. doi: 10.1080/02701367.2011.10599807
- Parker, J. (2005). Cheers boost morale. Retrieved April 6, 2016, from http://www.statehornet.com/cheers-boost-morale/article_4b8b7b34-df57-5f99-93e1-c7610f49f414.html
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2 ed.). Newbury Park, CA: SAGE.
- Patton, M. Q. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Sciences Research*, 34, 1189-1208.
- Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Perry, R. P., Kramer, K., Hochstadt, M., & Molfenter, S. (2004). Beyond test anxiety: Development and validation of the Test Emotions

- Questionnaire (TEQ). *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping: An International Journal*, 17, 287-316.
- Penney, D., & Kidman, L. (2014). Athlete centred coaching: A time for reflection on meanings, value and practice. *Journal of Athlete Centered Coaching*, 1(1), 2-5.
- Petitpas, A. J., & Champagne, D. E. (2000). Sport and social competence. In S. J. Danish & T. P. Gullotta (Eds.), *Developing competent youth and strong communities through after-school programming* (pp. 115-137). Washington, DC: CWLA Press.
- Petitpas, A. J., Cornelius, A. E., Van Raalte, J., & Jones, T. (2005). A framework for planning youth sport programs that foster psychosocial development. *The Sport Psychologist*, 19(1), 63-80.
- Petitpas, A. J., Cornelius, J. A., & Van Raalte, J. (2008). Youth development through sport: It's all about relationships. In N. L. Holt (Ed.), *Positive youth development through sport* (pp. 61-70). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Petlichkoff, L. M. (1992). Youth sport participation and withdrawal: Is it simply a matter of fun? *Pediatric Exercise Science*(4), 105-110.
- Petlichkoff, L. M. (1993). Coaching children: Understanding their motivational process. *Sport Science Review*, 2(2), 48-67.
- Petlichkoff, L. M. (1996). The drop-out dilemma in youth sports. *The child and adolescent athlete*, 418-430.
- Power, T. G., & Woolger, C. (1994). Parenting practices and age-group swimming: A correlational study. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 65, 59-66.
- Radio New Zealand. (2015, 19 May). Parent's behaviour at grade game 'unacceptable', *Radio New Zealand News*. Retrieved from <http://www.radionz.co.nz/news/regional/274044/parent%27s-behaviour-at-grade-game-%27unacceptable%27>
- Randall, L. (1992). *The student teacher's handbook for physical education*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Reeve, J., & Deci, E. L. (1996). Elements within the competitive situation that affect intrinsic motivation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 24-33.
- Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (2014). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Ross, A. J., Mallett, C. J., & Parkes, J. F. (2015). The influence of parent sport behaviours on children's development: Youth coach and administrator perspectives. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 10(4), 605-621.
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. (2012). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-determination Research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

- Sagar, S., & Lavalley, D. (2010). The developmental origins of fear of failure in adolescent athletes: Examining parental practices. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 11, 177-187.
- Sandelowski, M. (2000). Focus on research methods - Whatever happened to qualitative description? *Research in Nursing & Health*, 23, 334-340.
- Sarrazin, P., Vallerand, R., Guillet, E., Pelletier, L., & Cury, F. (2002). Motivation and dropout in female handballers: A 21-month prospective study. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 32(3), 395-418.
- Scanlan, T. K., & Lewthwaite, R. (1986). Social psychological aspects of competition for male youth sport participants: IV. Predictors of enjoyment. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 8(25-35).
- Schmidt, R. A., & Wrisberg, C. A. (2000). *Motor learning and performance: A problem-based learning approach*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Schram, T. H. (2006). *Conceptualizing and proposing qualitative research (2nd ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Schuette, J. R. (2001). Adolescent sports violence - when prosecutors play referee. Making criminals out of child athletes, but are they the real culprits? *Northern Illinois University Law Review*, 21, 515-540.
- Seefeldt, V., Ewing, M., & Walk, S. (1992). *Overview of Youth Sports Programs in the United States*. Washington, DC: Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development.
- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Education for Information*, 22, 63-75.
- Shivayogi, P. (2013). Vulnerable population and methods for their safeguard. *Perspective of Clinical Research*, 4(1), 53-57. doi: 10.4103/2229-3485.106389
- Smith, R. E., & Smoll, F. L. (2002). Youth sports as a behavior setting for psychological interventions. In J. L. V. Raalte & B. W. Brewer (Eds.), *Exploring sport and exercise psychology* (2 ed., pp. 341-371). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Smith, R. E., Smoll, F. L., & Curtis, B. (1979). Coach effectiveness training: A cognitive-behavioral approach to enhancing relationship skills in youth sport coaches. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 1, 59-75.
- Smoll, F. L., & Smith, R. E. (2006). Enhancing coach-athlete relationships: Cognitive-behavioral principles and procedures *The sport psychologist's handbook: A guide for sport-specific performance enhancement*. Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Snyder, E. E., & Purdy, D. A. (1982). Socialization into sport: Parent and child reverse and reciprocal effects. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 53(263-266).
- Sport New Zealand. (2012). *Sport and Recreation in the Lives of Young New Zealanders*. Wellington, New Zealand: Sport New Zealand.
- Spreitzer, E., & Snyder, E. E. (1976). Socialization into sport: An exploratory path analysis. *Research Quarterly*, 47, 238 – 245.
- Stake, R. (1978). The case-study method in social inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 7, 5-8.
- Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

