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9	A history of parent involvement in organized youth sport: A scoping review
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Abstract

2 A fundamental step in describing a research field is the review and synthesis of accumulated 3 knowledge. Multiple qualitative reviews have been conducted over the last decade to provide a 4 summary and commentary on the growing literature in the area of youth sport parenting. 5 However, these reviews have focused on contemporary findings in the field, largely ignoring 6 work in the area that began in the late 1960s. In light of this under-discussed history, there 7 remains a need to highlight the historical foundations of the youth sport parenting literature, the 8 transitions that shaped the trajectory of work, as well as the contemporary research that informs 9 our current understanding. The purpose of this scoping review was to provide an historical analysis of the literature on parent involvement in organized youth sport. In conducting the 10 analysis, we identified key concepts and trajectories that define the field's foundational (1968-11 1981), transitional (1982-1998), and contemporary (1999-2020) periods. Specifically, this 12 review not only sought to define and summarize these periods of research, but also to use the 13 synthesized knowledge to frame remaining gaps and potential future directions for the field. 14 15

16 Keywords: Youth sport, parent involvement, scoping review, historical trends

1 A history of parent involvement in organized youth sport: A scoping review 2 A fundamental step in describing a research field is the review and synthesis of accumulated 3 knowledge. Engaging in this systematic process goes beyond just a summary of research to offer 4 concrete conclusions, historical trends, and potential future directions of study (Thomas et al., 5 2005). A common form of research synthesis is a qualitative review, which allows researchers to 6 make reliable and valid inferences from written text (Krippendorff, 2004). Recognizing their 7 value, multiple qualitative reviews have been conducted over the last decade to provide a 8 summary and commentary on the growing literature in the area of youth sport parenting (see 9 Bremer, 2012; Knight et al., 2017; Knight 2019). These reviews have focused largely on contemporary findings in the field, perhaps leading the casual reader to assume that sport 10 parenting represents a "new" area of scholarship. However, a recent citation network analysis of 11 12 the sport parent involvement literature suggests that work in this area began in the late 1960s and included at least 199 peer-reviewed articles that were published through 2018 (Dorsch et al., 13 2019). 14

In light of this rich but under-discussed history, the extent to which historical trends have 15 guided the youth sport parent involvement literature is unclear. Such information is important to 16 17 ensure scholars and practitioners clearly understand how the field has reached its current form but also what gaps or omissions are present throughout its history, which impact on the 18 19 knowledge-base. Thus, the purpose of this scoping review was to provide an historical analysis 20 of the literature on parent involvement in organized youth sport. In conducting the analysis, we identified key concepts and trajectories that define the field's foundational (1968-1981), 21 22 transitional (1982-1998), and contemporary (1999-2020) periods. 23 Method

A scoping review was selected because they are commonly written to shed light on
 complex and/or important issues in an area of research and typically include studies from various

disciplines that use a range of designs and methodologies (Pham et al., 2014). They are
undertaken primarily to identify and summarize the key constructs or veins of knowledge
(Sucharew and Macaluso, 2019). Given the desire to understand the historical context of the
complex area of parental involvement in youth sport, define and summarize knowledge in this
area, and also to use the synthesized knowledge to frame remaining gaps and potential future
directions for the field, a scoping review seemed appropriate.

7 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

8 An extensive search was conducted to locate peer-reviewed articles that addressed 9 questions related to parent involvement in organized youth sport. To guide article retrieval, two inclusion criteria were used. First, articles were required to highlight some form of parent 10 involvement in organized youth sport. In the present study, organized youth sport was 11 12 operationalized as "adult-organized and controlled athletic programs for young people," wherein "participants are formally organized [and] attend practices and scheduled competitions under the 13 supervision of an adult leader" (Smoll & Smith, 2002, p. xi). In line with this criterion, we did 14 15 not include physical activity, exercise, physical education, and free play settings, which comprise a substantial volume of research in sport and exercise psychology. We also excluded research 16 17 that simply collected data on parents or from parents but did not explicitly assess their 18 involvement in their children's sport participation. Second, articles were required to have been 19 published in peer-reviewed, English-language, academic journals. As such, we did not include 20 books, chapters, reviews, conceptual papers, conference proceedings, theses and dissertations, or organizational "white papers" in this scoping review. 21

22 Article Retrieval

Articles were sought via general (PubMed, Web of Science, Google Scholar) and specific (PsycINFO, SportDiscus) electronic databases. Databases were searched using 12 combinations of keywords at three levels. The first level (n = four keywords) included "families," "parents,"

1 "fathers," and "mothers." The second level (*n* = three keywords) included "children," "athletes," 2 and "adolescents." The third level included the keyword "sport." During an initial search 3 conducted in December 2019, 1003 English-language articles were identified for review. 4 Removal of duplicates resulted in 691 articles being retained for consideration. A three-step 5 filtering approach (Jones, 2004; Meade & Richardson, 1997) was used to consolidate the article 6 population. First, article *titles* were reviewed, which yielded 377 articles that fit the inclusion 7 criteria. Second, article abstracts were reviewed, yielding 253 articles. Finally, full texts were reviewed, leaving 208 articles in the final article population (see Figure 1). 8 A second search was conducted in March 2020, whereby the references cited in these 208 9 articles were examined. An additional twenty-seven articles were identified and subjected to the 10 same title, abstract, and full-text screening procedures in line with the established inclusion 11 12 criteria. Consequently, 19 new articles were retained in the final article population (Figure 1). A third search was conducted in September 2020, prior to initial submission of this manuscript, to 13 document recently published articles that fit the study's inclusion criteria. Twelve articles were 14 15 identified and subjected to the same screening procedures as detailed above. Subsequently, eight new articles that were retained in the final article population (Figure 1). 16 Finally, prior to resubmission of this manuscript, a validation of this iterative sample (N =17 235) was conducted in January 2021. This search yielded nine new articles, which were again 18 19 screened against the inclusion criteria. Ultimately, seven new articles were retained for inclusion. 20 Two articles from the iterative sample were excluded from the final sample because it was 21 determined they did not meet one of the two inclusion criteria. This yielded a final N of 242 peer-reviewed manuscripts in the sport parent involvement literature (see Figure 1). A 22 comprehensive bibliography of the final article population is available from the authors upon 23 24 request.

