The roles of coaches and teachers: fostering a climate for motivation in an age of accountability

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The roles of coaches and teachers: fostering a climate for motivation in an age of accountability

Abstract
This paper examines the difference between how a coach motivates an athlete or fosters a climate for motivation versus how a teacher motivates a student or fosters a climate for motivation. One way to examine how coaches and teachers motivate their athletes and students is to examine the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators. Examining the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators and the subsequent discussion of how the roles of coaches as motivators could inform the roles of teachers as motivators seeks to satisfy society’s call for teacher accountability.
The Roles of Coaches and Teachers:
Motivating and Fostering A Climate for Motivation in an Age of Accountability

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Mike is a well-liked seventeen year-old young man. His “role” in the classroom is class clown or slacker, depending on the day. He is a very honest young man and there is never a question about how Mike feels about anything. He expresses himself well and given the opportunity he can be quite insightful. Unfortunately, Mike sometimes chooses the wrong opportunity to express himself. If he is confronted about his behavior, Mike usually chooses to respond in a manner that is more disruptive than his previous behavior.

If the question “what are you thinking about?” was posed to Mike at random times throughout the day, chances are he would respond that he was thinking about something related to sports: usually sports he was involved in. When the bell rings at 3:00, Mike is off to practice: football in the fall, weightlifting in the winter, and track in the spring. He is focused on the tasks at hand and is willing to do anything to please his coaches. His football coach is his hero and he wants to be just like him.

Teachers and coaches have many students like Mike who have difficulties with their teachers in the classroom, but respond well to their coaches (e.g. Landers & Landers, 1978; Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996). There are two possible reasons why Mike responds well to his coaches. One reason is the way coaches motivate. Coaches motivate in three contexts: relationships with their athletes, what and how they communicate, and modeling and nurturing both physical and mental skills. A
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Teachers and coaches have many students like Mike who have difficulties with their teachers in the classroom, but respond well to their coaches (e.g. Landers & Landers, 1978; Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996). There are two possible reasons why Mike responds well to his coaches. One reason is the way coaches motivate. Coaches motivate in three contexts: relationships with their athletes, what and how they communicate, and modeling and nurturing both physical and mental skills. A
second reason why Mike responds well to his coaches is the differences between the roles of coaches as motivators and teachers as motivators. Three differences are methods used, the groups with which each work, and the context of the roles.

The first reason students such as Mike may respond well to coaches is because of the ways a coach motivates. The literature has shown that coaches are successful motivators in many different contexts. Three of these research-supported contexts are: relationships with their athletes, what and how they communicate, and modeling and nurturing both physical and mental skills.

The first motivational context is the coach-athlete relationship. Mageau and Vallerand (2003) address the motivational effect of the coach-athlete relationship. They suggest several different elements of a motivational coach-athlete relationship.

Coaches provide opportunities for choices, emphasize task relevance, explain reasons underlying rules and limits, acknowledge athletes' feelings and perspective, give athletes opportunities to take initiatives, provide non-controlling competence feedback, avoid using controlling motivational strategies, and prevent ego-involvement in their athletes. (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 898) [See Appendix H]

Mike's coach sees him as a person, not just as an athlete, and takes the time to build a relationship with him. As Mageau and Vallerand suggest, the impact of this supportive relationship on Mike is very motivating.
The second motivational context is communication. Gallimore and Tharp (2004) contend that what and how a coach communicates is essential to athlete motivation. In their study of Coach John Wooden's communication during practice, they discovered that fifty percent of his words were instructions—what to do and how to do it. Almost thirteen percent of his words intensified previous instructions. Eight percent of his words were a combination of reproofs, modeling improper technique, followed by modeling proper technique (Gallimore & Tharp, 2004, p. 122). In this same manner, Mike's football coach sets clear expectations for the team and his feedback communicates specific things they did poorly or well, both as a team and as individuals. Gallimore and Tharp would propose this clear, informative feedback from Mike's coach to be a significant motivational factor.

The third motivational context is modeling and nurturing physical and mental skills. Nater and Gallimore (2006) profile the importance of modeling, communication, and physical and mental skills training in motivating athletes. In their examination of John Wooden's coaching style and philosophy, their conclusions show a need for coaching and teaching the whole player. “Coach Wooden emphasized repetition of fundamentals so that his players would be resourceful, imaginative, and creative, not because he wanted them to be robots mindlessly relying on rote memory” (Nater & Gallimore, 2006, p. 100). These skills were foundational for bigger concepts. In much the same way, the skills that Mike's coach teaches go beyond just the football field: mental toughness, decision-making, goal-setting, and other skills will be useful his entire life.
The second reason students such as Mike may respond well to coaches is that the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators are different on many different levels (e.g. Drewe, 2000; Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996; and Rupert & Buschner, 1989). Three differences in the roles of coaches and teachers are the methods employed by each, the groups with which each work, and the context in which the roles exist.

The first difference is the methods employed by each. Drewe points out two specific differences between the methods of coaches and teachers. One, it is suggested that coaches train athletes and teachers educate students. According to Peter, the implication of this distinction reveals a difference in the proposed end result of each: to train is to develop competence in a skill or mode of thought and to educate is to link to a wider system of beliefs (Drewe, 2000, p. 80). Two, Drewe addresses competition as a method employed by coaches, but decried by teachers (Drewe, 2000, p. 83-84).

The second difference between the roles of coaches and teachers is the groups with which they work. Chelladurai and Kuga point out differences in the size of groups managed by teachers and coaches (coaches tend to work with smaller groups than teachers), the homogeneity of ability of group members (athletes on a team tend to have relatively equal talent and ability, but the talent and ability in a classroom tends not to be as homogenous), the motivation of group members to participate (athletes tend to volunteer willingly to be on a team, but students are compelled by law to be in a classroom), the duration of contact between coach or teacher and group members (a coach may have as much as twice as many contact
hours with athletes than teachers have with students), and the arena of performance for each group (the efforts of coaches and athletes are on public display while the efforts of teachers and students are seldom publicized) (Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996, p. 472-473).

The third difference between the roles of coaches and teachers is the context in which the roles exist. Rupert and Buschner suggest “program goals, student interest and skill, administrative support and accountability, and occupational reward structures” as fundamental differences in the contexts in which the roles of coaches and teachers exist (Rupert & Buschner, 1989, p. 49). As a beginning teacher and coach, I found that I was essentially two different people: one person in the classroom and one person on the court or field. However, the longer I taught and coached and the more I brought my coaching practice into my classroom, the better teacher I became.

What is it about coaching that reaches students like Mike? Could the elements of coaching that reach Mike be beneficial to the learning processes of all students?

Statement of the Problem

This paper examines the difference between how a coach motivates an athlete or fosters a climate for motivation versus how a teacher motivates a student or fosters a climate for motivation. One way to examine how coaches and teachers motivate their athletes and students is to examine the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators. Examining the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators and the
subsequent discussion of how the roles of coaches as motivators could inform the roles of teachers as motivators seeks to satisfy society’s call for teacher accountability.

Examining the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators is important because motivating students is a very complex and many times misunderstood task. Many times the members of society do not understand the roles of teachers as motivators due to the non-public nature of much of what teachers do to motivate students. In pointing out qualitative changes in students that are not measured and certainly not public, Ames acknowledges the relatively non-public nature of teaching.

It is important to note that motivation is too often equated with quantitative changes in behavior rather than qualitative changes in the ways students view themselves in relation to the task, engage in the process of learning, and then respond to the learning activities and situation. (Ames, 1992, p. 268)

Unlike the non-public roles of teachers as motivators, the roles of coaches as motivators tend to be more understood by the public due to publicity received by coaches in various forms of media (e.g. MacLean & Pritchard, 2008; Hardman & Jones, 2008). Drewe suggests that society actually places a higher value on sports than education in our society (Drewe, 2000, p. 79). As Chelladurai and Kuga assert, “some of these differences [between tasks of teachers and coaches] may favor coaching and make it more amenable for the coach to exercise his or her influence and, therefore, more motivational” (Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996, p. 470). If coaching
is more motivational and more understood by society due to its public nature and if the tasks or roles of coaching that reach athletes can be surmised and intentionally applied to the classroom, the world of classroom teaching could be one step closer to answering the call for evidence-based practice and reaching and teaching every child.

Because teachers and coaches both have roles that motivate, it is possible that the roles of one can inform the roles of the other. Coaches' roles are more public and understood by society. Therefore, allowing the roles of coaches to inform the roles of teachers could make teaching more understood by society.

Significance of the Problem

There are three main areas of significance in examining how the roles of coaches and the roles of teachers motivate. First is the importance of student motivation, second is the importance of the role of teachers in society, and third is the importance of public confidence in teachers and teaching.

First, student motivation is important. It is essential, not only for academic success, but also for life success. In reference to motivation, Carole Ames says, We not only want students to achieve, we want them to value the process of learning and the improvement of their skills, we want them to willingly put forth the necessary effort to develop and apply their skills and knowledge, and we want them to develop a long-term commitment to learning. (Ames, 1990, p. 410)
Second, because student motivation is important, the role of the teacher is important. The role of the teacher is important both in the classroom and in society. In the classroom, the teacher is a key player in fostering learning and motivation. In reference to classroom interventions to increase student motivation, attention must be given to “salient classroom structures, identification of principles and strategies that can be mapped into these structures, and generation of exemplary practices that can be integrated into all curriculum areas and within all aspects of day-to-day classroom routine” (Ames, 1992, p. 268).

Teachers play an important role not only in the classroom, but also in society. Society places great expectations upon teachers. Donald Schön explains that social progress depends on teachers and schools.

The professions have become essential to the very functioning of our society. We conduct society’s principal business through professionals specially trained to carry out that business, whether it be making war and defending the nation, educating our children, diagnosing and curing disease.... Our principal formal institutions—schools, hospitals, government agencies, courts of law, armies—are arenas for the exercise of professional activity. We look to professionals for the definition and solution of our problems, and it is through them that we strive for social progress (Schön, 1983, p.3).

The third point of significance in examining the roles of coaches and teachers is that there is a crisis of confidence in teachers in society today. Schön warns, “But although we are wholly dependent on them, there are increasing signs of a crisis of
confidence in the professions.... Professionally designed solutions to public problems have had unanticipated consequences, sometimes worse than the problems they were designed to solve" (Schön 1983, p.4). Because teachers play such a vital role in students' lives and society, it is essential for society to have unwavering confidence in teachers. In 1962, in a commencement address delivered at Yale University, President John F. Kennedy explained how confidence and societal prosperity are related and essential.

Finally, I come to the matter of confidence. Confidence is a matter of myth and also a matter of truth--and this time let me make the truth of the matter first. It is true--and of high importance--that the prosperity of this country depends on the assurance that all major elements within it will live up to their responsibilities" (Kennedy, 1962)

Teachers are one of the major elements upon which this country depends and thus they must inspire confidence for society. When it is perceived by society such confidence is not warranted, the result is often extreme legislative action such as No Child Left Behind (MacNeil/Lehrer).