- Stake, R. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry* (3 ed., pp. 119-150). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Stein, G. L., Raedeke, T. D., & Glenn, S. D. (1999). Children's perceptions of parent sport involvement: It's not how much, but to what degree that's important. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 22(4), 591-601.
- Stirling, A. E. (2013). Understanding the use of emotionally abusive coaching practices. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 8(4), 625-639. doi: 10.1260/1747-9541.8.4.625
- Swaby, N. (2014, 4 September). Dad, coach booted from youth football for bad behavior, *King5*. Retrieved from <http://www.king5.com/story/news/local/seattle/2014/09/04/dad-coach-fight-football-youth-league/15054807/>
- Swanborn, P. (2010). *Case study research: What, why, and how?* London, England: SAGE.
- Taipari, G. (2014, 08 May). Campaign targets sideline behaviour, *Hawke's Bay Today*. Retrieved from http://www.nzherald.co.nz/hawkes-bay-today/news/article.cfm?c_id=1503462&objectid=11251563
- Tamminen, K. A., Palmateer, T. M., Denton, M., Sabiston, C., Crocker, P. R., Eys, M., & Smith, B. (2016). Exploring emotions as social phenomena among Canadian varsity athletes. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 27, 28-38. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2016.07.010>
- Taylor, E. W. (2009). Fostering transformative learning. In J. Mezirow & E. W. Taylor (Eds.), *Transformative learning in practice: Insights from community, workplace and higher education* (pp. 3-17). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- The Football Association. (2008). The Football Association's National Game Strategy 2008-2012: The vision of grassroots football in England - Your game Your say Our goal. London, England: The Football Association.
- Thomson, R. W. (2000). Physical activity through sport and leisure: Traditional versus non-competitive activities. *Journal of Physical Education New Zealand*, 33(1), 34-39.
- Ullrich-French, S., & Smith, A. L. (2006). Perceptions of relationships with parents and peers in youth sport: Independent and combined prediction of motivational outcomes. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 7, 193-214.
- Valiente, C., Swanson, J., & Eisenberg, N. (2012). Linking students' emotions and academic achievement: When and why emotions matter. *Child Development Perspectives*, 6(2), 129-135. doi: 10.1111/j.1750-8606.2011.00192.x
- Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Livermore, D. (2010). Cultural intelligence: A pathway for leading in a rapidly globalizing world. In K. M Hannum, B. McFeeters & L Booysen (Eds.), *Leading across differences* (pp. 131-138). San Francisco, CQ: Pfeiffer.
- van Maanen, J. (1983). *The fact and fiction in organizational ethnography: Qualitative methodology*. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE.
- Vaughn, S., Schumm, J. S., & Sinagub, J. (1996). *Focus group interviews in education and psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

- Vissek, A. J., Achrati, S. M., Mannix, H. M., McDonnell, K., Harris, B. S., & DiPietro, L. (2015). The fun integration theory: Toward sustaining children and adolescents' sport participation. *Journal of Physical Activity and Health*, 12(3), 424-433. doi: 10.1123/jpah.2013-0180
- Wall, M., & Côté, J. (2007). Developmental activities that lead to drop out and investment in sport. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 12, 77-87.
- Walters, S. R. (2011). *Whose game are we playing? a study of the effects of adult involvement on children participating in organised team sports*. Auckland University of Technology, Auckland.
- Walters, S. R., Payne, D., Schluter, P. J., & Thomson, R. W. (2015). 'It just makes you feel invincible': A Foucauldian analysis of children's experiences of organised team sports. *Sport, Education and Society*, 20(2), 241-257. doi: 10.1080/13573322.2012.745844
- Walters, S. R., Schluter, P. J., Oldham, A. R., Thomson, R. W., & Payne, D. (2012). The sideline behaviour of coaches at children's team sports games. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 13(2), 208-215. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2011.11.008
- Wankel, L. M., & Kreisel, P. S. (1985). Factors underlying enjoyment of youth sports: Sport and age group comparisons. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 7, 51-64.
- Ward, P., Hodges, N. J., Williams, A. M., & Starks, J. L. (2004). Deliberate practice and expert performance: Defining the path to excellence. In A. M. Williams & N. J. Hodges (Eds.), *Skill acquisition in sport: Research, theory and practice* (pp. 231-258). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Weegar, M. A., & Pacis, D. (2012). *A Comparison of Two Theories of Learning—Behaviorism and Constructivism as applied to Face-to-Face and Online Learning*. Paper presented at the E-Leader Conference, Manila, Philippines.
- Weiss, M. R., & Amorose, A. J. (2008). Motivational orientations and sport behaviour. In T. S. Horn (Ed.), *Advances in Sport Psychology* (3 ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Weiss, M. R., & Petlichkoff, L. M. (1989). Children's motivation for participation in and withdrawal from sport: Identifying the missing links. *Pediatric Exercise Science*, 1(3), 195-211.
- Wiersma, L. D., & Fifer, A. M. (2008). "The schedule has been tough but we think it's worth it": The joys, challenges, and recommendations of youth sport parents. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 40(4), 505-530.
- Wiles, R., Heath, S., Crow, G., & Charles, V. (2005). *Informed consent in social research: A literature review*. Southampton, England: ESRC National Centre for Research Methods.
- Woods, R. B. (2007). *Social issues in sport*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Yang, J. Y. (2015). Effects of participation in a summer sports camp on at-risk boys: A self-determination theory perspective. *International Journal of Applied Sports Sciences*, 27(2), 87-97.