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*****INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE *****

1 Data Extraction and Representation

2 The authors annotated each of the 242 articles, extracting 14 pre-determined pieces of 3 data: (1) author(s), (2) year of publication, (3) study title, (4) journal, (5) volume, (6) article page 4 range, (7) country or countries of origin of the participants, (8) age range(s) of the athletes and 5 their parents, (9) sport(s) played by the participants, (10) level of competition, (11) stated study 6 aim(s), (12) methods employed, (13) major findings, and (14) take-home messages. Knowledge 7 gleaned from article results sections was then synthesized and used to create an inclusive 8 narrative of the many research trajectories that have shaped the literature in this area. During this 9 process, the authors engaged in a critical analysis of the youth sport parent involvement literature, identifying common trends/areas of focus in the literature, establishing gaps in the 10 knowledge base, and highlighting potential future directions worth investigating. 11

12 Our analysis initially led to narratives that were delineated by decade, from the 1960s through the 2010s. However, it became evident through the assembly of these narratives that 13 14 they were arbitrarily constructed and did not fully capture the important paradigm shifts that had 15 taken place in the field. Through iterative discourse, the authorship team acknowledged and defined three qualitatively unique periods of research on youth sport parent involvement: the 16 17 foundational period (1968 through 1981), the transitional period (1982-1998), and the contemporary period (1999-2020). These periods are demarcated by impactful papers that set or 18 19 changed the trajectory of the field. The *foundational* period began with the earliest paper found 20 in our search of the literature: Felker (1968). This period was unique in that its research sought to highlight how parents' interests and behaviors influenced athletes' initial and ongoing 21 22 involvement in youth sport. The *transitional* period began with Gould and colleagues' (1982) 23 publication. This period was unique in that research began shift from descriptive, atheoretical 24 studies, toward studies designed to explicitly test theory in the context of youth sport. Finally, the 25 contemporary period began with Côté's (1999) publication. This period was unique in that

research efforts expanded beyond the nature of parent involvement and its influence on

children's psychosocial outcomes to consider the experience of parenting children in sport and
pursue understanding of *why* parents behave the way they do.

4

The foundational period (1968-1981)

5 Academic interest in sport parenting began during the late 1960s in the United States (US). Without an established field of inquiry, research in the area was conducted by academics 6 7 within the more well-established sub-fields of educational psychology (e.g., Felker, 1968; Felker 8 & Kay, 1971) and sport sociology (e.g., Greendorfer & Lewko, 1978; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973). 9 As a result, much of the early sport parenting research was informed by Bandura and Walter's (1963) social learning theory. Specifically, research started by exploring the relationship between 10 parents' own interest in sport and child outcomes and progressed to more theoretically informed 11 12 studies examining parents' roles in children's sport socialization and the subsequent influence on the parent-child relationship. Although studies were in some ways limited by retrospective, 13 quantitative, cross-sectional designs (cf. Orlick, 1974), and often used measures which had not 14 15 yet undergone rigorous psychometric testing in sport samples (e.g., Gilliland & Tutko, 1978; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1976), they made a foundational contribution to this area by highlighting 16 how parents' interests and behaviors influence young athletes' initial and ongoing involvement 17 in sport (Greendorfer, 1977). 18

Studies published during this period (n = 13) focused on three main areas of inquiry: (1)
The influence of parents' interest in sport (i.e., how parents' own interest in sport influenced
their child's involvement); (2) parents' roles in children's sport socialization (i.e., how parents
encouraged or discouraged sport involvement); and (3) the impact of sport involvement on the
parent-child relationship.

24 The Influence of Parents' Interest in Sport

1 The first research article that focused on sport parent involvement was published in 1968 2 by Donald Felker. Felker (1968) examined the relationship between self-concept, body build, 3 and perceptions of fathers' interest in sport in sixth- (age 11-12) and ninth-grade (age 14-15) 4 boys. Findings highlighted differences in self-concept scores across body builds and fathers' 5 interest in sport in the younger sample. Felker and colleagues (i.e., Felker & Kay, 1971; Kay et 6 al., 1972) extended these relationships to seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade boys, providing additional support for the notion that boys who perceived their parents as having a higher interest 7 in sport had higher self-concept scores, particularly during early adolescence (Kay et al., 1972). 8 9 Collectively, these findings suggested that boys placed a substantial emphasis on perceived similarities of interest between themselves and their parents when making judgements about their 10 own self-worth (Kay et al., 1972). In doing so, these studies highlighted the potential value of 11 12 providing opportunities for parents and boys to participate in sport-related activities together (Kay et al., 1972). The absence of girls within these studies is noticeable but perhaps 13 14 understandable within the historical context of the late 60s/early 70s, as sport was not necessarily 15 valued or deemed an appropriate pastime for girls. This was explored in more depth through studies examining parents' roles in children's sport socialization. 16

17 Parents' Roles in Children's Sport Socialization

In 1972, 'Title IX' of the Educational Amendments to the Civil Rights Act became law in the US, leading to major increases in girls sport participation (Vealey & Chase, 2016). These changes resulted in greater academic interest in gender-differences within the context youth sport. As a result, sport parenting researchers moved beyond studying the influence of parents' interests in sport on boys and started to explore *whether* and *how* parents (and the broader family unit) predicted boys' and girls' socialization into sport (e.g., Greendorfer, 1977; Greendorfer & Lewko, 1978; Lewko & Ewing, 1980; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1976).

1 Drawing from social learning theory perspective (Bandura & Walters, 1963), Snyder and 2 Spreitzer explored how family related variables (i.e., mother's interest in sport, father's interest 3 in sport, and parental encouragement) were predictive of youth participation and adult sport 4 involvement in males and females. Results from two retrospective studies (Snyder & Spreitzer, 5 1973; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1976) suggested that parents who were more interested in sport tended 6 to encourage their children to participate in sport, which in turn increased the likelihood of their 7 children's participation. Although findings from the earlier study (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973) 8 indicated the same-sex parent might be most influential regarding a child's sport involvement, 9 further analyses suggested that fathers' interest was more influential for both sons and daughters (Spreitzer & Snyder, 1976). In addition, parental encouragement from mothers and fathers was 10 more influential for females than males (Spreitzer & Snyder, 1976). 11

12 Subsequently, Greendorfer (1977) employed a social learning paradigm to examine the influence of socializing agents (e.g., family, peers, teachers, and coaches) on the socialization of 13 young women into sport. Results demonstrated that peers were the most important influence 14 15 across each life cycle stage (i.e., childhood, adolescence, adulthood) while family served as a strong socializing influence during childhood but were less influential over time. Findings also 16 17 suggested that male socializing agents served as the predominant role models influencing sport 18 involvement during childhood, whereas female agents became more significant role models 19 during adulthood. Follow-up studies on the role of family members in the sport socialization 20 process during childhood suggested that parents are more significant socializing agents than 21 siblings for both sexes (Greendorfer & Lewko, 1978); however, fathers were the most significant 22 family member influencing sport participation of boys and girls (Greendorfer & Lewko, 1978; 23 Lewko & Ewing, 1980). Collectively, these findings showed that parents (particularly fathers) 24 play an important role in the athletic socialization of males and females, but their influence may 25 be mitigated somewhat during adolescence by other social influences, particularly peers.

1 The Impact of Sport Involvement on the Parent-Child Relationships

2 Around 1980, parenting practices in the US shifted to focus more on scheduling 3 children's time extensively in achievement activities (e.g., youth sport; Vealey & Chase, 2016) 4 rather than encouraging free and spontaneous play, which had previously been more common. 5 This change coincided with greater interest in the parent-child relationship (McElroy & 6 Kirkendall, 1981). For instance, Gilliland and Tutko (1978) examined the retrospective accounts 7 of differences in parent-child relations between collegiate athletes and non-athletes. Findings 8 suggested no significant differences between athletes and non-athletes; however, male athletes reported significantly more neglect by mothers and fathers, more rejection by mothers, and more 9 demands from their fathers compared to female athletes. Extending the earlier findings from 10 socialization studies, it was suggested that this may be due to parents placing a greater emphasis 11 12 on young males' participation and performance in sport compared to females.

