

CHAPTER 11

Coach, Team, and Parent Assessments

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Athletes' relationships with their coaches, team, and parents are interdependent and dynamic. These relationships can positively reinforce one another and create a nurturing, exciting environment in which athletes can grow. At the same time, these three influences can interact to create a negative environment that leads to poor results and an unsatisfying athletic experience, not to mention unhappiness and unhealthy personal and social development.

The roles coaches, teams, and parents play in the lives of athletes depend on many factors. The impact of these three forces is central to consultants in their work with young athletes, and you may find it beneficial to view this quadrangle of athlete, coach, team, and parent as a system aiming to direct positive efforts toward athletes' healthy athletic and personal development. To that end, a comprehensive assessment of coaches, teams, and parents can help you identify the most significant influences on athletes and fully understand the entire constellation of the athletes' sporting life. Additionally, if you are working with not only athletes but also coaches, teams, and parents, a thorough assessment can assist you in helping them to meet their needs and achieve their goals.

This systems approach may include, for example, asking athletes and parents to be part of a 360-degree assessment of a coaching staff and sport programs (Vidic & Burton, 2011). Or, assessing both coaches and parents can help identify the sources of pressure athletes may be feeling that are hurting their competitive efforts. In sum, as you read this chapter, be cognizant of the forces at play; consider the interconnectedness of athletes, coaches, teams, and parents; and gather as much information as possible about the disparate forces with the goal of using that data to help your clients achieve their athletic goals.

Coach Assessment

There are two critical areas with respect to coach assessment. First, what is the purpose of the assessment? Second, who is in the best position to provide an accurate assessment of coaches? Together, these two areas can be referred to as the *degree of alignment* for the assessment.

With the predominant metric of coach evaluation being wins and losses (Burton & Gillham, 2012; Horn, 2008), it could be argued that coaches are assessed each and every competition.

This notion is certainly true with teams and sports that garner significant media attention, such as professional and Olympic sports. As Bass, Vermillion, and Putz (2014) point out, crowdsourcing a coach's assessment is now possible. A coach's job tasks are so varied (Thelwell, Weston, Greenless, & Hutchings, 2008), however, that assessing various aspects of coaching can be a daunting task. Much of the research on coaching effectiveness has historically focused on identifying effective coaches, whether in terms of wins and losses, athlete development, or character building, and using that data to create models for further examination (e.g., Horn's working model of coaching effectiveness; Horn, 2008) and to build a knowledge base, including a specific definition (e.g., Côté & Gilbert, 2009) of coach effectiveness, in order to improve coaching development programs. There is considerably less information in the literature on precisely how athletic administrators assess coaches, but that is changing (e.g., Gillham, Hansen, & Brady, 2015).

There are many reasons why coaches might be assessed:

- Sport programs are concerned about win-loss record or revenue.
- Programs want to ensure they are offering a quality experience to their athletes.
- Programs want a better understanding of a candidate during the hiring process.
- Programs want metrics on coach strengths and weaknesses to guide development.
- Programs want to offer formative, comprehensive job performance evaluations.
- Parents want to gather information on multiple coaches when deciding whom to hire for their child athlete, particularly in sports with private coaches.
- Areas of disconnect or conflict between coaches and their athletes need to be identified.

Though this list is not exhaustive, it does provide an overview of common reasons for assessing coaches. Note that nearly all of this work has been done with sport coaches, but research is beginning to expand to strength and conditioning coaches (Gilbert & Baldis, 2014; Gillham,

Assessment in Action

Conducting Assessments Throughout the Season

Assessments of coaches should occur multiple times throughout a season (Gilbert, 2017). This is critical to developing the relationship between the coach and players, as well as generating valuable information for professional development for the coach. Sport seasons can be long and filled with diverse ups and downs, and a one-shot assessment is not ideal for generating quality information. Ultimately, the objective is to get quality information to design effective consulting interventions, and conducting assessments throughout the season will help gather that quality information.

Doscher, Schofield, Dalrymple, & Bird, 2015; Gillham, Schofield, Doscher, Dalrymple, & Kenn, 2016). Some differences (e.g., the amount coaches are willing to share with others regarding their program, the understanding of training process versus outcome of competitions, and the need for continuing professional development) between strength and conditioning coaches and sport coaches have already been found.

After determining the purpose of the coach assessment, the next step is to identify people with the knowledge, experience, and skills to perform the assessment and collect the relevant data. When purpose and the assessors are aligned, the resulting information will be accurate and meaningful. In contrast, when there is a misalignment, the results of the assessment will be biased or uninformed and as a result have limited value.

Consider the example of an athlete who returns home from practice and tells her father that the training session was boring and she learned nothing. At the next game, where parents gather and talk, this assessment by the athlete can spread quickly among the parents, and the coach may be targeted as unmotivating and ineffective. An overzealous parent might then

seek a remedy with the head coach or program director, perhaps lobbying for the coach to be replaced. In this scenario, parents are making a judgment based on secondhand information from a single person and may well be motivated by other reasons than pure coach assessment. As another example, it is not uncommon to place the blame for a botched play on the head coach. Let's say the quarterback attempts a pass to a receiver who runs the incorrect route, and the coach is seen as at fault. Even if it is clear that the receiver blew his route and should have been looking for the ball, it is often assumed the coach should have done more to prepare the team for the game. In this situation, only the coaches and players have direct knowledge of the play, and only they are in a position to accurately assess what transpired and why.

Benefits to Coaches

The primary benefit assessment offers to coaches is the identification of their strengths and weaknesses to help guide their development and improve their coaching efforts. Though coaches are not always open to assessment, some (e.g., Gillham, Doscher, et al., 2015) do recognize the importance of assessment, or at least some form of evaluation, for coach development (e.g., Conroy & Coatsworth, 2006). Consider the aligned example of field reporting that a coach struggles to teach fundamentals during practice sessions. In your consultations with the coach, you could use that assessment information to identify that she needs to improve her communication and teaching practices. That information should then lead the coach to seek out resources (e.g., mentors, experts, books, workshops) for ways to improve her teaching.

Benefits to Athletes

A thorough assessment that includes coaches' skills in the areas of technique, strategy, conditioning, psychology, communication, and team building, just to name a few, will result in information that coaches can use to improve themselves. Athletes will then be beneficiaries of this improved coaching competence. The coach assessment can also help athletes better understand their coaches' personalities, motiva-

tions, intentions, and styles of coaching. Miscommunications, conflicts, and ill feelings can often be relieved simply by providing athletes with an appreciation of where their coaches are coming from. Though coaches may still not interact with the athletes in an ideal way, the athletes' understanding of the coaches enables them to reinterpret the coaches' behavior in a more positive light. This type of assessment situation is an opportunity to work with the coaches and athletes to create a system that functions more effectively and successfully.