Appendices

Appendix A: AUTC approval for study

AUTEC Secretariat

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, WU406 Level 4 WU Building City Campus
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

13 May 2016

Simon Walters

Faculty of Health and Environmental Sciences

Dear Simon

Re Ethics Application: **16/99 Children's experiences of sport: A case study.**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 13 June 2019.

As part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to AUTEC:

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 13 June 2019;
- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 13 June 2019 or on completion of the project.

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration

to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to obtain this.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, please use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at ethics@aut.ac.nz.

All the very best with your research,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'K O'Connor', with a stylized, cursive script.

Kate O'Connor

Executive Secretary

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: Reon Sadiman reon.s@hotmail.co.nz, Adrian Farnham

Appendix B: Ethics documentation related to children's focus group interviews

Participant Information Sheet

AUT

TE WĀNANGA ARONUI
O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

Date Information Sheet Produced:

15 March 2016

Project Title

Children's experiences of sport: A case study

An Invitation

Hello – my name is Reon Sadiman, I have a passion for sports and youth education. I would like to invite you to take part in a research project exploring children's experiences in sport. This research project will be used to fulfil a Masters in Sport and Exercise qualification that I am currently undertaking. Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary (your choice), and you have the choice to withdraw at any time.

What is the purpose of this research?

The purpose of this research project is to gain a better understanding of the impact that adult behaviour has on children's experiences in sport. It is hoped that this information gained will help us to better understand reasons behind why children stop playing sport, inform parents and coaches, create a more child-centred sporting environment, and give children a voice to better understand their expectations of appropriate adult behaviour in and around their sporting environment. The findings of this case study will also be used to inform recommendations made to Active and Sport New Zealand in relation to their Good Sports project.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You were chosen to participate as you meet the criteria for the study; you are aged between 11-13 years, your school is involved in the Good Sports intervention program, you regularly participate in sport, and your parent(s) are regularly involved in your sport.

What will happen in this research?

If you choose to take part, you will be involved in a focus group discussion with a small group of other participants. During these focus groups you will have the chance to voice your own opinions and experiences around sport. This focus group will be audio-taped. I will also be a part of your sports team for the season, and will act as an observer and collect field notes. These field notes are reflective notes that will be used as data for the case study.

What are the discomforts and risks?

You may feel uncomfortable talking about any overly negative or traumatic incident you may have experienced involving adult behaviour relating to your sport.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

You have the choice not to talk about any subject or experience that you find distressing, or withdraw from the focus group and/or the study at any time. In addition, you can be referred to a counsellor to discuss any concerns following the focus group if you would like.

What are the benefits?

There will be no immediate benefits to you for taking part in this study. However, information that you provide could help to inform adults of a more appropriate way to behave in the sport environment. This would allow for a more enjoyable experience for children involved in sport.

How will my privacy be protected?

Recordings and transcripts of focus groups will only be available to the research team. The stories you discuss in the focus groups will be reported in such a way that you are not identifiable in any way when it is written up. This will include the use of pseudonyms to protect your identity. No information that could be used to identify you as a participant in this project will be included in any of the project reports or publications.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The only cost to you as the participant will be your time. If you choose to take part, each focus group will run for 30-40 minutes.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

Please indicate if you would like to take part in the research to the organisation that gave you this information within two weeks of receiving this information sheet.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

You will need to get your parent/guardian to complete a consent form, and you will also need to complete an assent form to take part in this research study. This will be provided to you by the person you received this information sheet from. Once you have completed the consent and assent forms, your contact details will be passed on to the researcher who will contact you.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

You have the option to receive a summary of the findings of this research. Once these are available, you can choose to have them sent to you at an address you provide, or attend an information meeting given by the research team. You will get details of these options once the study has been completed (about 12 months after your interview).