Such extreme legislation has given rise to the term age of accountability in education. In this age of accountability in education (Cochrane-Smith, 2003; Slavin, 2002) where society has placed high expectations upon teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 2004), classroom teachers often ask how they are supposed to reach and teach every student. Robert Slavin (2002) suggests that through research in evidence-based practice, there is hope for teachers. “At the dawn of the 21st
century, educational research is finally entering the 20th century. The use of randomized experiments that transformed medicine, agriculture, and technology in the 20th century is now beginning to affect educational policy” (p.16). Society wants something tangible and understandable to prove that teachers are worthy of confidence. The crisis of confidence in teachers is solved with the proof that the practices of teaching are worthy of confidence.

Definition of Terms

Age of accountability is a phrase currently being used to describe the era of American education as dictated by federally regulated governmental policies. While claimed as the hallmark statement of today’s legislators and educators, it is actually a phrase first used in the 1970s.

Coach-infused teaching is a simple way to describe the result of coach roles influencing teacher roles.

Evidence-based practice, as defined by Philip Davies, is a two-fold operation. First, educators need to use “existing evidence from worldwide research and literature on education and associated subjects” (1999, p.109). Second, educators need to “establish sound evidence where existing evidence is lacking or of a questionable, uncertain, or weak nature” (Davies, 1999, p. 109). The idea of evidence-based practice, like many of the other phrases defined for this paper, is highly scrutinized and debated.

Flow theory defines what makes something intrinsically motivating. The elements of flow are balance of challenge and skills, complete absorption in the
activity, clear goals, merging of action and awareness, total concentration on the task at hand, loss of self-consciousness, and a sense of control (Weinberg & Gould, 2003, p. 144).

*Multidimensional Leadership Theory* (MLT) was established by Chelladurai and Saleh as a combination of the way coaches understand athlete characteristics, situational characteristics, and required leader behavior. The five dimensions of MLT are: autocratic behaviors, democratic behaviors, social support, feedback for motivation, and training and instruction aim at developing skill and knowledge to improve performance (Turman, 2003, p. 74).

*Self-determination Theory* (SDT) was established in 1985 by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan. Deci and Ryan's research led to the following definition as stated by the literature:

Self-determination theory posits that a. people are inherently motivated to internalize the regulation of uninteresting though important activities; b. there can be two different processes through which such internalization can occur, resulting in qualitatively different styles of self-regulation; and c. the social context influences which internalization process and regulatory style occur. The two types of internalization are introjection, which entails taking in a value or regulatory process but not accepting is as one's own, and integration, through which the regulation is assimilated with one's core sense of self. (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994, p. 119) [See Appendix J]
Self-regulated learning (SRL) is defined by Barry Zimmerman as the degree to which students are "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning process" (Zimmerman, 1986, p. 307-313). This paper assumes self-regulated learning is the goal for students for the teachers and coaches whose fundamental operating principles will be examined in this paper.

Organization of the paper

Chapter 1 has outlined the problem and significance of motivating students in an age of accountability and proposed knowing the roles of coaches as motivators and teachers as motivators as the method for examining how teachers and coaches motivate their students or athletes. Chapter 2 will examine three roles of coaches and the implications for how these roles motivate or foster a climate for motivation. Examining roles similar in nature to those discussed in chapter 2, chapter 3 will outline three roles of teachers and how these roles motivate or foster a climate for motivation. Chapter 4 will examine ties between the roles of coaches as motivators and the roles of teachers as motivators, especially how the roles of coaches can inform the roles of teachers, as well as limitations for integrating coaching roles into teaching roles. Chapter 5 will recommend strategies for teachers to make their roles more influenced by coach roles, or coach-infused.
Chapter 1 stated two important research-supported issues. The first issue was that coaches are successful motivators. The second issue was that the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators are different. This chapter discusses the roles of coaches as motivators. A coach's roles are defined by his philosophy because philosophy affects action. Therefore, a discussion of philosophy is an appropriate prelude to the discussion of the roles of coaches as motivators. Out of the many actions or roles that coaches perform to motivate their athletes, three that could specifically inform the roles of teachers are coaches as Communicators, coaches as Mental Skills Trainers, and coaches as Whole-person Nurturers. Each of these roles serves within the framework of motivating athletes and fostering a climate of motivation. This chapter concludes with a case study of John Wooden, perhaps one of the most studied and documented coaches of all time.

Subsequent chapters will suggest that the roles of coaches as motivators discussed in this chapter could directly inform and enhance the roles of teachers as motivators. The reason this suggestion can be made, as previewed in chapter 1, is that coaching is public and it is tangible. MacLean and Pritchard highlight that sport and coaching can be public even to the point of having national identity (MacLean & Pritchard, 2008, p. 62). Such public recognition and understanding make the roles of coaches as motivators a natural informant for the roles of teachers as motivators. While teaching is also public, coaching has the added piece of not
only being public but also publicized on a constant basis. The how-to’s and why’s of coaching are analyzed on a daily basis on television, the internet, and in magazines and newspapers.

**Philosophy of Coaching**

A discussion of philosophy is vital as a prelude to a discussion of roles for three reasons. First, philosophy informs actions or roles and is necessary to establish the rationale behind actions or roles, second, philosophy is necessary to make consistent decisions in different contexts/roles, and third, philosophy aids in understanding the history of the roles of coaches.

First, philosophy informs actions or roles and is necessary to establish the rationale behind actions or roles. With such a public profile as mentioned earlier, coaches need to constantly know what they are doing and why they are doing it. Reflection on actions is a key part of philosophy. “Coaches have the gifted knack of being able to step back from all the daily business to see what they’re about, why they work, and what’s wonderful about it” (Walton, 1992, p. 161). The questions posed by philosophy inform actions of the coaches, where they lead their teams, and the goals they set for themselves and their teams (Hardman & Jones, 2008, p. 65). “The philosophical process can be encapsulated in reference to two crucial and important questions: ‘What do you mean? and, How do you know?’” (Hardman & Jones, 2008, p. 65). The answers to these questions are actions and roles. Philosophy, which defines action, is known through action. Therefore, a coach’s philosophy will translate through his actions. Because philosophy informs
action and thus is the rationale behind action, the more public an action is, the more vital the philosophy.

The second reason to discuss philosophy is because philosophy is necessary to make consistent decisions in different contexts/roles, both public and private. “Ironically, those who have the hardest time making difficult decisions are usually the people who are most in touch with their values. They care about the consistency of their values, their actions, and the impact they have on others” (Alberts, 2003, p. 57). Atle Kvålsvoll, coach of Thor Hushvod, who won the 2005 Green Shirt (sprint) in the Tour de France, said of philosophy, “A coach’s practice is founded on his or her philosophy; it will affect their choices of what is right and wrong…. There are many temptations to make short cuts” (Hardman & Jones, 2008, p. 64). Having a philosophy will help create consistency and help avoid taking short cuts in decision-making.

Finally, a discussion of philosophy aids in the understanding the history of the roles of coaching. The concern about the aforementioned agenda and aims of modern athletic coaching can be traced back to the seventeenth century. The newly restored English monarchy highly valued leisure. They hired people to teach the skills of a particular sport, whether that was horseracing, cricket, boxing, or golf (MacLean & Pritchard, 2008, p.53). As sport has evolved into something synonymous with national identity, so also has the role of the coach evolved into one drawing wide scrutiny. A coach certainly is judged on his statistics and public credibility, sometimes to the point of being fired. This high profile of coaches,
regardless of the level of coaching, can be a very positive or very negative attribute of coaching (MacLean & Pritchard, 2008, p. 60-62).

Philosophy informs and provides a rationale for coaches' actions, it helps coaches make decisions, and it helps us understand the history of the roles of coaches. Three actions of coaches, communicating, mental skills training, and whole-person nurturing, are informed by philosophy. These actions translate into roles of coaches as motivators.

Roles of Coaches in Motivating Athletes and Fostering a Climate of Motivation

This paper certainly does not attempt to look exhaustively at every role of coaches. It will however examine three roles of coaches that serve to motivate athletes, for "understanding the dynamic and complex psychological processes of motivation is critical to understanding human behavior, especially in sport" (Kingston, Thomas, and Mitchell, 2008, p. 29). These three roles are: coaches as Communicators, coaches as Mental Skills Trainers, and coaches as Whole-person Nurturers. Upon the conclusion of the examination of the roles of coaches, those roles will be shown to inform the roles of teaching.

Coaches as Communicators

One role of coaches as motivators is that of the coach as Communicator. "Good communication is the essence of good coaching" (Lynch, 2001, p. 33). Within the framework of the coach as Communicator is theoretical, practical, and anecdotal support for this role. The Multidimensional Leadership Theory provides theoretical
support, strategies for feedback and knowledge of results provide practical support, and a brief look at Coach Knute Rockne provides anecdotal support.

Theoretical support

Theoretical support for the roles of coach as Communicator is the Multidimensional Leadership Theory (MLT), which deals with the leadership of coaches. The different elements of MLT are the way coaches understand athlete characteristics, situational characteristics, and required leader behavior. The required leader behavior was further analyzed by Chelladurai and Saleh. They subsequently proposed a five-dimensional representation of leadership strategies in athletics (Turman, 2003, p. 74). The dimensions are autocratic behaviors, democratic behaviors, social support for the interpersonal needs of athletes, positive feedback to motivate and show appreciation, and training and instruction to develop the athlete's skill. Autocratic behaviors create the separation between the roles of coaches and athletes and establish the coach as an authority. At the same time, democratic behaviors create a unique bond between coaches and athletes that allows the athlete to give input about the decisions related to the sport. In addition to the coach-athlete bond, social support for the interpersonal needs of the athlete, shows the necessity for the coach to provide for a climate where the team can bond. Finally, the positive feedback and training aspects of required leader behavior within the MLT, provide the athletes with information helpful to their growth as athletes (Turman, 2003, p. 74). While this is only one theory, it certainly shows
that for each aspect of leadership strategies, there is an element of communication, whether it is verbal or non-verbal, in every aspect of leadership within coaching.

Practical support

As Communicators, coaches can employ many different practical strategies. Llewellyn and Blucker propose several techniques of motivation employed by coaches, among them are verbal comments, charts and gimmicks, competition, visual knowledge of results, verbal knowledge of results, reward and punishment, spectators, music and noise, routine, and expectations (1982, p. 63-73). A brief analysis of these techniques reveals a strong theme of communication. In fact, on some level, each of these motivation techniques communicates something in some way to athletes. Specifically examined here are the practical strategies of feedback and knowledge of results.

