Does Sports Build Positive Youth Development?

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Does Sports Build Positive Youth Development?

A Synthesis of the Research Literature

A Synthesis Project

Presented to the

Department of Kinesiology, Sports Studies, and Physical Education

The College at Brockport

State University of New York

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science in Physical Education (Athletic Administration with Certification)

By

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Date: 5/13/19

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Date: ________5/13/2019____________

Accepted by the Department of Kinesiology, Sport Studies, and Physical Education, The College at Brockport, State University of New York, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Science in Education (Physical Education).

Chairperson, Department of Kinesiology, Sport Studies, and Physical Education
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Abstract

Youth sports are as popular as they have ever been and their popularity is increasing. According to The National Council on Youth Sports (NCYS) “over 44 million youth participated in organized sports in 2008, and more recent estimations suggest an estimated 45 million youth participate in organized sports” (Hodge, Kanters, Forneris, Bocarro, & Sayre, 2017, p. 35). The purpose of this synthesis was to discover two different things. The first purpose was to identify whether sports builds positive youth development and to explore how to best encourage positive youth development in a sport setting.

After synthesizing the literature, results indicated that sports does indeed develop positive youth development. However, it was found that playing youth sports does not automatically develop positive youth development; an intentionally designed program has to be in place in order for positive youth development (PYD) to occur. Autonomy-supportive environments that focused on the well-being of the athlete were major influences on whether PYD occurred in a program. Future research should be done with larger sample sizes and more quantitative studies. In addition, understanding the parent perspective is critical because they have the ultimate say in whether their child continues in a program or not.

Keywords: (a) Five C’s (confidence, competence, character, connection, and caring), (b) positive youth development, (c) youth sport, (d) Sportsmanship, (e) empowering climate, and (f) motivational climate.
Chapter 1

Introduction

Youth sports has the potential to be both beneficial and detrimental in regard to youth development. According to The National Council on Youth Sports (NCYS) “over 44 million youth participated in organized sports in 2008, and more recent figures suggest an estimated 45 million youth participate in organized sports” (Hodge, Kanters, Forneris, Bocarro, & Sayre, 2017, p. 35). More than ever kids are turning to sports to have fun, to meet new friends, to be active, and to learn and improve sports skills (Strand 2014). As such, it is a powerful tool in the development of young people. This paper will examine the perceptions coaches, parents, and players have regarding Positive Youth Development (PYD) in youth sports. In addition, this project will explore how to best develop PYD in a sport setting. PYD encompasses life values that enhance youth to becoming well-rounded people in society. PYD is not something that you have, but is something that is taught and modeled through someone’s life.

Perceptions of PYD have been addressed in prior research, but the topic remains fairly new in the field of sports psychology. Early research suggests that participation in youth sports does not automatically create positive youth development experiences; it has to be incorporated in a program that has been intentionally designed and managed to create positive outcomes (Chalip, 2006; Edwards, 2015; Lyras & Welty-Peachey, 2011). One thing that is already known about PYD is that values such as character, sportsmanship, and respect are often mentioned in regards to youth sport but they are not always specifically taught and modeled by the leaders and coaches.
The article “Good (Youth) Sports: Using Benefits – Based Programming to Increase Sportsmanship (2008)” discussed two groups of teams. One is the control group where all the players, coaches and parents acted on and demonstrated good sportsmanship and the other group had participants who did not focus on teaching or modeling sportsmanship. This research found that the control group had more positive experiences related to sportsmanship than the group that did not focus on sportsmanship. What is still not clear regarding perceptions of PYD is who has the biggest influence on PYD and life skills in youth athletes. There are varying answers regarding who has the biggest impact on positive youth development. Wells, M. S., Arthur-Banning, S. G., Paisley, K. P., Ellis, G. D., Roark, M. F., & Fisher, K. (2008), found coaches have been deemed positive life changers, champions of second chances, father figures, and “gods”. They have similarly been called dishonest and corrupt cheaters, pedophiles, and two faced.

**Purpose of Study**

The purpose of this synthesis project is to explore whether sports builds positive youth development. A secondary purpose is to explore how to best encourage positive youth development in a sport setting.

**Research Questions**

1. What are the perceptions of coaches regarding positive youth development in youth sports?
2. What are the perceptions of parents regarding positive youth development in youth sports?
3. What are the perceptions of players regarding positive youth development in youth sports?

4. How do we best develop positive youth development in sport setting?

**Operational Definitions**

1. **Positive youth Development**: Developmental indicators that form the framework of positive sports experience: Connection, character, competence, confidence, caring or compassion (Lerner, Fisher, & Weinberg, 2000; Pittman et al., 2001).

2. **Values**: “individuals or groups motivate action by giving it direction and intensity, provide standards by which behavior is evaluated, and are learned by individuals from the dominant values of their social groups, and through their own experiences.” (Schwartz 1994).

3. **Sportsmanship**: Ethical, appropriate, polite and fair behavior to be exhibited by athletes, coaches, officials, administrators and fans (parents) in athletic competition.” (Bredemeier 1995).

4. **Motivational climate**: Empowering Climate that include elements of task-involved climates (focus on effort, learning, and skill mastery), elements of autonomy-supportive climates informed by the skill-determination theory (SDT). In contrast, disempowering climates include ego-involved climates, which have a focus on winning. (Legg, Newland, Bigelow, (2018).

5. **Pro-social behavior**: positive forms of social behavior that are voluntary, not motivated by personal obligations, and that have positive social results (Wells, M. S., Arthur-Banning, S. G., Paisley, K. P., Ellis, G. D., Roark, M. F., & Fisher, K. (2008).

**Assumptions**

- The participants in each study answered all questions truthfully and honestly.
- All instruments used to collect data were valid and reliable

**Delimitations**

- Articles examined the perceptions of youth athletes, their coaches, and their parents.
- All articles focused on youth sport, recreation programs, interscholastic, but not intercollegiate sports.
- All articles were published between 2008-2019, and were peer reviewed, data based.

**Limitations**

- Many studies were from small sample sizes making it hard to generalize results.
- Many subjects who started the studies did not finish. One reason is that parents did not want to stay late to fill out questionnaires. This may have skewed some results.
- Most studies included male subjects and were based on team sports such as football, basketball, hockey, and rugby.
Chapter 2

Methods

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methods used to synthesize research pertaining to the perceptions of positive youth development among coaches, parents, players, and examines how to best develop positive youth development in a sports setting. This chapter will address the methods and procedures used for data collection and data analysis.

Data Collection

The studies that were selected for this synthesis project were located using a computer database that accessed peer-reviewed and scholarly articles. The database used for this synthesis project was EBSCOHOST. Articles from this database had to be data-based and published in a peer-reviewed journal in order to be included in the critical mass. In addition to being peer-reviewed, the articles had to have one of the following keywords in order to be considered: (a) Five C’s (confidence, competence, character, connection, and caring), (b) positive youth development, (c) youth sport, (d) Sportsmanship, (e) empowering climate, and (f) motivational climate.

The first search under EBSCOHOST was found in the SPORTDiscus search engine. The key words positive youth development and youth sports were entered and yielded 258 articles. To condense the list and find the appropriate articles, quotation marks were used around positive youth development and youth sports to group the words together. After doing so, 10 articles resulted and five of them were selected for the critical mass based on their relevance to the title and research questions.
Another search was done using the SPORTDiscus search engine on EBSCOHOST. The keywords used were each of the five C’s and “youth sports”. Over 132 articles were produced from the search engine. Then the research was delimited to from 2007-2019 and 45 articles appeared. From those 45 articles, three were chosen for the critical mass. In addition, the key words youth sports and empowering climates was used in SPORTDiscus search engine on EBSCOHOST. Only one article appeared and was used for the critical mass because it was the only article that was relevant to the research questions. The last search that was conducted on SPORTDiscus search engine on EBSCOHOST was entering the key words sportsmanship and “youth sports”, and 19 articles were generated. Three were selected for review, but only one was up selected for the critical mass because again based on the relevance to the research questions.

In total about 30 articles were selected and saved in categorized folders under the EBSCOHOST database. Out of these 30 articles, 12 were selected to be used for the critical mass. Each of these 12 articles met the criteria for this synthesis because they were all peer-reviewed, and contained an appropriate amount of information relative to the research questions. In addition, about four to five articles were used for certain aspects of the synthesis, but did not meet the criteria for the critical mass. The reason these articles were not used was that they were not peer-reviewed, but provided useful information. Most of the articles that were not used for the critical mass provided general information about the topic that was used to introduce the synthesis project and provided background information.

The articles for this synthesis were obtain from the following journals: Journal of Applied Sports Psychology, Journal of Parks and Recreation Administration, Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, and The Sports Psychologist. The following section describes more specifically how data was collected throughout the synthesis project and created reliable and
trustworthy information to further enhance the topic of “Does Sports Build Positive Youth Development”

**Data Analysis**

A coding table was used to extract information from the articles that were chosen from this synthesis project. In the coding table, the purpose, participants, data methods and analysis, results, conclusion, and other notes were the categories used to summarize the information from each article. The notes section included limitations and or recommendations for future research.

All of the articles that were used for the critical mass were qualitative studies, but the articles used different approaches to achieve their results. For example, two of the studies (Romand, & Pantaleon, 2007, and Hodge, Kanters, Forneris, Bocarro, & McCord 2017), used and inductive content analysis to group raw data quotes into higher and lower order themes. Romand, & Pantaleon, (2007), used investigator triangulation, peer review, or debriefing, and member checks to illustrate trustworthiness. Hodge et al. (2017), used interviews that were transcribed verbatim and identified data themes using inductive analysis and open coding, which allowed the original transcripts to develop and support themes. Bean, Whitley, Gould, (2014), used a constant comparative method. These researchers used interviews that were audio recorded, transcribed, and checked for accuracy. Once that was done, the researchers looked for common themes. Another supporting article (Chung, Y. 2017), used content analysis to transcribe each interview that was conducted. Once the interviews were conducted, Chung created the initial coding sheet and transferred the data into common themes.

Flett, (2012) used a Youth Program Quality Assessment (YPQA) to measure best practices of youth programs. YPQA have been used to evaluate after school programs and youth
organizations. The YPQA is a structured pyramid model, which means that safety is the foundation of youth programming, but is followed by support, interaction, and engagement. Each assessment used a rubric to measure the extent to which a quality existed. Another study (Legg, Newland, & Bigelow, 2018), analyzed their data by using comprehensive questionnaires assessing perceptions of motivational climate, PYD (both in an out of the sport). They used an empowering and disempowering motivational climate (EDMCQ-C) five point likert scale to analyze the data. Once the data was collected, coaches had the option to receive feedback. In addition, Schwab, Wells, & Banning, (2010), used questionnaires to assess whether the league was meeting its goals from both the parent and players perspectives.