McElroy and Kirkendall (1981) subsequently explored if involvement in youth sport 13 programs led to conflict within the parent-child relationship. Findings supported the notion that 14 15 social conflicts can occur when children's perceptions of their sport ability differ from their perceptions of their parents' evaluations. Specifically, differences in parent-child ability 16 judgments were related to lower self-esteem for adolescents who possessed high self-evaluation 17 of their sport abilities and impacted on males to a greater degree than females. These findings 18 19 extended previous research by highlighting how parenting practices affect children's perceptions 20 of their sport abilities. Consequently, this early work established an emerging sub-discipline of 21 youth sport research, prompting greater and more sustained academic interest in sport parenting.

22

The transitional period (1982-1998)

The transitional period was fundamental in establishing sport parenting as a viable subdiscipline within the field of sport and exercise psychology. A growing number of studies were conducted to extend scientific knowledge around the influences of mothers and fathers as well as

1 patterns of parental involvement (via support and/or pressure) on youth outcomes in sport. 2 Within these lines of inquiry, the field also began to see a shift from descriptive, atheoretical 3 studies, toward studies designed to explicitly test (usually psychological) theory in sport. The 4 period further advanced understanding of parental involvement by starting to include parents as 5 co-participants in the research process by directly seeking their experiences and perspectives. 6 Most studies, however, were bounded by relying only on the child's perspective while also 7 lacking even the most basic sociodemographic information about the respective parents. More 8 importantly, findings remained limited by largely quantitative, single-time-point, correlational 9 designs and neglected the significance of the youth sport context, a gap that would set the stage for a surge of qualitative research and more holistic investigations in the contemporary period. 10 11 The transitional period built upon the foundational literature (1968-1981) by continuing 12 to recognize the significance of parents throughout their children's sport participation and by 13 capturing the unique roles of mothers and fathers in the sport socialization process. In both 14 broadening and deepening the sport parenting literature base, a majority of the field's 37 English-language publications during this period originated from the United States (n = 21). This 15 work was complemented by ongoing research in other Western countries (e.g., Canada, the 16 17 United Kingdom, and Australia) and began to establish a trajectory for sport parent research by illuminating three primary areas of inquiry. First, building on foundational phase work, there was 18 19 a focus on parents' roles in children's sport socialization. Linked to this but focuses specifically 20 on gender stereotyping was a consideration of parents' roles in reinforcing children's gender stereotypes. Finally, there was an introduction of research explicitly examining the influence 21 22 parents have on children's outcomes in sport.

23 Parents' roles in children's sport socialization

In building from the foundational period, an early emphasis during the transitional period was to further tease apart the independent and combined influences of significant others on

1 children's socialization into sport (see McPherson, 1980). In general, several studies expanded 2 our understanding about socializing influences on children's early sport participation 3 experiences. For instance, reinforcing earlier findings (e.g., Greendorfer, 1977; Greendorfer & 4 Lewko, 1978), Higginson (1985) found that socializing influences on female athletes changed 5 from being mostly parental prior to the age of 13 to mostly coach and teacher-oriented during 6 junior and senior high school years. Meanwhile, McGuire and Cook (1983) identified that 7 children who perceived they had autonomy regarding their decision to participate in sport (i.e., 8 perceived their choice to participate as being independent of others' influence) were less likely to consider quitting and more likely to report higher self-ratings of sport-related skill and ability 9 compared to their peers. As such, these studies suggested that significant others exerted some 10 influence over children's attitudes (i.e., thoughts of quitting, self-rating of skill and ability) and 11 12 behaviors (i.e., their decision to participate in youth sports) relating to youth sport participation. The distinct influence of mothers and fathers in in socializing children into sport and 13 physical activity were also further unpacked during this period (e.g., Brown et al., 1989; Lewko 14 15 & Ewing, 1980). Fathers were identified as the predominant socializing agent for highly sportinvolved boys (Lewko & Ewing, 1980) and most predictive of boys' sport involvement if they 16 were physically active (McElroy, 1983; Wold & Anderssen, 1992). Fathers were also identified 17 as most supportive when their children lacked ability and effort (Averill & Power, 1995). 18 However, Howard and Madrigal (1990) suggested that the final decision to pursue recreational 19 20 opportunities was shared between mothers and children, while fathers are less meaningfully 21 involved. Furthermore, physically active mothers and older sisters tended to be most predictive 22 of girls' participation (Wold & Anderssen, 1992), reinforcing the view that mothers may be the 23 primary and fiduciary facilitators of the sport experience (Kirk et al., 1997). In essence, and 24 notwithstanding the influence of peers who can also exert significant influence during the

adolescent years (Higginson, 1985), the literature established that mother and father differences
 in involvement are closely related to parents' socializing roles for their children.

3 Another major contribution toward understanding the role of parents in children's sport 4 socialization was a consideration of the reciprocal nature of sport parenting. Early sport 5 socialization research framed the process as primarily unidirectional (i.e., as parents socializing 6 children into and through sport), but Snyder and Purdy (1982) drew from extant theory and 7 research in the developmental literature (e.g., Bell, 1968) to forward a reciprocal approach 8 whereby children also have the ability to influence parents' sport-related behaviors and attitudes. 9 This research supported the idea of "reverse" socialization and the argument that although parents may enroll their children in sport, children's participation also has behavioral and 10 attitudinal consequences for the parents. Such processes can be observed in the early 11 socialization of children into sport, whereby parents weigh the costs and benefits associated with 12 sport participation before making purchase decisions with children (Green & Chalip, 1998). 13 Parents' roles in reinforcing children's gender stereotypes 14 15 The transitional period comprised of scholarly interest in further understanding parents' roles in reinforcing gendered expectations and behaviors surrounding children's sport 16 17 participation. At the time, social agents reinforced pervasive gender stereotypes that sport was more "appropriate" for young males than females (Lewko & Ewing, 1980), reflective of broader 18 societal distinctions between male and female appropriate roles/activities. For instance, McElroy 19 20 (1983) investigated the influence of same-sex and cross-sex parent-child relationships on youth 21 athletes' value orientations toward sport. It was concluded that cross-sex relationships (i.e., 22 mother-son/father-daughter) reinforced non-traditional value orientations in boys, but traditional value orientations in girls. This was consistent with earlier notions that females' acceptance into 23

sport was based upon different values than male counterparts (Spreitzer & Snyder, 1976).

1 Similarly, Brown and colleagues (1989) examined the influence of significant others on 2 the continued female sport involvement of adolescents in three different activity contexts 3 (intramural, interschool, community). It was found that in each context, fathers were important 4 for the continued involvement of adolescent girls, whereas the presence of active sport mothers 5 became important only in more competitive contexts (i.e., interschool; community) and was a 6 significant predictor of girls continued sport participation. Taken together, this research suggests 7 that several sources of influence might be necessary to help girls overcome the stereotype that sport is less "appropriate" for them than for young boys (Greendorfer, 1983). More broadly, it is 8 apparent that gender and gender stereotyping are relevant factors to consider in relation to 9 10 children's sport socialization experiences.