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisors,

Simon Walters, simon.walters@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7022
Adrian Farnham, adrian.farnham@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7594

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTC, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details:

Reon Sadiman, reon.s@hotmail.co.nz, 0211867479

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Simon Walters, simon.walters@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7022
Adrian Farnham, adrian.farnham@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7594

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 13/05/16, AUTC Reference number 16/99.

Parent/Guardian Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:

15 March 2016

Project Title

Children's experiences of sport: A case study

An Invitation

Hello – my name is Reon Sadiman, I have a passion for sports and youth education. Your child is invited to take part in a research project exploring the impact of adult behaviour on children's experiences in sport. This research project will be used to fulfil a Masters in Sport and Exercise qualification that I am currently undertaking. Your child's participation in this project is entirely voluntary, and you have the choice to withdraw them at any time.

What is the purpose of this research?

The purpose of this research project is to gain a better understanding of the impact that adult behaviour has on children's experiences in sport. It is hoped that this information gained will help us to better understand reasons behind why children stop playing sport, inform parents and coaches, create a more child-centred sporting environment, and give children a voice to better understand their expectations of appropriate adult behaviour in and around their sporting environment. The findings of this case study will also be used to inform recommendations made to Active and Sport New Zealand in relation to their Good Sports project.

How was your child identified and why are they being invited to participate in this research?

They were chosen to participate as they meet the criteria for the study; they are aged between 11-13 years, their school is involved in the Good Sports intervention program, they regularly participate in sport, and you are regularly involved in their sport.

What will happen in this research?

If you choose to consent, they will be involved in a focus group discussion with a small group of other participants. During these focus groups they will have the chance to voice your own opinions and experiences. This focus group will be audio-taped. I will also be a part of their sports team for the season, and will act as an observer and collect field notes. These field notes are reflective notes that will be used as data for the case study.

What are the discomforts and risks?

They may feel uncomfortable talking about any overly negative or traumatic incident they may have experienced involving adult behaviour relating to their sport.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

They will have the choice not to talk about any subject or experience that they find distressing, or withdraw from the focus group and/or the study at any time. In addition, if they so wish, they can be referred to a counsellor to discuss any concerns following the focus group.

What are the benefits?

There will be no immediate benefits for taking part in this study. However, you will be able to hear stories that may resonate with you personally about how adult behaviour can affect children participating in sport. This information that they provide could help to inform adults of a more appropriate way to behave in the sport environment. This would allow for a more enjoyable experience for children involved in sport.

How will my privacy be protected?

Recordings and transcripts of focus groups will only be available to the research team. No information that could be used to identify your child as a participant in this project will be included in any of the project reports or publications. The stories your child discusses in the focus groups will be written in a way so that they are not identifiable in any way when it is written up. This will include the use of pseudonyms to protect their identity.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The only cost to your child will be their time. If you choose to consent, focus groups will run for 30-40 minutes.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

Please indicate if you would like to take part in the research to the organisation that gave you this information within two weeks of receiving this information sheet.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

You and your child will need to complete consent and assent forms respectively to take part in this research study. This will be provided to you by the person you received this

information sheet from. Once you have completed the consent form, your contact details will be passed on to the researcher who will contact you.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

You have the option to receive a summary of the findings of this research. Once these are available, you can choose to have them sent to you at an address you provide, or attend an information meeting given by the research team. You will get details of these options once the study has been completed (about 12 months after your interview).

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, *Simon Walters*, simon.walters@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7022
Adrian Farnham, adrian.farnham@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7594

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTC, *Kate O'Connor*, ethics@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details:

Reon Sadiman, reon.s@hotmail.co.nz, 0211867479

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Simon Walters, simon.walters@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7022
Adrian Farnham, adrian.farnham@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 7594

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *13/05/16*, AUTC Reference number *16/99*.

Parent/Guardian Consent Form

Project title: ***Children's experiences of sport: A case study***

Project Supervisor: ***Simon Walters & Adrian Farnham***

Researcher: ***Reon Sadiman***

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 15 March 2016.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that field notes may also be taken during the study.
- ☐ I understand that parents and coaches may read stories from the focus groups. However, these stories will be written up in a way so that your child is not identifiable in any way.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw my child/children and/or myself or any information that we have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If my child/children and/or I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- ☐ I agree to my child/children taking part in this research.

☐ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one):

Yes ☐ No ☐

Child/children's name/s :

.....
.....
.....

Parent/Guardian's signature:

.....

Parent/Guardian's name:

.....

Parent/Guardian's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....
.....
.....
.....

Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 13/05/16

AUTEC Reference number 16/99

Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.