Whitehead, Ntoumanis, & Hatzigeorgiadis, (2008) used cross-validation of the Youth Sports Values Questionnaire (YSVQ) to measure data. The study had two tests. The first test measured moral, competence, and status values and the second test measured the conceptual relationships between values, achievement orientation, and sporting attitudes. The secondary purpose of the research was to cross-validate the factor solution of the YSVOQ-2 obtained in study 1.

Wells, Banning, Paisley, Ellis, Roark, & Fisher, (2008), used a nested effect design that had an observer at every game to observe the players, coaches and spectators. The observers looked for positive and negative sportsmanship behaviors that were occurring throughout the game. The researchers had specific referees that were trained and not trained in pro-social behavior techniques. The researchers were examining whether having a prosocial referee had a positive, negative or no effect at all on sportsmanship. Strachan, McHugh, & Mason, (2019) used a constructive, phenomenological approach as a philosophical underpinning.
For the twelve articles chosen, 1,438 participants were involved. Out of the 1,438 participants, 143 of them were parents and thirty-eight of them were coaches. The majority of the data came from youth players ages 7-19. The majority of the youth athletes were from football, basketball, hockey, and rugby. In addition, most of the data coming from youth. The majority of the participants were male. There were 66 observations that took place throughout the twelve articles. These observations included an outside party looking in on what the researchers were collecting data for.
Chapter 3

Review of Literature

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature that was used as the basis for this synthesis project. In total, there were 16 articles chosen from the search engines. For the final analysis, there were 12 articles that met the criteria for this critical mass of articles. The results will be reported across two different themes on PYD: a) the most influential people who support PYD, b) types of programs that demonstrate effective and ineffective PYD.

The most influential people who support PYD

For this section, influences can be explained by people such as, coaches, parents, and players who have an impact on PYD. Examples of this include being supportive and helping youth develop and become young adults who demonstrate good moral values. There were a total of six articles that fell into this category.

The purpose of the first study by, Flett, M. R., Gould, D., Griffes, K. R., & Lauer, L. (2013) was to examine the practices and perspectives of volunteer youth coaches who were more and less effective in an underserved sport setting. The participants in the study included 12 coaches who volunteered their time to participate. Six coaches were put into the effective group and the other six coaches were put into the ineffective group. One coach from each group was a part of one of the six sports (football, cheer, coed soccer, boys and girls basketball and girls volleyball). Next, each of the 12 coaches agreed to be interviewed and observed throughout the research. The average interview lasted one hour and twenty-three minutes. To demonstrate trustworthiness, open codes were independently identified by two coders before reaching a consensus. Once the consensus was reached, the open codes were grouped into lower-order
themes, higher-order themes, and general categories. The coaches that developed higher-order themes and were more effective in developing character and life skills were positive, autonomy building, and were able to challenge their athletes, while still being supportive of each athlete. More effective coaches were able to transfer life skills into the real world by teaching how work ethic will influence the athletes academics, and character. The effective coaches used the sport to not only teach fundamentals, but to help kids prioritize life values and how those values affects you in everyday life (Flett, 2013).

Coaches who were less effective in developing character and teaching life skills were harsh, negative, and lacked the ability to be detailed in descriptions regarding how lessons in sport could be transferred into non-sport settings. The research found that the coaches who were effective used positive coaching strategies. In addition, another reason “good” coaches were effective was largely due to the fact that they were more open to learning new things. In conclusion, this study found that when coaches use a more positive approach to coaching that they are more effective in producing young athletes who demonstrate good character and other life skills. The coaches who exhibited positive autonomy building and were able to challenge their athletes, while still being supportive, were able to show PYD in their athletes.

In an article by Flett, M. R., Gould, D., & Lauer, L. (2012), the purpose was to explore youth sport climates in underserved populations and to conduct an empirical evaluation of a youth sports organization in the Midwest that has a mission of teaching character to youth through sport. This study included 66 of observations high school (U 18) teams, 11 middle school (U 14) teams, and 23 teams from younger, recreational leagues (U 12). Most of the older groups (U 14 and U 18) were observed during practice and games, but not all. The U 18 groups were observed a total of 21 times and the U 14 group was observed 22 times.
The researchers used Youth Program Quality Assessments (YPQA) to collect data. YPAQ follows Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. It measures safe environment, supportive environment, interactions, and engagement (Flett, Gould, & Lauer, 2012). Maslow’s theory of human motivation proposes that PYD can only occur when basic needs, such as psychological and physical safety exist. Form A uses a 3 point rubric to evaluate the quality of the program. The rubric measures the extent to which a quality exists. A rating of one means it does not exist, three means it partially exists and five means it always exists. In addition, consent was not required and parents and coaches were not identified through this study. This was important because it allowed the researchers to observe everyone, even the less effective coaches and underserved practice fields.

In all three age groups (U 12, U 14, U 18) data showed that support was the most important factor, followed by safety, interaction, and engagement. When the researchers looked into practice and game contests of all age groups they found that because there was an unequal sample size that the results did not show a significant difference from practice to games. The only factor that showed a difference between games and practices was support, but the difference was minimal.

Finally, the results were based off three scores one, three, and five. Five was the highest scored that could be calculated. Levels of support (4.06) and safety (3.58) were high, but the researchers found that age and gender played a significant role. The U 14 group had significantly less safe, supportive, and engaging program environments; whereas, girls softball leagues had an environment that was slightly more conducive to positive psychosocial development than the boys.
In conclusion, spending time with a caring adult is essential to the development of life skills. It is critical for programs to understand why attrition exist in sports programs and using methodology such as, the YPQA, could help develop organizational policies that enhance retention, and educate and train coaches to implement PYD practices. Although this study showed that coaches provided safe and supportive environments, they did not provide interaction and engagement to influence PYD. The researchers suggest that coaches should be more prepared to facilitate youth interaction and engagement by making the athlete more involved in the process.

In another study by Romand & Pantaleon, (2007), the purpose was to “attain a deeper understanding of youth coaches attitudes toward the display of moral character (values they try to teach their players, the concrete means they use to teach game rules, and prosocial norms) and examine how they make rule abidance compatible with intensive efforts to achieve success” (p. 58). The sample from this study was made up of 16 French male rugby coaches. Each coach was between the ages of 28 to 50 and had at least five years of coaching experience. To teach rugby in a sports club, the coaches needed to go through training. The training included technical, tactical, and educational aspects of rugby. Next, these coaches were chosen because they trained cadet, meaning players from ages 15-17 and junior players ages 17-19. Next, all interviews were performed by the same interviewer throughout the study and each interview lasted one hour.

Steps were taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the data. First, the pilot study helped establish an appropriate and conceptually aligned interview guide. In addition to that, the interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. The interview guide had six areas of questions: the values coaches try to teach to their players, concret means to teach the game rules and prosocial norms, concrete means to teach the rules during competition, attitude toward
officials, the influence coaches think they have on their players, and their position on the display of character regarding competition.

The results highlighted two different attitudes in coaches, whose attitudes and behaviors differed across context. When coaches were coaching during practice, their goals were to teach the rules that enabled effective group action. They assumed the role of the instructor. Furthermore, coaches even taught their athletes to strive for perfection in techniques and tactics at both the personal and team level. They also tried to show athletes that with self-control they could excel as players and still abide by the rules. However, the characteristics of competitive situations brought out another driving force. Romand & Pantaleon describe coaches in competition as being “actors on both sides that characterize their role as a coach” (p. 77). When the environment switches to competitive, coaches seem to redefine the transgressive conduct of their players. This shifts responsibility conduct of the players onto the referees, supporters, or other players, and minimizes the consequences of their conduct (cheating is not so serious, verbal or physical aggression can have positive effects (Romand & Pantaleon, 2007). Finally, the results indicate how coaches “subvert sport values through their reasoning. Different references to sport values are used to justify respect and violations by using socially acceptable and laudable elements to justify misconduct. These results reinforce and expand the concept of bracketed morality in the sports domain” (p.75).

This study found a deeper understanding of how coaches make sense of morality and teach it to their athletes. Rugby is a sport deemed to promote values such as team spirit, abidance by the rules of the game, respect for oneself and others, self-control, and humbleness. After conducting this research these values seem to be in question. The values are assumed to be taught, but when competition is added, it changes the game. Athletes and coaches are among the
most competitive people around and when you are competing you are trying to gain a competitive edge on your opponents. So PYD can occur, but it can be extremely difficult as a coach to stand strong on life values as it relates to teaching athletes more about life, rather than the X’s and O’s when winning is involved.

Vella, S., Oades, L., & Crowe, T. (2011), involved 22 coaches who were interviewed, 16 male and 6 female who coached kids from the ages 11-19. The focus of these programs were not on competition or performance. Coaches in this study were defined by living in a medium to high socio-economic community. Each coach spent two to six hours a week with their athletes. The purpose of this study was to build upon the theoretical understanding that coaches should be responsible for PYD. In addition, the study aimed to understand how this theoretical responsibility correlates with the goals of practitioners working in the real world of coaching.

For the researchers to gain understanding of the practical role and goals of coaching, a qualitative methodology was used. Qualitative methodologies have been used in coaching research to bring structure, understanding and a unified picture of phenomena that results from the complexity of the research. Semi-structured interviews were used that consisted of seven open-ended questions. The questions asked coaches questions about what leadership is, the role a coach has, what outcomes come from your athletes/team from your coaching, and asked about their coaching philosophy. The researchers objective was to gain a rich and detailed answered. During the interviews, probing was used to discover more of what the coach thought. Data analysis followed a five step approach, which included a) familiarization, b) initial codes were generated, c) codes were organized into themes, d) extracts for each code were taken from the data and collated into themes to, e) following the discussion each theme was discussed and a description was given (Vella, S., Oades, L., & Crowe, T. 2011).
Results showed that out of the top three themes, the number one thing that coaches discussed was character. Coaches described that when you are dealing with kids, "you just want them to know to play in the right spirit” (p. 38). The next theme was respect and the coaches emphasized that they wanted their athletes to respect their teammates, officials, and their opponents. Third, life skills were on or near the top of the list for coaches. One life skill in particular was leadership and the coaches feel that teaching children how to develop leadership through sports experience is important because so many kids sit in a room on the computer all day. One coached explained in more detail “I am talking about having that outside of the family, male influence somewhere in their lives. That is all I think I provide” (p. 39). The last comment made by coach 15 was “someone outside the family group needs to mentor athletes and teach them skills that they need to be successful in life” (p. 39).

