MOTIVATORS FOR NCAA DIVISION I BASKETBALL COACHES

by

Vincent J. Thibodeau Jr.
A Thesis
Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty
of
George Mason University
in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree
of
Master of Science
Sport and Recreation Studies

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George Mason University
Fairfax, VA
Motivators for NCAA Division I Basketball Coaches

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science at George Mason University

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ABSTRACT

MOTIVATORS FOR NCAA DIVISION I BASKETBALL COACHES

Vincent J. Thibodeau Jr., M.S.

George Mason University, 2015

Thesis Director: Dr. Robert Baker

Most of the motivational research in sport focuses on motivational techniques for coaches in regard to working with athletes or what motivates athletes. The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of the motivators for NCAA Division I basketball coaches. A qualitative case study was used to identify motivators that NCAA Division I basketball coaches believed best described what motivated them. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from a purposeful sample of NCAA Division I coaches. Using the information gathered, responses were thematically coded to identify motivators for coaches.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Motivation has been an area of interest for centuries, even as far back as Aristotle (Cofer & Petri, 2014). While it might not have been understood the same way then as it is now, it has affected those before us just the same. Every day millions of individuals try to find some type of personal motivation or ways to motivate others. College basketball coaches are a prime example.

A great deal of research has been completed to help understand and enhance motivation (Tenenbaum & Eklund, 2007). Information gathered from this research can help coaches understand how to motivate their athletes. For example, coaches want to know how to “energize, direct, and regulate achievement behavior” (Tenenbaum & Eklund, 2007, p. 3). Achievement behavior is the interaction between a situation and an individual’s motivational response to successfully overcome that situation. Again, this type of information is of great value to coaches because it gives them insight on how to motivate athletes they work with each and every day. On the other hand, little to no research is available to address what specifically motivates these coaches to want to do what they do; therefore, the goal of this research is to gain a better understanding of the motivators that affect National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I basketball coaches.
Between 2010-2015, the sports industry is “projected to grow by $143.3 Billion” (Belzer, 2014), and millions of dollars are spent every year on NCAA basketball. According to USA Today’s website, the top 5 highest paid basketball coaches are roughly paid a combined $30 millions dollars (Berkowitz, Upton, Schnaars, Dougherty, Lattinville, Zwart, & Klein, 2014). With all this money being spent on basketball coaches, you would assume there would be more research in regards to what motivates them to be coaches. In examining the following chart, one might easily conclude that most of these coaches are motivated by monetary incentives, but money may not be the only motivation that drives these coaches.

Below is a table from USA Today of the top 20 paid NCAA coaches arranged by total pay from highest to lowest (Berkowitz et al., 2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>HEAD COACH</th>
<th>SCHOOL PAY*</th>
<th>OTHER PAY</th>
<th>TOTAL PAY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Duke</td>
<td>Mike Krzyzewski</td>
<td>$9,682,032</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>Rick Pitino</td>
<td>$4,678,327</td>
<td>$1,080,011</td>
<td>$5,758,338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>John Calipari</td>
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<td>$311,381</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>Bill Self</td>
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<td>$210,000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
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<td>Josh Pastner</td>
<td>$2,650,000</td>
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Money is a simple extrinsic motivator. It is one of many motivators that exist in
the coaching realm. There are a plethora of intrinsic motivators that could have the same
or a greater impact on NCAA Division I coaches compared to the influence of money.

Amidst the college sports industry’s rapid financial growth and increased public
attention, it is important to understand what drives coaches who are leading these sports
organizations and mentoring this specialized group of athletes. This particular study aims
to gain insights into the motivators of NCAA basketball coaches at the Division I level of
participation. The results will hopefully guide athletic directors and head coaches of uni-
versities and colleges in making decisions regarding the selection, and retention of
coaches based on an individual coach’s, or applicants’, motivators.

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<td>19</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
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<td>Mark Gottfried</td>
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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Maslow’s Basic Motivation

Motivators can be tangible as well as intangible. Motivation can come in the form of money, respect, self-esteem, trophies and so on. The list is practically endless, and the motivators are different from person to person. Psychologist Abraham Maslow took the basic needs of humans and grouped them into categories. These categories were stacked on top of one another and became the famous Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs. Almost any motivator could be placed in one of those categories. A human being’s actions are driven by similar if not the same motivators: “any motivated behavior, either preparatory or consummatory, must be understood to be a channel through which many basic needs may be simultaneously expressed or satisfied. Typically, an act has more than one motivation” (Maslow, 1943, pp. 2-3). The motivations of coaches’ actions are very important to understand when making a decision whether to hire, fire, or retain them. Maslow understood there was a driver behind each decision. Without a driver there is no action. There is a distinction, however, between determination and motivation. Motivation describes why a person makes a decision, while determination describes how a person follows through with a decision. Humans are constantly driven, but by what motivational factors are they driven?

According to Maslow (1943), “man is a perpetually wanting animal” (p. 3). The
wants expressed by an individual have a driving factor that pushes him or her to accomplish the tasks at hand and realize set goals. The goals are not always visible nor are they always expressed. This is where Maslow’s Basic Needs truly help us gain an understanding of motivational factors. Although perhaps not visible, an individual or an individual’s family could be suffering from a basic need such as food. This basic need has become that individual’s motivation. The physiological need is one of the strongest, pertaining to needs like food, water, and sleep. In the United States, Maslow (1943) says a true hunger is not felt by the average person and is often by “accident” (p. 6). In other words, the physiological need is not one Maslow feels is not as predominant in the United States compared to other countries around the world.

As an individual ages and grows in their private and professional lives, so do the needs of that person. The physiological needs transfer to safety needs. The safety needs often occur once physiological needs are met. Safety is often a feeling of rhythm created by the flow of everyday tasks. A good example of this is the security humans feel with a stable job. Getting up day after day and creating a routine of getting ready to go to work provides a feeling of safety. Following safety needs is what Maslow (1943) calls “the love needs” (p. 9). Today, these needs are often addressed as social needs such as family, friendships, and community groups. The last two basic needs are esteem needs and self-actualization. Once the first three basic needs are met, individuals will find themselves pushed by the want and need to be recognized. Finally, they become motivated to reach their full potential by pushing their limits, although the idea is individuals will progress through his or her needs over time. It should be noted that individuals will often move
from one need to another more frequently than one may have anticipated.

**Foundational Work**

Max Weber was born in what is now present-day Germany, in 1864 (Bendix, 1977, p. 1). Weber was a sociologist, with his primary vocations being economics and politics (Weber, Wells, & Gordon, 2007). Weber believed in what Bendix (1977) refers to as “dominations.” These dominations are also called leaderships and authorities. The three dominations that Weber named were legal, traditional, and charismatic. Bendix (1977) describes the dominations as follows, legal meaning an individual was given the power, traditional being that the power was inherited by birth or blood, and charismatic was a type of superhero power.

Weber’s styles of leadership can be associated with some of the styles of leadership that exist in more modern leadership theories. The legal and charismatic styles of leadership are closely related to Burns’ (1978) and Bass’ (1974, 1985) transformational and transactional styles of leadership.