Feedback, as a form of communication, can take many forms. As previously summarized, verbal feedback, charts and gimmicks, and visual and verbal knowledge of results are all forms of feedback. "Coaches can have tremendous influence on an athlete's performance through either directive or incentive comments" (Llewellyn & Blucker, 1982, p. 63). Directive comments deal with the technical performance aspect of sport, while incentive comments deal with the attitude toward the performance (Llewellyn & Blucker, 1982, p. 63-64). In addition, communication is vital for coach-athlete relationships. Communication is not only the factor that forms relationships, but also the factor that sustains or destroys relationships (Jowett, 2005, p. 415; see also Mallett, 2005, p. 422).
Likewise, knowledge of results can be a vital piece in motivation. Coaches can communicate results visually and verbally. Visual results come through looking at times, looking at stats, looking at game tape, or various other methods. Verbal results come through feedback from the coach himself. However, the best method is a combination of visual and verbal knowledge of results. In addition, communication, especially in the form of feedback, needs to be timely and specific (Llewellyn & Blucker, 1982, p. 68). In a study of evidence-based coaching, Clifford Mallett said, “comparisons of feedback from human sources with the information from videos allowed athletes to develop their ability to correctly identify what they thought they performed with what they actually did” (Mallett, 2005, p. 425).

Anecdotal support

Finally, there is anecdotal support for coaches as Communicators. The great communicator coach, Knute Rockne, describes in his book, Coaching, The Way of the Winner, how to teach a move, in this example, the double coordination movement, in football.

First, he should give a vivid, graphic description of the movement in detail.

The description should be as clear as possible, as illuminating as he can make it, stating frankly the two or three common faults to be avoided.

Secondly, either the coach himself or some experienced guard demonstrates this movement both “slow motion picture” style and also at full speed. A
combination of the two should now give the guard candidates a complete picture of what is wanted.

Third, the guard candidates are now lined up in defense again two offensive men who are told to charge very passively. The guard candidates now try to perform the double coordination stunt.

The fourth stage consists of the coach criticizing constructively the work of this group of prospective guards individually. After the mistakes have been overcome then the fifth stage is reached, in which the guards practice for perfection. In fact they should always keep repeating this stunt over and over again until the perfection of execution becomes a habit and almost a reflex action. Then and only then will they have mastered it. (Rockne, 1925, p. 210)

Rockne's reputation as an articulate orator is not just posthumous. He was also known during his lifetime as full of fiery effusions. When it came to coaching, his stratagems were not just reported in the sports section of the papers, they were lauded. This high-profile assessment and celebration of his coaching considerably enhanced his reputation (Robinson, 1999, p. 3). “[Rockne] was a complicated, enormously ambitious man who was probably more articulate than any other figure ever produced in the game [football]” (Robinson, 1999, p. 5).

Whatever his reputation may have been as an orator, his own book, as quoted earlier, reveals the depth of the communicator in him. In his explanation of teaching a certain move, he incorporates communicating verbally, visually, in a
group, one on one, and with follow-up feedback. Not only was Coach Rockne a communicator, he also communicated.

Coaches as Mental Skills Trainers

Another role of coaches as motivators is the role of coaches as Mental Skills Trainers. Within the framework of coach as Mental Skills Trainer is theoretical and practical support. Flow Theory provides theoretical support and mental skills training strategies provide practical support.

Theoretical support

Flow Theory, which was researched by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, is the ultimate goal in motivation. Flow is comprised of a balance of challenge and skills, complete absorption in the activity, clear goals, merging action and awareness, total concentration on the task at hand, loss of self-consciousness, and a sense of control (Weinberg & Gould, 2003, p. 144). Many aspects of flow can be achieved through mental-skills training.

Practical support

Mental-skills training usually involves general mental skills such as control of nerves and tension, concentration, emotional control, use of imagery, self-confidence, and goal setting (Grove, Norton, Van Raalte, & Brewer, 1999, p. 109). The goal of mental skills training is to give athletes the ability to function on their own without the constant aid and direction of the coach (Weinberg & Gould, 2003, p. 249).
Applying mental-skills training to enhance learning and performance requires athletes and students to improve their awareness of what they do to help themselves (mentally, emotionally, physically, and behaviorally), as well as what they do to damage their efforts (engaging in debilitating habits of thinking, feeling, and acting). Once this is established, athletes and students are taught how to engage their own coping skills (or taught new ones if needed) to overcome barriers to performance and learning. (Voight, 2005, p. 38)

A coach serves not only as a trainer of the body, but also as a trainer of the mind. “Children are highly capable of learning and applying a variety of important mind/body skills (e.g., imagery, goal setting, relaxation, focusing, and refocusing)” (Orlick & McCaffrey, 1991, p. 323-324).

The key with mental-skills training is for it to be integrated into normal life; not only does mental skills training enhance a person’s mental skills, it also enhances all other aspects of life (Orlick & McCaffrey, 1991, p. 327). Reminders serve a critical role in this integration process. Reminders foster consistency in application and adherence to the skills learned in mental-skills training. Reminders can come in the form of verbal reminders, posters, words posted in different places, pictures, etc. (Orlick & McCaffrey, 1991, p. 327).

Mike Voigt points out that many coaches already use mental-skills training, perhaps without knowing it. Voight underscores six methods of training mental skills: “imagery, goal setting, preperformance routines, concentration training,
intensity regulation, and confidence enhancement” (Voight, 2005, p. 39). The research cited by Voight to supplement his own claims is extensive.

1. “Imagery has been found to be effective in improving several mental skills, including sharpening concentration, reducing competitive anxiety, and enhancing confidence and motivation, while also improving pregame readiness and one’s ability to refocus” (Voight, 2005, p. 39). Imagery can even have physiological impact on athletes. Imagery is convenient because it is not bound by time or location, but can still have a positive impact on training and performance. Appendix C offers suggested guidelines for improving the use of imagery. Appendix K illustrates the functions of imagery.

2. Goal setting “is an effective way to enhance team building, team motivation, and process-oriented behavior” (Voight, 2005, p. 39). Appendix D illustrates SMART goal setting. According to SMART, goals need to be specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-based (Voight, 2005, p. 40). “Feedback about performance progress is absolutely essential if goals are going to effectively change performance and behavior” (Weinberg & Gould, 2003, p. 340).

3. Preperformance routines exist to trigger and sustain an optimal level of readiness before a game (Voight, 2005, p. 40). Having a preperformance plan and routine is essential to optimal performance. According to research by Jackson, having a planned preperformance routine, along with self-efficacy, is most often cited as a factor influencing achieving flow state (Weinberg & Gould, 2003, p. 146). Appendix E offers a tangible way for coaches to help players brainstorm their bests
and worsts to think through what they individually need for their preperformance routine.

4. Concentration training, as illustrated in Appendix F, serves to help athletes switch their focus, as the situation requires, from internal to external or broad to narrow. “This model can be used not only to teach coaches and athletes how attentional focus works, but also as the basis for a refocusing routine to get one’s focus back into the appropriate perspective” (Voight, 2005, p. 42)

5. Intensity regulation recognizes that each individual athlete has his own optimal level of intensity (Voight, 2005, p. 42). As with most mental-skills training, intensity regulation helps players establish or maintain consistency. “Once in a state of optimal intensity, athletes feel motivated, confident, focused, and ready” (Voight, 2005, p. 43). [See Appendix G]

6. Confidence enhancement concludes the mental-skills training methods outlined by Voight. Bandura’s work with self-talk supports confidence enhancement given that confidence enhancement is defined as:

   how athletes think and talk to themselves can either enhance or hurt their performances.... Those athletes who are more aware of their thoughts and self-talk, and who develop plans for dealing with inappropriate and damaging thoughts and talk, perform better and more consistently in pressure situations. (Voight, 2005, p. 45)

As a mental-skills trainer, one key aspect of the role is to see athletes adhere to their mental-skills training (Bull, 1991, p. 129). Orlick and McCaffrey suggest
six keys for implementation of and adherence to mental-skills training. While their research was with children, their findings can certainly be generalized to other populations.

a. Spending time with children in their environment is important. b. Ongoing contact is another key to successful intervention with children. c. The use of daily goals is important. d. Reminding children of their strengths and their positive capacities is something that greatly benefits them. e. Guiding children into positive prepractice, precompetition, or pretreatment routines, encouraging them to think in positive or focused ways when going into these situations, and the frequent use of imagery... have been very useful.

f. Finally, we have to recognize and accept the fact that individual children have different goals and different ways of pursuing their goals. (Orlick & McCaffrey, 1991, p. 332-333)

It should be noted that the keys to mental-skills training are similar to the very mental skills that need to be trained. This concept of modeling what should be taught and reinforcing the elements of what was taught is a pedagogically sound aspect of the role of the coach as mental-skills trainer.

Coaches as Whole-person Nurturers

Another role of coaches as motivators is coaches as Whole-person Nurturer. Within the framework of the coach as Whole-person Nurturer is theoretical and anecdotal support. Autonomy support, structure, and coach involvement come from
theoretical support and accounts of Coach Mike Spraklen and Coach Brutus Hamilton provide anecdotal support.

Theoretical support

Autonomy support, structure, and involvement characterize the behavior of a whole-person nurturer. Autonomy refers to the attitude and mentality of a person in authority. Such an attitude and mentality considers the other person's perspective, acknowledges the other person's feelings, and provides important information and choice to the other person, all without being demanding or coercive (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 886). The self-determination theory supports autonomy and thus whole-person nurturing. Providing a rationale, acknowledging feelings, and conveying choice are relevant for promoting integration instead of interjection (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994, p. 138).

Briefly, autonomy-supportive individuals: 1. provide as much choice as possible within specific limits and rules; 2. provide a rationale for tasks, limits and rules; 3. inquire about and acknowledge others' feelings; 4. allow opportunities to take initiatives and do independent work; 5. provide non-controlling competence feedback; 6. avoid overt control, guilt-inducing criticisms, controlling statements and tangible rewards; and 7. prevent ego-involvement from taking place. (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 886)

Providing structure is the next vital piece of a whole-person nurturer. Structure benefits the athlete in two ways. First, providing structure shows the coach cares about and is involved in the athlete's welfare. That care and
involvement directly impact the athlete's perceptions of his own competence and relationship with the coach. Second, without instruction and structure, athletes are missing vital information and training that they need to become better athletes (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 893).

Finally, much research (Scanlan & Lewth, 1986; Brown et al, 1989; Ommundsen & Valgum, 1991; Pelletier et al, 1995) supports the idea that involvement on the part of the coach is key for intrinsic motivation (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 893). Appendix H illustrates a coach-athlete relationship that fosters intrinsic or self-determined extrinsic motivation. This motivational model of the coach-athlete relationship is key to understanding the role of coaches as whole-person nurturers. For clarification, “intrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from engaging in the activity.... When experiencing self-determined extrinsic motivation, one volitionally decides to engage in the activity because the activity is important and concordant with one's values” (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 885). It should be noted that ideally all three aspects of the coach-athlete relationship, autonomy support, structure, and involvement, are needed simultaneously to facilitate motivation. A whole-person nurturer will meet that ideal.

Anecdotal support

Brutus Hamilton was a whole-person nurturer. Brutus is most well known for his tenure as head coach at the University of California. It is said of Coach Hamilton that values were his priority. While he valued winning, there was
balance in his perspective and he never advocated winning at all costs. A winning at all costs mentality compromises values and essentially places the outcome above the players (Walton, 1992, p. 112). “Brutus was incapable of making anyone feel left out or second class.... Fast or slow, good or bad, all the athletes knew Brutus was there to help- even when the costs were high” (Walton, 1992, p. 113). All the aspects of a whole-person nurturer were embodied and displayed by Brutus Hamilton.