Coaches see high value in teaching youth more than just skills and tactical approaches. The conclusion of this research is that coaches see themselves as responsible for PYD. Although the existing literature is not comprehensive enough to capture the entirety of outcomes desired by youth sport coaches, and despite seeing themselves as primarily responsible for PYD, the content of relevant coaching accreditation courses is lacking substance. Coaching education typically focuses on performance enhancement, with an emphasis on tactical knowledge.

Overall, the two out of the four articles in this section showed that coaches who demonstrated positive behavior that related to authentic teaching helped develop PYD. The contrasting article by Romand & Pantaleon 2007, supported the theory, but noted a change in coaching behavior when competition was added. Romand & Pantaleon stated that coaches play two roles and describe coaches as being “actors” indicating that their behavior changes when competition is elevated, which affects athlete’s behavior. In addition, a second study by, Flett,
M. R., Gould, D., & Lauer, L. (2012) showed that support was the important quality, followed by safety, interaction, and engagement, which did not relate to PYD.

Other articles explored the role of parents and families in support of PYD. Hodge, C. J., Kanters, M. A., Forneris, T., Bocarro, J. N., & Sayre-McCord, R. (2017), sought to examine the role and influence of families in a sport-based life skills program targeting PYD outcomes among an underserved youth population (Hodge, et al, 2017). Thirty-six youth aged 7 to 15 participated in a Hockey is for Everyone (HIFE) program. The participants were from the southeastern United States. This program was delivered over 11 weeks and the participants were selected from local boys and girls clubs. Three-fourths of the participants were male and 44.4% self-identified as being black or African-American. Seventy percent of all participants qualified for free or reduced lunch. During the data collection, semi-structured interviews took place for both the parents and the athletes. These interviews were conducted during the program, and three months after completion of the program. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. The primary author read the transcriptions and identified data themes using an inductive analysis and open coding.

The researchers found that family members and family contexts were an important part of acquiring life skills for youth. Parents and youth realized changes in behavior after the program. Parents seemed to attribute the (HIFE) program behavioral changes to their child. Youth seemed to perceive PYD in themselves through the program. Youth athletes were able to recall knowledge and topics covered in the program. Skills listed were healthy lifestyle, courage and confidence, and meeting new people. For example, participants described learning to lose more gracefully and to maintain team spirit (Hodge et al, 2017). In addition, participants were able to apply goal setting and positive thinking to multiple contexts outside of the sport. One participant
in particular learned to write his goals down and decided he wanted to get an A in a class and he used the steps of goal setting to develop a plan to do so.

Family presence was meaningful and many participants reported feeling proud when their parents came to their practices or games. Further into the study, family presence grew deeper as youth reported that their games and practices were memorable when other family members (brother, sister, aunt, uncle) came to a game (Hodge, 2017). Sibling relationships also emerged as an important element of family involvement. Many participants enrolled in the program with a sibling and reported feeling supported knowing that they were going through it together. Having a sibling was more prevalent in those who did not have families attend practice and games. The primary themes, family presence and family involvement captured to a certain extent the concept of parental feedback. Having that feedback enhanced PYD behaviors because participants reported feeling proud when family members attended. Therefore, feedback in a family system can have positive effect on PYD.

The authors concluded that this (HIFE) program was able to foster development of positive character traits and behaviors, and families play an important role in reinforcing goal setting, family involvement, healthy lifestyle, courage and confidence, and meeting new people (hodge et al., 2017).

In a study by Schwab, K. A., Wells, M. S., & Arthur-Banning, S. (2010), the purpose was to “compare the perspectives of antecedent, ongoing expectations of players and parents in youth sport experience” (p. 44). Data was collected from both parents and players involved in a youth football program in the mid-west. This program was open to children in first through eighth grade or children aged from 6-14. Questionnaires were distributed and collected by league board
members prior to the final game of the season. Three-hundred and sixty-seven questionnaires were collected, 143 from parents, and 224 from players. The questions asked were designed to see if the league was meeting its goals from the parents and players perspectives. Questions for the players included, but were not limited to fun, sportsmanship, skills, teamwork, and respect for coaches. A likert-type scale was used. Parents were asked the same set of questions, but their set included two more questions that asked about willingness to play for the same coach and likelihood of playing again next year.

Results found that players strongly valued fun as 6.98 out of 7.0. In addition, they related their willingness to play for the same coach next year as 4.53 out of 5.0 (Schwab et al., 2010). This was important because the research suggests that those players who had more fun and wanted to play for the same coach next year gained more confidence and competence within their sport. This led to these participants to be more motivated and more likely to display PYD.

On the other hand, results also indicated parents’ perspectives of the overall experience as 5.33 out of 7 and parent willingness to register for the league next year was 3.99 out of 5. Thus, results indicate that players perceive their experience quite differently than their parents do. The research suggests that if parents are more aware of what their children actually feel during practices and games, they may be less likely to exhibit negative involvement and less likely to take their child out of a program that is effective and enjoyable.

Players perceive their youth experience quite different from their parents do. The research suggests that parents need to be more aware of what their children actually feel during practices and games. If so, they may be less likely to exhibit negative involvement and less likely to take their child out of a program that is effective. In this study, youth perceived the program as
fun and were willing to participate next year with the same coach. This led the athletes to be more motivated, display good moral character, and PYD. However, program directors may want to address the needs of the parents who have the final say if the youth participates again next year. Parents were looking at the program differently than their kids were. They were looking at how much playing time their child got and the competition of winning to whereas that did not play a significant role for their child to decide to continue to play.

All of these articles support the idea that influences from coaches and parents play a vital role in PYD. The studies also showed that competition is a factor in how coaches coach, which would affect PYD. In addition to coaches and parents playing a vital role, one article discussed the different perspectives of how players and parents view the coaches and their likelihood to return the following year. There was a significant difference in how players and their parents perceived the coach.

**Types of programs that demonstrate effective and ineffective PYD**

For this category, types of programs that demonstrate effective and ineffective PYD is defined by intentionally developing a program that was created specifically to develop PYD. Examples of programs are broken down into lower and higher order themes, motivational climates, and pro-social behavior.

Bean, E., Whitley, M. A., & Gould, D. (2014), examined the impact, both positively and negatively, of an urban youth sport organization that has as its primary goal the development of life skills and character. In this study, 23 youth athletes (10 male, 13 female) from the Think Detroit Police Athletic League (TDP) participated. The TDP estimates that about half of their youth participants live in poverty. The researchers wanted to interview a wide range of youth
from each age group. They categorized the age groups from 10-12, 13-15, and 16-18. Each participant in this study had been in the league for at least three years. Each of the participants were individually interviewed. Each interview was audio recorded, transcribed and checked for accuracy by the investigators. Once the transcripts were analyzed, the investigators created narratives for each participant. In this study, the constant comparative method was used to look at the data. Once the data was reviewed, investigators identified key themes, from all of the interviews. Those themes were then broken down into meaning units (which the investigators came to a consensus on). Once that happened the investigators broken down the meaning units into lower and higher order themes. A third investigator was brought in at the conclusion of the analysis to conduct a reliability checks on the meaning units, lower order themes, higher order themes, and global themes from the inductive content analysis. The researchers found that participants reported having “fun” during the TDP program. In addition, participants reported learning both sport and life skills, such as improving sport skill and learning life lessons. In the article, one athlete was on record saying, that the program “has helped me with my game and my attitude, like towards people” (p. 11). Continuing Bean, Whitley, & Gould (2014), listened to another participant say, “How I act when I get mad and how I act towards my friends and my teammates” (p. 11). These are just two examples of participants reporting how their youth program helped build PYD. Other positive lessons learned from the program were how to be a leader, the value of hard work, and the focus on personal development and goal directed behavior. A few dislikes that participants mentioned were officials, pressure, and a miscellaneous section.

After conducting the research, the findings are promising in terms of how many positive outcomes came from the program regarding life skills, but additional research is needed. In this
study, the researchers found that the program created an inclusive and caring climate. For example, none of the youth mentioned winning as a major benefit of participation, but discussed the experience being socially rewarding, inclusive and enjoyable. Furthermore, this study supported other findings, one in particular by Jones & Lavallee (2009) which supported that social skills are one of the life skill areas that young athletes need to develop.

In a second study done by Chung, Y. (2017), the purpose was to examine effective strategies for life skills by ten coaches that impact positive youth development. Ten academic coaches participated in this study, five male and five female. Five were African American and five were Caucasian. During data collection, an interview guide was developed based on the review of literature. Previous research on high school coaches was used to help guide the questions as well. The researcher’s audiotaped and transcribed all of the interviews. Each interview lasted 60-90 minutes. After the interviews took place, the data went through a three step coding process. An initial coding took place and generated three columns (line number, raw quote and a blank space for initial coding). The researchers went through three coding processes, eventually coming to a master coding sheet.

The research found two higher order themes throughout the interviews: success/achievement goals and satisfaction/emotional well-being. The first higher order theme success/achievement indicated that coaches wanted to assist student athletes in achieving success beyond high school. This was broken down into three lower order themes, academic skill development (increase GPA, staying eligible, 100% graduation rate); life skill development (less referrals, future forward thinking, and giving back to the community); and providing opportunities in school and their community, Chung, Y. (2017). Results showed that the coaches wanted their athletes to have future forward thinking, striving for something better, and to help
themselves. Coaches wanted to provide their athletes with opportunities that they never thought they had, expose them to opportunities in the community that they did not have, and provide them with opportunities to interact with positive role models.

The second high order theme was satisfaction/emotional well-being goals. Coaches wanted their athletes to be happy, feel good about themselves, and wanted each player to develop a sense of believing in himself. In addition, coaches developed strategies that aimed at assisting players. Junior players would help eighth graders academically in the morning, setting clear goals for each class, creating progress reports for the students they were helping, providing homework sheets, and giving players a calendar to organize their schoolwork.

This study supports the idea that coaches believe that coaching is more than X's and O's. In other words, academic coaches need to ensure that their environment is supportive and positive while being consistent with their athletes. Although there was not a single significant technique that made the coaches in the study successful, it was their consistent presence that mattered, and staying with their players for long periods. The athletes in the study were from the inner city and overall, they do not have good support systems. Therefore, the most effective coaches displayed positive and supportive environments; the difference was the extended time spent with the athletes that made the difference in PYD.