Benefits to the Team

An in-depth awareness of coaches' capabilities, gained from an effective assessment protocol, will not only be beneficial to the individual coaches and athletes but also to the team as a unit. Coaches have an immense impact on every aspect of team functioning. This influence occurs at three levels. First, coaches who use an assessment to better themselves are going to be more effective in their work with individual athletes and other coaches on the team. Second, they will be better able to fulfill their designated roles and responsibilities, thus greasing the wheels of the overall team functioning. Third, coaches who improve their capabilities thanks to the assessment will be more effective leaders and managers of their team, thus creating an inspiring environment, more cohesion, better communication, higher performance, and more success.

General Areas of Coach Assessment

Coaches can be assessed in three broad areas: personal characteristics, objective behaviors, and athlete outcomes associated with the coach. Each of these areas has been included in models explaining coach effectiveness (e.g., Horn, 2008).

Coaches are fundamentally people with particular personality characteristics that make them more or less suited for various coaching situations. For example, a figure-skating coach who craves media attention may not be suited for the position of club director in a small community skating club. Similarly, a coach largely

focused on results may be best suited to higher levels of competition and may find the demands of working with beginning athletes frustrating. Horn's (2008) model of coach effectiveness indicates that coaches' personal characteristics are a primary antecedent of their coaching behavior.

Observing and rating coach behaviors (e.g., behaviors that increase anxiety among athletes) has been a long-standing part of coach assessment, as evidenced by the phrasing of items on some questionnaires (e.g., Coaching Behavior Questionnaire [CBQ]; Williams et al., 2003) and multiple direct observation tools (e.g., Arizona State University [ASU] Observation Instrument; Lacy & Darst, 1984). Because behavior is the ultimate expression of coaches' capabilities, various assessments of their behavior can provide tangible information about the quality of their work.

Finally, the notion that athlete outcomes—that is, the impact of coaches on athletes' positive sport and personal development—matter most in determining coaches' effectiveness has received considerable attention (Horn, 2008). Côté and Gilbert (2009) included athlete outcomes as a critical component of a coach's expertise. Their argument is grounded in an understanding of positive youth development (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2008). Central to the argument is that coaches' primary responsibility involves fostering positive development in their athletes, as opposed to winning competitions, earning awards, or engaging in fund-raising. If this emphasis remains intact, then positive athlete outcomes are more important than the coaching behaviors that prompted the athlete outcomes. However, the focus on athlete outcomes only applies to a segment of the sport population. Côté and Gilbert (2009) include coaching context as part of determining coach effectiveness. So, for example, entry-level and recreational sport participation would place athlete outcomes as a priority in evaluating coach effectiveness, while Olympic and professional sport would place winning as a higher priority.

Specific Assessment Tools

The chapter-ending table Assessment Tools and Their Availability is a comprehensive list-

ing of published assessment tools for coaches that have been shown to have acceptable psychometric qualities. The majority of the quantitative tools are questionnaires, and the majority of the qualitative assessments involve researcher observations. Use the categories in the table to identify the general area you want to assess and then choose the specific assessment tools that best meet your needs. Coach behaviors can be examined by their relation to athlete performance (e.g., CBQ; Williams et al., 2003), creation of a motivational climate (e.g., Motivational Climate Scale for Youth Sports [MCSYS]; Smith et al., 2008), or the overall frequency of certain behaviors (e.g., Coaching Behaviour Scale for Sport [CBS-S]; Côté, Yardley, Hay, Sedgwick, & Baker, 1999; Mallet & Côté, 2006). The Coaching Success Questionnaire-2 (CSQ-2; Gillham, Burton, & Gillham, 2013) was specifically created to assess athlete outcomes.

None of these measures alone will paint a complete portrait of coaches and their relationships with the athletes, team, or parents. Research (i.e., Gillham, Gillham, & Hansen, 2016) has begun to address this notion by using multiple assessments in a single study to show how variables interact and influence each other.

Further Considerations

The greatest concern of coach assessment is alignment, as mentioned throughout this chapter. Misalignment can occur by not being clear about the purpose of the assessment, by selecting raters on the assessment without the appropriate knowledge or experience to provide accurate information, or by modifying a tool in a way that reduces its psychometric qualities. Problems with modifications to instruments can come from the theoretical level, the participants serving as the raters, or the item wordings (Gillham, 2015). Small modifications can make the tool more specific, such as changing *crew* to *team* (Aoyogi, Cox, & McGuire, 2008), while leaving the remaining characteristics of the tool intact. Without training in instrument development, you should use the tool as it was designed in order to reduce measurement error. Viswanathan (2005) details multiple sources of

measurement error, and all instruments have some inherent error. The concern is that with each deviation from a published instrument, such as deleting a subscale, using a new group of raters (e.g., parents instead of athletes), or even using a small (e.g., one individual or one team) group, the measurement error increases. These modifications lead to increasingly less valid results that may then be used inaccurately to make staffing or professional development decisions.

Many instruments are best suited to a particular coaching context. For example, the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 (PMCSQ-2; Newton, Duda, & Yin, 2000) has multiple lower-level variables that are thought to explain the higher-order variables of task and performance (i.e., ego) climates. The PMCSQ-2 is typically regarded as the most widely used measure for coach-created motivational climate, but there are some concerns over reading level for some of the items, which led to the creation of the MCSYS (Smith, Cumming, & Smoll, 2008) to assist in assessing motivational climate with younger athletes or at least those athletes with lower reading ability. Similarly, despite the fact that the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) has been the most frequently used tool to assess coach leadership, questions remain about its validity (Chelladurai, 2007; Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Also, research on leadership has expanded to include specific instruments for transformational (e.g., Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2012) and servant (e.g., Hammermeister et al., 2008) leadership.

Coaches can find assessments uncomfortable because they are being evaluated. Coaches may be resistant to these efforts and may try to sabotage any assessments that are attempted. Consultants must be sensitive to this natural reaction and make an effort to allay any uneasiness by framing it positively in terms of professional development, improved coaching performance, and support for coaching goals. Program administrators and coaches will also need significant justification to commit the time and resources to administer a targeted or comprehensive coach assessment. Providing a compelling rationale that will lay the foundation

for buy-in and an organized, goal-driven coach assessment package that includes clear rationale, goals, and benefits will demonstrate how the assessment can be efficiently and effectively administered and the value it will bring to the coaching staff and sport organization.

Team Assessment

Consultants work with sport teams for a variety of reasons. They help individual team members maximize their practice efforts and competitive performances. They also help coaches improve their pedagogical skills, leadership, and other aspects of coaching a team. Finally, they help teams work together effectively, communicate, resolve conflict, and optimize their collective efforts in pursuit of their goals. When working with a team, you need to

- quickly and effectively establish the objectives of your work with the team;
- create common language and understanding among members of the team;
- identify topic areas for creating individual, subteam, and team goals; and
- identify the issues that need to be addressed within the team.