Also a Whole-person Nurturer, Mike Spracklen was hired as the rowing coach in Canada following the Seoul Olympics in 1988. Spracklen came in with a new and demanding program. However, the program was not the focus, his athletes were his primary focus. He used their feedback to make adjustments to the program so that it best fit the athletes' needs. Spracklen was viewed by his athletes as not just a coach, but also a mentor. He taught them technical skills, but he also nurtured the person as a whole (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 884).

Case Study: John Wooden the Teacher/Coach

John Wooden embodies every theory espoused by this paper in this chapter. He was a Communicator, a Mental Skills Trainer, and a Whole-person Nurturer. It is therefore fitting to briefly examine the philosophy and techniques of the legendary coach of the UCLA Bruins. Bart Starr, quarterback of the Green Bay Packers under Coach Vince Lombardi, said of Wooden,

What he's done year in and year out over the past decade is fabulous. He continues to win because he has something going for those young men that
will help sustain them for the rest of their lives…. Coach Wooden equates basketball to the game of life. He says you have to be unselfish, that you have to play for the good of the team, that you have to be disciplined and do what he wants you to do as a team, that he will tolerate no individuality within that team…. This is really what you end up doing in life because sooner or later you end up on a team. (Walton, 1992, p. 65).

Coach Wooden lived what he taught. Hard purposeful work, pride, and selflessness were the tenets by which John Wooden lived and coached (Walton, 1992, p. 53).

As a Communicator, Coach Wooden had a unique, consistent, and very quantifiable style. While his statistics made the headlines, it was his consistency in those statistics that drew researchers to him. Tharp and Gallimore analyzed and scrutinized Wooden, hoping to glean from him his teaching methods so they could be shared with other educators (Walton, 1992, p. 54). Appendix I shows the breakdown of Tharp and Gallimore's observations. The anecdotal breakdown of their observations is fascinating, but also conveys important truths about teaching. “Instructions constitute half (50.3 percent) of his total teaching acts” (Walton, 1992, p. 56). Hustles, which were “verbal statements to activate or intensify previously instructed behavior” was 12.7 percent of all teaching acts (Walton, 1992, p. 56). “Praise is a minor feature of Wooden's teaching methods... Wooden scolds twice as much as he rewards... at least 75 percent of Wooden's teaching acts carry information” (Walton, 1992, p. 56-57).
Wooden's negligible use of praise is particularly instructive when you consider the motivational level of his students. There may be no more highly motivated groups trying to learn something than these young athletes for whom success can mean fame and fortune, plus more immediate social benefits. Under such conditions of maximum incentive, praise becomes virtually unnecessary. (Tharp & Gallimore, 1976, p. 77)

As a Mental Skills Trainer, John Wooden believed it was vital to teach the whole concept and then the details. To teach the details, Coach Wooden employed what he termed The Laws of Learning. The Laws of Learning are explanation, demonstration, imitation, correction, and repetition (Nater & Gallimore, 2006, p. 91). Coach Wooden believed explaining something was only half of the story—demonstration was just as important and the two must go together. Following the demonstration, his students would imitate the model and then immediately receive correction on any errors, big or small. The correction did not come in the form of speeches or lectures, just short, but informative, directives, usually focused on skill instruction. The Laws of Learning were completed by repetition (Nater & Gallimore, 2006, p. 91-96). John Wooden said of his laws,

The teacher must demonstrate and explain, have students imitate while being corrected, and, when the desired performance is obtained, have the student repeat, repeat, and repeat it until it becomes automatic. Explaining and demonstrating the correct model always comes first, and can be repeated whenever necessary, even during the repetition stage. Correction may be
needed during the repetition stage as well. Although there are four laws of
learning, and the explanation and demonstration starts the process, all four
are in operation once the imitation starts. However, the more the student
does is correctly, the more the teacher backs off and allows him to gradually
become independent. (Nater & Gallimore, 2006, p. 96)

Finally, as a Whole-person Nurturer, Coach Wooden knew and developed
relationships with each individual player on his team. Everything Wooden did was
based on his principles. But because the advice and wisdom he gave was based on
his unwavering principles, it was consistent, which showed his players the highest
level of care (Walton, 1992, p. 61). He saw his team as a group of individuals and
that was seen in the feedback he gave his players. The greatest percentage of the
feedback he gave was aimed at individual players rather than the team (Nater &

Coach Wooden believed that he was first a teacher and then a coach. In fact,
he believed that everyone was a teacher to someone- that everyone’s actions were an
act of teaching toward someone (Nater & Gallimore, 2006, p. xvi). Wooden reflected
on teaching in the following way:

When I became a high school teacher, I took my responsibility very seriously.
I believed then, and I do now, that I was paid to teach, and that meant it was
my responsibility to help every one of my students learn. I believe it’s
impossible to claim you have taught, when there are students who have not
learned. With that commitment, from my first year as an English teacher
until my last as UCLA basketball teacher/coach, I was determined to make the effort to become the best teacher I could possibly be, not for my sake, but for all those who are placed under my supervision. (Nater & Gallimore, 2006, p. xv)

Summary

This chapter addressed the roles of coaches as motivators. Within that discussion was addressed the philosophy of coaching, three roles of coaches as motivators, and a case study of John Wooden, an exemplary teacher/coach. As with teaching, coaching is a complex task with many demands. Because of the very public and performance-based nature of coaching, having a philosophy is vital for three reasons. One, philosophy informs and establishes a rationale for roles; two, it is necessary for decision-making; and three, it helps us understand the history of the roles of coaches. Thus, the very nature of philosophy is an answer to the call for accountability because it helps people understand actions or roles.

Three roles of coaches as motivators, coaches as Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers, draw in the many relational aspects of teaching, which are unique to coaching. As Communicators, coaches are accountable to their athletes, fellow coaches, parents of their athletes, and the public at large. As Mental Skills Trainers, coaches develop very observable and easily manifested skills in their athletes. Finally, as Whole-person Nurturers, coaches intentionally know their athletes individually, they are involved in the growth of their athletes on many levels, and they provide limits and structure for
their athletes. The manifestation of these roles in athletics can be very quantifiable. This is seen in the case study of John Wooden. In his coaching practice, these and other roles of coaches can be seen explicitly.

In the following chapter, an overview of three roles of teachers as motivators, which are very similar to the roles of coaches as motivators, will lead to chapter 4 and making connections between the roles of coaches as motivators and the roles of teachers as motivators.
Chapter 3: Teaching

Overview

Chapter 2 discussed the philosophy of coaches, the roles of coaches as Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers, and John Wooden - an exemplary model of a coach. This chapter discusses the roles of teachers as motivators. Just as a coach's roles are defined by his philosophy, so also are a teacher's roles defined by his philosophy, therefore a discussion of teacher philosophy is appropriate. A teacher's philosophy will directly impact his goals, motivations, and strategies. Because teaching is complex, philosophy of teaching will naturally be complex. This complexity can lead to confusion on the part of those outside of education as to what teachers are doing. This confusion leads to a lack of confidence and thus a call for evidence of why teachers do what they do, or evidence-based practice.

Following the discussion of philosophy will be a discussion of three roles of teachers as motivators. Teachers have many roles as motivators, including, but not limited to, teachers as Goal Setting Trainers, teachers as Expectants, and teachers as Conductors. This chapter concludes by acknowledging the presence of challenges in the classroom related to motivation and accountability. It bears noting that the complexity of teaching philosophy, the complexity of teaching roles, and the confusion of the part of society regarding both philosophy and roles is due partly to the teaching environment. The classroom presents a unique environment in which to motivate and foster a climate for motivation.
Subsequent chapters will suggest ways to strengthen the accountability piece of teaching roles by integrating the previously discussed roles of coaches as motivators into the roles of teachers as motivators.

**Philosophy of Teaching**

A teacher's roles are defined by his philosophy. Therefore, a discussion of teacher philosophy before an examination of the roles of teachers as motivators is essential for three reasons. First, philosophy defines what teachers believe, second, it helps sort out the complexity of teaching, and third, it lays the foundation for answering the call for accountability.

The first reason for discussing the philosophy of teachers is that in order to know what teachers do and why teachers do what they do, it is vital to understand what they believe. “In any learning situation, role is a complex factor. What adds to the complexity is the covert nature of beliefs about roles, and inaccessibility (by outsiders) of the experiences which helped form those beliefs” (Cotterall, 1995, p. 197). The research suggests that teacher belief or philosophy translates into teacher practice. Albert Bandura conjectured that behavior is better predicted by beliefs than by actions (Pajares, 1992, p. 324). However, beliefs, as opposed to knowledge, are difficult to define. Belief is based on subjective evaluation, which apart from additional subjectivity, is hard to define. Knowledge, however, is based on objective fact, which is easier to define (Pajares, 1992, p. 313). Not surprisingly, then,
Understanding beliefs... requires making inferences about individuals' underlying states, inferences fraught with difficulty because individuals are often unable or unwilling, ... to accurately represent their beliefs. For this reason, beliefs cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend, and do· fundamental prerequisites that educational researchers have seldom followed. (Pajares, 1992, p. 314)

All teachers have beliefs about themselves, their subject matter, their students, and their roles and responsibilities (Pajares, 1992, p.314). These beliefs are extremely personal, but they are the foundation for a teacher's inherent assumptions about students, student learning, their classroom, and the subject matter (Kagan, 1992, p. 65-66). What teachers believe about what they do and who they are impacts what they do. Arthur Combs said, “Perhaps the most important single cause of a person's success or failure educationally has to do with the question of what he believes about himself” (Pajares 1992, p. 307). The more teacher belief is understood, the more we will understand what makes a teacher a good teacher (Kagan, 1992, 85).

The second reason for discussing teacher philosophy is that philosophy helps sort out the complexity of teaching. The reality of education is that, by nature, education is very complex. Donald Quinn once said,

If a doctor, lawyer, or dentist had 40 people in his office at one time, all of whom had different needs, and some of whom didn't want to be there and were causing trouble, and the doctor, lawyer, or dentist, without assistance,
had to treat them all with professional excellence for nine months, then he might have some conception of the classroom teacher's job.

Paul Hirst (1963) said that education is not a single discipline, but several disciplines that all influence the principles of education and educational practice. He posits that philosophy is one of the disciplines that informs educational principles and practice (Dearden, 1982, p. 59). Likewise, how teachers view knowledge, which is part of their philosophy of education, also impacts what they do. If teachers view knowledge as simply something that can be measured by a standardized test, they have missed the beauty of true knowledge (Null, 2003, p. 398). A simplistic view of knowledge misses the complexity of education. However, this simplistic view of knowledge and education is many times used to create standards and benchmarks in this age of accountability. Naturally, then, it becomes very difficult to effectively quantify the true nature and complexity of teaching and education. Given the aforementioned complexity of teaching and teachers' beliefs, this becomes quite a task. It begs the question, how can one measure what a teacher does?