Legal leadership shows similarities to the transactional leader. The legal leader has been given his or her authority by another authority. This authority could be a traditional leader, or someone who was there from the beginning. Examples would be a sheriff chosen by a monarch or judge given his authority by a ruler. Bass (1974) sees transactional leaders as people who share information with followers and have the power to influence them. The hope is that this influence helps the follower’s performance and increases effectiveness and efficiency in progress towards the goal of both the leader and follower. The transactional leader looks to effect performance by: explaining what is ex-
pected of the follower(s), providing information on how those expectations can be met, describing the standards of performance, giving feedback on performance, and providing prior agreed upon rewards or disciplining/providing negative feedback to followers for poor performance.

Burns sees transactional leadership in a less admirable way than Bass. Burns (1978) views transactional leadership as a type of exchange or quid pro quo. The relationship stops at this exchange: “a leadership act took place, but it was not one that binds leader and follower together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose” (p. 20). Thus, transactional leadership appears to be nothing more than a business deal with duty and consideration.

Burns (1978) saw transforming leadership in a more positive light: “such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (p. 20). His outlook on transformational leadership is very positive. The interaction and relationship is one that allows for equal growth. This stronger bond or relationship is similar to the charismatic leader that Weber hinted at in his writings.

The work of Bass and Burns ultimately changed Burns’ (1978) transforming leadership and turned it into the transformational leadership style that is taught today. Some of this will be discussed later in the review, but the main point is that transformational leaders inspire and influence their followers. They are sensitive to the needs and motives of their followers. Transformational leaders understand the needs and motives of their followers, which allows followers the opportunity to set goals for themselves. These
goals will challenge each individual, but still motivate him or her to accomplish common
goals and promote growth. This type of leader acts more like a coach to the followers but
can also be found participating in duties with the followers. This creates an environment
of trust, respect, and communication. In turn, social barriers are decreased. It could be
argued that the difference between the two types of leaderships is the use of moral and
ethical decision-making. A transformational leader will make decisions on more of an
ethical and moral basis compared to the transactional leader who may make decisions
with only his or her motives and needs in mind.

Creation of goals is important in motivation. Psychologist Robert House (1971)
found a positive correlation between structure implemented by the leader and overall sat-
isfaction and performance by the subordinate. House (1971) found clear directions from
the leader and lessened job ambiguity and increased job satisfaction and performance;
however, structure given for unambiguous tasks could be seen as “unnecessary and re-
dundant” (p. 325). Transactional and transformational leaders both lay out paths for their
followers to accomplish goals. The amount of support and participation in the task is
where the two leaders vary. House and Mitchell (1974) came up with four different path-
goal leader behaviors: directive, supportive, achievement, and participative. Depending
on the situation and individuals involved, the style of behavior will vary due to individu-
als’ experience, time frame, and other similar variables.

The foundation of House’s theory comes from Victor Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy
Theory. The basis of the theory revolves around the concepts of “valence, expectancy,
and instrumentality” (p. xxii) Expectancy relates the amount of effort an individual puts
into a task with the idea of accomplishing performance goals. Instrumentality refers to the belief that if the individual meets performance goals, then there will be an outcome or reward. Valence is simply the value that the individual places on the reward they receive as the outcome of their performance. In turn this affects the motivation of the individual and their performance.

Goal setting can be a valuable resource in athletics, especially in coaching. Psychologists have created a wide variety of models for goal setting. Every individual could easily make a list of goals, but this does not mean that the goals are achievable. Weinburg and Gould (2011, p. 343) noted that, “the problem is not getting people to identify goals. It is getting them to set the right kind of goals – ones that provide direction and enhance motivation – and helping them learn how to stick to and achieve their goals.” This is important, because it shows a distinction between setting a goal, and setting an achievable goal. An achievable goal will help an individual stay focused. Tenenbaum and Eklund (2007, p. 297) state, “goals by themselves do nothing to enhance athletes’ performance. A goal is simply a target, or a specific standard or accomplishment that one strives to attain.” The enhancement to an athlete’s performance comes from focusing on the achievability of a goal. The amount of effort an athlete puts forth daily will enhance their abilities and chances of achieving a goal. This makes clear why it is important to understand the various types of goals. For example, objective goals are measurable while subjective goals are not measurable. Objective goals often have a time limit in which the individual or group expects to accomplish the task. Subjective goals are more general statements that describe the intentions of the individual or group.
Work by Burton, Naylor, and Holiday (2001) as well as Hardy, Jones, and Gould (1996) has brought focus to three types of goals: outcome, performance, and process goals. Outcome goals are focused on the outcome or end result of an event (i.e., a soccer game). Performance goals focus on how one performs in an event (i.e., a marathon, morning run). Finally, process goals as Weinberg and Gould (2011) explain, are actions an individual focuses on to help execute during his or her performance (i.e., a kickers plant-foot placement on a kickoff or field goal). It is also important to focus on the length of time for each goal. Short-term goals help an athlete focus on tasks at hand, while long-term goals create a final goal and reward to which short term goals lead.

Goals provide motivation for an individual to accomplish tasks at hand. Goal planning could also be a motivator for coaches. Motivating goals should be specific and difficult but also attainable. Being specific with goals allows for the creation of a path like that described in House’s (1971) path-goal theory. Difficulty and attainability allow for the proper motivation to exist and remain. It also allows for a sense of gratification and satisfaction once a goal is reached. A goal that is too difficult and not very specific could lead to amotivation, also known as the lack or loss of motivation.

Transformational leadership and transactional leadership can have significant impacts on motivation and satisfaction. These styles of leadership with the proper implementation of House’s (1971) path-goal theory and goal setting could have a significantly increased impact on leaders and followers. Transformational leaders usually have a stronger relationship with their followers. This could lead to goals that have more impact on the leaders as well as the followers, not only as individuals but also as a group. Trans-
actional leaders give feedback that can impact followers and create paths enabling expectations to be met. Both leaders can have an obvious impact on other leaders and followers. Proper goal setting will enhance satisfaction, which will in turn enhance motivation and performance. Going back to Maslow’s (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, goals and rewards can easily impact any area of the hierarchy from physiological needs to self-actualization. These could be significant areas of motivation for coaches and explain what type of leaders they are when working with other coaches or players, thus affecting the entire organization.

As the review continues, you will see past and present research that shows how motivation plays a role in multiple individuals’ lives, as well as how some factors affect motivation in a positive manner or negative manner, or sometimes not at all. Lastly, it will be discussed how power and motivation are often associated.