Both studies discovered that PYD could occur in youth if the programs are developed correctly to meet the needs of the participants. Chung, Y. (2017), discovered success/achievement goals and satisfaction/emotional well-being as primary indicators for PYD and Bean, E., Whitley, M. A., & Gould, D. (2014) found that the program created with an inclusive and caring climate for a sustained time led to athletes developing PYD.
In Legg, E., Newland, A., & Bigelow, R. (2018), the purpose was to examine coaches and to give observational feedback that would best develop an empowering motivational climate. A secondary purpose is to assess the specific elements of empowering and disempowering motivational climates to PYD outcomes within and outside the sport. Participants in this study were youth in a municipal recreation level youth basketball program in rural Arizona. All participants were males in grades four through nine. Coaches and parents were asked to sign consent forms if they chose to participate in the research. Data was collected on a total of 57 participants, representing about 75% of the sampling frame. Parents who did not complete questionnaires often had to leave to get to another event. Eight coaches were eligible to be observed and provided feedback. The researchers used four types of motivational climates (task-involving, ego involving, autonomy support, and controlling coach). These types were analyzed using a MANOVA.

The authors state that motivational climate was defined as empowering or disempowering. “Empowering climates include elements of task-involved climates (focus on effort, learning, and skill mastery), elements of autonomy-supportive climates informed by the skill-determination theory (SDT) (recognizing athletes preferences and perspectives and providing meaningful choice), and social supports. In contrast, disempowering climates include ego-involved climates (focus on winning), and a controlling coach” (p. 93). The hypothesis related to the connection of empowering and disempowering climates was partially supported. Only autonomy-supportive were significant predictors of PYD. Task-involving, ego involving, and controlling coaches showed no significant signs of empowering or disempowering motivational climates in regards to PYD within and outside of the sport. Players who received autonomy-supportive coaches felt that their voice was heard, which lead to the athlete enjoying
the experience and taking on more leadership type roles. Furthermore, when coaches explained their rationale for actions and provided youth with meaningful options, youth were more likely to enjoy the experience and achieve PYD within and outside the sport (Legg, Newland, & Bigelow 2018).

The research did not support a significant impact for creating empowering and disempowering climates and the researchers did note that autonomy-supportive climates were most likely to predict PYD outcomes. The researchers did not find that observational feedback improved the coach-climate, but they also did not imply that observational feedback was useless or a negative tool. Finally, they found that coaches being observed could influence coaching behavior by forcing coaches to be aware of their outward behavior.

Lee J. M., Whitehead, J., Ntoumanis, N., & Hatzigeorgiadis, A. (2008) looked at the relationships among values, achievement orientations, and attitudes in youth sport. The purpose of this article was to examine the conceptual relationship between values, achievement orientation, and attitudes in youth sports (p. 596). The research specifically focused on the role of achievement and the functions of attitude. There were 503 male participants, and 389 female participants between the ages of 12-15. Each athlete was from southern England. The participants played for their school or at a higher level (youth program not professional). The researchers used a YSVO questionnaire that represented a hierarchical ranking of the importance of youth athletes values. Due to too many indicators, the researchers selected three experienced judges to (a) parsimoniously represent the conceptual breadth of a construct, (b) reduce overemphasis on one facet of a construct, and (c) avoid items with similar wording that could inflate paths between constructs (Lee, Whitehead, & Hatzigeorgiadis, 2008).
The researchers found that “pro-social attitudes were predicted positively by both competence and moral values, whereas antisocial attitudes were predicted positively by status and negatively by morals” (p. 604). This finding is important because it demonstrates pro-social attitudes of commitment to sport and respect for its social conventions. Inversely, anti-social attitudes of cheating and gamesmanship express the opposite of pro-social attitudes. This article provides evidence that either pro-social attitudes or negative attitudes depend on the value system that are taught and transmitted into practice. Either positive or negative values will have an effect on PYD. The paradox that coaches and teachers go through to develop competition between opponents, while also promoting fairness is difficult. It is suggested that to enhance PYD, significant others should encourage young people to strive for personal excellence and competitive success, while at the same time encouraging fairness and respect for both the rules and opponents.

Wells, M. S., Arthur-Banning, S. G., Paisley, K. P., Ellis, G. D., Roark, M. F., & Fisher, K. (2008), studied the impact of a youth sports program intentionally designed using pro-social behavior techniques that impacted sportsmanship, and fun during games. The researchers compared varying levels of implementation including no intervention, pro-social behavior-based atmosphere, and a pro-social-based atmosphere plus the use of referees trained in pro-social behavior. In this study, participants were a part of a youth basketball program at two local community centers. The league was divided into four divisions (first and second graders, third and fourth graders, fifth and sixth graders and seventh and eighth graders). Third and fourth and fifth and sixth graders were the focus of this study. During the data analysis process, the researchers had two groups, one group played hard, played fair, played fun (PHPFPF) and the PHPFPF plus pro social referee. The analysis looked at sportsmanship (both positive and
negative) from both groups. In addition, at every game there was an observer who was watching all behaviors by players, coaches, and spectators.

To measure positive sportsmanship behaviors the researchers used “admitted to infractions”, “checking on injured players”, and “encouraging teammates and opponents” as their indicators. Negative sportsmanship was categorized as “blaming referees for poor play”, “taunting opponents”, and “demonstrating acts of aggression” (Wells et al. 2008). These listed above were a guideline for the observers, but the list was not limited to only these categories. The most negative sportsmanship behavior occurred with the PHPFPF only. In contrast, the lowest number of negative sportsmanship occurred with the PHPFPF plus referees. Tables were used to represent the data collected for each behavior. As a result, it was concluded from this study that intentional programming can be successfully employed to increase sportsmanship in PHPFPF plus pro social referee. The youth sport league that did not utilize the program PHPFPF (only) displayed lower levels of positive sportsmanship and higher levels of negative sportsmanship. There are several lessons resulting from this study to improve youth sports programs. First, spending time to determine goals of a program and implementing it into the program based on specific goals can lead to desired results. Second, the role of the referee in PYD should not be overlooked.

Two out of the three articles in this section found that when using an intentional program that is geared for PYD, PYD occurred during the programs. For example, Wells et al (2008), demonstrated this by developing two groups, one being the control group and one being the experimental. The contrasting article by Legg, E., Newland, A., & Bigelow, R. (2018), only partially supported PYD, showing that PYD occurred in autonomy-supportive climates, but not in ego-involved climates or with controlling coaches.
The last article by Strachan, L., McHugh, T.-L., & Mason, C. (2018), explored how the five C’s (confidence, competence, character, connection, and caring) of PYD are understood and experienced by urban indigenous youth in Western Central Canadian communities. Indigenous is referred to as First Nations, Metis, Inuit people in the context of colonial Canada. There were 43 youth from across three Canadian settings who were recruited to participate in this study. The participants ranged from ages 12-19 and were all selected because they were a part of the First Nations. To collect data, researchers used talking circles that were culturally sensitive for youth physical activity and sports programming. The researchers transcribed the conversations in the talking circles and developed common themes for each of the five C’s. Although this research does take a constructive, phenomenological approach, it is rooted as a two-eyed seeing approach meaning an Indigenous concept that recognizes Canada and urban centers.

When participants were asked about confidence, the first C, two sub themes that arose were bravery and freedom. Bravery was described as overcoming fear and doubt, refusing to be intimidated by others and freedom was described as being free from political and societal constraints. The second C’ that was analyzed was competence. Competence was the most difficult for the participants to define. The researchers eventually found competence meant believing in oneself. In addition, offering sport opportunities that provided connection to the land was seen to be a key component for enhancing sports opportunities among indigenous youth. Connection, the third C was broken down into 4 sub themes, building relationships, feeling encouragement or support, being aware of the environment, and self-compassion. When participants built good relationships, they felt closer to their teammates. When participants felt encouragement or support, they described it as making a connection with a coach. Not only did participants report feeling closer to a coach, but to their environment and community around
them. Participants also spoke of mindful belief and connecting with themselves in a kind manner. The fourth C, character was divided into four sub themes, such as discipline, integrity/respect, leadership, and self-discovery. In particular, self discovery was an important sub theme that the researchers described. Participants talked about learning about themselves, finding out who they are as well as having confidence in themselves as important steps in character development. The final C that was discussed was caring and the participants explained showing concern for others when an injury occurred, asking others if they are doing well, and praying for others when they are sick. In conclusion, of all the C’s researchers offer that there may be a link between competence and confidence. Developing competence means that you are gaining more confidence and if people can become more confident, then they will feel more effective within a particular context and ultimately be able to transfer this feeling to other contexts and environments. The researchers discovered that creating inclusive, welcoming and positive sport programs, and understanding the five C’s from a cultural perspective would allow programs to develop PYD.

These articles all describe programs that include lower and higher order themes, motivational climates, and pro-social behavior. Throughout these articles, initial coding processes took place in order to categorize the lower and higher order themes. Motivational climates such as task-involving, ego involving, and controlling coaches, autonomy- supportive were used for supporting data. Continuing, pro-social behavior was used as an experimental group and a control group to discover if PYD occurs in one or the other, or both environment.
Chapter 4

Discussion

The purpose of this chapter is to answer the research questions presented in chapter one. The articles in the critical mass described in chapter three will be used to answer the questions. The discussion portion of this synthesis is broken up into the four research questions.

RQ #1: What are the perceptions of coaches regarding positive youth development in youth sports? Three of the articles were able to answer research question one.

Through the years, youth sport programs have promoted the idea that your son/daughter will develop positive life skills, which in this study we refer to as PYD. Based on the research, it seems that all coaches believe that they have an influence on a youth’s PYD. Vella (2011) study showed that out of the eight themes presented the number one thing coaches valued was teaching character. One coach was on record saying, “you just want them to know to play in the right spirit” (p.39). Respect for officials, opponents and teammates were among the things coaches looked for in their athletes as they were under their watch. This article supports that sports develops positive youth development.