Thus, the third reason to examine teacher philosophy is that philosophy lays the foundation for teachers to answer the call for accountability. The difficulty of quantifying a philosophy of education creates a conundrum for education outsiders. Many teachers cannot cite the sources or studies upon which their philosophies of education are based; yet the quantification and validation of teacher beliefs and
practices is the call of governing bodies at all levels. This call for quantification comes in the form of accountability.

Accountability is defined in different ways. Gary Fenstermacher defines accountability as "a relation between persons, wherein person A is engaged in the performance of specific tasks, and is obligated to inform person B of the standard of performance attained in these tasks" (1979, p. 331). In the late 1960s and early 1970s, when the call for educational accountability was at its informal birth, Leon Lessinger referred to accountability as "continuing independent assessment of student achievement; relating levels of achievement to the objectives formally adopted;... and full dissemination of the findings and analyses to parents, teachers, and citizens" (Fenstermacher, 1979, p. 333). Since that time, the call for accountability in education has come in different forms and in different words, but essentially, there is a desire for what is happening within the classroom to be explained in an orderly and logical manner to those outside of the classroom. However, while definitions of accountability include people and standards of performance, they conspicuously leave out trust in the teacher and do not grant responsibility and discretionary authority to the teacher (Fenstermacher, 1979, p. 333).

Regardless of the limitations of definitions of accountability or the legitimacy or illegitimacy of accountability demands (Jos & Tompkins, 2004, p.276), teachers' beliefs/philosophies impact what they do and what they do is being called to
account. Society wants proof of why teachers do what they do. Because what a teacher does is based on his philosophy of education, the proof is in the philosophy. Philosophy defines teacher belief, it helps sort out the complexity of teaching, and it lays the foundation for answering the call for accountability. Action is the result of belief. Therefore, the following roles of teachers as Expectants, Goal Setting Trainers, and Conductors are a reflection of teacher beliefs.

Roles of Teachers in Motivating Students and Fostering a Climate of Motivation

Just as the beliefs of teaching are widely varied, so also are the roles of teachers. The act of teaching itself is complex. Simultaneously interacting in the act of teaching are teacher behaviors, student behaviors, expectations of teacher and student, the classroom setting, the leadership style of the teacher, the lesson, the materials, and so on (Hiebert & Stigler, 2000, p. 7). This paper certainly explores a wide variety of teacher roles, but cannot possibly create an exhaustive review of all the roles of teachers.

Terrell H. Bell said of education, “there are three things to remember about education. The first one is motivation. The second one is motivation. The third one is motivation” (Ames, 1990, p. 409). Three roles, within the context of teachers as motivators, are teachers as Expectants, teachers as Goal Setting Trainers, and teachers as Conductors. There are potentially infinite teacher roles that fall under the umbrella of motivation. These three were chosen to represent the large spectrum of roles. It should be additionally noted that these three and all other teacher roles must be performed simultaneously. Later chapters will show how
applying the roles of coaches as motivators to these roles of teachers as motivators can strengthen the roles of teachers as motivators.

**Teachers as Expectants**

One role of teachers as motivators is teachers as Expectants. Within the framework of the role of teachers as Expectants is theoretical support. The Pygmalion experiment and other research by Robert Rosenthal, as well as the affect/effort theory, provide theoretical support.

**Theoretical support**

Research has indicated that a teacher's expectation of his students impacts students' expectancies about their futures. In a well-known research study called “The Pygmalion experiment,” Rosenthal and Jacobsen set out to study teacher expectancy and it's impact on students (Rosenthal, 1968). Robert Rosenthal said, “If rats became brighter when expected to, then it should not be farfetched to think that children could become brighter when expected by their teachers” (Blanck, 1993, p. 8).

From this and other research, Rosenthal concluded that “teachers who have been led to expect superior performance from some of their pupils tend to treat these ‘special’ persons differently than they treat the remaining less special persons” (Blanck, 1993, p. 10). Rosenthal sums up his own work in teacher expectancy with the following four ways teachers treat special students differently:
1. Climate: Teachers appear to create a warmer socioemotional climate for their special students. This warmth appears to be at least partially communicated by nonverbal cues.

2. Feedback: Teachers appear to give their special students more differentiated feedback, both verbal and nonverbal, as to how these students have been performing.

3. Input: Teachers appear to teach more material and more difficult material to their special students.

4. Output: Teachers appear to give their special students greater opportunities for responding. These opportunities are offered both verbally and nonverbally. (Blanck, 1993, p. 10·11)

The affect/effort theory also supports teachers as Expectants. The affect/effort theory sums up Rosenthal’s four points by stating that the level of expectation a teacher has for a student directly results in a change in affect toward the student and in effort afforded in teaching that student (Blanck, 1993, p. 11).

The affect/effort theory leads naturally into a look at self-fulfilling prophecy. Jussim supports Rosenthal’s claims and asserts in his research of self-fulfilling prophecy that the process of self-fulfilling prophecy in education is complex (Jussim, 1986, p. 429). [See Appendix B]

Teachers as Goal Setting Trainers

Another role of teachers as motivators is teachers as Goal Setting Trainers. Within the framework of the teacher as Goal Setting Trainer is theoretical and
practical support. The examination of goal types provides theoretical support and the discussion of teaching goal setting provides practical support.

Theoretical support

Goal setting on the part of the students is a major component of student learning. Two types of achievement goals, mastery goals and performance goals, exist in education. These mastery and performance goals can have dramatic impact on students' self-regulated learning. Mastery goals can be defined as those in which students have as their focus to learn or master the material. Students with mastery goals tend to use more effective learning strategies, tackle more challenging tasks, and put forth more effort. Performance goals can be defined as those that are focused on the outcome. Students are primarily concerned with the reward of a task rather than the process of the task. Unlike students with mastery goals, students with process goals tend to use less effective learning strategies (Hagen & Weinstein, 2005, p. 43). Achievement goals describe the link between perceived ability and behavior. [See Appendix A] Thus, knowing not only how to set goals, but how to set specific kinds of goals, is of vital importance in education.

Practical support

Goal setting is usually not something that comes naturally to children. Therefore, they must be trained in the art of goal setting (Schunk, 1990, p. 81).

Ghatala, Levin, Pressley, and Goodwin found that young children not only need to be shown how to monitor the outcomes of their recall efforts, but that they also need training in attributing recall outcomes to strategy use and in
using this information to make appropriate decisions (Zimmerman, 1990, p. 9).

There are several different thoughts on how goal setting can be taught. Schunk suggests setting upper and lower limits for students. When students understand both the requirements of the task and their own current capabilities, the limits set by the teacher can be removed (Schunk, 1990, p. 81). Tollefson et al. use games in which students discover their own limits through different trial or practice opportunities (Schunk, 1990, p. 81). Finally, Gaa suggests goal-setting conferences in which students meet one on one with their teacher to examine the relationship between their goals and their skills (Schunk, 1990, p. 82).

Of key importance in goal setting is the conveyance of the value of academic tasks. Ultimately, many times the missing piece in goal setting and the ensuing motivation is the value/interest/appreciation piece (Brophy, 1999, p. 75-76). Without perceived value in a task, there is nothing merited or gained by setting goals.

**Teachers as Conductors**

The final role of teachers as motivators discussed here is the role of teachers as Conductors. This role is best explained through analogy, but it is supported by the theoretical research into self-regulated learning and teacher-regulated learning.

**Analogy support**

In music, the leader of an orchestra is a conductor. The role of a conductor is complex and multifaceted. He must equip and empower all the unique members of
the orchestra in such a way that beautiful music will resound from the orchestra. Ultimately, the conductor is responsible for the sound of the orchestra, but the reality is, he can’t play all of the instruments at the same time to achieve the desired sound. He has to let the musicians play the music. Sometimes the conductor is regulating the sound, but other times he gives the musicians creative license, within the bounds of the music, to regulate the sound. It is the conductor’s job to know when it is best to regulate the sound himself and when it is best to let the musicians regulate the sound.

Theoretical support

Different theories of learning, such as self-regulated learning and teacher-regulated learning, support the role of teacher as Conductor. In the classroom, the teacher is the conductor. Ultimately, the teacher is responsible for what comes out of the classroom, but within his role as conductor, the teacher will find himself using different levels of regulation. Sometimes the teacher regulates the learning and sometimes the student regulates his own learning. On the one end of the continuum is student-regulated learning. This simply refers to a student’s cognitive, affective, and metacognitive processes that are prompted by the student himself and regulated through different activities and strategies employed by the student (Vermunt & Verloop, 1999, p. 258-264). On the other end of the continuum is teacher-regulated learning. In this construct, the teacher prompts the cognitive, affective, and metacognitive processes of the student. This may happen directly from the teacher, or it may happen as a result of the teacher’s activities or lessons
in the course of teaching (Vermunt & Verloop, 1999, p. 264-266). In addition to the two sides of the continuum, teacher-regulation and student-regulation can also interplay. "Congruence occurs when students' learning strategies and teachers' teaching strategies are compatible; friction occurs when this is not the case" (Vermunt & Verloop, 1999, p. 270; see also Lohman, 1986). However, regardless of whether the learning is self-regulated or teacher-regulated, the teacher is the guide for determining the ideal learning style for a particular situation. As teachers model determining when each learning style is appropriate, students will begin to learn when self-regulated learning is ideal and they will engage in self-regulated learning (Weinert & Kluwe, 1987, p. 102). It should be noted that neither teacher-regulated learning nor student-regulated learning should be ranked in the context of good or bad. Both types of learning serve a purpose and at times they occur simultaneously.

Challenges in the Classroom

While roles may aid in the problem of defining what teachers do, those roles certainly do not remove challenges in the classroom faced by teachers. Two of these challenges faced by teachers are the nature of the job of teaching and the nature of the environment in which teaching occurs. These challenges certainly must be acknowledged as teachers are called to be accountable by society.

One challenge faced by teachers is the nature of the job of teaching. One difficulty of teaching that is not found in many other professions is the reality that teachers exist to impact their students in such a way that the students will become
increasingly less dependent upon them. "Since the founding of the republic, American educational leaders have stressed the importance of individuals assuming personal responsibility and control for their own acquisition of knowledge and skill" (Zimmerman, 1990, p.3). Gardner said the goal of the education system is to teach students to take ownership of and responsibility for their own learning (1963, p.21). The ultimate goal of a teacher is giving students the tools, skills, and resources not only to learn, but also to seek out new learning and new information that will further perpetuate their learning (Butler & Winne, 1995, p. 275).

Another challenge faced by teachers is the nature of the environment in which teaching occurs. Environment refers not to the physical locale, but to the overall atmosphere both in and out of the classroom and how those two environments interact. Teachers must respond not only to the call for accountability with academic data, but at the same time they need to deal with all the other aspects of the classroom that certainly impact the academic data. There is certainly the academic side of learning, but simultaneously there is a social side of learning. The academic side of learning is that which comes from inside the classroom: the lesson. The social side of learning is that which comes from the student: his values and expectations of his learning and behavior (Green, 2002, p. 989). This social side of learning, the attitudes, behaviors, and expectations of the student, is difficult to quantify, but it may have the greatest amount of impact on student learning. Ames contends,
In considering approaches to motivation enhancement, it is important to note that motivation is too often equated with quantitative changes in behavior (e.g., higher achievement, more time on task) rather than qualitative changes in the ways students view themselves in relation to the task, engage in the process of learning, and then respond to the learning activities and situation. (Ames, 1992, p. 268).