**Motivation: Intrinsic and Extrinsic**

Vallerand (2004) says motivation “represents the hypothetical construct used to describe the internal and/or external forces that lead to the initiation, direction, intensity, and persistence of behavior. Thus motivation leads to action” (p. 428). There are multiple definitions with many interpretations. Much of the research on motivation has been focused on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: “intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity for itself and for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from participation” (Vallerand, 2004, p. 428). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is about doing something to receive a reward that is connected to the activity in an external manner (i.e., cash, trophies). Vallerand (2004) also mentions what is known as amotivation. Amotivation is
what researchers believe to be a lack of purpose or the loss of intention in a person’s actions. In essence, amotivation is the loss of motivation. Vallerand (2004) examines how various factors such as social factors can affect psychological mediators and most importantly motivation. Social factors include things like relationships with family, friends, and other individuals such as coaches. Social factors also include experiences, situations as well as how successes and failures influence a person (Vallerand 2004). Vallerand (2004) concludes that motivation in sport has multiple dimensions that are complex in nature with many factors influencing motivation in various ways. The influence can be good or bad. Overall, it is apparent in Vallerand’s (2004) research that “not only are intrinsic motivation and identified regulation important for allowing athletes to experience satisfying participation in sport, but these self-determined forms of motivation can lead to higher levels of achievement” (p. 434).

According to Ryan and Deci (2000a) “to be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated” (p. 54). Ryan and Deci (2000a) believe the main difference between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivations are the enjoyment of the activity and participating in an effort to obtain an external outcome. Intrinsic motivation is all about getting internal reward or satisfaction from the activity in which the individual engages. An example is someone who plays soccer because he or she enjoys it and receives pleasure from participating. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is all about gaining external tangible or intangible rewards from the experience. An example would be an individual who partici-
pates in a game because he or she will receive money, which is tangible, or fame, which is intangible.

Social factors can have a big impact on both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Social and environmental are the two main factors behind Ryan and Deci’s (2000a) Self-Determination Theory (SDT). Positive social factors will have a positive impact on an individual’s motivation, while negative social factors will have a negative impact. As mentioned earlier, social factors are things like successes, failures, and relationships that influence an individual. Relationships between two individuals will create an impact due to social factors. As an example, “the coach who interacts with athletes in a supportive manner will facilitate their motivation in a positive way” (Vallerand & Losier, 2008, p. 151). This is something that a college or university would seemingly strive for in selecting a coach.

Social factors are believed to change from extrinsic motivation into intrinsic motivation over time, because they fuel needs like autonomy, competence, and relatedness: “intrinsically motivated behaviors, which are performed out of interest and satisfy the innate psychological needs for competence and autonomy are the prototype of self-determined behavior” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 65). Extrinsic motivators are different in that they are motivators that pertain to external rewards and regarded as more avoidance ego-oriented, meaning they can be motivated by the possibility of failing usually associated with something like winning or being better than someone else with similar skills and abilities. This does not mean that extrinsic motivators cannot be self-determined: “internalization and integration are the processes through which extrinsically motivated be-
haviors become more self-determined” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 12). Internalization and integration occurs when an individual closely associates with the extrinsic motivation. These could be ideas such as core values. Because people are different, each person is motivated differently. For example, results of a competition can lead to new intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Some athletes may take a loss and feel the need to become better and work on difficult skills. This is an intrinsic motivator that drives individuals to improve their abilities and become better. Others may feel the need to win the next time, because they want the tangible reward resulting from the win. The need to win becomes an extrinsic reward that drives those individuals.

Eitam, Kennedy, and Higgins (2013) hypothesized that effects carry information regarding control over the environment, thus producing a motivation. The three called this information “control feedback” (p. 475). They believed this control was actually more motivating than that of valued effects or the outcome feedback. They created a test that was used on undergraduates who received pay or course credit for participation. The first experiment had an effect group that showed an immediate effect when they answered correctly. There was also a no effect group that produced no feedback if they answered correctly. The results showed that the immediate effect actually increased those individuals’ performance compared to those in the no effect group. A second experiment used the same test, except this time there would be a running score for both groups. The running score represented an outcome effect. The second had similar results to the first; the effect group performed faster than the no effect group. This result proved the control effect motivated more than the outcome effect. Experiment three was similar to the first
two, but the third experiment had two lag groups both long and short that were added to the experiment. The results showed the effect group performing the best, next the no effect group, and finally the two lag groups. The experiment confirmed an immediate control effect. The immediate control effect means that the individual felt control when they were given an immediate response following their actions. This effect gave them an immediate feeling of accomplishment. In this case when the individuals in the effect group pushed the correct letter during the test, the letter immediately disappeared: “introduction of a brief lag decreases the mind’s certainty that it was its action that controlled the effect” (Eitam et al., 2013, p. 480). Having an immediate control effect reinforces the actions of the individual. Eitam et al. (2013) believe “any external or internal stimulus may become a sign for potential or actual control (control feedback) and thus motivate” (p. 482).

Goal Perspective and Self-Determination

Spray and Wang (2010) researched practical and theoretical viewpoints to understand “children’s and adolescents’ motivation for physical education and its possible impact on behavioral conduct” (p. 910). Spray and Wang (2010) used two different approaches to examine how theoretical determinants of goal orientation and feelings of self-determination affect 8th and 9th grade pupils’ achievement motivation and discipline during physical education class. The first approach was goal perspective and the second approach was self-determination (Spray & Wang, 2010). Instructors’ approach and learning environments were examined, as well as the goal orientation of pupils to determine the origins of motivation relating to the internal and external locus of causality in physical
education courses. Goal orientations were broken down into two categories: ego-related goals and task related goals. These two categories helped portray participants’ motivation and incentives to be disciplined during activities. Self-perception and competence were interpreted by pupils and used in a self-report of discipline. Based on the findings, individuals with high task and high ego goal orientations had significantly higher discipline ratings than peers with low to moderate goal orientations (Spray & Wang 2010). Although significant relationships were found concerning the level of goal orientation, Spray and Wang (2010) recommend further research on motivational climates and strategies that can be implemented during physical education lessons to produce disciplined behavior and higher achievement motivation among students.

Motivation is comprised of multiple psychological needs. Ryan and Deci (2000b) elaborate on their theory: “self-determination theory (SDT) maintains that an understanding of human motivation requires a consideration of innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 227). Ryan and Deci (2000b) take an in-depth look at multiple studies to help explain goal pursuits in regards to what and why. Self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000a) puts a lot of emphasis on social contexts and individual differences. In their research, Ryan and Deci (2000b) discuss four different types of extrinsic regulation. The most notable regulation is integrated. Integrated regulation has shown a positive relationship with autonomy. Integrated regulation is when a person personally identifies with a motivator to the extent that it is self-determined. An integrated form of extrinsic motivation can have a positive impact on the situation along with any intrinsic form of motivation.
“The ‘why’ of goal pursuits does make a difference in terms of educational outcomes”, according to (Ryan and Deci 2000b, p. 240). It is important to note that support of students’ autonomy from parents and teachers had significant impact in regards to goal pursuits in education (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). One of these impacts was a lower dropout rate (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Other impacts included enjoyment of school, proactive coping with failures, and attainment of goals that positively related to well-being. It was found that goal pursuits that were involved with attainment of intrinsic aspirations had more of a positive impact on well-being than the attainment of extrinsic aspirations (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Ryan and Deci (2000b) were concerned with the psychological approach in their research because of the association between social contexts and psychology: social contexts supportive of the needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness: (a) maintain or enhance intrinsic motivation; (b) facilitate the internalization and integration of extrinsic motivation resulting in more autonomous motivational or regulatory orientations; and (c) promote or strengthen aspirations or life goals that consistently provide satisfaction of the basic needs (p. 263).