Assent Form

Project title: ***Children's experiences of sport: A case study***

Project Supervisor: ***Simon Walters & Adrian Farnham***

Researcher: ***Reon Sadiman***

- ☐ I have read and understood the sheet telling me what will happen in this study and why it is important.
- ☐ I have been able to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that field notes may also be taken during the study.
- ☐ I understand that parents and coaches may read stories from the focus groups. However, these stories will be written up in a way so that you are not identifiable in any way.
- ☐ I understand that while the information is being collected, I can stop being part of this study whenever I want and that it is perfectly ok for me to do this.
- ☐ If I stop being part of the study, I understand that all information about me, including the recordings or any part of them that include me, will be destroyed.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.

Participant's signature:

.....

Participant's name:

.....

Participant Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....

.....

.....

.....

Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 13/05/16

AUTEC Reference number 16/99

Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.

Children's experiences of sport: A case study – Focus group interview protocol

Interviewer: _____

Interviewee #1: _____ Gender: _____

Interviewee #2: _____ Gender: _____

Interviewee #3: _____ Gender: _____

Interviewee #4: _____ Gender: _____

Interviewee #5: _____ Gender: _____

Date & Time: _____ Location: _____

PROTOCOL

My name is Reon Sadiman. I am working on an approved research study at AUT – University, exploring children's experiences of sport.

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research project. Have you read the information provided to you, entitled "participant information"? Before we begin the focus group interview, I would like to reassure you that this interview will be confidential and the tape and transcripts available only to my research supervisors and me.

Do you all voluntarily agree to participate in this interview?

Do any of you mind if I record the interview?

If there is anything you don't want me to record; just let me know and I will turn off the recorder.

Written and oral reports and other material coming out of this study will present only combined data and information from all participants. Parts of this interview may be made part of the final research report. Under no circumstances will your responses, name or identifying characteristics be included in this report. Do any of you have any questions I can answer before we begin?

Is it alright for me to turn on the recorder now?

Focus group interview questions

Children's experiences of sport: A case study – Focus group interview questions

1. Why do you play sport?
2. What do you enjoy most about playing sport?
 - Why?
3. How important is winning to you?
 - Why?
4. Do you have any friends that have stopped playing sport?
 - Why do you think they stopped playing?
5. Do your parents ever come to watch you play sport?
 - What do they do/say?
 - How does this make you feel?
 - What about other parents?
 - Why do you think they say/do these things?
 - Do they say or do any other things?
6. Who takes you to the game?
 - What do they talk about on way there? (If negative, what would you get them to do different?)
 - What talk about on way home?
7. When you get home if your parent wasn't there, what do they say?
8. Do they (your parents) talk more about mistakes or praise?
 - What about conversations with your coach?
9. After a game where you won, what do your parents usually say?
 - How does this make you feel?
 - What about what your coach says?
10. Now what about after a game where you lost. What do your parents say?
 - How does this make you feel?
 - And what do your coaches say?
11. Would you get your parent/s or other parents to do anything differently?
 - What things?
 - Why do you think these are not being done?
 - What about (before/during/after)?
12. What does your coach say to you before a game?
 - What about during the game?
 - After the game?
13. When you watch opposition coaches, what do they say are they different from your coach?
If yes, in what way?
14. Do you feel like you are a part of the team?
15. Are you allowed to pick your positions on the field or are you always for example on the wing?**
 - If no, who decides what position you have?

- How does this make you feel?
 - Would you like to try other positions?
16. Are you free to make your own decisions on the field?
17. Do you feel everyone is equal in your team or are some more important than others?
18. Do some kids get told off more?
19. Do you all get equal game time?
- If no, how does that make you feel?
 - If your friend got less game time how do you think that would make them feel?
20. If you were the coach what would you do differently, if anything?*
21. Who took part in the last Turbo Touch module that was run on Friday evenings at the rec centre?
- If yes, would you say this Tag competition was more or less fun/enjoyable?
 - Why?
22. Does anyone have any family members playing in the competition?
- If yes, whom?
23. For those that have other family members also playing in the competition, do you enjoy playing with your family/watching them play?
- If yes, what did you enjoy the most?
 - If no, why not?
24. What do/did you enjoy the most about the competition? (most enjoyable?)
25. How about anything that you don't/didn't enjoy as much about the competition? (least enjoyable?)
26. Do you think this competition has had any impact on your community?
- What kind of impact?
27. If another competition was run, would you be interested in taking part?
28. What sports would you like to try?

Thank you so much for your time ☺

Appendix C: Ethics documentation related to parent's individual interviews

Participant Information Sheet

Parent Interviews

Date Information Sheet Produced:

25 January 2017

Project Title

Children's experiences of sport: A case study

An Invitation

Hello – my name is Reon Sadiman, I have a passion for sports and youth education. I would like to invite you to take part in a research project exploring children's experiences in sport. This research project will be used to fulfil a Masters in Sport and Exercise qualification that I am currently undertaking. Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary (your choice), and you have the choice to withdraw at any time.