11 Parents' influence on children's outcomes in sport

12 The transitional period was also demarcated by a growth in work identifying the 13 influence of parental pressure and support on a variety of children's sport-related outcomes. For 14 instance, Gould and colleagues (Gould et al., 1982; Gould et al., 1985) identified parents as 15 important social influences on children's sport continuation and attrition. Specifically, it was 16 noted that if youth athletes perceived an overemphasis on winning and parental pressure it 17 contributed to their sport dropout. In contrast, parental support and encouragement were cited as 18 primary reasons why children participated in sport (Gould et al., 1985).

Subsequent work focused largely on various predictors, including parents' influence, on
children's self-esteem (Hines & Groves, 1989; McElroy, 1982; Hoyle & Leff, 1997), competitive
stress (Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1984; Cohn, 1990), sport enjoyment (Brustad, 1988; Scanlan &
Lewthwaite, 1986), and competitive trait anxiety (Lewthwaite & Scanlan, 1989; Ommundsen &
Vaglum, 1991; White, 1998). In essence, greater perceptions of parental pressure, higher
expectations for success, negative performance evaluations, and concerns about what parents
might say or think were associated with higher rates of stress and anxiety among children (Hines

1 & Groves, 1989; Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1984; Lewthwaite & Scanlan, 1989) and pressure both 2 to compete in and not withdraw from sport (Hellstedt, 1990). In contrast, perceptions of greater 3 parental satisfaction with performance, less parental pressure, and more positive parent-child 4 interactions were associated with greater enjoyment and positive affect (e.g., Brustad, 1988; Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986; Hoyle & Leff, 1997). Importantly, this line of inquiry paved the 5 6 way for subsequent investigations which studied parents' sport related behaviors and attitudes 7 (e.g., DeFrancesco & Johnson, 1997; Lee & MacLean, 1997) - an area which would mature into 8 a substantive trajectory in the contemporary period.

Other theoretical advances in the field included the application of motivation-related 9 theories with a goal toward developing hypotheses about *why* particular parent behaviors might 10 impact children's outcomes in sport and physical activity settings (Knight, 2019). Indeed, there 11 12 was increased interest among researchers in the structural, social (i.e., support/pressure), and motivational (i.e., goal orientations) conditions to which parents contribute in youth sport (e.g., 13 Brustad, 1992; Duda & Horn, 1993; White et al., 1992; White, 1998). For instance, and building 14 from an achievement goal theory perspective (Nicholls, 1984), researchers engaged in a line of 15 inquiry targeting the relative impact of parent-initiated (Roberts et al., 1994; White, 1996, 1998) 16 or parent- and coach-initiated (White et al., 1998) motivational climates on individual differences 17 in goal orientations as well as competitive trait anxiety among child and adolescent athletes. 18 19 Findings highlight the fact that athletes higher in task- and lower in ego-orientation perceived 20 that their parents emphasized a motivational climate valuing learning and enjoyment rather than 21 success and minimal necessary effort (White, 1996). Conversely, athletes with high ego- and low 22 task-orientation reported the highest levels of competitive trait anxiety (White, 1998). 23 Ostensibly, parental involvement was found to have the capacity to shape the motivational 24 climate, which in turn, impacted children's anxiety and motivational orientations.

1 Theoretical frameworks were also used to help explain why particular parental behaviors 2 impacted children's sport enjoyment and achievement behaviors in sport. For example, 3 Ommundsen and Vaglum's (1991) application of Harter's (1978) competence motivation theory 4 highlighted that parents' and coaches' positive emotional involvement as well as high 5 perceptions of soccer competence individually predicted enjoyment of soccer. Generally, this was consistent with other findings that have identified a positive relationship between parent 6 7 perceptions of their child's competence and children's achievement behaviors (e.g., Brustad, 8 1993; Eccles & Harold, 1991). Similarly, Eccles and colleagues' (1998) expectancy value framework offered theoretical understanding of how children's competence beliefs derive from 9 interactions with their parents – specifically, interactions through which parents communicate 10 beliefs about the likelihood of a child's sport success. Collectively, these studies highlight a 11 12 deliberate emphasis on the application of theory to advance understanding regarding the influence of parents on children's sport-related outcomes in sport, specifically motivation and 13 14 competence.

15 Another contribution that catalyzed the sport parent involvement literature during the transitional period and enabled a more explicit focus on the influence of parents on children's 16 17 outcomes, was the operationalization of "parental involvement". Specifically, Leff and Hoyle (1995) operationalized parental involvement as a multidimensional construct consisting of parent 18 pressure (i.e., parents' unattainable expectations towards a child's sport participation) and 19 20 support (i.e., parent behaviors that facilitate a child's sport participation). Based on this 21 distinction between pressure and support, they subsequently identified gender-discrepant 22 differences in parent involvement: Females indicated higher levels of parental support while 23 males reported higher levels of parental pressure, reinforcing the significance of gender work in 24 relation to parental involvement in sport (Brown et al., 1989; Greendorfer & Lewko, 1978).

1 In sum, work during the transitional period critically advanced the field of sport parenting 2 through the application of theory-driven research designs, which addressed a major limitation of 3 research conducted during the foundational period. The literature also advanced the evidence-4 base regarding the role of parents in youth sport socialization and progressed early 5 understandings about parental involvement from the foundational period toward more considered 6 distinctions in the specific role of mothers' and fathers' involvement on youth sport outcomes. 7 Recognizing theses scholarly advances should not be understated in the sub-disciplines historical 8 account given that they provided the basis for what was a seismic and exponential increase in 9 sport parenting research in the contemporary period – a time in which the literature matured into 10 several distinct, yet meaningful trajectories. 11 The contemporary period (1999-2020) 12 Research published advanced the field by moving from simple to complex understandings of parent involvement in sport, achieved both through asking more nuanced 13 14 theoretical and conceptual research questions and also drawing upon a broader range of 15 (particularly qualitative) research methodologies. Illustrating this shift in both research focus and methodological approaches, Côté's (1999) investigation into patterns of family dynamics among 16 17 talented athletes was noteworthy, and remains a benchmark for how parents' roles may change over the course of their children's development in sport. Such work encouraged researchers and 18 19 practitioners to move beyond a simple, dichotomous understanding of parent involvement as 20 inherently 'positive' or 'negative' toward a better appreciation of the complexities and nuances 21 of sport parenting. Research efforts during the contemporary period expanded beyond the nature 22 of parent involvement and its influence on children's psychosocial outcomes to consider the 23 experience of parenting children in sport and pursue understanding of why parents behave the 24 way they do.