Internalizing motives, increasing autonomy, and promoting goals to increase satisfaction help guide the individual to focus on intrinsic motivators.

**Undermining Intrinsic Motivation and the Power of Extrinsic Motivators**

According to Vallerand and Losier (2008), “the social context of competition might influence athletes’ motivation not only through changes in their perceptions of autonomy, but through their perceptions of competence as well” (p. 148). By changing the focus, it could cause an undermining effect on an individual’s intrinsic motivators. Loss
of autonomy could be the reason for this. When a prize or competition is the point of interest for an individual, one may put more focus and drive into retaining that reward or gaining pride relative to his or her ego. When a prize becomes the point of interest to a person, intrinsic motivation has been undermined and extrinsic motivation begins to take over.

Unconscious motivation (motivation caused by impulse and desires in the subconscious) has been inferred, but rarely empirically shown. Pessiglione, Schmidt, Draganski, Kalisch, Hakwan, Dolan, and Frith’s (2007) study focused on the subconscious reactions of the brain when presented with various monetary rewards for actions during simulations. Functional magnetic resonance imaging was utilized throughout the study to image the brain when subjects were presented with various scenarios regarding incentive stimulus for future actions. Pressiglione et al. (2007) used brain activity, skin conductance, as well as the force from the individual’s handgrip to monitor various bodily responses to rewards at stake. Findings of this study displayed that structures in the brain, including the limbic system, which is responsible for emotional and motivational functions, energizes behavior, leading to greater physical exertion for higher rewards (Pressiglione et al., 2007). Various structures in the brain circuitry process and react to monetary rewards without individuals’ conscious awareness, allowing greater physical exertion to be expended toward their goals; thus inferring motivation can come from both unconscious and conscious levels (Pressiglione et al, 2007). This study shows just how strong an extrinsic reward can be. No matter the association, negative or positive, it is clear that an extrinsic reward can be a serious motivator for human beings.
Social factors occur so often that you never really know how an individual is going to respond until after the fact. Coaching, especially at the NCAA level, attracts so much attention that it is difficult to prepare for the different types of factors. Obviously, a much attention has been placed on this with many schools focusing on media relations and how to handle various situations.

**Faults in Dualism**

Dualism, or the idea that motivators can be separated into two categories: intrinsic and extrinsic, has been the focus of psychology for years. However, there are many studies that did not support dualism and the ideas of undermining motivation were never published (Reiss, 2012). Most of these individuals believe in multifaceted motivation. Over time, multifaceted motivation has been narrowed down to 16 human needs (Reiss, 2012). Reiss (2012) broke down motivation into 16, which he used to create “the Reiss Motivation Profile” (p. 154). Further, “the 16 scales include; acceptant, curiosity, eating, family, honor, idealism, independence, order, physical activity, power, romance, saving, social contact, status, tranquility, and vengeance” (Reiss, 2012, p. 154). The profile is quite elaborate when compared to dualism or the idea of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators.

Reiss (2012) says, “it is invalid to assume that the effects of a single trial of a treatment will hold over the long term. When rewards are especially novel—nearly all of the undermining studies used only one trial of reward—they can be distracting, arouse performance anxiety, or even cause doubt that the experimenter will actually give the reward as promised” (p. 12).

A single experiment makes it quite difficult to create reliable evidence that a re-
ward will affect an individual for a long period of time, especially if research is done only once. The one time result or finding becomes a short-term experience that can lead to invalid research. It is easy to see the point Reiss (2012) is trying to make, but it should be known that the idea of dualism has been used in multiple studies.

On the other hand, the Reiss Motivation Profile has been applied in multiple industries and the results were quite astonishing. The profile indicated more than just what motivated individuals. It actually gave the individuals their own identities by separating each individual by specific needs from the motivation profile. Reiss (2012) points out, “everybody is motivated by the 16 universal reinforcements but not in the same way. Individuals show reliable individual differences in how they prioritize these 16 universal reinforcements” (p. 154). Multifaceted Theory takes all the research that has ever been done in regards to dualism and slices it up into 16 needs. Reiss (2012) believes intrinsic and extrinsic motivation fail three essential criteria: the construct is invalid; intrinsic motivation regarding cognitive measures and behavioral measures frequently show results that are different, if not the opposite; and experiments regarding dualism “failed to control for reward novelty effects” (p. 156).

**Motivation and Entrepreneurs**

Finding ways to improve employee morale and motivation is a task that businesses share, regardless of the industry in which they operate. A company does not want employees who hate what they do and have no motivation. Because of this, much research has been done in regards to employees and managers. Douglas McGregor’s (1966) intro-
duced Theory X (employees are passive and resistant) and Theory Y (employees control their efforts and motivation). However, these two theories do not seem to account for all the factors behind employee motivation and satisfaction.

Following those two theories was Ouchi’s idea of Theory Z. Ouchi believed in the combination of the two ideas with Theory Z. Theory Z looks to increase the number of employees retained. Techniques involving satisfaction are used to increase these numbers. Using collective decision-making (all employees have a voice in the decisions being made regarding their jobs or sector of the business) and increasing employee responsibility regarding tasks at hand, employers attempt to create an open environment so that everyone feels important (England, 1983). Each idea is quite creative, but if you look deeper, there is actually a combination of Theories X, Y, and Z, when it comes to motivation.

Looking back at Maslow (1943), his hierarchy of needs is a mix of all three theories. Looking at all the research above, it is easy to assume most individuals have a combination of needs that they are constantly looking to satisfy.

Sanots and Garcia (2011) examined how an entrepreneur might be motivated to take advantage of international opportunities. Entrepreneurs have to be more intrinsically motivated to start, but there will be some who need that reward as well. This is because as entrepreneurs progress, they will be affected by several different factors, one of those factors being social factors mentioned earlier. College basketball coaches are often changing jobs; therefore, they will be impacted by multiple social factors that affect them. All of these factors will leave some type of positive or negative impact. A study done on an entrepreneur who participates in an international expansion revealed, “promo-
tion (PMF) entrepreneurs approach internationalization spurred by their own motivation as opposed to prevention (PVF) entrepreneurs who engage in internationalization motivated by the competitive environment” (Santos & Garcia, 2011, p. 195). Santos and Garcia (2011) found that PVF entrepreneurs were more likely to go after less risky ventures, probably because they have experienced something negative. On the other hand, PMF entrepreneurs were more open to opportunities and wanted to take a chance at promoting themselves in areas of potential growth. This group most likely had more positive experiences. The study showed that PMF entrepreneurs were more personally motivated rather than externally motivated by competitive condition, but as entrepreneurs gain experience their motivation changes. This also effects how alert they are in regards to international opportunities (Santos & Garcia, 2011).

Motivation for entrepreneurs is most often a personal battle. Finding ways to motivate oneself can be rather easy at times, but sometimes it is just as difficult if not more difficult than individuals in a more formal business situation. As an entrepreneur, you are put into a position of leadership. How a leader motivates himself or herself will be discussed later.