Flett (2012), examined sports climates and the impact on teaching character. He found that in all three age groups (U 12, U 14, U18), data showed that safety and support was the most important in teaching underserved youth. Flett (2012) continued and found that interaction and engagement from coach to player was extremely low by the coaches. Since interaction and engagement were low, it is suggested that to develop successful youth, interaction and engagement with coach to player are vital keys to ensure PYD occurs.
Romand & Pantaleon, (2007) article on coach’s perceptions of PYD brought a spin to the research. In two studies, done by Flett (2012) and Vella (2011), coaches believed that teaching life values was important. The results show that coaches did not always lead by example. Romand & Pantaleon (2007), describe coaches as being “actors” on both sides that characterize their role as a coach. They found that coaches seemed to talk about life values such as respect, character, and sportsmanship during practice time, but during games, coaches did not necessarily model those values. Furthermore, coaches were asked about their role and described their role as “we have a big influence on our athletes” (p. 71). Our lifestyle, our behavior, they watch too” (p. 71). This shows that coaches have to be a role model and be cautious of how they act because their athletes are absorbing everything. Coaches were asked about competition and its implications. One coach talked about how he tries to show and teach kids how to act, but states “as long as there’s competition, there is always somebody who’s trying to cheat” (p. 71). Another example from a coach stated “when we tell them they have to show respect for the referee, were not thinking about teaching them values like respect, but we’re thinking that if they argue with the referee, it will penalize the team” (p.71). This discovery showed that youth are not specifically taught these values that lead to PYD. In addition, Romand & Pantaleon (2007) found that there is a cost-benefit reasoning process that goes on with players. It seems to be that if a player knows the game is high stakes and that they can get away with cheating without getting caught, then they will do it.

The articles that answered this question concluded that coaches perceive themselves as someone who is important for PYD to occur, but based on the data, coaches do not always demonstrate the values that are supposed to be taught and modeled. This happens because most
coaches at the youth level are volunteers, significantly underpaid or uneducated regarding teaching youth.

RQ #2: **What are the perceptions of parents regarding positive youth development in youth sports?** Two articles were selected for the critical mass to help support parents and their perspectives.

Hodge et al. (2017) found that family members and family contexts were an active part of acquiring life skills in youth. Parents saw behavior changes in their child and attributed the change in behavior to the (HIFE) program. Parents were on record saying that their children have stepped up and taken leadership roles at home by telling mom that they can do something and that they don’t have to do it for them. In addition to that, parents also noticed that their child was able to “lose a little more gracefully” (p. 40). Overall, parents were very pleased with the (HIFE) program and were happy that their child was a part of the program.

Schwab, Wells, & Banning (2010), compared players and parents perspectives in regard to positive youth development. The researchers discovered that the parents and players have a different interpretation of whether PYD occurs. Youth in this study valued “fun” as being an important piece to continuing in a program. 6.98 out of 7.0 of youth reported having fun in their youth program. In addition, they rated willingness to return to the program with the same coach next year as highly (4.3 out of 5). The discrepancy was when they looked and the parent’s perspective of the overall experience, which was rated lower (4.33 out of 5). Parent’s willingness to sign their child up for another year was also lower (3.99 out of 5). These findings put into perspective the dilemma youth programs have in designing a program geared towards the child and PYD, but to also fit the needs of the parents who will ultimately have the final say in if the
child returns next year. Schwab, Wells, & Banning (2010), suggest that parents need to be aware what their child is feeling during practice and games, which may lead to less negative involvement and would lead to lower rates of parents pulling their child from a program. Parents tend to focus more on if their child is playing in the games and if they were winning rather than looking at the fun factor and PYD.

Both of these articles showed the parents perspective on positive youth development, but both have distinct ways of showing it. Hodge et al. (2017), showed that parent’s perception of PYD comes from a successful youth program and that program showed direct results of PYD. Schwab, Wells, & Banning (2010) study showed that parents were looking at different factors in a youth programs than their kid was, which only makes the program developers jobs that much harder. They saw a distinct difference in how kids perceived PYD compare to their parents. Sports can build PYD, but when parents are pulling their child out of programs because of playing time or not liking a coach, it lessens the chances of youth developing PYD because of the lack of consistency in a child’s life.

RQ #3: **What are the perceptions of players regarding positive youth development in youth sports?** Four articles were selected for the critical mass and majority of the data for this synthesis came from the youth athlete’s perspective.

Bean, Whitley, & Gould (2014), did a study on underserved youth athletes’ impression of character based sports program. During the interviews, the researchers found that many athletes reported having “fun” during the program. Supporting evidence from Schwab, Wells, & Banning (2010) indicate that fun was a top priority for athletes. Next, the athletes reported that the TDP helped them stay off the streets and stay on track. In addition, other participants supported that
and went further in saying that the TDP helped them with their game and their attitude. Furthermore Bean, Whitley, & Gould (2014), found players learned how to have a good attitude toward themselves as well as others. They learned how to have positive social interactions, value team effort, and to be more respectful in the TDP.

Strachan, Mc-Hugh, & Mason, (2018), did another study on underserved youth and found similar results on how athletes perceive PYD. Both studies used talking circles to formulate their results. Strachan, Mc-Hugh, & Mason (2018), used the five C’s as the basis of their research and the results they found were different in many ways. When the researchers asked about character, the Indigenous youth described character as discipline, integrity/respect, and leadership. Integrity/respect were defined by the indigenous youth as having respect for others and treating them well was their way of displaying their character. In both Strachan, Mc-Hugh, & Mason, (2018) and Bean, Whitley, & Gould (2014), leadership was explained as being put out of your comfort zone and having the confidence to talk to others and listen to others views and perspectives. Competence was described in both Strachan, Mc-Hugh, & Mason, (2018), and Hodge et al, (2017), as a direct result of believing in one’s self and being able to try new things and to get out of their comfort zone.

Overall, all of the articles related to this research question showed the player’s perspective on positive youth development. Each one talked about “fun” as being a huge indicator in their development. All of the articles described character and how athletes show respect for themselves and their teammates. In addition to that, competence was examined in all of the articles and was considered another factor athletes saw in their growth towards positive youth development.
RQ #4: **How do we best develop positive youth development in sport setting?** Five articles from the critical mass were selected that met the criteria and answered research question four.

Flett (2013) discovered that coaches who were more effective in developing character and other life skills were positive, autonomy building, and were able to challenge their athletes, while still being supportive. Although in Legg, Newland, & Bigelow, (2018), they hoped to find that if the motivational climate was an autonomy-supportive climate then that would predict PYD. The results were promising, the research found little, but not enough data to suggest that creating an autonomy-supportive environment for youth would display PYD. The small sample size of the study did limit the power to dictate a significant difference in results. Furthermore, coaches who received observational feedback may have not taken the advice and used the information, therefore creating a gap in the literature. Flett (2013) also found that if the coach was negative, lacked detailed lessons in the sport, then PYD could not be transferred into the real world. Another discovery in this study was that successful coaches in this program were more open to learning new ideas.

Furthermore, Wells et al. (2008), found considerable amount of supporting evidence from (Arthur-Banning, 2005) that “that individuals will act in accordance with what is expected of them” (p. 17). In wells et al. (2008), found this to be true as well. The control group who had the **PHPFPF plus the referee** had youth athletes who showed positive sportsmanship. In addition, athletes in the control group reported having more fun and learned life values not only from their coach, but also from the referees. The environment was relaxed and had little influence on the result of the game, but more on the teaching. This program made athletes feel comfortable and relaxed, which enhanced their learning.
Lee et al. (2008), examined the conceptual relationship between values, achievement orientation, and sporting attitudes. The researchers found “that prosocial attitudes were predicted positively by both competence and moral values, whereas antisocial attitudes were predicted positively by status and negatively by moral values” (p. 604). However, the researchers found that positive or negative results depends on the value systems that are encouraged and transmitted into the coaching process.

Chung, Y. (2017), examined the key components to a successful program and the stories of the coaches who helped create them. Success/achievement, were among a list of themes that were categorized to help improve positive youth development. Coaches did not just teach the skills, but used sport as their platform for PYD. Researchers found that coaches who were successful in developing PYD discussed wanting their athletes to demonstrate “future forward thinking”, “striving for something better”, and an ability “to help themselves”. In addition, satisfaction/emotional well-being showed that coaches wanted their athletes to “be happy”, “feel good about themselves”, and “develop a sense of believing in himself“. The research found that coaches who did not guide their program based on these themes, were not as successful in developing PYD.

When developing PYD, the data suggest that it is important to have programs that meet the needs of parents, players and coaches. The most successful programs designed curriculum that was autonomy-supportive, valued the athlete’s skills and their well-being. Although there was one article that could not support an autonomy supportive climate that creates PYD, the majority of the research demonstrated otherwise.
Chapter 5

Conclusion/Future Research

This section of the synthesis project will discuss the conclusion of the question, “Does Sports Build Positive Youth Development” as well as examine the future research recommendations that could be conducted on positive youth development.

Conclusion

The findings from these articles conclude that sports does in fact build positive youth development, but positive youth development does not occur automatically as a result of playing a sport. This supports the notion of Chalip, 2006; Edwards, 2015; Lyras & Welty-Peachey, (2011) because in these studies, they suggested that participation in youth sports has to be incorporated into a program that has been designed to create positive outcomes. Through the literature, it was concluded that programs that were autonomy-supportive and were focused on the well-being of the athlete showed the most positive youth development in athletes. Flett (2013), examined an autonomy-supportive program and found that the coaches who were positive, who were able to challenge their athletes and still support them, and could show how to transfer these skills into the real world were the most effective coaches in developing PYD. Flett (2013), was able to show that coaches who exemplified the opposite traits listed above were not effective in developing PYD. Wells et al. (2008) found considerable amount of support from (Arthur-Banning, 2005) that “there is considerable evidence to suggest that individuals will act in accordance with what is expected of them (p. 17)”. By having, a control group in Wells et al. (2008), she was able to show that with the support of coaches and referees exemplifying sportsmanship and not focusing on winning, young athletes were in a more relaxed and fun environment, which abled them to develop PYD.
Another significant finding from the literature was the difference in player and parent’s perspectives on positive youth development. Schwab, Wells, & Banning (2010), and Bean, Whitley, & Gould (2014) found that for youth athletes “fun” was a huge indicator in whether the athletes wanted to return to the program and have the same coach the following year. If the players perceived the program to be fun, they wanted to return next year. In contrast, parents rated their overall experience for their child lower and fewer would have signed up their child again next year with the same coach. This was an important finding because of the difference in perspectives; it puts youth sport program directors in a bind in trying to create a program that is effective in developing PYD and having youth continue in the programs with parental support.