1 Overall, studies in this period showcased theoretical and methodological advancement 2 by, for example, incorporating qualitative designs to gain a deeper understanding of relevant 3 constructs. Scholars have also begun to employ more sophisticated data analysis procedures such 4 as structural equation modeling to assess causal relationships among variables. Many studies, 5 however, still utilized quantitative, cross-sectional designs, which are most useful for answering questions pertaining to what and how, but less useful for answering questions such as why (cf. 6 7 Lauer et al., 2010a, 2010b). In most cases, contemporary sport parenting research has leaned on 8 rigorously tested psychometric measures, which provide greater reliability and validity and 9 reduced error of measurement compared to earlier periods of sport parenting research. Nevertheless, there is still a need for scholars to continue to develop diagnostic and psychometric 10 instruments to extend insights in this area (Harwood, Caglar et al., 2019; Hurtel & Lacassagne, 11 12 2013; Teques, Serpa et al., 2018). In all, 194 scholarly articles were published in this area during the contemporary period, 13

solidifying youth sport parenting as an influential sub-discipline within the sport sciences. An 14 15 accounting of these articles suggests that academic knowledge (published in English) during this period emerged largely from studies conducted in the United States (n = 77) and other 16 industrialized countries such as the United Kingdom (n = 36), Canada (n = 25), Australia (n = 25)17 16), Portugal (n = 9), France (n = 7), Sweden (n = 5), The Netherlands (n = 3), Finland (n = 2)18 and Germany (n = 2). Building on earlier work, the research during this period continued to 19 20 focus on (1) the role of parents in socializing children into sport and (2) parental influence on 21 children's involvement in sport. However, it also expanded to focus explicitly on how parents 22 influenced children's motivational patterns and outcomes, while also considering others' 23 perceptions of parent involvement in sport, factors that influence parent behaviors, and 24 educational considerations to enhance parent involvement in sport.

25 The role of parents in socializing children in sport

1 Building on the research conducted from 1968 through 1998, the contemporary research 2 in this area expanded the field's understanding by highlighting how socialization processes are 3 influenced by deeply rooted stereotypes and ideologies about sport and gender. This perspective 4 was theorized by Coakley (2006), Harrington (2006), and Kay (2007), each of whom noted that 5 sport was an important context for men to do the 'identity work' of being involved with, and 6 emotionally connected to, their children. Sociological perspectives were consistent with empirical accounts of how parents socialize children into sport. Parents perceived that sons had 7 8 more athletic potential and that sport was more important for their sons than daughters (Fredricks 9 & Eccles, 2005). Parents' gendered beliefs and stereotyped attitudes were also shown to influence the types of sports into which children were socialized (Baxter-Jones & Maffulli, 10 2003). A novel finding from the contemporary period was that parents are themselves socialized 11 12 within youth sport through their active participation and the sacrifices they make to enable their children's participation. Specifically changes in their emotional connection to sport, reactive 13 emotional experiences to their children's outcomes, changes to their relationships with their 14 15 children and parent peers were apparent (Dorsch et al., 2009). Beyond the provision of opportunities to facilitate children's engagement in sport, 16 contemporary research has examined a range of socio-contextual characteristics of parents and 17 families that may influence children's sport participation. Specifically, literature suggested that 18 19 family income and a high socioeconomic position (SEP; e.g., Baxter-Jones & Maffulli, 2003; Denault & Paulin, 2009; Seabra et al., 2008), parents' own engagement in physical activity 20 (Denault & Paulin, 2009; Eriksson et al., 2008; Rodrigues et al., 2018; Seabra et al., 2008), and 21 22 high educational attainment (Dukes & Coakley, 2002) are key correlates of sport participation. However, far more consideration of a broader range of individual and contextual factors (e.g., 23 24 culture, ethnicity) are required to really unpack this topic. Nevertheless, taken together, these and

other studies reinforced the view that parents are key role models and enablers of children's
 participation in organized sport.

3 Parents' influence on children's outcomes in sport

4 Contemporary sport parent involvement research built from earlier research that had 5 explored the positive and negative impact of parent involvement (support and pressure) on children's psychosocial outcomes in youth sport (e.g., Knight et al., 2011; Wuerth et al., 2004). 6 Specifically, research during this period explored what constitutes parent support (e.g., offering 7 8 praise, feedback and reinforcement for mastery attempts, unconditional love) and pressure (e.g., 9 overemphasis on outcome goals, harsh criticism, excessive expectations) (references here) and how such behaviors distinctively impact children's outcomes in sport (references here). Further, 10 11 research during this period also moved beyond just pressure and support, considering how 12 parents influence children's participation patterns (i.e., specialization and diversification) (Padaki et al., 2017) and sport continuation (Rodrigues et al., 2018; Wright, Chase, et al., 2019). 13

14 Overall, however, a major focus was upon the relationship between pressure and support 15 and different child outcomes. In general, children's perceptions of parents' support have been associated with adaptive outcomes for children such as perceived sport competence, self-esteem, 16 and enjoyment (Atkins et al., 2013; Mossman & Cronin, 2019; Sánchez-Miguel et al., 2013), and 17 coping skills (Tamminen et al., 2016; Teques, Calmeiro et al., 2018). Meanwhile, pressuring 18 19 behaviors and directive parenting practices (i.e., low autonomy support, more pressure), have 20 largely been associated with maladaptive outcomes for children, including decreased enjoyment, 21 perceptions of a threatening sport environment, competitive (trait) anxiety, lower intrinsic 22 motivation, and lower satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Amado et al., 23 2015; Bean et al., 2016; Jõesaar & Hein, 2011; Ross et al., 2015; Sánchez-Miguel et al., 2013). 24 Other maladaptive outcomes identified in the literature suggest that negative parent socialization 25 practices (i.e., punitive behavior, controlling behavior, high expectations) and negative responses

1 to failure can contribute to children's fear of failure development (Sagar & Lavallee, 2010).

2 Collectively, the literature suggests the associated benefits of youth sport participation are more

3 likely to occur when children have positive, supportive relationships with their parents (Blom et
4 al., 2013).

5 Children's Motivational Patterns and Outcomes

6 Beyond all other child-related outcomes, motivation has gained particular attention 7 during the contemporary period, likely linked to the sustained interest in motivation within the 8 broader field of sport and exercise psychology. As such, consideration of this body of work 9 distinctly from the outcomes identified above relating to parental influence is necessary. Specifically, contemporary studies examining parent involvement and children's motivation 10 drew on several prominent theories (e.g., Harter's 1978 competence motivation theory, Eccles' 11 12 1998 expectancy-value model). The contemporary period also brought together lines of research on the motivational aspects of parents, coaches, peers. Specifically, findings from this period 13 shed light on how combined perceptions of parent-child and athlete-peer relationships predicted 14 15 self-determined motivation (Ullrich-French & Smith, 2006), highlighted the way in which social influence on children's motivation differs according to one's specific role (e.g., parent role: 16 support and facilitation) (Keegan et al., 2010), and showed how strength of social influence from 17 parents, peers, and coaches may vary according to the child's developmental stage (i.e., mother 18 social influence stronger in childhood) (Chan et al., 2012). 19

Other prominent motivational theories that guided research during the contemporary period included Achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1984) and Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). While AGT was used to help explain why children adopt certain achievement goals and belief patterns similar to their parents' definition of success (Bergin & Habusta, 2004; Sánchez-Miguel et al., 2013; White et al., 2004), SDT helped to build theoretical understanding about parents' influence on children's intrinsic motivation by illuminating the importance of autonomy-supportive behaviors (e.g., affording athletes choice, positive competence feedback)
for enhancing athletes' self-determined motivation (Gagné, 2003; Hein & Jõesaar, 2015), the
way in which gender may influence children's intrinsic motivation (Woolger & Power, 2000),
and protecting parents from engaging in aggressive spectator behavior (Goldstein & Iso-Ahola,
2008). Taken together, this body of research collectively highlights scholars' more forceful
engagement in theoretically driven studies and efforts to advance scholarly understanding about
parent involvement in youth sport.