Motivation in Business and Leaders

Barbuto and Gifford (2007) performed a study on managers in the United States and Africa. The goal was to differentiate the types of motives in each country. The study looked at five different motivational sources:

The five motivational sources are intrinsic process (motivation by enjoyment of
the task), instrumental (motivation by tangible rewards), self-concept external (motivation by acceptance by or status in a group), self-concept internal (motivation to achieve the ideal self), and goal internalization (motivation by belief in a shared goal or cause) (Barbuto & Gifford, 2007, p. 636).

One hundred and thirty-eight managers were from the USA and one hundred and fourteen participants were from South Africa (Barbuto & Gifford, 2007). From the research, it was found that the majority of South African managers gained motivation from self-concept external while the majority of Americans gained motivation from either instrumental motivators or self-concept internal motives (Barbuto & Gifford, 2007). The finding from this research is very important. Globalization has opened the door to international business and it is important to understand from where various cultures gain motivation.

David Winter (2010) researched achievement motivation and why it can be used to predict success in business; however, in politics it usually predicts failure. Winter looked at a former Harvard Student Study that took place between 1960-1964. From the results, it was found that students with higher achievement motivation were better in situations of control. Anything that caused stress or blocked the student from proceeding in their studies often caused problems: “in short, students high in achievement motivation react to perceived frustration of their desire for control with an ‘authoritarian’ style that reflects some aspects of the behavior of achievement-motivated U.S. presidents and other political leaders” (Winter, 2010, p. 1659). U.S. Presidents with higher achievement motivation often had difficulties and rather difficult presidencies:
In political leaders, the problem of high achievement motivation diminishes considerably if power motivation is also high. Presumably, this is because people high in power motivation are able to draw pleasure from those very aspects of the political process that are so frustrating to achievement-motivated leaders: negotiation, compromise, and bargaining; building alliances and aggregating interests; judicious use of prestige, sanctions, and threats; and even aggression (Winter, 2010, p. 1660).

Neither motivation is better than the other. Really it all depends on the situation. From the findings, it appears those who possess higher achievement motivation in situations of control and those who tested high in power motivation may be more successful at neutralizing negative situations (Winter, 2010).

Barbuto, Fritz, and Marx (2000) examined motivation as a predictive value for transformational leaders. Bass (1985) clarified transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) into four subscales of behaviors including, idealized influence or charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Leaders from various industries as well as educational and governmental agencies were given various questionnaires to assess sources of motivation. Individuals from industries, governmental agencies, and educational settings were issued various questionnaires to assess sources of motivation and needs to be great leaders. Barbuto et al. (2000) used four sources of motivation from a previous study of Barbuto’s to see if there were any relationships. The sources were self-concept internal and external, instrumental, and intrinsic process (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). McClelland (1975) divided motivation needs into three categories composed of
power, affiliation, and achievement. Based on the data gathered, it suggests sources of
motivation among leaders can be better used to predict transformational leadership qual-
ties than leaders’ needs. Computed results also portrayed the “leaders’ scores on goal in-
ternalization motivation displayed a significant positive correlation with inspirational
leadership and idealized influence” (Barbuto et al., 2000, p. 298). As predicted in the
study, instrumental motivation scores were negatively correlated with transformational
leadership qualities (Barbuto et al., 2000).

Marc Mongeau (2003) asked nine business leaders, as well as a high school
teacher, a sled-dog racer, and an undersea explorer how they have instilled motivation in
daily life. Although they all recited different stories, the motivational factors remain con-
sistent. There must be a relationship of trust between the motivator and the motivated
(Mongeau, 2003). Openness and honesty also foster motivation (Mongeau, 2003). For
example, Carly Fiorina, the chairman and CEO of Hewlett-Packard, described the need to
start with the truth. In order to revamp the company, she showed the employees peer re-
views as well as customer reviews, and then set attainable goals creating a constant moti-
vational process. The chairman and CEO of Mattel, Robert A. Eckert, furthers this sen-
timent when he describes how he dealt with transitioning the company by constantly
keeping stakeholders in the company aware of what was happening in the organization.
L. M. Baker, Jr., the chairman of Wachovia, believes sticking to the values of honesty,
fairness, and generosity to motivate others. Taking care of everyone in a company and
drawing a line at personal greed can also be motivation for employees to work hard, as
described by Herb Baum, the chairman, president, and CEO of the Dial Corporation.
Making people proud of their strengths can motivate them to learn and accomplish new things (Mongeau, 2003). Encouraging risk while also ensuring an employee feels comfortable can create motivation (Mongeau, 2003). More challenging situations might require different approaches to motivation (Mongeau, 2003). Appealing to the greatness of a project, or jumping into a project and figuring out the “how” after committing can also motivate individuals or groups of individuals (Mongeau, 2003). It is also helpful to set different incentives for different levels of employees in a company, because they could be motivated by different things (Mongeau, 2003). Through the stories told to Mongeau’s (2003) team, he concludes that in order to motivate, a leader must identify the situation that needs to be handled, who needs to be motivated, set attainable goals and expectations, and provide appropriate incentives.

Motivation and Coaches

The study conducted by Paul Potrac, Robyn Jones, and Kathleen Armour (2010) was designed to examine the social interaction in coaching and how it affects coaching behaviors. They studied an expert level soccer coach’s behavior during practice at the beginning, the middle, and end of the season. A subject would watch his behavior in order to gain quantitative information regarding his coaching. In order to gain qualitative information, or insight into why he acted the way he did, after the season the coach was interviewed twice. They used “the concepts of ‘social role’, ‘power’, and ‘the presentation of the self’ (E. Goffman, 1959)” to analyze the data (Potrac, Jones, & Armour, 2010, p. 183). The quantitative information revealed the coach spent most of the practice giving instruction. He revealed he believed it was important for players to see a coach demon-
strate knowledge of the sport in the form of instruction. This clearly defined his role as the coach, as well as established power over the players. The players would gain power if they believed the coach could not properly instruct them, and would lose respect for him. The coach also kept questions to a minimum during practice to further demonstrate confidence and knowledge in the sport of soccer. The coach described his desire to be approachable. He felt a need to establish a relationship with his players, which fostered the idea that he saw them not only as professionals, but also as people. The need to provide concise, specific, and simple instruction was expressed by the coach, which would help keep his athletes’ attention. The coach also preferred praising his players for doing things well rather than scolding them for making poor decisions. Any wrongdoing was addressed after practice in a less public fashion.