According to Kleinert and colleagues (2012), several group variables are positively associated with team success and thus could be a target for group assessment and intervention. Effective team functioning and the achievement of group psychological outcomes are associated with success, and they rest on the complete, dynamic integration of important intraindividual and interindividual subfactors, processes, and behaviors. Assessments can be used to help develop team cohesion, improve communication, and resolve conflict. Additionally, identifying individual roles, commitment levels, motivation, and leadership preferences, skills, and attributes can all be valuable to team performance.

Approaches to Team Assessment

Within each of the previously mentioned areas (e.g., motivation, leadership preferences), there are simple subjective, or self-rating, assessments,

as well as more complex multirater scales that allow for a more comprehensive approach to team assessment. Subjective assessments allow individual athletes to evaluate themselves and are valuable because they help athletes understand themselves better. At the same time, these types of assessments have limitations; for example, their responses may not be accurate or representative of the broader views of the team due to personal past experiences or biases.

Ideally, a team assessment looks at all components (i.e., coaches, athletes, administrators, parents, other stakeholders) as a single entity, or system, rather than as individuals, and it considers the role each component plays in the team's collective efforts. When all members of a team participate in an assessment, the information gained can be more accurate and generalizable across the team. Additionally, this approach mitigates information contaminated by impression management, self-interest, and bias. Using a systems approach to team assessment provides diverse information and offers members of every level of a team useful information that can enhance team performance.

By using a comprehensive package of assessments that meet the needs and goals of a team, all of the stakeholders, including athletes, coaches, administrators, and parents, can gain a more thorough understanding of their roles and impact on the team. The collective output of the assessment can be a powerful catalyst for positive change at all levels. These team assessments can also improve communication between team members, increase self-awareness about the impact members have on team functioning, and foster accountability on the part of team members to contribute to a positive team environment.

Specific Assessment Tools

Team assessments have been studied and used in multiple areas. Those categories include team cohesion, coach and peer assessment, individual and group strengths, personality assessment for team building and teamwork, communication and leadership skills, conflict, and team roles. Examples of specific assessments include the following:

- **Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ; Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, 1985).** The GEQ consists of an 18-item questionnaire that assesses perceived cohesion by individual members and consists of four components. The construct of cohesion is first divided into group and individual factors: group integration and individual attraction to group.
- **Causal Dimension Scale II (CDS-II; McAuley, Duncan, & Russell, 1992).** This scale is a revision of the original Causal Dimension Scale (CDS; Russell, 1982) and takes into consideration the participant as an active agent in the attribution process. The CDS-II assesses causal attributions along four dimensions: locus of causality, stability, personal control, and external control.
- **Collective Efficacy Questionnaire for Sports (CEQS; Short, Sullivan, & Feltz, 2005).** This is a 20-item scale used across various sports. Rather than looking at individual efficacy, it assesses perceived overall team ability, effort, persistence, preparation, and unity.

See the chapter-ending table *Assessment Tools and Their Availability* for additional constructs and suggestions for assessment.

Debriefing a Team Assessment

A team assessment only has value if the information obtained can be translated into broad understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of a team, tangible change goals, and actionable steps to accomplish those goals. As a consequence, a debriefing with all team members is essential. Not only can a debriefing turn the information from the team assessment into a plan of action, but it can also act as a platform for building cohesion, teaching communication, resolving conflicts, and bringing diverse views and interests into a collective alignment around team goals.

Debriefing an assessment can serve as an opportunity to reflect on members' experience of the team and to make it more meaningful by identifying what they learned about themselves and others from the assessment and how they can use this information constructively. As the

consultant, you can shape the debriefing by leading a thought-provoking, open discussion. It can be helpful to establish guidelines to create a supportive, caring environment in which team members feel comfortable and free to express themselves. Suggested guidelines include the following:

- Assessment should create a greater understanding of the team as a whole.
- Everyone has a voice.
- All comments should be constructive and future focused.
- The output of the debriefing should include specific goals and action steps.

The seating arrangements of a debriefing session should be thoughtfully considered. In a traditional classroom-style arrangement, the athletes face the facilitator. This setup is probably the most familiar and most comfortable for the athletes, but it may not result in full participation or deep conversation. This style may be used when you are presenting the results and your observations of the assessment. In a horseshoe or circular arrangement, all team members are at the same level (e.g., sitting in chairs or on the floor), creating a comfortable, open setting for exploration of the team assessment. This style is most conducive to open discussion because team members are facing each other, with no apparent hierarchy. We encourage you to be part of the seating so that you are viewed as an integral part of the group rather than as a separate entity.

The effectiveness of the debriefing depends largely on the attitude that the head coach and staff bring to it. Their receptiveness to the assessment results and willingness to use the information for the betterment of the team will send a powerful message to the athletes. In sum, if the coaches demonstrate buy-in, so will the athletes, and that collective openness will set the tone for a positive, constructive exploration of assessment findings.

Further Considerations

Team assessments have several limitations, and each can lead to a lengthy discussion. The main

reminder is that the quality of the assessment results will only be as good as the quality and objectivity of the input. Problems in this area include a misalignment between the purpose of the assessment and the ability of raters to fulfill that purpose. As you plan a package of assessments, consider how to ensure feedback that will be accurate and useful. You can mitigate this concern to some degree by waiting until you have established rapport and trust with team members. If they know you have their best interests at heart, they are more likely to provide accurate information in the assessment. Additionally, the age, gender, perceived benefits versus costs of the assessment, and overall team attitude (as shaped by the coaches' attitudes) can also influence the value gained from the assessment.

It is also important to recognize the role of team culture on a team assessment. You would be wise to learn about the team's recent history, the attitudes that team members hold, the quality of the relationships among team members, and anything else that might affect their receptivity to team assessment. For example, there may be some bad blood between various team members that might inhibit the willingness to participate openly. The maturity of team members, how long they have been with the team, their potential conflicting motivations and goals, their commitment to the team's future, and their perceived aspirations and hopes for the team, as well as the general team climate, may also influence the value of the assessment.

Parent Assessment

Youth sport is a distinct context for social development (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005; Shields, Bredemeier, LaVoi, & Power, 2005). Accordingly, it is an ecological laboratory for investigating young people's positive and negative developmental outcomes (e.g., Brustad, Babkes, & Smith, 2001). Though children and adolescents often instigate their participation in sport, parents play a vital role in their children's sport involvement. Through this involvement, the potential also exists for parents to undergo changes in their own thoughts, emotions, and behaviors, as well as their relationships with

their children, their children's teammates and coaches, and other stakeholders in sport. Collectively, these changes are defined as *parent sport socialization* (Dorsch, Smith, & McDonough, 2009, 2015).

An essential aspect of socialization is learning roles and expectations. People internalize role expectations over time through social learning, cocreating goals with significant others, and adopting behavioral strategies to meet specific demands (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997). Given the ubiquity of organized youth sport (AAP, 2000) and the impact of sport on many American families (see Bremer, 2012, for a review), assessing the influence of children's sport participation on parents is important. Achieving this end will foster a deeper understanding of how parents engage in organized youth sport and how their involvement affects children, sport organizations, and communities.