In the age of accountability, there is at times a disconnect between the calls for accountability and the feasibility of answering that call. One major area of concern is the lack of room for individual student differences amidst the overarching call for accountability (Green, 2002, p. 999). Likewise, while the teacher is held accountable for everything in the classroom, he cannot control aspects of teaching outside his control, such as what the students bring with them, as far as prior experience, attitudes, and beliefs, into the classroom. As noted earlier by Hiebert and Stigler, teaching is a complex situation. “When the system runs smoothly, these [elements] all reinforce each other and move the system toward shared goals” (2000, p. 7). The challenge of teaching is getting every element of education to balance and flow together in such a way to accurately answer the call for accountability.

Summary

This chapter addressed the roles of teachers as motivators. Within that discussion was addressed the philosophy of teaching, three roles of teachers as
motivators, and an overview of unique challenges in the classroom faced by teachers.

A discussion of teacher philosophy laid the foundation for a discussion of the roles of teachers as motivators. It was highlighted that philosophy provides three elements that inform teacher roles: philosophy defines what teachers believe, sorts out the complexity of teaching, and lays the foundation for answering the call for accountability.

Three roles that emphasize the wide and varied strengths of teachers are teachers as Expectants, teachers as Goal Setting Trainers, and teachers as Conductors. As Expectants, teachers must recognize that their expectations of their students have great impact on expectations students have for themselves. As Goal Setting Trainers, teachers help students to know themselves, their strengths and weaknesses, and how to improve their strengths and build on and improve their weaknesses. Finally, as Conductors, teachers must balance student-regulated learning and teacher-regulated learning in such a way that students are optimally empowered to learn. These and other roles of teachers are many times focused on building skills in students that are essential for learning and life, but not necessarily considered directly quantifiable.

Though these roles highlight the strengths, and ultimately the responsibilities teachers have, they do not negate the challenges teachers face in the classroom. Two of these challenges are the nature of the job and the nature of the environment. The nature of the job of teaching is unique because teachers exist to
make their students less and less reliant upon them. This issue is not common in other professions. The nature of the environment is also unique in that the call for accountability is for that which happens in the classroom, but the teacher also must deal with outside factors that impact classroom factors. Therefore, although the teacher has no control over outside factors that impact his classroom, he is still held accountable for them. Thus is the accountability conundrum.

The next chapter examines how the roles of coaches as motivators can inform and strengthen the roles of teachers as motivators. Especially in this age of accountability, allowing the visible nature of coaching to strengthen the often-misunderstood nature of teaching could be a step toward gaining back society's confidence in teachers.
Chapter 4: Coaches and Teachers

Overview

This paper has examined the roles of coaches as motivators and the roles of teachers as motivators. As a prelude to each discussion of roles, philosophy was established as an essential informant for roles. Examined within the framework of coaches as motivators were three roles: coaches as Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers. Examined within the framework of teachers as motivators were three roles: teachers as Expectants, Goal Setting Trainers, and Conductors. These roles were chosen to emphasize areas of strength for coaches and teachers.

The previous discussion of the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators was framed by the overarching idea that teachers must answer the call of accountability. It was suggested that because of their public nature, the roles of coaches as motivators could perhaps inform the roles of teachers as motivators in such a way as to aid teachers in answering the call for accountability.

This chapter will discuss how the roles of coaches as motivators can inform the roles of teachers as motivators to create a coach-infused classroom. Specifically, the discussion will reveal how Expectants can become Communicators, how Goal Setting Trainers can become Mental Skills Trainers, and how Conductors can become Whole-person Nurturers. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of such postulations due to the differences in coaching and teaching.
The discussions in this chapter will lead to strategies and suggestions in chapter 5 for creating a more coach-infused classroom.

The Coach-infused Classroom

The transformation of teachers from Expectants, Goal Setting Trainers, and Conductors to Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers results in a coach-infused classroom. A coach-infused classroom has several key attributes. First, teaching and feedback are information/instruction based, second, the environment is supportive, third, there is intentional structure in the classroom and in lessons, and fourth, each student is known as an individual.

A coach-infused classroom would appear to operate much like one of Coach Wooden's practices. The teaching is information/instruction based and thus the feedback is information/instruction based. The feedback is direct and informs the student of specific deficiency in implementation of skills being taught, without the confusion of non-informative feedback such as fluff-praise. Praise also reflects the instruction and serves to inform that a skill is learned or being learned correctly.

The information-based nature of instruction and feedback does not create an unsupportive environment. Indeed, the environment nurtures not self-esteem, but the social, psychological, and emotional aspects of a student, which in turn become the foundation for self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, when dependent upon someone else, is not self-efficacy at all, it is self-esteem and can be destroyed by the absence of the teacher or coach. In this proposed model, the teacher teaches skills that build the
students on all levels, but do not make them dependent upon the teacher for lifelong growth.

In this model there is intentional structure in the classroom and in the lessons. Basic skills are emphasized and repetition of those skills occurs until they are automatic is seen as a means to allow students to grow and achieve to their full potential. In athletics, regardless of the skill level of the athlete, fundamentals are practiced. This is done so the skills become so automatic the brain does not even have to engage in thinking about those skills. This automaticity allows the brain to focus on more complex activities. The repetition of skills forms a solid foundation from which to succeed.

Finally, each student is known by the teacher as an individual with individual abilities, individual needs, and individual potential. Within this framework there is freedom for both teachers and students to have choices and to be held tangibly accountable for those choices. The following discussion first seeks to acknowledge connections between the roles of coaches and the roles of teachers. Following that acknowledgement is a specific look at how the previously discussed roles of coaches as motivators can inform the roles of teachers as motivators.

The roles of coaches and teachers have a high degree of relation. Staffo said of the differences between coaches and teachers, "Whether working with students in the class setting or on the practice field/court, the objectives and goals, depending upon the situation, should only differ in degree" (Drewe, 2000, p. 81). While the differences in roles may only be slight, the implications for the differences are great.
It is the implications of these differences that have driven this paper. What about the roles of coaches motivates athletes? Could what coaches have to offer motivate all students? (Turman, 2003, p. 83).

This paper takes those questions further by asking, "which coaching behaviors can enhance the practice of teachers?" "In most societies education is constantly being asked to do more and more things, to higher and higher standards, with greater accountability and finite (if not diminishing) resources" (Davies, 1999, p. 108). In their book, Teachers as Classroom Coaches, Stix and Hrbek (2006) acknowledge that the world of coaching is doing something that could benefit the world of education. They contend that just as coaches prepare their athletes to perform in a very public arena, students need to be prepared to perform in the public arena of life (Stix & Hrebek, 2006, p. 2-3). The goal of this paper is to bond the worlds of coaching and teaching in such a way as to strengthen what teachers do. The key is for teachers to bridge the gap between motivation and achievement in ways that society understands.

Motivation is not synonymous with achievement, and student motivation cannot necessarily be inferred by looking at achievement test scores.... Effective schools and effective teachers are those who develop goals, beliefs, and attitudes in students that will sustain a long-term involvement and that will contribute to quality involvement in learning.... We not only want students to achieve, we want them to value the process of learning and improvement of their skills, we want them to willingly put forth the
necessary effort to develop and apply their skills and knowledge, and we want them to develop long-term commitment to learning. (Ames, 1990, p. 410)

To an education insider, all the roles of teaching are given to accountability, though sometimes only after being manifested in several different ways. However, it is those outside of education who are the accountability holders. The key is to take an intangible role and make it a tangible role. The public accountability piece of coaching adds the tangibility needed to satisfy the public’s call for accountability.

Acknowledging the general connection between coach roles and teacher roles now leads to the specific discussion of how the roles of coaches as motivators (Communicator, Mental Skills Trainer, and Whole-person Nurturer) can inform the roles of teachers as motivators (Expectant, Goal Setting Trainer, Conductor). The infusion of coach roles into teacher roles will be further extrapolated in chapter 5.

Expectant to Communicator

An expectation is certainly powerful. As with the other analyzed teacher roles, research supports expectancy as an essential teacher role. As an Expectant, the level of expectation a teacher has for a student directly results in a change in affect toward the student and in effort afforded in teaching that student (Blanck, 1993, p. 11). Yet, expectancy operates primarily at the subconscious level and only the result of expectancy is seen. The piece missing from expectancy is communication. Communication takes expectancy from the subconscious and makes it tangible and thus accountable. As a Communicator, a teacher would still
have the Expectant piece, but those expectations would be made public through a variety of means, including, but not limited to, information-based instruction and feedback.

**Goal Setting Trainer to Mental Skills Trainer**

A goal in and of itself does nothing. The ability to set goals is certainly vital, but it is the implementation of those goals that receives accountability. As a Goal Setting Trainer, a teacher can train a student to set goals with a variety of methods. Previous discussion suggested setting upper and lower limits for a student, using games to help children discover their own limits, and conferencing with students to examine the relationship between goals and skills (Schunk, 1990, p. 81-82). A mental skills trainer takes goal setting further by making the goal setting skills applicable to all areas of life, not just the classroom or a specific assignment. Mental skills trainers offer tangible strategies that make goal implementation not just possible, but possible to a high degree of quality.

**Conductor to Whole-person nurturer**

A Conductor works to balance and regulate learning. A Conductor bridges the tenuous gap between student-regulated learning and teacher regulated learning. A Whole-person nurturer does not just bridge the gap between student-regulated learning and teacher-regulated learning. A Whole-person Nurturer takes conducting to the accountability level by adding tangible elements such as providing rationales for methods and activities as well as acknowledging how the students feel about said activities.
Limitations

With any proposal or postulation, there are limitations. This paper has proposed coach-infused teacher roles. However, there are certain elements of the athletic environment that are not embodied in the classroom environment and likewise there are certain elements of the classroom environment that are not embodied in the athletic environment. Three limitations are differences in societal control or expectation, the human element of education, and differences in groups.

One limitation of the coach-infused teacher role is differences in societal control or expectation for teachers and coaches. The nature of athletics lends itself to more acceptance on the part of society because society is naturally more involved in athletics than it is in the classroom. Athletics involves alumni, students, parents, booster groups, and the public at large. It brings people together on common ground that they understand. (Figone, 1994, p. 31) While this coming together may foster more analysis from the public, it also allows the public to be more informed in their analysis because they are involved in the athletic process at a deeper level. This involvement and subsequent scrutiny allows the public to understand what coaches are doing to a greater degree than they understand what teachers do.

A second limitation of the coach-infused teacher role is the human element of athletics and teaching. While coaching can provide suggestions and strategies for implementation in the classroom, those strategies need to be applied by the students. Ultimately, the student has to decide if effort is linked to success,
whether the outcome is worth the effort, and finally if the student is willing to put forth the needed effort to achieve the success (Ames, 1990, p. 414).