This study is limited in the sense that it only examines one coach; however, it helps illuminate sociological issues affecting complex coaching behaviors, which are not always easily identified. The findings suggest, for the coach observed, “social role, power, and self-presentation…. are interlinked” (Potrac et al., 2010, p. 197). The coach in this study had a desire to fill a social role and act in accordance with how one in his position is expected to act. He used his knowledge of the sport to instruct players, and demonstrate this knowledge, which gave him power over the players. To keep them motivated the coach strived to be likable and approachable by treating them as professionals. The coach learned the likes and dislikes of each athlete to help create a more individualized coaching experience, and also improve the team as a whole. His social desires affected his coaching behavior (Potrac et al., 2010).
In 1997, John Lyle, Mary Allison, and John Taylor collaborated in Scotland to research a subject that at the time was considered “under-researched” (p. 5). The main focus was to understand what motivated coaches to pursue, maintain their interest, and to leave coaching. The Scottish Sports Council commissioned the study. The study was quite simple. A postal survey was sent to experienced coaches; group discussions were held to explore the issues in depth; and interviews were held with representatives from sports development, representatives of the Associate of Scottish National Coaches and the Scottish Sports Council. Over 1,000 questionnaires were sent out, but the number of usable responses was 602 (Lyle et al., 1997). A large percentage of respondents were 30-49 years of age and had at least 3 years of coaching experience. The large majority of respondents coached at the intermediate level, which meant they coached club seniors and juniors, inter-school teams, school international teams and competition performers. Factors most associated with coaches staying involved were enjoyment gained from coaching, involvement with one’s own children, career progression, social status achieved, and financial rewards. Astonishingly, only 22% indicated that financial rewards were important (Lyle et al., 1997). The following are the findings and suggestions for policymakers at the completion of the study: a general disposition is found in coaches who want to coach; the playing/performing base is where coaches should be found; coaches identified more with the enjoyment of coaching rather than being influenced by incentives and rewards; a positive working environment for coaches must be a priority; and specific populations should be the targets when recruiting, especially for women coaches. Educa-
tion should be made a priority for providing qualified coaches for foundation/participation sports and integrated into a national strategy (Lyle et al., 1997).

Frederick and Morrison (1999) performed a study on NCAA college coaches. The study examined the coaches’ motivational styles and how the styles related to decision-making and personality. The two made a scale to assess five different motives: “coaching motives fell into five distinct categories: intrinsic, extrinsic, social motives, growth and education, and professional relations” (p. 221). The survey was sent to multiple athletic departments for approval. Those that agreed to participate in the research were given surveys to be passed along to individual coaches. Twenty-five schools were selected from NCAA Division I and II universities/colleges. One hundred and thirty-seven coaches responded to the survey. From the survey it was found, “male and female coaches showed their highest individual motive to be intrinsic followed in order by personal growth and education, social motives, professional relations and extrinsic motives” (p. 228). Further, “results showed high extrinsic - low intrinsic style was related with impersonal decision making” (p. 231). Frederick and Morrison (1999) observed these personalities, often showing high tension with low warmth and more associated with men than women. High intrinsic - low extrinsic coaches were shown to have a more autonomous decision making style along with lower tension and private score but high levels of warmth. More women showed this personality than men. Also, it should be noted that more men had high extrinsic - low intrinsic personalities than high intrinsic - low extrinsic personalities (22% vs. 18%). Indeed, “coaches with a predominantly intrinsic style of coaching are those who coach with openness and warmth. On the other hand, predominantly extrinsic coach-
es exhibit high dominance, low warmth and ineffectiveness in decision making” (Frederick & Morrison, 1999, p. 232). As an athlete progresses they may encounter one of these personalities, if not both. There is a greater chance a university will deal with both high intrinsic – low extrinsic and high extrinsic – low intrinsic personalities as well.

A study in England done by S. Jowett (2007) was one of the first of its kind. The purpose of the study was to “explore two sets of coach motives, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motives, and their impact on both coaches’ and athletes’ satisfaction” (Jowett, 2007, p. 3). Using the Coach Motivation Scale (CMS) (Frederick & Morrison, 1999), Jowett (2007) examined the intrinsic and extrinsic motivators of 138 coaches from England and Scotland. Jowett (2007) also used the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (Reimer & Chelladurai, 1998) to look at satisfaction variables for both athletes and coaches:

The findings from multiple regression analyses indicated that coaches’ both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation positively affected coaches’ satisfaction with the coach-athlete relationship (i.e., the degree to which the coach was satisfied with the relationship developed with his/her athlete). Coaches’ intrinsic motivation, but not extrinsic motivation, affected coaches’ satisfaction with performance and instruction (Jowett, 2007, p. 6).

Jowett (2007) admitted extrinsic motivators did not affect satisfaction. Herzberg (1959) concluded that extrinsic motivators are not always means of satisfaction; however, lack of extrinsic motivators could ultimately lead to dissatisfaction. Jowett (2007) also found that extrinsic motivators did not seem to affect coaches negatively, which could be due to internalization. Internalization would lead to more autonomous extrinsic motivation. In
my opinion, it is important to note that extrinsic motivators affect coaches the most when intrinsic motivation is low; however, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators appear to have positive effects in regards to satisfaction.

McLean and Mallett (2012) performed a study regarding what motivates 13 Australian coaches. The research was done through semi-structured interviews that were digitally recorded. Four general dimensions were gathered from the content collected regarding insights on coach motivation: “connection with sport, coach and athlete development, external influences, and internal influences” (McLean & Mallet, 2012, p. 26). Each coach provided his or her own reasoning for motivation, whether it be personal experience from playing, connectedness with athletes, external rewards, or enjoyment and passion for the sport. Twelve of the 13 coaches expressed some frustration and disappointment from the rigors and demands of their job not being understood and recognized by the community (McLean & Mallet, 2012). As much as the greater community may not give the recognition the vocation deserves they maintain their viewers and fans approval to reassure their performance. This study uncovers that proper support of coaches helps facilitate their needs satisfaction, which is portrayed in their behaviors (McLean & Mallet, 2012). Self-determined theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000a) was a main framework for understanding the motivation for coaches. As seen in many other studies, intrinsic and extrinsic motivators were both present in coaches, but association varied between levels. Those who coached at higher levels of performance appeared to have more association with extrinsic motivators than those who coached at lower levels (McLean & Mallet, 2012). All of the coaches agreed on the importance of all three needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness).
Importantly, findings from the current study also suggest that psychological need satisfaction in coaches appears to be linked with self-determined forms of motivation (McLean & Mallet, 2012, p. 32).

Hansen, Wade, and Hamel (2003) interviewed five of the most successful Division I men’s college basketball coaches in an attempt to understand thoughts on motivation and motivational strategies of these coaches. While each coach provided different thoughts and opinions on the matter, the overall consensus appears to be that true motivation comes from within. Everyone is in control of what he or she does to reach the goals they have set for themselves, regardless of the type of goals he or she may set. In this circumstance, the individuals were the athletes: “ultimately, consideration of personality differences among individual athletes and the level of competition (i.e., college vs. high school vs. youth sport) should frame coaches’ efforts to motivate their athletes towards realizing their full potential” (Hansen, Wade, & Hamel, 2003, p. 48).

Juliette Stebbings, Ian Taylor, and Christopher Spray (2011) analyzed the antecedents of “coaches’ autonomy supportive and controlling behaviors on various athlete outcomes (e.g., motivation and performance)” (p. 255). Stebbings et al. (2011) used Ryan and Deci’s (2000a) self-determination theory as the framework of their study. Psychological well-being proved to be a strong predictor of an autonomy supportive behavior by a coach. Stebbings et al. (2011) found autonomy and competence could positively predict psychological well-being. This could be important in regards to motivating a coach. The fulfillment of basic psychological needs could lead to motivation in coaches the same
way it does athletes. Athletic directors could use this as an advantage when setting goals and looking for coaches to hire.