Rationale for Parent Assessment

Assessing parents in organized youth sport is important for three reasons. First, the parental unit, whether containing one or multiple caregivers, forms one-third of the athletic triangle (i.e., athlete, coach, and parent; see Hellstedt, 1987). Therefore, understanding parent experiences is necessary to understanding athlete and coach experiences. Second, the direct impact of parent involvement on child outcomes is substantial. A rich literature in sport highlights the link of parent involvement (e.g., pressure and support behaviors) to key developmental outcomes (e.g., child enjoyment and enthusiasm, autonomy, self-perception of sport skill) for the athletes who participate. Third, parent assessment is fundamental to developing interventions, creating policies, and fostering healthy values and attitudes about sport that promote athletics as a positive experience that supports children's healthy development.

Benefits of Parent Assessment

One essential benefit of assessing parents in youth sport is gaining deeper knowledge of the ways in which parents influence their children's athletic experience. Sport shapes young people

in many ways both within and beyond the athletic arena, and parents have a profound impact on how children

- learn values from their sport experience;
- develop attitudes about competition, success, and failure;
- come to hold beliefs about themselves in terms of motivation, confidence, and resilience; and
- acquire life skills from their sport participation, including persistence, response to setbacks, emotional management, and focus.

A second benefit is that parent assessment allows for a more integrated understanding of the sport system. Sport systems are composed of multiple relationships at multiple levels of the environment (i.e., community, sport organization, family, individual), but the parent-child microsystem is perhaps the most pervasive at the earliest stages of organized youth sport (Atkins, Johnson, Force, & Petrie, 2015; Holt, Tamminen, Black, Sehn, & Wall, 2008; Ullrich-French & Smith, 2006). As suggested earlier, parents are an integral component of the athletic triangle; therefore, in extending the work of Dorsch, Smith, and McDonough (2009, 2015), researchers and consultants who work directly within this triangle can sharpen their collective understanding of young athletes' sport systems by assessing parents' thoughts, emotions, and behaviors in organized youth sport.

A third benefit of assessing parents in organized youth sport is that it allows for a more developmentally informed understanding of the role parents and significant others play in the lives of athletes. An expansive literature highlights the sequential importance placed on information from parents, peers, and adult mentors (e.g., coaches; Harter, 1999) by children and adolescents as they grow. However, researchers have yet to fully integrate the role of parents across salient developmental transitions in organized youth sport. Doing so could provide insight into the mechanisms that drive shifts in the importance athletes place on their parents and specific significant others across development.

A fourth benefit of assessing parents is that it allows for a more nuanced understanding of the impact of parent involvement on specific aspects of the youth sport experience. For example, *motivational climate*, defined as the structure of a social environment that influences individuals' motivation to participate, has been identified as critical to the experiences of young athletes in their sport participation. Research grounded in achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1984) has focused on the impact of coach-created motivational climates on athletes (Harwood, Keegan, Smith, & Raine, 2015); however, it is plausible that parents also play a significant role in the creation of the motivational climate that envelops their children when they participate in sport (Atkins et al., 2015; Dorsch, Smith, & McDonough, 2015). This influence is both direct and indirect. Parents directly affect their children's motivations by sending messages via their words and actions about what outcomes they most value. For instance, how parents react to victories and defeats can send powerful messages to children about the motivational orientation of their parents, which may then play a significant role in dictating the motivational climate.

Quantitative Parent Assessment

As we have seen, parents influence their children's sport participation in many ways. As a consequence, a major goal of parent assessment is to provide information and insights into the various areas of that influence.

Parent-Child Sport Relationship

According to the recent ecological perspectives of human development (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 2005), interactions between individuals in an environment result in progressive accommodation (i.e., socialization; Parke & Buriel, 2006) over the life span. As such, the parent-child relationship may be marked by continuous and proximal interactions that evoke subjective feelings such as closeness, struggle, sensitivity, and power (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Laursen and Collins (2009) argue that researchers may gain a clearer picture of the parent-child relationship by measuring individuals' perceptions of

warmth and conflict simultaneously. Borrowing from this developmental perspective, Dorsch, Smith, and Dotterer (2016) explain warmth in the parent-child sport relationship as "the tendency for the parent-child relationship to be imbued by supportive, affectionate, and sensitive interactions" (p. 133). The authors operationalize conflict in the parent-child sport relationship as "the struggle for agency or power within the [sport] relationship" (p. 133). These definitions build from assessments in the family literature (Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory [CRPBI]; Schwarz, Barton-Henry, & Pruzinsky, 1985) and sport literature (Sport Friendship Quality Scale [SFQS]; Ullrich-French & Smith, 2006; Weiss & Smith, 1999).

Despite emerging interest on the part of sport researchers, the parent-child sport relationship is not yet well understood. A promising link has been established in the literature, however, tying parent-child relationship quality to young athletes' sport enjoyment and motivation. Specifically, warm and nurturing parent-child relationships were associated with greater enjoyment and motivation to participate compared with relationships that were perceived as conflictual (Horn & Horn, 2007; Ullrich-French & Smith, 2006). In light of these findings, and the potential for the parent-child relationship to predict child outcomes in sport (Dorsch et al., 2016), assessing parent perceptions of warmth and conflict in the parent-child sport relationship will improve our understanding of the sport parenting experience.

Sport-Related Emotions of Parents

In line with Bronfenbrenner (2005), a host of person-related factors influence how people interact with and are perceived by others in their social environments. One such factor is the experience of *affect*, described as the emotions, feelings, and mood of an individual (Vallerand & Blanchard, 2000). Parent affect in youth sport is understudied, though parents cite it as important to their sport-related experiences (Dorsch et al., 2009). In organized youth sport, a parent's affective experience will affect children's beliefs, emotions, and subsequent behavior related to their sport participation. Additionally, overt expressions of parent

emotions, such as excitement and joy after a victory or anger or despondency following a loss, may influence athletes' own perceptions of their performances, as well as their perceptions of the motivational climate. Therefore, assessing parent emotions regarding their children's youth sport participation will not only contribute to the growing body of sport parenting literature, but it will also help develop practical prescriptions that offer insights, information, and tools to help parents become more aware of and use their emotions to their children's benefit during sport participation.

Although dedicated tools for measuring parent affect in organized youth sport do not exist, one widely used instrument is the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS-X; Watson & Clark, 1994). The PANAS-X measures general aspects of positive and negative affect, as well as three basic positive emotions (joviality, self-assurance, and attentiveness), four basic negative emotions (fear, hostility, guilt, and sadness), and four more complex emotional states (shyness, fatigue, serenity, and surprise).