In this synthesis, it’s clear that coaches play an important role in an athlete’s development of PYD, but the research found that coaches do not always positively enhance an athlete’s PYD based on the coaches own practices and behaviors. Coaches feel they play a role in developing positive youth development. Vella (2011) stated, ”You just want them to know to play in the right spirit” (p. 38). Respect for officials, opponents and teammates were among the things coaches looked for in their athletes as they were under their watch. In Flett (2012), he found that coaches were giving high safety and support to it’s athletes, but that was not a predictor of PYD. He found that to have PYD, you had to have high interactions and engagement with athletes. Furthermore, Romand & Pantaleon (2007), described coaches as being “actors on both sides that characterize their role as a coach” (p. 77). Coaches seem to discuss life values such as respect, character, and sportsmanship, but do not directly teach it in their program. In addition, when coaches were observed during games they did not model PYD values, which would lead to negative behavior and PYD would not occur. The articles from the critical mass often points out that coaches in youth programs are mainly volunteers and are not certified to teach or coach a
specific sport that they are. Sometimes, this leads to decline in PYD and youth athletes leaving a sport. The studies used in the critical mass for this research discovered that: 1) the most successful programs are autonomy-supportive and focus on the well-being of the athletes; 2) parents and players perceive PYD differently; 3) and coaches support PYD, but do not always model the appropriate behavior that enhances PYD in youth athletes.

**Future Research**

One suggestion for future research is to have more quantitative studies done. All of the studies from the critical mass were qualitative. By doing more quantitative studies, the sample size could be larger and the researchers would be able to look for different information in the reports of the participants.

Another future suggestion that could enhance this topic is examining the parent’s perspective in more detail. By examining this topic, future researchers could discover better programs to gear towards the athlete and the parent. In addition, research on effective education for parents is vital because there seems to be a gap between youth participant’s perspective and their parents.

Thirdly, a future research suggestion to enhance and further this topic would be to examine less effective coaches, not just in regard to their behaviors, but also in regard to their beliefs. In doing so, this would help coaching educators understand how to guide their curriculum and help those less effective coaches.

The last future suggestion that would enhance the research topic is the need for more research on females, male/female coaches and coaches who coach individual sports. In order to understand the topic better there needs to be other types of sports and genders that are included.
Future research is essential for youth sports because each year participants, coaches and parents change. Since the topic of *Does Sports Builds Positive Youth Development* is fairly new, future research is important to further enhance youth sport programs. Finally, by furthering this topic with the recommendations above, it will only further research and hopefully keep youth and their parents participating in youth sports in a positive fulfilling way.
References


# Appendix A

## Article Grid

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<td>Bean, E., Whitley, M. A., &amp; Gould, D. (2014). Athlete Impressions of a Character-Based Sports Program for Underprivileged Youth. <em>Journal of Sport Behavior</em>, 37(1), 3–23.</td>
<td>This study examined the impact, both positively and negatively, of an urban youth sport organization that has as its primary goal the development of life skills and character.</td>
<td>23 participants (10 male, 13 female) from the Think Detroit Police Athletic League (TDP). The TDP estimates that about half of their youth participants live in poverty. The researchers wanted to interview a wide range of youth from each age group. They categorized the age groups from 10-12, 13-15, and 16-18.</td>
<td>Each of the participants were individually interview ed. Each interview was audio recorded, transcribed and checked for accuracy by the investigators. Once the transcripts were analyzed the investigators created narratives for each participant. This was done to develop a more holistic approach.</td>
<td>Many participants reported having fun during the TDP program. In addition, participants reported learning both sport and life skills. These were broken down into two lower order themes, characterized this category: improving sport skill and learning life lessons. In the article “Athlete Impressions of a Character-Based Sports Program for Underserved Youth”, One athlete was on record saying “has helped me with my game and my attitude, like towards people. How I</td>
<td>After conducting the research, the findings are promising in how many positive outcomes came from the research regarding life skills, but additional research is needed. In this study, they found that the program created an inclusive and caring climate. For example, none of the youth mentioned winning as a major benefit of participation, but discussed the experience being socially rewarding, inclusive and enjoyable. Furthermore, this study</td>
<td>Future research: This study suggest that future research should triangulate its findings. Bean, Whitley, &amp; Gould 2014 suggest using other methods such as observations and quantitative measures and by employing different sources by looking for consistency in reports from young athletes, coaches evaluations, and parent evaluations of change in life skills. They continued to explain that this design did not allow the for a casual conclusion to be made,</td>
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Each participant in this study had been in the league for at least three years.

understanding of each athlete’s thoughts.

The constant comparative method was used to look at the data. Once they reviewed the data, investigators identified key themes, from all of the interviews. Those themes were then broken down into meaning units (which the investigators came to a consensus on). Once that happened the investigators act when I get mad and how I act towards my friends and my teammates (P. 11).” Other positive lessons learned from the program were how to be a leader, the value of hard work, and the focus on personal development and goal directed behavior. A few dislikes that participants mentioned were nothing, officials, pressure, and a miscellaneous section. A few participants mentioned that when the competition got hard they put pressure on themselves.

supported other findings, one in particular by Jones & Lavallee (2009) which showed that social skills are one of the life skill areas that young athletes need to develop.

therefore studies that compare youth who are in engaged in youth sports vs those who are not.

After conducting the research, the findings are promising in how many positive outcomes came from the research regarding life skills, but additional research is needed. Additional research is needed to compare young people who successfully develop life skills via their sports participation versus youth who do not. In addition, taking the dislikes such as the internal pressure and finding out what or who is truly
broken down the meaning units into lower and higher order themes. A third investigator was brought in at the conclusion of the analysis to conduct a reliability checks on the meaning units, lower order themes, higher order themes, and global themes from the inductive content analysis.

Flett, M. R., Gould, D., Griffes, K. R., & Lauer, L. The purpose of this study was to examine the practices and perspectives of more and less effective volunteer youth. This study included 12 coaches who volunteered their time to be interviewed and observed. Each of the 12 coaches that developed higher-order themes and were more effective in developing character and were more effective in influencing a youth development. 

Future research: Both interviewing and observing were valuable methods, and should be...


| coaches in an underserved sport setting. | through the research. The average interview lasted one hour and twenty-three minutes. To demonstrate trustworthiness open codes were independently identified by two coders before reaching a consensus. Once the consensus was reached, the open codes were grouped into lower-order themes, higher-order themes, and life skills were positive, autonomy building, and were able to challenge their athletes, while still being supportive. Another technique more effective coaches did were they were able to transfer life skills into the real world. On the contrary, coaches who were less effective in developing character and teaching life skills were harsh, negative, lacked the ability to be detailed in descriptions for how lessons in sport could be transferred into nonsupport settings. The research continued to find that the coaches who were effective used more positive coaching effective in producing young athletes who demonstrate good character and other life skills. The coaches who exhibited positive autonomy building and were able to challenge their athletes, while still being supportive were able to show PYD in their athletes. continued. Since underserved population and less effective coaches were important, future research suggest that to further the research should seek to understand the less effective coaches’ beliefs and not just their behavior. In doing so, this would help coaching educators understand how to reach less effective coaches.

Limitations: “The sample size was limited because both interviews and observations were conducted and because less effective coaches required more time and expense to collect data (Flett, Gould,
general categories. strategies, which supported previous research. In addition, another factor why effective coaches were effective was largely due to the fact that they were more open to learning new things.

Griffes, & Lauer 2013).”

**Implications:** Extreme coaching styles are easy to identify, but what about the gray areas. One example is an authoritarian style may benefit for some youth in underserved communities. Based on the data from the research should the league remove coaches who are too extreme, even though they all demonstrated that they cared and showed the knowledge they knew about the game. With this data, it may be vital for less effective coaches to adopt a more positive approach. Leagues could benefit from requiring that each coaching staff have assistants.
Also, they could limit the amount of troubled youth on one team. Just this measure could improve the positive impact that coaches have by increasing resources and decreasing demand (2013).


The purpose of this study was to explore youth sports climates in underserved populations, and to conduct an empirical evaluation of youth sports organization in the Midwest that has a mission of teaching character to youth through sport (Fleet, Gould, Lauer 2012).

This study included 66 observations high school (U 18) teams, 11 middle school (U 14) teams, and 23 teams from younger, recreation al leagues (U 12). Most of the older groups (U 14 and U 18) were observed during practice and games, but not all. The U 18 groups

Youth Program quality assessments (YPQA) were performed throughout this study. YPAQ follow Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. It measures safe environment, supportive environment, interactions, and engagement. In all three domains (U 12, U 14, U 18) data showed that support was the most important, followed by safety, interaction, and engagement. Next, when the researchers looked into practice and games contest of all age groups they found that because there was an unequal sample sizes that that the results did not show a significant difference from practice to games. The only domain that showed spending time with a caring adult is essential to the development of life skills. Sadly, youth sports seem to recycle many youth, thus limiting the possibilities for development. Therefore, it is critical for programs to understand why attrition exist in sports programs an using methodology such as, the YPQA , could help develop organizational policies that enhance.