What is the purpose of this research?

The overall purpose of this research project is to gain a better understanding of the impact that adult behaviour has on children's experiences in sport. It is hoped that this information gained will help us to better understand reasons behind why children stop playing sport, inform parents and coaches, create a more child-centred sporting environment, and give children a voice to better understand their expectations of appropriate adult behaviour in and around their sporting environment. The findings of this case study will also be used to inform recommendations made to Active Auckland and Sport New Zealand in relation to their Good Sports project.

The purpose of this specific part of the research project is to gain the insight of parents who have attended a Good Sports Module. We are interested in your opinions about the role and value of children's sport and of the messaging that you will hear about in the Good Sports Module.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You are attending a Good Sports parents' Module. We would like to interview FOUR parents. Parents play an important role in supporting their children's sport and we are interested in your perspectives. If more than four participants agree to participate then

the envelopes received from the first four parents responses opened will be invited to participate in this research.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Please complete the expression of interest on the final page and place in the envelope provided. I will contact you using your preferred contact details provided.

We will then arrange an interview date and time and at that time you will have the opportunity to ask questions again and if you wish to proceed at that point will sign a consent form provided for you.

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether or not you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. You are able to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, then you will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to you removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of your data may not be possible.

What will happen in this research?

If you choose to take part, you will be involved in an interview with me which will last for approximately 20 minutes. This interview will be audio-taped. The four interviews I conduct will then be analysed and written up by me – identifying the key points raised. These points will be included in the final writing up of the study, with reports provided to Active Auckland, Sport New Zealand, and will be included in the final write up of my Masters study. No identifying information will be included in these write-ups.

What are the discomforts and risks?

Due to the nature of the general questions I will ask about children's sport, it is unlikely there will be any discomfort for you during the interview.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

You do not have to answer any questions that you feel uncomfortable about answering, and are able to withdraw from the interview at any time.

What are the benefits?

There will be no immediate benefits to you for taking part in this study. However, information that you provide could help to inform adults of a more appropriate way to behave in the sport environment. This would allow for a more enjoyable experience for children involved in sport.

How will my privacy be protected?

Recordings and transcripts of the interview will only be available to the research team. The information you discuss in the interview will be reported in such a way that you are not identifiable when it is written up. This will include the use of pseudonyms to protect your identity. No information that could be used to identify you as a participant in this project will be included in any of the project reports or publications.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

It is envisaged the interview will last 20 minutes.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

I will contact you within 5 days of receiving your expression of interest. We will agree an interview time at a time convenient to you.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

You have the option on the consent form to receive a summary of the findings of this research. Once these are available, you can choose to have them sent to you at an address you provide, or attend an information meeting given by the research team. You will get details of these options once the study has been completed (about 12 months after your interview).

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Simon Walters, simon.walters@aut.ac.nz 09 921 9999 x 7022

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTECH, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz , 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form (which you complete prior to your interview) for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details:

Reon Sadiman, reon.s@hotmail.co.nz

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Simon Walters, simon.walters@aut.ac.nz 09 921 9999 x 7022

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 13/05/16, AUTECH Reference number 16/99.

If you are interested in participating in this research, please add your details below and I will contact you within 5 days of this Module. Please put the completed sheet in the envelope provided and place in the box provided in the Module before you leave.

Thank you for your interest!

Yes, I would be interested in being interviewed for this research project.

Name: _____

Preferred contact details:

Consent Form

Parent interviews

Project title: Children's experiences of sport: A case study

Project Supervisor: Simon Walters

Researcher: Reon Sadiman

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 25 January 2017
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ I understand that if I withdraw from the study then I will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to me removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of my data may not be possible.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.
- ☐ I wish to receive a summary of the research findings (please tick one):

Yes ☐ No ☐

Participant's signature:

.....

Participant's name:

.....

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....

.....

.....

.....

Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 13/05/16

AUTEC Reference number 16/99

Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.

Children's experiences of sport: A case study – Parent interview protocol

Interviewer: _____

Date and Time: _____

Location: _____

PROTOCOL

My name is Reon Sadiman. I am working on an approved research study at AUT – University, exploring children's experiences of sport.

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research project. Have you read the information provided to you, entitled "participant information"? Before we begin the interview, I would like to reassure you that this interview will be confidential and the tape and transcripts available only to my research supervisors and me.

Do you agree to participate in this interview?

Do you mind if I record the interview?

If there is anything you don't want me to record; just let me know and I will turn off the recorder.

Written and oral reports and other material coming out of this study will present only combined data and information from all participants. Parts of this interview may be made part of the final research report. Under no circumstances will your responses, name or identifying characteristics be included in this report.