Parent Involvement

Parent involvement is a multidimensional construct consisting of parent support and pressure behaviors (Leff & Hoyle, 1995; Stein, Raedeke, & Glenn, 1999). In sport, *parent support* has been operationalized as behaviors or comments (e.g., providing opportunity and materials, attending practices and competitions, demonstrating pleasure, offering praise or performance-contingent feedback) that facilitate sport outcomes that are important to children (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004; Holt et al., 2008; Kidman, McKenzie, & McKenzie, 1999). Parent support has been linked to virtuous outcomes in children such as individuation, enjoyment and enthusiasm, and self-perception of sport skill. *Parent pressure* has been defined as behaviors or comments "designed to prompt athlete responses and outcomes that are important to the parent" (O'Rourke, Smith, Smoll, & Cumming, 2011, p. 400). Parent pressure has been linked to poor outcomes such as dissatisfaction with sport performance, perceptions of an intimidating sport performance environment, and performance anxiety and negative affect.

Again, no dedicated instrument has been developed to measure parent involvement in organized youth sport; however, the Parental Involvement in Activities Scale (PIAS; Anderson, Funk, Elliott, & Smith, 2003) offers an adaptable measure of parental support and pressure in extracurricular settings. A modified version of this measure has also been used in sport-specific settings (Dorsch et al., 2016; Dunn, Dorsch, King, & Rothlisberger, 2016).

Motivational Climate

One of the many salient constructs for parent assessment is the coach-created motivational climate. Indeed, as noted earlier, the climate influences both children's and parents' experiences in sport. Assessing parent perceptions of mastery- and ego-focused motivational climates is essential because these climates may influence the goals parents have for their children and the behaviors they exhibit in the sport setting, both of which may affect their children's participation experiences (Gershgoren, Tenenbaum, Gershgoren, & Eklund, 2011). As parents draw cues from their children's youth sport coaches, they may fortify the motivational climate or attempt to change it. Specifically, a mastery-focused climate may stimulate parent behaviors that seek to enhance children's skill development and enjoyment; however, it could also result in behaviors directed at enhancing ability and outcomes if the parent and coach hold conflicting views regarding the purposes of youth sport. Similarly, an ego-focused climate may stimulate parent behaviors that seek to enhance children's ability and outcomes, yet it could also result in behaviors directed at enhancing skill development and enjoyment. You can refer to the discussion of relevant assessment tools for motivational climate earlier in this chapter for additional insights.

Qualitative Parent Assessment

In addition to quantitative assessments, sport researchers and consultants can use qualitative measures to assess parents in organized youth sport. A number of observation, journaling, and interviewing protocols to assess parent experiences have been successfully designed and implemented.

Kidman and colleagues (1999) examined parents' verbal behavior during selected youth sporting events. A study-designed observation instrument, the Parent Observation Instrument for Sport Events (POISE), was used to observe parent comments during 147 competitions across seven team sports. Frequencies of verbal comments were tabulated by sport and by the nature and target of each comment. Results indicated that, although a high amount of positive comments (47.2 percent) are visible in organized youth sport, a relatively high percentage of negative comments (34.5 percent) also exist.

In extending the conceptualization of parent verbal sideline behavior beyond the simple trichotomy of positive, negative, and neutral, Holt and colleagues (2008) examined parenting styles and associated practices in youth sport. Following a season-long period of observation, data were collected through interviews with parents and children. Interpretation was guided by Grolnick's (2003) theory of parenting styles, and the authors constructed a grounded theory of parenting practices in youth sport. Specifically, parent verbal sideline behaviors were placed on a continuum from more supportive to more controlling. Verbal sideline behaviors were categorized as praise and encouragement (35 percent of parent comments), performance-contingent feedback (5 percent), instruction (35 percent), striking a balance (10 percent), negative comments (10 percent), and derogatory comments (5 percent). Additionally, parents reported demonstrating empathy with their children by experiencing the same emotions they thought their children were experiencing, a finding described as *emotional mirroring* by Dorsch, Smith, and McDonough (2009). Parents also framed their involvement as being directed by their perceived knowledge and experience in sport (e.g., parents who judged themselves as having more insight into sport thought they also had a greater ability to be appropriately involved), as well as by game circumstances (e.g., there were more comments during contests judged to be more important).

Dorsch, Smith, Wilson, and McDonough (2015) conducted follow-up work to examine the alignment of parent goals and verbal sideline behavior at the earliest stage of youth

sport. After conducting semistructured interviews and collecting parent journals to identify parent goals for their children's sport participation, in situ audio recordings were collected with parents at competitions over the initial 15 months of their children's organized sport participation. Parent goals were theoretically categorized within the multiple goals framework (see Caughlin, 2010), verbal sideline behaviors were categorized deductively using Holt and colleagues' (2008) framework, and case narratives were constructed to offer an interpretation of the interplay of parent goals and verbal sideline behavior. Dorsch and colleagues articulated 43 goals parents held for their children's youth sport participation, each of which was directed at achieving an instrumental (e.g., improve technical skills), identity (e.g., help child compare well with other athletes), or relational (e.g., learn sportsmanship) goal. In line with Holt and colleagues (2008), parental praise and encouragement ranged from 25 to 48 percent, performance-contingent feedback ranged from 16 to 33 percent, instruction ranged from 13 to 43 percent, striking a balance ranged from 1 to 5 percent, negative comments ranged from 6 to 16 percent, and derogatory comments ranged from 0 to 2 percent.

Further Considerations

Participation in organized sport during childhood and adolescence is nearly ubiquitous in North America (Jellineck & Durant, 2004), and youth participation may affect parents as well as the family unit (Dorsch, Smith, & McDonough, 2009, 2015). Importantly, the value placed on sport by parents appears directly related to the family involvement that stems from the child's participation. Despite this, few studies have taken a family approach in examining socialization into and through sport (see Greendorfer, 2002). Given the popularity and growing competitiveness of organized youth sport programs (AAP, 2000), investigating the effects of youth sport participation on parents represents an important path toward deeper understanding of families in sport and how that information can be used to help parents support rather than undermine their children's athletic participation.

In the interest of achieving this deeper understanding, a number of limitations should be considered. First, although understanding parent involvement in this context benefits from recognizing the perceptions of multiple family members (McHale, Amato, & Booth, 2014), numerous studies show that parents and children have moderate-to-low agreement when reporting on parent behavior, attributions, and values (e.g., Babkes & Weiss, 1999; Kanter, Bocarro, & Casper, 2008; Knafo & Schwartz, 2003). This finding suggests that examining parent and athlete (and perhaps coach) perceptions of relevant constructs should be done with caution as researchers pursue insight into the parallel, but perhaps differentiated, perceptions of parent involvement in organized youth sport. Understanding and amalgamating different stakeholders' perceptions, whether similar or dissimilar, is a vital step toward understanding parent involvement behavior, as well as its antecedents and consequences.