A third limitation could include differences in the groups with which teachers and coaches work. There are differences in sizes of groups that coaches and teachers work with, homogeneity of group members in ability and motivation for participation, the amount of contact time, and amount of competition (Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996, p. 472-474).

Summary

This chapter proposed a viable vision of a coaching-role infused classroom by showing how the many times intangible roles of teaching can become tangible by integrating them with the tangible roles of coaching. Accountability is achieved when an Expectant becomes a Communicator, a Goal Setting Trainer becomes a Mental Skills Trainer, and a Conductor becomes a Whole-person Nurturer. This integration of teacher roles with the tangible nature of coaching roles can serve to fill the accountability gaps in education.

This chapter also acknowledged three limitations to this proposal: differences in societal control or expectation for teachers and coaches, the human element of education, and differences in groups with which teachers and coaches work.

The following chapter will propose practical strategies for teachers to make their classrooms more coach-infused. It will suggest practical ways of transforming teachers from Expectants, Goal Setting Trainers, and Conductors to Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers.
Chapter 5: The Coach-infused Classroom

Overview

This paper has examined the roles of coaches as motivators and the roles of teachers as motivators. Specifically examined were coaches as Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person nurturers, and teachers as Expectants, Goal Setting Trainers, and Conductors.

As seen in chapter four, the intangible roles of teachers can be enhanced by infusing them with tangible roles of coaches, thus creating a coach-infused classroom. This examination of roles within the framework of teachers answering society's call for accountability led to a discussion of how the roles of coaches as motivators can inform the roles of teachers as motivators. This chapter gives practical application to the previously addressed proposals and postulations. Practical application will be offered as to the implementation of the roles of coaches as motivators into the roles of teachers as motivators and thus the transformation of teachers. These recommendations certainly do not present an exhaustive look at teaching or teaching climate, but provide a framework for further exploration.

Considerations and Recommendations

The coach-infused classroom happens when the roles of coaches as motivators strengthen the roles of teachers as motivators. This paper now offers practical strategies for teachers to transform their classrooms into coach-infused classrooms. This list of strategies is certainly not exhaustive, but will serve to start a conversation of strategies to make teacher roles more accountable from society's
perspective. In order to have coach-infused teaching and a coach-infused climate, teachers need to consider what they are teaching, where they are teaching, and how they are teaching. Many teachers will be encouraged to find that the following recommendations are already a part of their classrooms. Other teachers will be encouraged that there are practical ways to answer society's call for accountability. Just as this paper discussed coaches as Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers, it now discusses teachers as Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers.

Teacher as Communicators

When teachers move from being Expectants to being Communicators, their classrooms become more coach-infused. A coach-infused classroom has information-based instruction and feedback. The following strategies seek to equip teachers to answer society's call for accountability.

Information-based instruction

Knute Rockne was used earlier as an exemplar communicator. However, his method of communicating is a very practical way to ensure coach-infused content. Coach Rockne's teaching method has five levels, each occurring successively. Level one is a vivid description of a skill. Level two is a demonstration of the skill by the teacher. Level three is an opportunity to practice with low-risk. Level four is constructive feedback on mistakes or successes. After mistakes are overcome, level five is practice for perfection. Level five can and should be repeated as often as possible, even as other skills are added.
A vital part of the Rockne method of teaching is level five—practice for perfection. In earlier discussions of Coach John Wooden, it was noted that he highly valued automaticity as well. Concepts and skills should not be repeated for the sake of repetition, but for the sake of mastery. As noted earlier in the case study of Coach Wooden, he felt repetition builds a foundation for creativity, imagination, and initiative. Repetition does not bind students; it gives them master skills that they can always rely upon, both in the present, but especially as they continue to grow as life-long learners (Nater & Gallimore, 2006, p. 99, 101).

Teachers should take care to plan lessons with each step of the Rockne method accounted for, as all are vital for successfully implementing information-based instruction. Opponents of this method may claim it is too teacher-centered and is not discovery learning or student-centered. The Rockne teaching method would contend that the discovery learning is structured and occurs in levels three, four, and five. Students will still discover and take ownership of skills, but it will be quantifiable as to when that discovery and ownership takes place. In addition, teachers need to provide opportunities for repeated practice of skills that are fundamental to a student's success in that context. Repetition of a skill can provide encouragement for students as they can see themselves succeed. It can also provide informal assessment opportunities for teachers because they know if their students have mastered a concept.

Teachers can apply the Knute Rockne method in virtually any setting. In a chemistry classroom, for example, at level one the teacher describes in vivid detail
the properties of different chemicals, how the chemicals are used in real life, and the way the chemicals interact with one another. At level two, the teacher demonstrates the proper way to use the chemicals and shows the students how the chemicals react when they are combined. At level three, the students go to their labs and try to replicate what the teacher did to achieve a proper chemical reaction, perhaps even with a handout to guide them through the process. The teacher is walking around the labs, helping the students if they make mistakes and helping them see what they need to do differently next time. If time and resources allow, the chemical reaction can be attempted again, but otherwise students should record the steps of what they just did and the subsequent reaction on paper so that they can practice or rehearse the chemical reaction without actually having to do the reaction.

Information-based feedback

Feedback might appear to fit better under communication, however, a coach-infused classroom views feedback as just as much of a part of content as the formal curriculum. Feedback is part of the teaching process. Feedback can come in two forms, evaluations or solutions.

An evaluation provides no information for the improvement of a student. Evaluations are statements such as “good job.” Good job will promote self-esteem. A solution provides information for the students' learning. Solutions are statements such as “the topic sentence it clearly stated the purpose of the paper” or “the topic sentence led the reader in a direction the paper did not go.” Solution feedback tells
the student exactly where he stands and, if necessary, what needs work. Thus, solution feedback promotes self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is stronger than self-esteem because it impacts how a student perceives his abilities to learn and perform, rather than just feelings and emotions about himself (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008, p. 379). If teachers promote self-efficacy, the success of learning will then promote further learning and skills rather than simply an emotional tie to an event.

Teachers can give solution feedback verbally or visually through comments. Another way to give solution feedback is through a well-written rubric. A well-written rubric communicates expectations upon the onset of an assignment or activity, but it can also serve as specific feedback as to the actual quality of the student's performance on that assignment or activity.

**Teachers as Mental Skills Trainers**

When teachers move from being Goal Setting Trainers to being Mental skills trainers, their classrooms become more coach-infused. A coach-infused classroom focuses on the child as an individual and supports and develops the whole child. One strategy for having a coach-infused climate is to engage the students in mental skills training. These skills focus on the individual needs of the students and aim to develop the whole child not only for their current learning, but also for life-long learning.

**Mental skills training**

The key element of mental skills training is for students to learn about their own individual mental processes and be able to use those mental processes
effectively in everyday life. Earlier discussion in chapter 2 addressed various specifics of mental skills training, but current discussion will apply mental skills training to the classroom. Mike Voight underscores six methods of training mental skills: imagery, goal setting, preperformance routines, concentration training, intensity regulation, and confidence enhancement (Voight, 2005, p. 39). In the following discussion, each mental skill will be addressed and an example will be offered about how each mental skill can be used in the classroom. These skills should be taught so students can implement them on their own.

Imagery can be used in preparation for giving speeches. Students will picture in vivid detail the location in which the speech will be given. They will then picture their audience: their classmates and teacher. Then they will picture themselves delivering their speech perfectly. If a student is good at using imagery, he can imagine making a mistake in the speech and how he will recover from the mistake. While imagery is not a substitute for actual practice of the speech, it will allow the student more practice time and richer practice time than just rehearsing the speech.

Goal setting is a very tangible way to enhance student learning and help them become better learners. SMART goals are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-based. SMART goals can be set before beginning a project. The teacher can provide the student with a SMART goal form upon which the student can write their goals. The form can serve as a form of accountability and self-monitoring for the student throughout the project.
Preperformance routines can help a student prepare for a test. Prior to a test situation, a teacher can help students think about how they were feeling physically and emotionally, what they were thinking and doing, what they were saying to themselves, and how they dealt with distractions before their best and worst performances. From that, the student can identify what he needs to do to have a best performance every time. The student can then implement that preperformance strategy on game day/test day.

Concentration is an issue for all students at some point. Concentration training can help a student keep their attention focused during a class lecture. Teachers should teach their students to look for specific cues during a lecture, such as tone of the teacher’s voice, repetition of words or phrases, visual highlights (outlines, overheads, powerpoints). Teachers then instruct the students when to focus on visual cues and when to focus on what the teacher is saying. Students will be able to then self-monitor their attention level based on what is happening in the classroom. During the attention training, as teachers are lecturing they will want to pause to point out different cues so that the students will know what the cues are in context. Teachers can pose questions such as, “Did you see how I repeated that phrase? That meant it was important.”

Intensity regulation can help students perform at their highest level during deskwork. However, students must be trained to regulate their own intensity. Teachers can train students by asking questions. How do you feel during productive deskwork? Unproductive deskwork? What are your behaviors during
productive and unproductive deskwork? What do you think about before deskwork? Are you worried about anything? From there, students can learn to recognize when they are too intense and thus unproductive or not intense enough and unproductive. Students will find their deskwork “zone.”

Confidence enhancement, or self-talk, can be useful during a lab situation. Teachers can train their students to identify their positive and damaging self-talk. Then, once they can identify their self-talk, they can extinguish damaging self-talk and promote positive self-talk. A lab situation is many times a very open, self-directed situation. Being able to use positive self-talk can enhance student confidence and perseverance.

Teachers as Whole-person Nurturers

When teachers move from being Conductors to being Whole-person Nurturers, their classrooms become more coach-infused. A coach-infused classroom places an emphasis on providing rationales for tasks and acknowledging student feelings.

Providing rationales for tasks can enhance task value and thus motivation for students. Students frequently ask why they have to do a task. Teachers can provide rationales, either research-based or practically based, in the syllabus. These rationales can also be given orally or in written form before the beginning of an activity.

Acknowledging student feelings can be very motivating for students. Simply asking for feedback or inquiring into their thought processes conveys that students
are valued. A teacher can give a short survey after a unit to receive student feedback. A teacher can leave a space for comments and feedback at the end of a test. While this is informal, it helps the students know that who they are as people matters. The final step of that is then acknowledging the feedback the students give. If the teachers ask for feedback on the difficulty of a test and there is much feedback that the test was too difficult, they can post a graph of the spread of scores, and then have a brief conversation with the students as a group to help them see if their thoughts matched their actions. The teacher can also ask questions about how much they prepared and if that was a contributing factor. This not only shows students they matter, it also helps train them to be able to self-monitor.

Summary and Recommendations for the Future of Teaching Research

Chapter 5 provided practical applications for teachers to transform from Expectants, Goal Setting Trainers, and Conductors to Communicators, Mental Skills Trainers, and Whole-person Nurturers, thus creating a coach-infused classroom. It was suggested that a coach-infused classroom has information-based instruction and feedback, focuses on the child as an individual, supports and develops the whole child, provides rationales for tasks, and acknowledges student feelings. All of these attributes of a coach-infused classroom can be practically and visibly applied in the classroom so as to answer society’s call for accountability.