8 Others' perceptions of parent involvement in sport

9 Contemporary research has expanded our understanding of parent sport involvement by documenting others' preferences for parent involvement behaviors. For example, research 10 indicates that children want parents to focus on effort rather than outcomes, respect etiquette, 11 12 match non-verbal behaviors with supportive comments, encourage the entire team (Knight et al., 2010, 2011), and control their emotions (Omli & Wiese-Bjornstal, 2011). However, children do 13 not want their parents to coach from the sidelines or provide technical and tactical advice unless 14 they have sufficient knowledge (Knight et al., 2010; Omli & Wiese-Bjornstal, 2011). In 15 particular, children's preferences seem to be dependent on context (i.e., at home, in training, in 16 17 the car) and timing (i.e., before, during or after competition; Elliott & Drummond, 2017a; Elliott 18 & Drummond, 2017c; Knight et al., 2011; Knight, Little et al., 2016; Tamminen et al., 2017). 19 Additionally, in building from Stein and colleagues (1999), there has been an increased 20 focus on understanding children's perceptions of their parents' involvement in sport (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2016; Knight et al., 2010). This contrasts with work conducted during the 21 22 foundational and transitional periods, which tended to examine parent behaviors more explicitly, 23 rather than how such behaviors were perceived by others. This shift catalyzed an important line 24 of inquiry, given that parents and children do not always agree on what might constitute support 25 and pressure in youth sport (Dorsch, Smith et al., 2016; Kanters et al., 2008). For instance,

- 1 children can perceive behaviors deemed to be supportive by parents as pressuring, while parents can overestimate how supportive their own actions are (Kanters et al.).
- 2

3 In general, children's perceptions of parent involvement were shown to be associated 4 with their own sport conduct, enjoyment, anxiety, and coping strategies (LaVoi & Babkes-5 Stellino, 2008; Lafferty & Dorrell, 2006). In terms of sport conduct, children are more likely to display graciousness and concern for their opponent if they perceived that their parents 6 associated success with enjoyment, encouraged mastery of skill, emphasized mistakes as part of 7 8 learning, and didn't place pressure on winning (LaVoi & Babkes-Stellino, 2008). However, 9 when fathers were perceived to place pressure on winning, and created fear around losing, children were more likely to display poor sportspersonship. Other findings highlighted the fact 10 11 that youth athletes perceived their parents to use more praise and understanding than active involvement and directive behavior. However, they were dissatisfied with their parents' overall 12 level of involvement (i.e., directive behavior, praise and understanding, active involvement) 13 14 suggesting they wanted more from their parents (Ede et al., 2012), which is consistent with previous literature (Wuerth et al., 2004). In particular, Stein and colleagues (1999) argued that 15 the perceived quality (i.e., appropriate, positive; inappropriate, negative) of involvement 16 impacted the athlete's experience of enjoyment and stress to a greater degree than the *quantity* 17 (i.e., too much or too little) of that involvement. 18

19 In addition to children's perspectives, coach and spouse/partner perceptions on parent 20 involvement have been considered (Gould et al., 2006; Gould et al., 2008). The contemporary period began by addressing the need to move beyond unidimensional perceptions of parent 21 22 involvement to consider multiple perspectives. For example, Lauer and colleagues (2010a, b) 23 triangulated players', coaches', and parents' perceptions of parent influence on athlete talent 24 development which was especially valuable because it offered triadic insights and thus reflected the overarching ideas forwarded by a family systems perspective (Minuchin, 1974) – an 25

approach that has received more attention in the sport parent literature (Dorsch et al., 2020;
Grimm et al., 2017; Newhouse-Bailey et al., 2015; Wright, Gould et al., 2019). Research that
followed primarily focused on individual perspectives of coaches and league administrators (e.g.,
Bean et al., 2016; Knight & Holt, 2014; Ross et al., 2015), providing insight into the value of
considering perceptions of parent involvement beyond the athlete.

6 Factors influencing parent involvement in sport

A noticeable shift occurred during the contemporary period, wherein researchers moved from an emphasis on *what* constitutes parent involvement toward emphases on *why* certain parent involvement behaviors occur and *how* they affect children's psychosocial outcomes and performance. A number of interdisciplinary research teams have sought to promote understanding of a broader range of individual and environmental factors related to parent involvement in sport by engaging in qualitative research aimed at providing an in-depth, rich picture of the sport parenting experience.

Individual factors. Stemming from earlier work based on Eccles' expectancy value 14 model (Eccles et al., 1998), contemporary research has been designed to consider parent beliefs, 15 attitudes, and expectations as salient factors that influence parent involvement in their child's 16 17 sport participation. For example, parents' own past sport experiences, level of sport knowledge, and goals and expectations have been found to shape the way in which parents approach their 18 19 child's sport participation (Dorsch, Smith, Wilson et al., 2015; Knight, Dorsch et al., 2016). 20 Researchers have also considered parenting styles, producing findings that suggest authoritative 21 parenting styles are most conducive to optimal parent involvement and children's adaptive 22 outcomes (e.g., task-oriented behavior, satisfaction; Juntumaa et al., 2005). Building from this 23 perspective, autonomy-supportive parenting styles were associated with parents' improved 24 ability to read their children's moods, engage in bidirectional open communication, and make 25 training and competition-related decisions together (Holt et al., 2009). Within this line of inquiry, Dunn and colleagues (2016) findings suggest that parent's financial investment (a behavior
typically viewed as instrumental support) may influence children's perceptions of pressure and
ultimately their commitment to return to sport in subsequent seasons. Taken together, individual
differences among parents should be accounted for to understand antecedents that may influence
parent involvement behaviors.