Weinberg, Butt, Knight, and Peritt (2001) researched the goal setting practices of collegiate basketball coaches. Some of the key areas of interest in the study were the use of goals with individual athletes, the team, and the coaches themselves. Weinberg et al.’s (2001) findings consisted of some of the following points:

- Coaches were not writing down goals consistently
- Coaches set both short and long-term goals for themselves but focused more on short-term like upcoming events (i.e., practices, games)
- Coaches used outcome, process, and performance goals but most of the focus was on performance goals both with the team and for his or her own goals
- Most coaches’ goals were subjective, relying on personal reflection and feedback from other individuals (i.e., coaches, players)
- Most coaches’ personal goals were associated with their team instead of themselves
- Focus and direction were the purpose of goal setting
- Set goals “were very difficult” (p. 395).

The number of factors that lead to motivation for coaches is endless. Identifying a handful, these factors could lead to changes in the future managing and hiring processes by athletic directors, head coaches, general managers, and others individuals in positions of authority throughout all levels of basketball and other sports.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to conduct and analyze interviews and gain a better
understanding of underlying motivators that drive NCAA Division I basketball coaches to pursue a difficult career that requires hours of tireless work. A better understanding of these motivators will hopefully help colleges, athletic directors, and head coaches make smarter hiring decisions as well as improve motivation techniques used with coaches specifically at the NCAA Division I level. However, there is a possibility that leaders and coaches at other levels may benefit as well.

**Hypotheses**

Hypothesis 1: NCAA Division I basketball coaches will have multiple motivators

Hypothesis 2: Multiple motivators for NCAA Division I basketball coaches will be both intrinsic and extrinsic

Hypothesis 3: The coaches’ motivators will vary based on demographics

**Interview Questionnaire**

A semi-structured interview was the main instrument in this research. Each structured question was purposefully created using past foundational and present research that revolves around motivation. Some of the key areas of interest included:

- Basic needs
- Relationships
- Social factors
- Knowledge and competence
- Tangible rewards
  and
- Goal setting.
Permission was requested and received from George Mason University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct this research.

**Demographics**

Demographic information was collected on each individual who participated. The different demographics included age, years coaching experience (both assistant coach and/or head coach), and current position (assistant coach or head coach).

**Procedures and Data Collection**

For this case study, a purposeful sample of NCAA Division I men’s basketball coaches was used. An email was sent to each coach asking for his or her participation in the case study as well as a time to hold the semi-structured interview if the coach agreed to participate. Each email had the consent form attached so that the coach understood the procedures, risks, benefits, confidentiality, and all aspects of participation.

After participation was confirmed, the semi-structured interview was held on the agreed date and time. The interview was audio recorded and transcribed after which a member checking process took place in order to ensure clarity and allow for any changes to be made to the recorded data. This process helped eliminate errors during the qualitative thematic coding process where any themes, or lack thereof, were identified and documented for conclusions. Word counting was also used in the thematic coding process to identify potential motivators. Words with similar meanings or commonly associated with one another were added together. The most commonly used words were noted and used during the conclusion process. The word frequency list can be found in Appendix B.

**Participants**
As previously mentioned, the participants in the case study were made up of a purposeful sample of NCAA Division I men’s basketball coaches. The coaches consisted of two head coaches and five assistant coaches, all male, who have coached in various NCAA Division I conferences. The coaches ranged geographically from the Midwest to the East Coast. The years of experience varied from 9 years to 43 years of coaching. The sample coaches were acquaintances or former colleagues. Creswell (1998) admits this can affect the data collected, but he also emphasizes the importance of having a rapport with the participants of a case study or having an individual that he identifies as the "gatekeeper," an individual who is a member of or has insider status with a cultural group. (p. 154). Therefore, these relationships introduced a trust factor that allowed for more open communication between the interviewer and the participant.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

A total of seven NCAA Division I basketball coaches with collegiate coaching experience ranging from just under ten years to over forty years of experience were interviewed. Combined, the sample averaged twenty-five years of collegiate coaching experience.
ence. Also, all of the coaches interviewed have been employed at various colleges or universities across the nation throughout their careers. The age of the coaches ranged from thirty-four to sixty-five with the average age of the group being fifty-one.

Each coach was given a code name in the form of a letter as a means of identification for research and privacy purposes. Every coach was asked the same 8 semi-structured interview questions that referenced potential areas of motivation. The semi-structured interview questions can be found in Appendix A.

**Coach A**

Coach A was the youngest and had the least experience of the coaches interviewed. The basic needs of this coach revolved around the first three levels of Maslow’s Hierarchy. Relationships created through coaching, most specifically with the players, were a common theme throughout the interview. While money was mentioned, it was often associated with the need to provide for the coach’s family. Coach A often restated his love for the game.

Learning and sharing knowledge of the game of basketball not only motivated Coach A, but it was also a necessity in regards to growth in the profession. He explained how sharing knowledge potentially motivates a coach depending on how an athlete receives and utilizes the information. In reference to specific players with whom he shared information and who he felt retained and used that information Coach A stated, “Those are the guys that keep you fired up about coaching.”

Goals and goal setting were said to help focus Coach A’s actions throughout the day and the season. Coach A liked keeping what he called a “checklist,” which he be-
lieved were, essentially, goals for him to reach in order to continuously improve as a coach on a daily basis. Constant improvement was the purpose behind his goals. Short-term goals were a preferred focus because he did not want to get too “specific” with long-term goals because he felt incapable of creating purposeful long-term goals.

When asked about other motivators, he quickly referenced back to helping kids and helping others. The basis of his motivation revolved around the impact he could have on others due to the opportunities associated with his profession in sports.

Successes, failures, and tangible factors were not areas that Coach A identified as key motivators. Wins were important because job security depended on it and winning is one of the reasons coaches are hired and fired. Money and other benefits were key to survival and taking care of family; but, once again, primary motivational focus revolved around making relationships and impacting others in a positive manner.

Coach B showed many similarities to Coach A. During his interview, he stated the position of a collegiate basketball coach was “a dream job” and allowed him to provide for his family. As with Coach A, the chance to impact players was something he takes seriously. Building relationships with young men through the recruiting process was a dominant subject in regards to his motivation. Being a young man and former basketball player himself, he wanted to impact future players the same way his former coaches impacted him. When asked about successes and failures, he felt uninfluenced by either.

Gaining and sharing knowledge was again a strong area of motivation because of
the opportunities knowledge created to positively affect young players’ lives. Coach B agreed tangible factors do play a role stating, “it is what it is.” He also said that the intangibles play a role that is even more significant than that of the tangibles.

Goals and goal setting for Coach B generally revolved around the goals of the basketball team and organization as a whole. Areas of focus were similar to winning the conference tournament or improving the players; whatever was best for the program. Other personal goals stated were simple and revolved around his family.

Coach B had a clear motivation, impact. His motivation revolved around his relationships with the players and how he impacted/impacts their lives.