As a whole, this paper has examined the roles of coaches and teachers as motivators and suggested that infusing the roles of coaches with those of teachers
will aid teachers in answering the ever-prevailing call for accountability in the classroom. Answering this call for accountability is vital for teachers. (Fullan, 1993, p. 17) The age of accountability is gaining momentum. Teachers must adapt their practice to meet and exceed this call for accountability. This paper has suggested how the roles of coaches as motivators, when infused into the roles of teachers as motivators, can answer the public's call for accountability.

As the age of accountability gains momentum, the future holds great potential for research into how the roles of coaches can inform the roles of teachers when it comes to motivating students and fostering a climate of motivation. Coach Wooden and Coach Rockne saw success in their information-based teaching and feedback. A more intensive study into information-based teaching and feedback could yield vital results and implications for teaching practice. Likewise, a more in-depth study and analysis of the practice of repetitive skill study in the classroom could also suggest essential changes in the classroom. Finally, there is room for study on the implications of emphasis on the student as an individual, both in classrooms and also in teacher education.
Table 4.1. Achievement Goals and Behavioral Patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Goal</th>
<th>Perceived Ability (Self-Efficacy)</th>
<th>Behavioral Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Mastery (seeks challenging tasks, uses effective strategies, has high persistence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Helpless (avoids challenging tasks, uses less effective strategies, has lower persistence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mastery</td>
<td>High or low</td>
<td>Mastery (seeks challenging tasks, uses effective strategies, has high persistence)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Dweck, 1980, p. 1041.

(Pintrich, 1995, p. 47)
Appendix B

Figure 1. Self-fulfilling prophecies.

(Justiss, 1986, p. 430)
Appendix C

Table 1. How to Improve Your Use of Imagery

1. Select a quiet place where you can relax without disturbance.
2. Select a variety of scenes (your bedroom, favorite class, scenes of teammates playing) and develop them with rich detail, including colors, sounds, smells, and feelings if possible.
3. Select sport-specific images and include as much detail as possible.
4. Practice visualizing people (teammates, fans, parents) in your scenes.
5. Imagine being in a specific sport situation (either in the past or in a future event); bring in as much detail as possible. Feel yourself experiencing success in these scenes.
6. When you get proficient at your visualization, you can try to replay negative events and edit them the way you really wanted them to turn out. Being able to fix these negative events may help to prevent their repetition and also help to increase confidence and decreasing anxiety about these specific sport situations.
7. It is highly recommended that you visually practice specific sport skills and game-related situations (especially those that may be giving you some problems) as often as possible, even every day.

(Voight, 2005, p. 39)
Appendix D

Table 2. Setting SMART Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>Specific: not “do my best” goals, but specific aspects that need improvement (action goals)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Measurable: able to evaluate whether the goal was achieved (numbers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Achievable: within the player’s or team’s capabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Realistic yet challenging goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Time-based: assign a set target date when the goal will be achieved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Voight, 2005, p. 40)
## Appendix E

### Table 3. Determining Differences Between Best and Worst Performances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Best Performance</th>
<th>Worst Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How did you feel physically?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How did you feel emotionally?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What were you thinking?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What were your behaviors?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What were you saying to yourself?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What were the distractions?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How did you deal with distractions?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Voight, 2005, p. 41)
Appendix F

Figure 1. Attentional-Focus Model Using Volleyball Example

- **Broad External**: focus on all important cues
  - Assess the situation
  - Example: Hitters looking for where the block will be on the next serve.

- **Broad Internal**: focus on determining strategy
  - Analyze what to do with next shot (based on what worked or did not work last time)
  - Example: Setter deciding which player to set

- **Narrow External**: narrow focus to a couple of key external cues
  - Execute the shot
  - Example: Libero digging a jump serve

- **Narrow Internal**: narrow focus on a couple of thoughts or cues
  - Anticipation mental imagery of the execution of the next shot
  - Example: Mentally visualizing your kill swing down the line

(Voight, 2005, p. 42)
Appendix G

Table 4. Symptoms of Overintensity and Underintensity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overintensity</th>
<th>Underintensity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical = muscle tension; shortened breathing; excessive sweating; nausea; cold extremities; increase in blood pressure and heart rate</td>
<td>Physical = being lethargic; low levels of heart rate (resting heart rate); low energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral = increase in pace during competition; bracing muscles; increase in superstitious behaviors; quickly agitated; loss of coordination; choke in performance or evaluative situations</td>
<td>Behavioral = decrease in “sharpness” during play; looking “slow” and being a “step-too-late;” poor performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental = negative self-talk and thoughts; irrational thinking; overnarrowing of concentration; inability to let go of mistakes; feeling of uncontrollability</td>
<td>Mental = react more to distractions; loss of motivation to give it your all; difficulty narrowing your focus to the important details of your game and your opponents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional = feeling of fear of making mistakes and/or embarrassment</td>
<td>Emotional = lack of emotional investment; low levels of commitment to the task, game plan, and specific roles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Physical-Performance Strategies

- Release tension by a physical warmup routine.
- Practice tension-relaxation cycles whereby you can feel the difference between relaxation and tension in a particular muscle group. Players can try this tension-relaxation with any muscle group that they feel harbors anxiety and tension. The more aware players are of the difference, the quicker they can respond (to release the tension) in the heat of competition.
- Breathe properly. When some players are extremely anxious or tense, they may have shortened, irregular breathing patterns. Without adequate oxygen, some will become fatigued because the system (lungs, muscles) does not work as efficiently as needed. It becomes very important that athletes replenish their oxygen supply, simply by getting full breaths.
- Promote familiarity via game simulations.
- Help players to keep errors in proper perspective.
- Avoid putting an emphasis on outcome (winning, records, “must-win” situations).
- Sometimes “faking it until you make it” is a good strategy. In situations where players may be quite nervous (e.g., getting the ball on championship point), acting cool, calm, and composed can get translated (via thoughts, brain impulses, muscles) into “everything is all right,” helping athletes to simply let go of conscious thought and just “go for it!”

Mental Strategies

- Stop focusing on debilitating thoughts and self-talk. Instead, engage in conversations with teammates, talk and think about things other than the stressor.
- Allow for individual pregame time. Players differ in how they get themselves ready.
- Steer clear of telling athletes during games to “relax.” If they do not know how to relax, this statement can only hurt rather than help.
- Reframe the situation. One of the first things athletes can do to alleviate threatening thoughts (anxiety) is to perceive the impending situation as nonthreatening. Instead of portraying the upcoming event as an extremely nerve-racking situation, the event can be presented as a challenge.

Table 5. Physical and Mental Strategies to Combat Overintensity

Table 6. Physical and Mental Strategies to Combat Underintensity

Physical Strategies

- Intense activity is one of the most effective physical strategies to employ when the team is lethargic and lacking energy.
- Physical activity that is sport-specific is desirable, but in the off-season, cross-training can be very beneficial.
- Listening to upbeat music or watching energizing videos can help.
- “Fake it until you make it” can help. Acting as if there is total investment in the upcoming game will help players get more “into it.”

Mental Strategies

- Use energizing mental imagery, especially past performance accomplishments.
- Use preperformance routines designed to improve energization and readiness.

(Voight, 2005, p. 43-44)
Table 7. Most Common Negative Thoughts and Self-Talk

1. Worrying over future events:
   • “What if...I shank this serve...lose this match.” When the focus is not on the present play, but on a future beyond our control, our performance will suffer.
   • Our attentional capacities are limited, so if most of it is focused on the future, worrying over what may happen, we will have little attention for the present performance (most times what we worry about will actually happen, if we play this way).

2. Fretting over making mistakes:
   • Similar to playing in the future, fretting over mistakes is playing in the past. One cannot go back to change what happened. We can only learn from it (hopefully) and move on.
   • Since our attentional capacities are limited, we want to use them solely to play in the present. Using a refocusing routine after making a mistake will help get past replaying the mistake over and over again.

3. Worrying over things we have no control over:
   • Almost everyone worries about things out of their control (weather, traffic, long lines in restaurants). Athletes do the same thing in terms of worrying about not making mistakes (everyone makes mistakes) and worrying about opponents’ play.
   • Realizing what you are worrying about and whether you have control over it is a good place to start. If you realize that you can’t control it, let it go and focus on things that you can control.

4. Focusing too much on winning:
   • Most athletes compete to win; but when it becomes the sole reason for playing, you are setting yourself up for failure. Realize that winning is a process, and that if you don’t work on the process of playing well, winning will not happen (unless you get lucky or play against a lesser opponent).
   • Athletes should be thinking of ways to play better and ways to help their team win rather than just on winning the game. Also, opponents have a lot to do with whether you win or not. Winning is somewhat of an uncontrollable. You can only do so much in a team sport.

5. Fretting over being perfect:
   • Expecting perfection is another uncontrollable. No one can be perfect, because no one is that good and so much is beyond our control (opponents’ play, strategies, officials’ calls).
   • A good slogan is that “striving to be perfect is a sign of a true competitor, but expecting to be perfect is a sign of inappropriate & irrational thinking.”

(Voight, 2005, p. 45)
Appendix H

![Diagram](image)

**Fig. 1.** The motivational model of the coach-athlete relationship.

(Mageau & Vallerand, 2003, p. 884)
Appendix I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coding Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Percent of total utterances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructions</td>
<td>What to do, how to do it</td>
<td>50.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hustles</td>
<td>Activate or intensify previous instructed behavior</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modeling-positive</td>
<td>Demonstration of how to perform</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modeling-negative</td>
<td>Demonstration of how not to perform</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praises</td>
<td>Compliments</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reproofs*</td>
<td>Expressions of displeasure</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonverbal reward</td>
<td>Smiles, pats, etc.</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonverbal punishment</td>
<td>Scowls, despairing gestures, temporary removal of</td>
<td>trace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>player from scrimmangle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A “Wooden” (Reproof/reinstruct)**</td>
<td>Combination category: Scold, modeling-positive,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>followed by modeling-negative (“How many times do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have to tell you to get your hands up for a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rebound?”), ending with a modeling-positive</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Anything not above</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un-codable</td>
<td>Could not be seen or heard</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* In the original, the term “scolds” was used. We have substituted “reproofs” in deference to Coach Wooden’s preference.

** In the editing process at Psychology Today, the original description of a Wooden was revised from a 3-part to a 2-part sequence. See the next section for the wording in the original manuscript describing the sequence of behavior that was actually coded. The major findings of our coding scheme can be summarized as follows: 75% of all utterances carried information, much of which was repetitive (instructions, hustles, modeling, & Woodens). Minimal use of praises and reproofs.

(Gallimore & Tharp, 2004, p. 122)
Appendix J

Figure 1
The Self-Determination Continuum Showing Types of Motivation With Their Regulatory Styles, Loci of Causality, and Corresponding Processes

(Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72)
Appendix K

Figure 11.1 Cognitive and motivational functions of imagery.

(Weinberg & Gould, 2003, p. 287)
References