Environmental factors. Beyond individual factors, environmental influences on parent 6 7 involvement such as the characteristics of the sport culture (e.g., selection policies, time and 8 financial demands) have emerged as a primary contributor to parents' experiences (Clarke & Harwood, 2014). Within this line of work, research has suggested that the type of sport culture in 9 which families are socialized may over time, shift or change parents' beliefs and behaviors 10 regarding their child's sport participation (Dorsch et al., 2009), influence parent identity relative 11 12 to the goals they promote for their child (Dorsch, Smith et al., 2015), and reinforce particular attitudes and expectations that align with the sport culture (e.g., performance-oriented, 13 perfectionistic), which further influence their behaviors (McMahon & Penney, 2015). 14 15 Deliberate attention has also been placed on understanding stressors and challenges related to being a sport parent (Harwood et al., 2010; Harwood & Knight, 2009a, 2009b). For 16 17 example, parents identified a range of challenges related to the provision of adequate support and perceived pressures and demands placed on their child, which were a function of the 18 19 characteristics of the sport environment (i.e., quality of officials, league quality, child's 20 performance, processes of competition) that in turn influenced parent involvement behavior 21 (Wiersma & Fifer, 2008). Importantly, Wiersma and Fifer's study foreshadowed a shift in 22 research toward a more empathetic understanding of parents' experiences in youth sport and the 23 integration of the 'parent' voice within future studies (e.g., Knight & Harwood, 2009a, 2009b; 24 Lally & Kerr, 2008). Accordingly, research that followed identified a range of stressors related to 25 a number of personal (e.g., family-role conflict, family income, siblings) and organizationrelated (e.g., time and financial investments, developmental concerns, inefficiencies of
organization) stressors (Burgess et al., 2016; Harwood & Knight, 2009a, b; Harwood et al., 2010;
Knight & Holt, 2013a; Knight, Dorsch, et al., 2016; Lienhart et al., 2019). These findings
suggest that parents can encounter numerous demands when attempting to facilitate their
children's sport involvement and consideration of these when working with parents are
warranted.

7 Studies have also identified the context of competition as an environmental factor to consider (Blom & Drane, 2008; Bowker et al., 2009; Omli & LaVoi, 2009, 2012). Research has 8 9 suggested parents experience empathy with their child during participation, especially when they see their child upset or losing (Knight & Holt, 2013b) and these emotions appear to change in 10 relation to the dynamic game and contextual circumstances (Holt et al., 2008). Thus, parents 11 12 seem to share in the highs and lows of their children's competitive sport experiences, which in turn may have the potential to affect their behaviors (Elliott & Drummond, 2017b). Taken 13 together, these findings further delineated the complex nature of parent involvement beyond the 14 15 supportive and pressuring behaviors they engage in during their child's sport experience and align with Dorsch, Smith and colleagues (2016) argument that parent behavior may be related to 16 17 the repeated social and cognitive processes parents experience in sport, characteristics of the parent, and the sport context(s) in which parents interact over time. 18

19 Educational considerations to enhance parent involvement in sport

Although an abundance of valuable knowledge pertaining to sport parenting exists, relatively less emphasis has been placed on disseminating this knowledge to key stakeholders (e.g., parents, athletic directors, coaches, program directors, sport organizations) (Knight, 2019). A majority of the practical application of sport parenting research has been characterized by a "one size fits all" approach to developing initiatives to support parents, failing to recognize that sport parenting is an intricate and dynamic social experience, influenced by a host of factors and

1 variables (Knight et al., 2017). Nevertheless, over the last five years a number of initiatives have 2 been designed by researchers, practitioners, and sport organizations to enhance parent 3 involvement in sport and individualize parent education (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2019; Project Play, 4 2020). These initiatives have been delivered for both in-person and virtual audiences (through 5 seminars) and self-paced learning (hard copy and online guides) and have been guided by evidence-based findings in the sport parent involvement literature (Dorsch et al., 2017; Thrower 6 et al., 2016, 2019). Recently, digitalization trends have been considered in using web-based 7 delivery methods for parent education (Tamminen et al., 2020; Thrower et al., 2019). Within this 8 line of work, clear logistical constraints regarding implementation of parent education programs 9 were identified, including the challenge of increasing parent attendance and lack of support from 10 sport organizations (Dorsch, King et al., 2019; Richards & Winter, 2013; Vincent & Christensen, 11 12 2015). Despite these constraints, overall, results of parent interventions have been positive. In particular, fostering parenting expertise and understanding of the sport (Thrower et al., 2016), 13 increases in parenting efficacy (Thrower et al., 2019) or parental support and warmth (Dorsch et 14 al., 2017), indicating the value of developing evidence-based, individualized strategies to support 15 -- not just educate -- parents in overcoming the widely used parenting strategies following "trial 16 17 and error" in sport (Knight et al., 2017; Knight, 2019).

Research conducted during the contemporary period provided a needed extension to 18 19 research conducted during the foundational and transitional periods. While confirming the influential role of parents in their children's sport participation outcomes and experiences, the 20 21 period critically highlighted how parent involvement in sport is shaped by various factors and 22 can be a challenging, intricate, and nuanced phenomenon. A critique of the contemporary period 23 lies in its emphasis on individual rather than holistic approaches, as well as its neglect of issues 24 related to diversity. A critical review of studies in this area suggests that research is heavily 25 skewed toward White males, families with a high socioeconomic position, and traditional twoparent households. In addition, results published in English to date seem limited by a Western
 cultural perspective, highlighting the need to study parent involvement across a range of settings
 and cultures (see Dorsch, Vierimaa et al., 2019).

4 Overall, research during this period was characterized by a noticeable shift from 5 descriptive and correlational studies to more nuanced studies aiming to better understand and 6 capture the complexity of sport parenting. This paves the way for researchers in the decades 7 ahead to address emerging conceptual and theoretical gaps that remain in the field.

8

Remaining gaps and future directions

9 The purpose of this scoping review was to provide an historical analysis of the literature on parent involvement in organized youth sport. In conducting the analysis, we identified key 10 concepts and trajectories that define the field's foundational (1968-1981), transitional (1982-11 12 1998), and contemporary (1999-2020) periods. An important extension of this knowledge is to use the synthesized understanding from these 242 articles to frame remaining gaps in the field 13 and subsequently to stimulate thinking regarding areas for future research. Through this review it 14 has become apparent that there are gaps in our knowledge arising in relation to who and what has 15 been studied, as well as how studies have been conducted and subsequently how applied practice 16 17 has developed.

18 Who has been studied?

One noticeable gap in the literature is related to the samples from which our and others' inferences have been drawn. Certainly, it is important to acknowledge that study samples, especially during the foundational period, were skewed toward male youth sport participants and families who identified as middle to upper-middle class. In this sense, the accumulated knowledge in this is not truly representative of a broad range of families with children participating in youth sports, particularly within current society. As such, it is paramount that future research in this area is designed to diversify the samples that are integrated and examined within studies of parental involvement in organized youth sport. For instance, there continues to be a need differentiate the influence and involvement of parents based on gender, as well as considering children's genders within data collections and analyses. Integration of both parents (if present) within studies, as well as incorporating parents and children's data within the same studies are required.

Expanding samples to ensure scholars obtain information from participants within diverse 6 7 family structures, across a range of socioeconomic status, cultures and countries, and sports is 8 also needed. A potential new direction, given the changing landscape of sport and society may be to examine the experiences of parenting athletes in non-traditional youth sport settings. This 9 could include a more targeted focus on parents and children participating in sport programs 10 designed for minoritized youth (e.g., racial/ethnic minority, disability, or transgender 11 12 populations). Such directions could offer new insights into a broad range of parent experiences and outcomes. It is also important to note that our definition of organized youth sport did not 13 include informal games or free play, contexts in which much research has been carried out over 14 the period of our review. A follow-up review of that literature would meaningfully add to 15 16 understanding in the area.