I do not need to know the name of your child as in this interview I am only interested in your perspectives on children's sport and on your feelings about the key messaging from the Good Sports Module you attended.

Do any of you have any questions I can answer before we begin?

Is it alright for me to turn on the recorder now?

Interview questions

Children's experiences of sport: A case study – interview questions

1. Do you think it is important for your child to play sport?
 - a. Why?
2. What does your child enjoy about sport?
3. Why do you think your child plays sport?
4. How important is winning to you?
 - a. Why
5. How important do you think winning is to your child?
 - a. Why
6. How would you describe success for your child?
 - a. Do you think this is different from how they define success for themselves
 - b. If yes, what do you think they define success as
7. Are conversations with your child after a game different depending on if they win or lose?
 - a. Can you give me an example of what you say
8. Do you think that everyone should have equal playing time or that only the most talented children should play?
9. How would you feel if your child was always on the bench or played much less than other children on their team?
 - a. How do you think they would feel?
10. Do you think your child has any input into making decisions around their sport (i.e. what they do at practice, what position they play)?
 - a. If yes, how much?
 - b. Do you think they should have more/less/any?
11. Do you encourage your child to just play and focus on one sport or to try out multiple sports?
 - a. Why
12. If your child shows talent in one sport – when do you think they should start focusing only on that sport to the expense of others (specialisation)?
13. How many hours a week do you think your child should practice their sport?
14. What were the key messages that resonated with you (or not) from the Good Sports Module?
15. Do you have anything else you would like to add?

Thank you so much for your time ☺

Appendix D: Consultation for study protocols

From: Paul Wedge
Sent: Thursday, 17 March 2016 4:28 p.m.
To: Simon Walters <swalters@aut.ac.nz>
Cc: Reon Sadiman <reon.s@hotmail.co.nz>; Adrian Farnham
<afarnham@aut.ac.nz>
Subject: RE: Ethics query

Hi Simon

No problem at all; I understand.

My opinion is that it is impossible to predict an individual's reaction to research, given the diverse backgrounds of each person. This is especially the case with children aged 6-13, as they are particularly vulnerable to the adults in their lives, and are developmentally very different from adults (especially cognitively and emotionally). So while discomfort or risk from the interviews is not envisaged, I believe it would be prudent to have support in place. There is a possibility that the research questions could elicit an unexpected reaction, especially as the research is looking at both enjoyable and *non-enjoyable* aspects of sport.

Kind regards

Paul



Paul Wedge

MA (Hons), PGDipClinPsych, MNZCCP

Head of Counselling
Health, Counselling & Wellbeing
Auckland University of Technology



P 09 921 9999 ext 6045 M 021 246 2061 E paul.wedge@aut.ac.nz W aut.ac.nz



From: Simon Walters
Sent: Thursday, 17 March 2016 4:09 PM
To: Paul Wedge <em8305@aut.ac.nz>
Cc: Reon Sadiman <reon.s@hotmail.co.nz>; Adrian Farnham
<afarnham@aut.ac.nz>
Subject: RE: Ethics query

Thanks Paul – absolutely agree but ethics committees ask us to consult with experts. Catch 22.

Cheers

Simon

From: Paul Wedge
Sent: Thursday, 17 March 2016 2:45 p.m.
To: Simon Walters <swalters@aut.ac.nz>
Cc: Reon Sadiman <reon.s@hotmail.co.nz>; Adrian Farnham
<afarnham@aut.ac.nz>
Subject: RE: Ethics query

Hi Simon

Thank you for clarifying and seeking my opinion. So while we at HCW are unable to offer counselling support for children, I understand your question is whether such support may be needed in the first place. I think this question definitely needs to be directed to the appropriate ethics committee, as it is about research involving human participants (children). My professional opinion is less relevant; it is an ethics question.

Hope it goes well

Kind regards

Paul



Paul Wedge

MA (Hons), PGDipClinPsych, MNZCCP

Head of Counselling
Health, Counselling & Wellbeing
Auckland University of Technology



P 09 921 9999 ext 6045 M 021 246 2061 E paul.wedge@aut.ac.nz W aut.ac.nz

From: Simon Walters

Sent: Wednesday, 16 March 2016 1:39 PM

To: Paul Wedge <em8305@aut.ac.nz>

Cc: Reon Sadiman <reon.s@hotmail.co.nz>; Adrian Farnham
<afarnham@aut.ac.nz>

Subject: RE: Ethics query

Hi Paul,

Thanks for your response. In your capacity would you be able to comment on whether you would feel that this service is necessary or required as an option? We are basically interviewing kids in that age group purely about their positive or negative experiences in sport. So the purpose of my initial request was 2 fold – consulting as to whether a study such as this would be deemed to require an offer of counselling; if so, to see whether that service was available (which from your response is not as you offer support for adults).