In addition, there are psychometric and measurement concerns related to many of the instruments that are traditionally used to assess parents in organized youth sport. Much of this stems from the fact that many measures have been adapted from the developmental literature. Although the measures have largely demonstrated acceptable reliability in various sport contexts, replication and additional psychometric work are necessary to address potential deficiencies in the use of adapted measures. Additionally, the efficacy of observational, journal, and interview protocols should be corroborated across diverse samples and at

various developmental levels. This validation process can be difficult because interpreting data collected using these methods is constrained by the researcher's own experiences, knowledge, and biases, as well as the lens through which the research is designed and executed. In conducting qualitative assessments of parents in organized youth sport, researchers should therefore acknowledge that knowledge is continually constructed through social interaction and is subject to revision as a result of changing circumstances (Schmidt, 2007). Accordingly, qualitative researchers should aim to understand participant narratives while providing context-specific and trustworthy understanding of their experiences (Schweizer, 1998).

A starting point for researchers and practitioners should be viewing socialization as a reciprocal and enduring construct. This belief leans on foundational work conducted by Bell and colleagues examining the reciprocal influences of children on their parents (Bell & Chapman, 1986; Bell & Harper, 1977). In following this road, sport researchers should design studies that investigate the ways parents not only help socialize their children but also are behaviorally and attitudinally influenced by their children and the context of their children's activities (Dix, Ruble, Grusec, & Nixon, 1986; Dorsch, Smith, & McDonough, 2009, 2015; Peters, 1985; Weiss & Hayashi, 1995). Viewing person- and context-related factors in concert can capture a deeper understanding of the processes that characterize parent sport socialization, which can then be used to promote youth sport for the healthy development of the whole child.

Assessment Tools and Their Availability

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS)	Coach leadership	Chelladurai, P., & Arnott, M. (1985). Decision styles in coaching: Preferences of basketball players. <i>Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport</i> , 56, 15-24. Chelladurai, P., & Riemer, H.A. (1998). In J.L. Duda (Ed.), <i>Advances in sport and exercise psychology</i> (pp. 227-253). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.	Contact the authors
		The LSS includes areas of coach leadership across five subscales. There are three versions of this instrument in the literature.	
Revised Servant Leadership Profile for Sport	Servant leadership	Page, D., & Wong, P.T.P. (2000). A conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership. In S. Adjiboloo (Ed.), <i>The human factor in shaping the course of history and development</i> (pp. 1-28). Lanham, MD: American University Press. Hammermeister, J., Chase, M., Burton, D., Westre, K., Pickering, M., & Baldwin, N. (2008). Servant leadership in sport: A concept whose time has arrived. <i>Journal of Servant Leadership</i> , 4, 185-215.	Contact the authors
		This was originally a non-sport-population instrument revised to be used with athletes, who rate their coach's servant leadership behaviors across three subscales.	
Differentiated Transformational Leadership Inventory (DTLI)	Coach leadership	Vella, S.A., Oades, L.G., & Crowe, T.P. (2012). Validation of the differentiated transformational leadership inventory as a measure of coach leadership in youth soccer. <i>Sport Psychologist</i> , 26, 207-223.	Contact the authors
		The DTLI assesses coach leadership behaviors congruent with the transformational leadership paradigm.	
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	Coach leadership	Avolio, B.J., & Bass, B.M. (2004). <i>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Manual and sampler set</i> (3rd ed.). Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden. Rowold, J. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership in martial arts. <i>Journal of Applied Sport Psychology</i> , 18, 312-325.	Contact the authors
		Various versions of the MLQ exist in the literature, and all versions assess leader attributes, behaviors, and leadership styles.	
Decision-style questionnaire	Coach decision making	Chelladurai, P., & Arnott, M. (1985). Decision styles in coaching: Preferences of basketball players. <i>Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport</i> , 56, 15-24. Chelladurai, P., & Quek, C.B. (1991). Decision style choices of high school basketball coaches: The effects of situational and coach characteristics. <i>Journal of Sport Behavior</i> , 18, 91-108.	Contact the authors
		Multiple versions of this questionnaire exist in the literature, with one example including both a coach self-report version and a version where the athlete rates the coach.	

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Assessment Tools and Their Availability (*continued*)

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 (PMCSQ-2)	Motivational climate	Newton, M.L., Duda, J.L., & Yin, Z. (2000). Examination of the psychometric properties of the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 in a sample of female athletes. <i>Journal of Sport Sciences</i> , 18, 275-290. Duda, J.L., & Whitehead, J. (1998). Measurement of goal perspectives in the physical domain. In J.L. Duda (Ed.), <i>Advances in sport and exercise psychology measurement</i> (pp. 21-48). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.	Contact the authors
The PMCSQ-2 assesses the coach-initiated motivational climate across multiple subscales and higher-order factors of task-involving and ego-involving climate.			
Motivational Climate Scale for Youth Sports (MCSYS)	Motivational climate	Smith, R.E., Cumming, S.P., & Smoll, F.L. (2008). Development and validation of the Motivational Climate Scale for Youth Sports. <i>Journal of Applied Sport Psychology</i> , 20, 116-136.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10413200701790558
The MCSYS assesses the coach-initiated motivational climate for younger athletes. It includes both ego-involving and task-involving subscales.			
Coaches' interpersonal behavior style	Coach interpersonal behaviors	Pelletier, L.G., & Vallerand, R.J. (1996). Supervisors' beliefs and subordinates' intrinsic motivation: A behavioral confirmation analysis. <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i> , 71, 331-341. Pelletier, L.G., Tuson, K.M., & Haddad, N.K. (1997). The Client Motivation for Therapy Scale (CMOTS): A measure of intrinsic motivation, forms of extrinsic motivation, and amotivation for therapy. <i>Journal of Personality Assessment</i> , 68, 414-435. Pelletier, L.G., Fortier, M.S., Vallerand, R.J., & Briere, N.M. (2002). Associations among perceived autonomy support, forms of self-regulation, and persistence: A prospective study. <i>Motivation and Emotion</i> , 25, 279-306.	Contact the authors
Athletes rate their coach's interpersonal behaviors around and with them.			
Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ)	Coach behavior	Kenow, L.J., & Williams, J.M. (1992). Relationship between anxiety, self-confidence, and evaluation of coaching behaviors. <i>The Sport Psychologist</i> , 6, 344-357. Kenow, L.J., & Williams, J.M. (1999). Coach-athlete compatibility and athletes' perceptions of coaching behaviors. <i>Journal of Sport Behavior</i> , 22, 251-259. Williams, J.M., Jerome, G.J., Kenow, L.J., Rogers, T., Sartain, T.A., & Darland, G. (2003). Factor structure of the Coaching Behavior Questionnaire and its relationship to athlete variables. <i>The Sport Psychologist</i> , 17, 16-34.	Contact the authors
The CBQ includes athlete perceptions and judgments of coach behaviors that are both positive and negatively valenced.			