17 What has been studied?

A second gap has to do with the selection of topics (i.e., constructs, variables, and 18 19 phenomena) to be studied. Prior to the turn of the 21st century, research on parent involvement in 20 organized youth sport was largely focused on understanding parents' roles in the socialization of 21 young people in sport, as well as the potential impact parents could have on their children's 22 engagement and outcomes. As such, it is clear that sport parent involvement research needs to 23 continue to expand beyond asking *what* parents do and what influence it has, to critically 24 considering how and why this occurs. Theoretically informed research designed to explicate the 25 mechanisms of factors such as socialization, motivation, specialization, burnout, and enjoyment

1 would shed much needed light on the field's understanding of sport parent involvement. Over 2 time, the range of theories that have been used to examine sport parenting have steadily grown. 3 For instance, in the early decades, motivation theories dominated, while more recently work has 4 increasingly drawn on systems level thinking. Specific models of sport parenting have also been 5 proposed (Teques, Calmeiro, et al., 2018) and recent calls for a systems approach (e.g., Dorsch et al., 2020) have the potential to shape research moving forward. Nevertheless, to expand our 6 7 understanding further, considering theories from the human development, social psychology, and 8 interpersonal communication literatures may prove fruitful. For instance, greater use of family 9 systems theory (Minuchin, 1974), attachment theory (Bowlby, 1988), models of thriving through relationships (e.g., Feeney & Collins, 2004), concepts of responsiveness (Reis et al., 2004), or 10 the broad range of parenting styles typologies may be beneficial. 11

12 Additionally, although research in the contemporary period has started to consider the experiences of parents and how this might influence their involvement in their child's sporting 13 lives, there is still much to do in this area. Specifically, to continue moving the field forward, 14 especially within applied settings, it will be imperative to acknowledge and embrace complexity 15 and heterogeneity in the sport parenting experience. To do this, a conceptualization of parents as 16 but one of many contributors to the youth sport system (Dorsch et al., 2020) could be embedded 17 within future research designs. By combining findings from creative, multifaceted, and 18 19 methodologically-inventive studies based on a strong foundation of existing literature, there is 20 potential for research in this area to have a substantial, positive, and measurable impact within 21 organized youth sport. For example, researchers may examine the societal, community-level, and 22 organizational influences on parents' involvement in sport as spectators, volunteers, and coaches. Such work would afford new understanding of the range of contextual influences on the parent 23 24 youth sport experience.

25 How have studies been carried out?

1 A third gap, most evident during the foundational and transitional periods, was that most 2 studies in this area have been quantitative in design, utilizing self-report questionnaire data to 3 develop correlations among parental behaviors and child outcomes (Knight, 2019). Fortunately, 4 as research in sport parent involvement has grown, so too have the range of methods that have 5 been utilized, as indicated within the contemporary period. However, a critical appraisal of the 6 literature still indicates that, aside from a few notable exceptions, much of the work is heavily reliant upon single time point data collections, usually through in-person or online 7 8 questionnaires, interviews, or focus groups. Future research in this area should be designed to draw on a broader range of data collection strategies, such as arts-based research, narratives. 9 story completion, or observation-based methodologies such as instrumental case studies, 10 11 ethnographies, or action research. Employing these strategies has the potential to provide more 12 intricate insights into the phenomenon and experience of sport parenting. Similarly, well developed experimental studies that allow for manipulation of different parenting variables to 13 14 study subsequent child outcomes or behavioral analysis of parent-child interactions may be useful. Creative approaches (e.g., through mobile phones) to monitor child and parent behaviors 15 over an extended period of time could facilitate multilevel repeated measure analyses and would 16 17 substantially enhance our understanding in this area. In following Dorsch and colleagues (2015), scholars could adopt a longitudinal approach to data collection, while also utilizing dynamic 18 frameworks such as Côté and colleagues' developmental model of sport participation to critically 19 20 frame the antecedents, consequences, and mechanisms of sport behavior.

21 How has research been used in practice?

A final gap in the literature relates to the application of the parental involvement literature in practice. Only in the last five years or so have evidence-based programs to disseminate knowledge to parents been evaluated within the sport parent involvement literature. Initial findings suggest that such approaches may help to promote changes in parents' knowledge

1 and behaviors. However, the extent to which these lead to, for instance, long-term behavior 2 changes, influence parent-child relationships, or enhance children's sporting experiences is less 3 well-known. Moreover, there are clear challenges pertaining to parents attending and engaging 4 with programs (Dorsch et al., 2019). Consequently, not only is there a clear need for the 5 development and evaluation of more evidence-based sport parenting programs, further research 6 examining novel approaches to parent support that extends beyond simply disseminating 7 information to parents is required. For instance, targeting coaches and organizations to increase 8 their knowledge regarding sport parents and encouraging changes in their approaches to 9 engaging with parents, may be a fruitful avenue by which to support parents that overcomes issues associated with a lack of attendance at workshops. Similarly, working directly within 10 clubs to encourage culture or environmental changes and minimize the demands parents face, 11 12 could indirectly result in changes in parents' patterns of involvement. Whichever approaches are adopted, evaluation of their impact needs to consider short- and long-term follow-ups, as well as 13 the programmatic impacts on parent and child outcomes and experiences. 14 Moving forward, we strongly encourage researchers to continue to develop, deliver, and 15

evaluate evidence-based programs and interventions with parents so they may, in turn, better 16 17 cope with the challenges that arise in youth sport. This will equip parents to best help their children enjoy their participation and fulfill their athletic and human potential. Because previous 18 19 contributions have lacked a holistic approach, future investigations should tackle methodological 20 challenges and aim to apply broader theoretical frameworks such as a family systems theory 21 lens, and include parents, siblings, children, coaches and peers (Dorsch et al., 2020). Future 22 research should also continue to account for limitations related to the implementation of parent 23 education, by addressing low levels of parent attendance/adherence, the difficulty in engaging in 24 long-term interventions, and the dangers of applying a one-size-fits-all approach to sport parent education initiatives. 25

1

Conclusion

2 In conducting this scoping review, we sought to provide an analysis of the literature on 3 parent involvement in organized youth sport. The 242 articles included in this scoping review 4 have been critical in extending our understanding of the influence of parents within this context. 5 Although this research has been conducted across the family, social psychology, education, 6 communication, and human development disciplines, the accumulated knowledge has solidified 7 sport parenting as a viable sub-field within sport and exercise psychology. As research methods, 8 interest in the area, and the body of evidence have developed, our ability to further consider the inherent complexity of youth sport parenting has also grown. Specifically, research has 9 progressed from (mostly) descriptive and correlational studies to more intricate, multifaceted 10 examinations of the youth sport parenting experience. As such, researchers in the sport parenting 11 12 sub-discipline have begun to uncover the various influences on parents as well as their impact on children's performances and psychosocial outcomes. This has included the identification of 13 personal and environmental factors that shape parent involvement, as well as the stressors and 14 15 challenges that result from that involvement. We are proud of the knowledge gained in this area over the last six decades, and look forward to seeing where the future of this research lies. Given 16 the quality and quantity of scholars now doing work in this area, and those who will invariably 17 follow, we are confident the best is yet to come! 18

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