Future research: To further this research, theoretical models of positive youth development in a competitive sport and underserved setting are needed. In addition observation instruments, such as the YPQA are needed to be modified because of the sensitivity of the environment. As mentioned before, poor coaching is
were observed a total of 21 times and the U 14 group was observed 22 times. Maslow’
ent. Maslow’s theory of human motivation proposes that PYD can only occur when
basic needs, such as psychological and physical safety exist. Form A uses a 3 point
rubric to evaluate the quality of the program. The rubric measures how much
something exist. A rating of one means does not exist, three meaning partially exist and five
difference between games and practices was support, but the difference was minimal.
Lastly, the results showed levels of support and safety much higher, but found that age
and gender played a significant role. The U 14 group had significantly less safe,
supportive, and engaging program environments; whereas, girl’s softball leagues had an
environment that was slightly more conductive to positive psychosocial development
than the boys were.
retention, and educate and train coaches to implement PYD practices.
often the main reason for youth leaving sports. At the younger levels when youth are, playing in mastery-oriented
environments, with positive coaches, who deemphasized winning, and promoted player-coach interactions showed levels of
demonstrating life skills. It is when youth progress to more competitive levels that we see life values dropping and youth quitting sport.
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<td>The purpose of this study was to examine the role and influence of families in a sport-based life skills program targeting PYD outcomes among underserved youth population.</td>
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<td>Thirty-six youth aged 7 to 15 participated in Hockey is for Everyone (HIFE) program. The participants were from the southeastern United States. This program was delivered over 11 weeks. The participants were selected from local boys and girls clubs. Three-fourths of the participants were males and 44.4% self-identified as Hispanic.</td>
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<td>Semi-structured interviews took place for both the parents and the athletes. These interviews were conducted during the program, and three months after completion of the program. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. Parental consent forms were collected for youth who participated in the program.</td>
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<td>The researchers found that family members and family contexts were an active part in acquiring life skills in youth. Parents and youth discovered changes in behavior after the program. Parents seemed to attribute the (HIFE) program behavioral changes to their child. Youth seemed to perceive PYD in self through the program. Youth athletes were able to recall knowledge and topics covered in the program. Skills listed were healthy lifestyle, courage and confidence,</td>
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<td>The primary themes, family presence and family involvement captured, to a certain extent, the concept of parental feedback. Having that feedback enhanced the PYD behaviors because participants reported feeling proud when family member attended. Therefore, feedback in a family system can have positive and negative effect on PYD. In conclusion, (HIFE) program can foster development of positive character traits and</td>
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<td>Future research: Based on this study, implications of gender and family attitudes regarding gender appropriate sport, and the outcomes that are associated with sport-based life skills program participation. Additionally, Hodge suggests that future research should consider quantitatively whether families could reinforce positive or negative developmental outcomes associated with sport-based life skills participation. (p. 47). Lastly, sibling relationships emerged in this study and</td>
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identified as being black or African-American. 70% of all participants qualified for free or reduced lunch. Study. The primary author read the transcript ions and identified data themes using an inductive analysis and open coding. and meeting new people. For example Participants learned to lose more gracefully and to keep team spirit. In addition, participants were able to apply goal setting and positive thinking to multiple context outside of the sport. One participant in particular learned to write his goals down and decided he wanted to get an A in a class and he used the steps of goal setting to develop a plan to do so. Family presences was meaningful and many participants reported feeling proud when their parents came to their practices or games. Further into the behaviors, and that families do play an important role in reinforcing goal setting, family involvement, healthy lifestyle, courage and confidence, and meeting new people. should be considered for future research. Limitations: Parent respondent was small, which most likely prevented data saturation. Many parents work schedule did not allow them to attend practice or games, which is where the interviews were. Secondly, the parents who did participate in the study were parents who were routinely involved. Thirdly, interviews could have been structured differently. For example, the interviews could have been joint together.
study family presence grew deeper as youth reported that their games and practices were memorable when other family members came as well (brother, sister, aunt, uncle).

Sibling relationships also emerged as an important element of family involvement. Many participants enrolled in the program with a sibling and reported feeling supported knowing that they were going through it together. Having a sibling was more prevalent in those who did not have families attend practice and games.

Lee J, M., Whitehead, J., The purpose of this article was to examine the conceptual There were 503 male’s participant The researchers used a YSVO This study found that “prosocial attitudes were This articles provides evidence that either Future research; Although the mediation

| relationship between values, achievement orientation, and attitudes in youth sports | questionnaire that represented a hierarchical ranking of the importance of youth athletes values. Due to too many indicators, the researchers selected three experienced judges to (a) parsimoniously represent the conceptual breadth of a construct, (b) reduce overemphasis on one facet of a construct, and (c) avoid items with similar wording. | predicted positively by both competence and moral values, whereas antisocial attitudes were predicted positively by status and negatively by morals.” (Lee 2008). This finding is important because it demonstrates that prosocial attitudes of commitment to sport and respect for its social conventions. Inversely, antisocial attitudes of cheating and gamesmanship express the opposite of prosocial attitudes. | prosocial attitudes or negative attitudes depends on the value system that are taught and transmitted into practice. Either positive or negative will have an effect on PYD. This paradox that coaches and teachers go through to develop competition between opponents, while also promoting fairness is difficult, but significant others should encourage young people to strive for personal excellence and competitive success, while at the same time encouraging fairness and respect for both the rules and opponents. | models were robust and it was not necessary to add or delete anything, future testing should examine the generalization effects, and the meditation model should be adapted to include both approach avoidance forms of task and ego orientation (Lee et al 2008). Next, while future research could assess other sport related values, using the multi-items scale would be demanding on the attention span of young athletes this research has found reliability with fewer items. They recommend that other values selected should extend on their research because it could provide |
The purpose was to examine coaches and to give observational feedback that would best develop an empowering motivational climate. A secondary purpose is to assess the specific elements of empowering and disempowering motivational climates to PYD outcomes within and outside the sport.

Participant data was collected on a total of 57 participants. This represented about 75% of the sampling frame. Parents who did not complete questionnaires were due to them having to leave to get to another event. Next, eight coaches were eligible to be observed and provided feedback. The researchers used four.

The hypothesis related to the connection of empowering and disempowering climates were partially supported. Only autonomy-supportive were significant predictors of PYD. Task-involving, ego involving, and controlling coaches showed no significant signs of empowering or disempowering motivational climates in regards to PYD within and outside of the sport. Players who received autonomy-supportive coaches felt that their voice was heard, which lead to the athlete.

Though research did not support a significant impact of the observation to creating empowering and disempowering climates, the researchers did note that autonomy-supportive climates were most likely to predict PYD outcomes. Next, the researchers did not find that observational feedback improved the coach-climate, they also did not implicate that observational feedback was useless or a negative tool. Lastly, they found that coaches being observed can influence.

Future research: The researchers would like to see further this study into a more comprehensive way. This would include training, multiple observations, and feedback, and attitudes and behaviors of parents. In addition, considering the coach and player engagement in practice, observations could be useful during practice times (Legg, Newland, & Bigelow 2018).

Limitations: The study was selective in only picking youth boys. Results may have differed if the study.
types of motivational climates (Task-involving, ego-involving, autonomy support, and controlling coach). These types were used for the instrument MANOVA.

enjoying the experience and taking on more leadership type roles. Furthermore, when coaches explained their rationale for actions, and provided youth with meaningful options, youth were more likely to enjoy the experience and achieve PYD within and outside the sport.

doing behavior by forcing coaches to be aware of their outward behavior.

 included coed teams and/or girls.

| Romand, P., & Pantaléon, N. (2007). A Qualitative Study of Rugby Coaches’ Opinions About the Display of Moral Character. Sport Psychologist, | “The purpose of this study was to attain a deeper understanding of youth coaches attitudes toward the display of moral character (values they try to teach their players, the concrete means they use to teach game rules, and prosocial norms) and examine how they make rule abidance compatible with intensive efforts to achieve success (Romand and Pantaléon, 2007).” | The sample from this study was made up of 16 French male rugby coaches. Each coach was between the ages of 28 to 50 and had at least five years of coaching experience. To teach rugby in a All interview s were performed by the same interviewer throughout the study. He was a 26 year old in the final stage of his doctoral work in sports psychology. Each | The results highlighted two different forces in coaches, whose attitudes and behaviors differed across context. When coaches were coaching during practice the goals were to teach the rules that enabled effective group action. They assumed the role of the instructor. Furthermore The purpose of this study was to attain a deeper understanding of how coaches make sense of morality and teach it to their athletes. Rugby is a sport deemed to promote values such as team spirit, abiding by the rules of the game, respect for oneself and others, self control, and | Future research: A larger sample size would be nice to see better results as in this study the sample size was small. Also, it is recommended that future research be developed on a multidimensional scale that pertains to coaches’ attitudes about character, |
No where in the certification process does the training include anything about values, moral reasoning or rule abidance. Next, these coaches were chosen because they trained cadet, meaning players from ages 15-17 and junior players ages 17-19.

Romand & Pantaleon describe coaches as being “actors on both sides that characterize there role as a coach (P. 77).” When the environment switches to competitive, coaches seem to redefine the transgressive conduct of their players. A few examples are cheating is a part of the gamespersonsh ip, and aggression (Romand, & Pantaléon, 2007). By doing this, Romand, & Pantaléon would use a mixed-methods approach that would involve a combination of interviews and attitude scales (P. 76).
game rules and prosocial norms, concrete means to teach the rules during competition, attitude toward officials, the influence they think they have on their players, and their position on the display of character regarding competition.

Game rugby rules allow aggression. This shifts responsibility conduct of the players onto the referees, supporters, or other players, and minimizing the consequences of their conduct (cheating is not so serious, verbal or physical aggression can have positive effects (Romand & Pantaleon). Lastly, the results indicate how coaches "subvert sport values through their reasoning. Different references to sport values are used to justify respect and violations by using socially acceptable and laudable elements to justify misconduct. These results reinforce and expand the
concept of bracketed morality in the sports domain (2007).” Furthermore, coaches were asked about their role and coaches described their role as “we have a big influence on our athletes. Our lifestyle, our behavior, they watch too” (p. 71). This shows that coaches have to be a role model and be cautious of how they act because their athletes are absorbing everything. Coaches were asked about competition and its implications. One coach talked about how he tries to show and teach kids how to act, but states “as long as there’s competition, there is always somebody who’s trying to
This article researches two important stakeholders for youth programs. One stakeholder being the players and the other being parents. It is important to design the program for the youth participants, but to also gear it toward their parents as they will have the final say in continuing with the program. 

Purpose: is to compare the

Data was collected from both parents and players involved in a youth football program in the midwest. This program is open to kids in first through eighth. Kids aged from 6-14.

Questionnaires were distribute and collected by league board members prior to the final game of the season. 367 questionnaires were collected: 143 from parents, and 224 from players.

Players valued fun as being an important piece (6.98 out of 7.0). Also, willingness to play for the same coach next year 4.53 out of 5.0) were among the top results from the players side. This was important because the research suggest that those players who had more fun and wanted to play for the same coach

Results from this review show that players perceive their youth experience quite different than their parents do. The research suggest that parents need to be more aware of what their children actually feel during practices and games, they may be less likely to exhibit negative

Future research: Since data from this study was generated solely from select football programs, future research could examine different sports and levels of competition using the same methodological approach. Schwab, Wells, & Arthur-Banning, S suggest that, since perspectives and attitudes of parents could
The questions asked were designed to see if the league was meeting its goals from the parents and players perspectives. Questions for the players included, but not limited to fun, sportsmanship, skills, teamwork, and respect for coaches. Likert-type scale was used. Parents were asked the same set of questions, but including two more that next year gained more confidence and competence within their sport. This led to these participants to be more motivated and display PYD. On the contrary, parents perspective of the overall experience (5.33 out of 7) and parent willingness to register for the league next year (3.99 out of 5) involvement and less likely to take their child out of a program that is effective. In this study, youth perceived the program as fun and willing to participate next year with the same coach. This led the athletes to be more motivated, display good moral character, and PYD. However, program directors my want to fit the needs of the parents who have the final say if the youth participates again next year. Parents were looking into the program differently than their kids were. They were looking at how much playing time there kid got alter based on future opportunities like college scholarships it would be influential to look at individual sports or other non-common sports that lead to scholarships.