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q)	Coach-athlete relationship	Jowett, S., & Ntoumanis, N. (2004). The Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q): Development and initial validation. <i>Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports</i> , 14, 245-257.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0838.2003.00338.x
Multiple versions of this instrument exist in the literature, but all include multiple subscales of closeness, commitment, and complementarity.			
Coaching Efficacy Scale (CES)	Coach efficacy	Feltz, D.L., Chase, M.A., Moritz, S.E., & Sullivan, P.J. (1999). A conceptual model of coaching efficacy: Preliminary investigation and instrument development. <i>Journal of Educational Psychology</i> , 91, 765-776.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0022-0663.91.4.765
This multidimensional instrument measures coaching efficacy; it has shown some psychometric concerns.			
Coaching Efficacy Scale II—High School Teams (CES II-HST)	Coach efficacy	Myers, N.D., Feltz, D.L., Chase, M.A., Reckase, M.D., & Hancock, G.R. (2008). The Coaching Efficacy Scale-II: High school teams. <i>Educational and Psychological Measurement</i> , 68, 1059-1076.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013164408318773
This updated version of the CES yields improved psychometrics, especially at the high school level, across multiple subscales.			
Coaching Behaviour Scale for Sport (CBS-S)	Coach behavior	Côté, J., Yardley, J., Hay, J., Sedgwick, W., & Baker, J. (1999). An exploratory examination of the Coaching Behavior Scale for Sport. <i>Avanté</i> , 5, 82-92. Mallet, C., & Côté, J. (2006). Beyond winning and losing: Guidelines for evaluating high performance coaches. <i>The Sport Psychologist</i> , 20, 213-221.	Contact the authors
Athletes rate their coach's behaviors across training, competition, and organizational context. The CBS-S was designed originally for elite levels.			
Trust in Leader Instrument	Trust in coach	Dirks, K.T. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 85, 1004-1012.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.6.1004
Athletes rate the coach's behaviors leading to athlete trust.			
Coaching Success Questionnaire-2 (CSQ-2)	Athlete Outcomes	Gillham, A., Burton, D., & Gillham, E. (2013). Going beyond won-loss record to identify successful coaches: Development and preliminary validation of the Coaching Success Questionnaire-2. <i>International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching</i> , 8, 115-138.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1260/1747-9541.8.1.115
This multidimensional instrument includes 10 four-item subscales across a range of psychosocial athlete development areas. Multiple studies have used the CSQ-2, showing strong psychometric properties in each.			

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Assessment Tools and Their Availability (*continued*)

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ)	Athlete satisfaction	Riener, H.A., & Chelladurai, P. (1998). Development of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). <i>Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology</i> , 20, 127-156.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1123/jsep.20.2.127
This multidimensional tool is used to rate coach impact on athlete satisfaction.			
Basic Needs Satisfaction in Relationships Scale (BNSRS)	Athlete satisfaction	La Guardia, J.G., Ryan, R.M., Couchman, C.E., & Deci, E.L. (2000). Within-person variation in security of attachment: A self-determination theory perspective on attachment, need fulfillment, and well-being. <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i> , 79, 367-384. Coatsworth, J.D., & Conroy, D.E. (2009). The effects of autonomy-supportive coaching, need satisfaction, and self-perceptions on initiative and identity in youth swimmers. <i>Developmental Psychology</i> , 45, 320-328.	Contact the authors
The BNSRS is congruent with the SDT perspective on needs satisfaction.			
Coach Evaluation Questionnaire (CEQ)	Coach performance	Rushall, B.S., & Wiznuk, K. (1985). Athletes' assessment of the coach: The Coach Evaluation Questionnaire. <i>Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Sciences</i> , 10, 157-161.	Full measure in article
The CEQ is one of the original coach evaluation tools that outlines basic principles that should be followed, although psychometrics of the instrument itself are largely untested.			
Dimensions of Coaching Performance	Coach Performance	MacLean, J.C., & Chelladurai, P. (1995). Dimensions of coaching performance: Development of a scale. <i>Journal of Sport Management</i> , 9, 194-207.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1123/jsm.9.2.194
This multidimensional model includes aspects of both coaching process and coaching product variables.			
Coaching Staff Cohesion Scale (CSCS)	Coaching staff	Martin, K. (2002). Development and validation of the Coaching Staff Cohesion Scale. <i>Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science</i> , 6, 23-42.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15327841MPEE0601_2
The CSCS assesses how well a coaching staff works together.			

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS)	Coaching behavior	Smith, R.E., Smoll, F.L., & Hunt, E. (1977). A system for the behavioral assessment of athlete coaches. <i>Research Quarterly</i>, 48, 401-407. Smith, R.E., & Smoll, F.L. (1990). Self-esteem and children's reactions to youth sport coaching behaviors: A field study of self-enhancement processes. <i>Developmental Psychology</i>, 26, 987-993. Smith, R.E., Smoll, F.L., & Christensen, D.S. (1996). Behavioral assessment and interventions in youth sports. <i>Behavior Modification</i>, 20, 3-44. Horn, T.S. (1984). Expectancy effects in the interscholastic athletic setting: Methodological considerations. <i>Journal of Sport Psychology</i>, 7, 60-76. Horn, T.S. (1985). Coaches' feedback and changes in children's perceptions of their physical competence. <i>Journal of Educational Psychology</i>, 77, 174-186. Coatsworth, J.D., & Conroy, D.E. (2006). Enhancing the self-esteem of youth swimmers through coach training: Gender and age effects. <i>Psychology of Sport and Exercise</i>, 7, 173-192.	Contact the authors
Multiple versions of this tool can be found in the literature, with options for assessing coaching behaviors broadly or more specific to a single athlete. This is a direct observation tool.			
Arizona State University (ASU) Observation Instrument	Coach instructional practices	Lacy, A.C., & Darst, P.W. (1984). Evolution of a systematic observation instrument: The ASU Observation Instrument. <i>Journal of Teaching in Physical Education</i>, 3, 59-66. Cushion, C.J., & Jones, R.L. (2001). A systematic observation of professional top-level youth soccer coaches. <i>Journal of Sport Behavior</i>, 24, 354-377. Darst, P.W., Zakrajsek, D.B., & Mancini, V.H. (Eds.). (1989). <i>Analyzing physical education and sport instruction</i> (2nd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics. Brewer, C.J., & Jones, R.L. (2002). A five-stage process for establishing contextually valid systematic observation instruments: The case of rugby union. <i>The Sport Psychologist</i>, 16, 138-159.	Contact the authors
This instrument focuses on coach instructional behaviors during training settings.			