If you feel able to offer your expert opinion I would appreciate that. However, if you feel we should direct that query also to Kidsline or Youthline we can do that.

Cheers,

Simon

Simon Walters, PhD
Senior Lecturer, School of Sport and Recreation
AUT
Tel: 09 921 9999 ext 7022
<http://www.aut.ac.nz/profiles/simon-walters>

From: Paul Wedge
Sent: Wednesday, 16 March 2016 1:27 p.m.
To: Simon Walters <swalters@aut.ac.nz>
Cc: Reon Sadiman <reon.s@hotmail.co.nz>; Adrian Farnham <afarnham@aut.ac.nz>
Subject: RE: Ethics query

Hello Simon

Stella McFarlane forwarded me your email query regarding ethics support for research involving child participants aged 6-13 years.

I have discussed this with Stella, and unfortunately we are unable to offer counselling support for child participants, as the age range is outside our scope of practice. Our ability to provide counselling support for participants (should it be required) is limited to adult participants (aged 18 years and above).

I am unsure who else you could contact for this age range, but wonder if someone like Kidline or Youthline may be useful points of contact to begin with?

Sorry we are unable to assist in this instance.

Kind regards

Paul Wedge



Paul Wedge
MA (Hons), PGDipClinPsych, MNZCCP

Head of Counselling



From: Simon Walters
Sent: Wednesday, 2 March 2016 4:11 p.m.
To: Stella McFarlane <smcfarla@aut.ac.nz>
Cc: Reon Sadiman <reon.s@hotmail.co.nz>; Adrian Farnham
<afarnham@aut.ac.nz>
Subject: Ethics query

Hi Stella

I am co-supervising (with Adrian Farnham) a postgraduate Masters student – Reon Sadiman – who is conducting interviews with children (ages 6 to 13) in relation to their experiences of organized sport. What they enjoy and what they don't enjoy. We do not envisage any discomfort or risk during these interviews, but would be grateful for any advice you could offer in this regard.

A number of years ago I did similar interviews for my PhD and consulted with you at that time and received a memo which provided information for people about how to seek counselling if it was required.

I am not sure if you are still the person to contact in this regard. If not, would you be able to advise who to contact?

Regards,

Simon

Simon Walters, PhD
Senior Lecturer, School of Sport and Recreation
AUT

Tel: 09 921 9999 ext 7022

<http://www.aut.ac.nz/profiles/simon-walters>

From: **Peter Shimwell** (Peter@youthline.co.nz)

Sent: Wednesday, 4 May 2016 3:38:00 p.m.

To: reon.s@hotmail.co.nz (reon.s@hotmail.co.nz); simonwlaters@aut.ac.nz (simonwlaters@aut.ac.nz)

Cc: Youthline Support Centre (supportcentre@youthline.co.nz); Kirk Vette (kirk.vette@youthline.co.nz); David Anstiss (David@youthline.co.nz)

Hi Reon,

Many thanks for your email.

From the short description you have included with your enquiry we would concur that the topic of sport is an area that would reflect a relatively low level of risk although much will depend on the particular methodology you propose to collect the information and question used. Here a comprehensive client risk assessment would be advisable for you to undertake.

As the age group you are dealing with would be considered vulnerable on account of their age, appropriate safeguards should be put in place to protect their safety and wellbeing. One of these safeguard could be the provision of counselling should any participants be adversely affected by the process you have designed. Should you wish to offer this service to the children and or their whanau/families Youthline would be very happy to provide this service if required.

Many thanks for your enquiry

Kind Regards,

Peter Shimwell

Clinical Services Manager

M 021871058 | DDI 09 3614172 Ext: 701

Youthline - Changing Lives

Celebrating over 43 years of service to the community.

Notice of Confidentiality - This transmission contains information that may be confidential and that may also be privileged. Unless you are the intended recipient of the message (or authorized to receive it for the intended recipient) you may not copy, forward, or otherwise use it, or disclose its contents to anyone else. If you have received this transmission in error, please notify us immediately and delete it from your system.

From: reon.s@hotmail.co.nz [<mailto:reon.s@hotmail.co.nz>]

Sent: Wednesday, 20 April 2016 3:19 p.m.

To: booth1

Cc: Simon Walters; Adrian Farnham

Subject: Ethics query about study with children

To whom it may concern

My name is Reon Sadiman and I am a masters research student conducting a study with children aged between 11-12 years of age. I will be running focus groups with the children around the topic of their experiences in sport, both positive and negative. My supervisors who have had experience running focus groups with children believe that this study is of low risk to the children. However, Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) has advised me to contact you to get your consultation about whether or not I should offer counselling services to the children with regard to any trauma caused by sharing their experiences.

If you have any questions or feel the need to get in contact with my supervisor, his contact details are:

simon.walters@aut.ac.nz

I look forward to hearing from you.

Reon