Limitations: Study conducted on male athletes from a select football program. Most participants that came from this study were from middle class families and live in suburban areas. While positive experiences for children rate as a top priority, perhaps more effort could be made in enhancing the parent’s perspective. Since the parents are the ones who make the final
talked about willingness to play for the same coach and likelihood of playing again next year. Again, the researchers used a Likert-type scale.

and the competition of winning to whereas that did not play a significant role for their child to continue to play.

Results from this study came from the talking circles. The researchers transcribed these talking circles and developed common themes for each of the five C’s.

In conclusion, of all the C’s researchers offer that there may be a link between competence and confidence. By developing competence means that you are gaining more confidence and if people can become more confident, then they may feel more effective within a particular decision. Changing the program is not something you may have to do, but instead try to change the parent’s perspective. Parents could benefit from understanding the importance fun has on their child.

| Strachan, L., McHugh, T.-L., & Mason, C. (2018). Understanding Positive Youth Development in Sport Through the Voices of Indigenous Youth. Journal of Sport & | The purpose of this study was to explore how the five C’s (confidence, competence, character, connection, and caring) of PYD are understood and experienced by urban Indigenous youth in Western Central Canadian communities. Indigenous is referred to as First Nations, Metis, Inuit people in the context of colonial Canada. | There were 43 youth from across three Canadian settings who were recruited to participate in this study. The participants ranged from ages 12-19 and were all selected for the reason such as, being a part of the This study used a community based participatory framework approach. To collect data, researchers used talking circles throughout the study. Although this research does take a | Results from this study came from the talking circles. The researchers transcribed these talking circles and developed common themes for each of the five C’s. When participants were asked about confidence, two sub themes that arose were bravery and freedom. Bravery was | Future research: “Offering sport opportunities that provide a connection to the land seems to be a key component for enhancing sport experience for Indigenous youth” Strachan, McHugh, & Mason, C. (2018). |
| **Exercise Psychology, 40(6), 293–302.** | First nations. Each participant received a $10 gift card for participating in the study. | constructive, phenomenological approach, it is also rooted in a two-eyed seeing approach meaning an Indigenous concept that recognizes Canada and urban centers. | described as overcoming fear and doubt, refusing to be intimidated by others. Next, freedom was described as being free from political and societal constraints. The second C’ that was analyzed was competence. Competence was the most difficult for the participants to define. The researchers eventually found competence meant believing in oneself. In addition, offering sport opportunities that provided connection to the land has demonstrated to be a key component for enhancing sports opportunities among Indigenous youth. | context and ultimately be able to transfer this feeling to other contexts and environments. The researchers discovered that creating inclusive, welcoming and positive sport programs, and understanding the five C’s from a cultural perspective would allow programs to develop PYD. |
Next, connection was broken down into 4 sub themes, building relationships, feeling encouragement or support, being aware of the environment, and self-compassion. When participants build good relationships they felt closer together to their teammates. Next, when participants felt encouragement or support they described it as making a connection with a coach. In addition to that not only did participants report feeling closer to a coach, but to their environment and community around them. Lastly, Participants
spoke of mindful Belief and connecting with the self in a kind manner. Character was defined into four sub themes, such as discipline, integrity/respect, leadership, and self-discovery. In particular self discovery was a major one that the researchers gathered. Participants talked about learning about themselves, finding out who they are as well as having confidence in themselves as important steps to character development. The final C that was discussed was caring and the participants explained showing concern for others when an injury occurred,

The purpose of this study was to build upon the theoretical understanding that coaches should be responsible for PYD. In addition, the study aimed to understand how this theoretical responsibility correlates with the goals of practitioners working in the reality of coaching.

Twenty-two coaches were interviewed for this study, 16 being male and 6 being female. All coaches in this study coached youth aged athletes. The focus of these programs are not on competition or performance. Coaches in this study were defined by living in a medium to high socioeconomic status. Each coach spent two for the researchers to gain understanding of the practical role and goals of coaching practitioners a qualitative methodology was used. Qualitative methodologies have been used in coaching research to bring structure, understanding and a unified picture of phenomena that results from the complexity of the research.

Out of the eight themes, the number one thing that coaches discussed was character. Coaches described that when you are dealing with kids, "you just want them to know to play in the right spirit (Vella et al. 2011)." Next was respect and the coaches emphasized that they wanted their athletes to respect their teammates, officials, and their opponents. Thirdly, life skills were among the top of the list for coaches. One skill in particular was leadership and teaching children how to develop that.

The conclusion of this research is that coaches see themselves as responsible for PYD. Although the existing literature is not comprehensive enough to capture the entirety of outcomes desired by youth sport coaches. In addition, despite seeing themselves as primarily responsible for PYD, the content of relevant coaching accreditation courses is lacking substance. Coaching education typically focuses on performance enhancement, with an over.

No future implications

Furthermore, this research reflects a particular context that limits the transferability of findings. All of the coaches came from one medium to high economic status. It remains to be seen whether the same responsibilities are articulated by performance coaches (2011).
to six hours a week with their athletes each week.

Next, semi-structured interview s were used that consisted of seven open-ended question. These questions were designed to elicit open-ended responses. Data analysis followed a five-step approach, which included a) familiarization, b) initial codes were generated, c) codes were organized into themes, d) extracts for each code were taken through sports experience is important because so many kids sit in a room on the computer all day. One coached explained in more detail that “I am talking about having that outside of the family, male influence somewhere in their lives. That is all I think I provide (Vella, 2011).” The last comment made by coach 15 was Someone outside the family group that mentors them and is able to teach them skills that they need to be successful in life (2011). As you can see that coaches see high value in teaching youth more than just skills and tactical approaches.

 emphasis on tactical knowledge.
from the data and collated into themes to ensure, e) following the discussion each theme was discussed and a description was given.

| Wells, M. S., Arthur-Banning, S. G., Paisley, K. P., Ellis, G. D., Roark, M. F., & Fisher, K. (2008). Good (youth) sports: Using Benefits-Based Programming to increase sportsmanship. *Journal of Park & Recreation* | Participant s were a part of a youth basketball program at two local community centers. The league was divided into four divisions (first and second graders, third and fourth graders, fifth and sixth graders and seventh and eighth graders). At every game there was an observer who was watching all demonstrated behaviors by players, coaches, and spectators. Tables were used to collect the data of each behavior. Data Analysis: The study had two groups. | To measure positive sportsmanship behaviors the researchers used “admitted to infractions”, “checking on injured players”, and “encouraging teammates and opponents” as their indicators. Negative sportsmanship was categorized as “blaming referees for poor play”, “taunting opponents”, and “demonstrating acts of aggression” (Wells et al. | As a result from this study intentional programming can be successfully employed to increase sportsmanship in PHPFPF plus pro social referee. The youth sport league that did not utilize the program PHPFPF (only) displayed lower levels of positive sportsmanship and higher levels of negative sportsmanship. We can conclude that | Future research: The area of sportsmanship is an area that needs to continue to be study and developed. In the present study there was anecdotal evidence from the participants suggested that those at the treatment site were more likely to register for the program again, but no data was collected to confirm this. In addition, only one sport was included in this study, so |

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of a youth sports program intentionally designed using prosocial behavior techniques influencing sportsmanship and fun during games, by comparing varying levels of implementation including no intervention, pro-social behavior-based atmosphere, and a prosocial-based atmosphere plus the use of referees trained in prosocial behavior.
| Third and fourth, and fifth and sixth were the focus on this study. | play hard, play fair, play fun (PHPFPF) and the PHPFPF plus pro social referee. The analysis looked at sportsmanship (both positive and negative) from both groups. | 2008). These listed above were a guideline for the observers, but the list was not limited to only these categories. The most negative sportsmanship behavior occurred with the PHPFPF only. In contrast, the lowest number of negative sportsmanship occurred with the PHPFPF plus refs. | There are several lessons resulting from this study to improve youth sports programs. Spending time to determine goals of a program and implementing it into the program based on specific goals can lead to desired results. looking into other sports may differ the results. Wells et al. 2008 suggest that it is important to study the impact of pro-social on different sports because of the cultural difference each sport has. Lastly, future research could be examined by looking at the type of leagues such as recreational and competitive. | There is considerable evidence throughout the literature that individuals will act accordance with what is expected of them. You see this through the study as the programs who had the pro social referee showed more positive sportsmanship |
The Purpose of this study was to examine effective strategies for life skills by ten coaches that impact positive youth development.

Ten academic coaches participated in this study. Five being male and five being female. Five were African American and five were Anglo American. Each coach was asked to sign an informed consent form. Once that was done they were asked to fill out a background information form.

An interview guide was developed based on the review of literature. Previous research on high school coaches were used to help guide the questions as well. The researchers audio taped and transcribed all of the interviews. Each interview lasted 60-90 minutes. After the interviews took place, the data went through the research (success/achievement goals and satisfaction/emotional well-being).

1. The first higher order theme that coaches wanted to assist student athletes achieve success beyond high school. This was broken down into three lower order themes, one in particular was Life skill development (PYD). The results showed that the coaches believe that coaching is more than X's and O's. In other words, academic coaches need to ensure that their environment to be supportive and positive while being consistent with their athletes. Although there was not a significant technique that made the coaches in the study successful, but it was their consistent presence staying with their players for long time that made the coaches successful.

This study answers research question one and supports that coaches believe that coaching is more than X's and O's. In other words, academic coaches need to ensure that their environment to be supportive and positive while being consistent with their athletes. Although there was not a significant technique that made the coaches in the study successful, but it was their consistent presence staying with their players for long time that made the coaches successful.

Present study was limited by only interviewing 10 coaches and results could differ based on each environment.

Future research: None
through a three step coding process. An initial coding took place and generated three columns (line number, raw quote and a blank space for initial coding). The researchers went through three coding processes, eventually coming to a master coding sheet.

wanted their athletes to have future forward thinking, striving for something better, and to help themselves. Coaches wanted to provide their athletes with opportunities that they never thought they had, expose them to opportunities, and provide them opportunities to interact with positive role models.

2. The second high order theme was satisfaction/emotional well-being goals. This included raw data responses as they want their athletes to be happy, feel good about themselves, and want each player to develop a sense of believing in himself.

periods. The athletes in the study were from the inner city and in majority do not have good support systems. Therefore, the most effective coaches did display positive and supportive environments; the difference was the extended time spent with the athletes that made the difference in PYD.