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Assessment Tools and Their Availability (*continued*)

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Coaching Behavior Recording Form (CBRF)	Coaching behavior	Tharp, R.G., & Gallimore, R. (1976). What a coach can teach a teacher. <i>Psychology Today</i>, January, 75-78. Darst, P.W., Zakrajsek, D.B., & Mancini, V.H. (Eds.). (1989). <i>Analyzing physical education and sport instruction</i> (2nd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics. Bloom, G.A., Crumpton, R., & Anderson, J.E. (1999). A systematic observation study of the teaching behaviors of an expert basketball coach. <i>The Sport Psychologist</i>, 13, 157-170. Gallimore, R., & Tharp, P. (2004). What a coach can teach a teacher, 1975-2004: Reflections and reanalysis of John Wooden's teaching practices. <i>The Sport Psychologist</i>, 18, 119-137.	Contact the authors
The CBRF is an observational tool for coach behaviors in both training and competitive settings.			
Coaching Analysis Instrument (CAI)	Coach verbal behavior	Franks, I.M., Johnson, R.B., & Sinclair, G.D. (1988). The development of a computerized coaching analysis system for recording behavior in sporting environments. <i>Journal of Teaching in Physical Education</i>, 8, 23-32. More, K.G., & Franks, I.M. (1996). Analysis and modification of verbal coaching behaviors. The usefulness of a data-driven intervention strategy. <i>Journal of Sports Sciences</i>, 14, 523-543.	Contact the authors
This observational tool is specific to verbal comments made by the coach.			
DiSC Profile	Personality and behavioral style	Personality Profile Solutions (1997)	For purchase at www.onlinediscprofile.com
This assessment is based on four behavioral traits: dominance, inducement, submission, and compliance. It profiles how people are likely to react in specific team, management, or leadership situations.			
Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)	Personal style preferences	Briggs-Myers, I., & Briggs, K.C. (1985). <i>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator</i> (MBTI). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.	For purchase at www.cpp.com
The MBTI provides information on clients' preferences, including where they draw their energy from, how they gather information, how they make decisions, and how they prefer to deal with the outside world.			
Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)	Warmth in the parent-child sport relationship	Schwarz, J.C., Barton-Henry, M.L., & Pruzinsky, T. (1985). Assessing child-rearing behavior: A comparison of ratings made by mother, father, child, and sibling on the CRPBI. <i>Child Development</i> , 56, 462-479.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1129734
This set of scales is designed to collect children's perceptions of parent global behavior. The warmth subscale was contextualized by Dorsch et al. (2016) to assess children's and parents' self-reports of warmth in the parent-child sport relationship.			

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Sport Friendship Quality Scale (SFQS) (modified)	Conflict in the parent-child sport relationship	Weiss, M.R., & Smith, A.L. (1999). Quality of youth sport friendships: Measurement development and validation. <i>Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology</i> , 21, 145-166. Ullrich-French, S., & Smith, A.L. (2006). Perceptions of relationships with parents and peers in youth sport: Independent and combined prediction of motivational outcomes. <i>Psychology of Sport and Exercise</i> , 7, 193-214. Dorsch, T.E., Smith, A.L., & Dotterer, A.M. (2016). Individual, relationship, and context factors associated with parent support and pressure in organized youth sport. <i>Psychology of Sport and Exercise</i> , 23, 132-141.	Contact the authors
	The original measure was designed to assess friendship quality among peers in youth sport. This measure was adapted by Ullrich-French & Smith to assess perceptions of the parent-child relationship, and a three-item subscale was further contextualized by Dorsch and colleagues to assess conflict in the parent-child sport relationship.		
Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS-X)	Parent sport-related emotions	Watson, D., & Clark, L.A. (1994). <i>Manual for the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (expanded form)</i> . Iowa City, IA: University of Iowa. Dorsch, T.E., Smith, A.L., & Dotterer, A.M. (2016). Individual, relationship, and context factors associated with parent support and pressure in organized youth sport. <i>Psychology of Sport and Exercise</i> , 23, 132-141.	Contact the authors
	This measure of affect has been shown to be reliable and valid in multiple settings and with multiple individuals. It was adapted by Dorsch and colleagues to assess parents' sport-related affect in organized youth sport.		
Parental Involvement in Activities Scale (PIAS)	Parent involvement	Anderson, J.C., Funk, J.B., Elliott, R., & Smith, P. (2003). Parental support and pressure and children's extracurricular activities: Relationships with amount of involvement and affective experience of participation. <i>Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology</i> , 24, 241-257.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0193-3973(03)00046-7
	This study-designed instrument was developed to measure children's perceptions of their parents' involvement in extracurricular activities. It was adapted by Dorsch and colleagues to assess parent support and pressure in organized youth sport.		
Youth Sport Behavior Assessment System (YSBAS)	Parent behavior	Apache, R.R. (2006). The behavioral assessment of parents and coaches at youth sports: Validity and reliability. <i>The Physical Educator</i> , 63, 126-133.	Full measure in article
	This behavioral assessment system scores the behaviors of parents and coaches at youth sport games.		
Tool not named	Parent goals	Dorsch, T.E., Smith, A.L., Wilson, S.R., & McDonough, M.H. (2015). Early socialization of parents through organized youth sport. <i>Sport, Exercise, and Performance Psychology</i> , 4, 3-18.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/spy0000021
	This qualitatively developed rubric categorizes parent goals for their children in organized youth sport.		

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Assessment Tools and Their Availability (*continued*)

Assessment tool	Construct	Author and reference	Availability
Tool not named	Parent involvement	Holt, N.L., Tamminen, K.A., Black, D.E., Sehn, Z.L., & Wall, M.P. (2008). Parental involvement in competitive youth sport settings. <i>Psychology of Sport and Exercise</i> , 9, 663-685.	Full measure in article; http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2007.08.001
This qualitatively developed rubric codes parental comments on a continuum from more supportive to more controlling.			
Parent Observation Instrument for Sport Events (POISE)	Parent comments	Kidman, L., McKenzie, A., & McKenzie, B. (1999). The nature and target of parents' comments during youth sport competitions. <i>Journal of Sport Behavior</i> , 22, 54-68.	Full measure in article
This systematic observation instrument assesses the nature and target of verbal comments made by parents at youth sport events.			

Chapter Takeaways

- The interconnectedness of athletes, coaches, teams, and parents is vital to maximizing athletes' experiences in sport.
 - You should consider the purpose of the assessment, as well as who is in the best position to provide an accurate assessment of the coach to achieve its purpose.
 - Coaches' personal characteristics, objective behaviors, and athlete outcomes may be assessed.
 - Misalignment can occur by not being clear about the purpose of the assessment, by selecting raters without the appropriate knowledge and experience to provide accurate information on the assessment, or by selecting a tool and modifying it in a way that reduces its psychometric qualities.
 - Team assessments can help athletes maximize their practice efforts and competitive performances, help coaches improve their pedagogical skills and leadership, and help teams work together, communicate, and resolve conflict.
 - Assessment data should provide an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of a team, leading to tangible change goals and actionable steps to accomplish those goals.
 - Debriefing after an assessment is a critical component of the process.
 - Youth sport is a powerful setting for investigating developmental outcomes in youth.
 - As a result of children's participation in sport, parents become observers and participants, creating the potential for parents to undergo changes in their own thoughts, emotions, and behaviors, as well as their relationships with others.
 - Parent assessment is fundamental to developing interventions and creating policies that promote athletics as a positive experience.
 - Parent assessment affords a deeper knowledge of parents' influence on their children's athletic experience, allowing for a more integrated understanding of the sport system.
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