Coach C was the most experienced of the coaches interviewed. The opportunity to coach has allowed him to be around what he calls “the game that I love” for years. He was fortunate enough to make a career in basketball. Coach C believes success was measured by happiness. In basketball, success is winning games, and he has been fortunate to experience that. He also believed it has provided him the chance to show his children what it is like to be happy in a difficult profession and be successful. Scouting and game planning were some things that he really enjoyed doing. He said, “the strategy and preparation is a lot of fun.” Another aspect from which he gained enjoyment was the teaching of the game through sharing fundamentals and helping players improve day in and day out.

Relationships were something Coach C also felt were very important and motivating. Not only were the relationships with the players important, but also the relationships
he built with the assistant coaches and the head coach. Coach C felt success and failures had no major influence on his motivation; however, he admitted that they have the ability to motivate, but that hard work should never stop due to either success or failure.

Because the opportunity to teach was one of Coach C’s main motivators, he was a huge advocate on the gaining and sharing of knowledge. His closing remark to those two questions was, “sharing the information with them (player/athletes) and then through repetition and watching them be able to translate that over to stuff they do on the floor is, in this business, other than winning, as good as it gets from being a teacher.”

In regard to tangible factors, Coach C admitted they do play a role. There were times he has made a lot of money and times where it was not so much, but he could always support his family. He believes, “as a professional, that is always a part of it.” He also admitted that he has not made his decisions strictly based on how much he was going to be paid. He also mentioned the perks of being in front of an audience and other similar factors like publicity, but those were not the only reasons he is involved in the game.

Goals were something he used as a source of motivation. He believed goals can help keep an individual from becoming “stagnant.” Goals were something that kept him going, but the goals have to be realistic and motivate him while allowing him to motivate those around him. Coach C tried to implement both long and short-term goals. Long-term goals were something he has used to keep his eyes on the “ultimate prize” while short-term goals worked with the long-term to keep him excited to come to work and accomplish the goal for that day. He stressed having a good balance is key. He also preferred to set his own goals as he believed he challenges himself more than others can challenge
him; however, goals from others provided him the chance to impress others.

The chance to teach and input the way he was taught on the court is something he finds “satisfying.” Success is what Coach C believes is key to his motivation. He defined success as more than winning and losing, but how he has influenced those around him, watched them grow, and helped them reach their full potential.

Coach D

Coach D and Coach C have some similarities. Coach D was also very motivated to teach kids and work with young people. He gained fulfillment from the time he spent working with young people. He believed this is all part of his journey in life. He expressed his love for the game and said the financial benefits are completely secondary to what his profession is all about.

The relationships he has created allow him to share life lessons like determination, focus, and discipline. He believed the lessons learned off the court are very similar to what the players learn on the court. His relationships with players challenge him and motivate him to teach them what they do not know. When it comes to teaching, he believed it is more than just telling them what to do but making sure they understand what they are being told. Like some of the other coaches, he felt successes and failures did not influence his motivation. He said, “my motivation is with the kids.” He believed mistakes happen, but, as with anything else in life, you had to just move on to the next day. He believed one of the worst failures experienced as a coach was seeing kids who did not graduate. However, those failures did not make him timid but rather, allowed an opportunity to grow and learn.
Coach D was a big advocate of gaining knowledge. He loved learning about the game and believed it to be “beautiful.” His beliefs were that reading and learning helped you grow and taught you about who you are as a person. Sharing was a huge part of who Coach D was as a person. In regard to learning and sharing, Coach D said, “I want mine just like the other person wants theirs, that’s just human nature.” He described knowledge as a “pie.” Although you want your own, you cannot be selfish and need to share with everyone even if you do want a “healthy piece” for yourself.

Tangible factors were another aspect of his “pie.” His thoughts were that the money was more dictated by your financial responsibilities in life and what you were going through at the time. Coaches have bills to pay and that is life. He said that those tangibles were not his main motivation, but they were part of his motivation as a whole.

Like the other coaches interviewed, Coach D used goals to motivate himself and keep focused. Short-term goals were where he focused his time. He admitted this could either be due to the rate of results or because of the vast changes that can occur from one season to the next. While goals helped keep him focused, helping young people was what he believed motivated him throughout the season and off-season. Coach D said growth was the best way to describe his motivation. Growth meant you were getting better personally and your players were growing. He believed that when everyone was growing, everything else (i.e., success, team chemistry) would take care of itself; in contrast, if you were not growing, you were going to be “stagnant.”

Coach E

Coach E, like Coach C, stayed involved with basketball and athletics through the
profession of coaching. It gave him the ability to provide food and shelter for his family as well as pay bills. Coaching offered a challenge for Coach E. The day-to-day work was different and he had the opportunity to see the results at the end of each season.

Like the other coaches interviewed, he also found motivation in the creation of relationships both with recruits and players. His thoughts were that, as a coach, you may end up developing and influencing those young men for the next 4 or 5 years. He said, “that can be exciting when you can watch someone grow right in front of your eyes.” Relationships with other coaches created motivation for him from a competitive standpoint. He believed relationships between coaches are formed on trust and when you are willing to listen and accept that others are trying to help.

As far as motivation created by successes and failures, Coach E believed it does influence your motivation: “when you’re successful you want more of it, and when you fail you question whether it is something you should be doing or something that you want to continue to do.” He believed that there may be areas you struggle in that you want to change or maybe you communicate with other coaches to help them or look for advice.

When asked about his motivation related to gaining and sharing knowledge, he said he was definitely motivated because it forced him to evaluate himself. Coach E expressed that watching others can be motivating when you see them doing something different and having success. When asked about sharing knowledge with the athletes, he stated, “yes, that's the fun part of the profession” and that it’s all about, “responsibility” and “to share and improve.” Coach E said seeing players use that knowledge is gratifying.
Tangible factors and intangibles are factors that Coach E admitted were motivators, but he said that there is a balance between the two. Sometimes it comes from improvements seen in a player; however, there are many situations where, as a coach, you know that if you accomplish certain goals, you will be recognized and given more opportunities and incentives. But the competition itself is a key reason behind Coach E’s enjoyment.

Goals were something Coach E believed you must have: “you have to have an end.” It was expressed often in all the coaches that winning is a common goal. Coach E explained, while goals can be motivating, there are a lot of factors that could affect these goals including player injuries. These factors are out of the coaches’ hands. When asked about short and long-term goals, Coach E said both play important roles. His thoughts are, “short-term goals help you be more realistic about a long-term goal.” He continued to talk about how you have to start out aiming for the small goals before you go out and accomplish something like the national championship. As with Coach C, Coach E preferred to set his own goals because his goals were usually higher than those given to him; however, other goals made him assess his own goals and reevaluate.

Other motivators expressed by Coach E were personal pride and family. He believed fans could play a big role because you want to be your best and do your best so that you make them happy. When you meet other coaches, you want to be able to tell them you have had or are having a successful career. As with the other coaches, success was related with winning, and Coach E believes all sports have a lot to do with winning. Again, as with the other coaches, the success of athletes in school and after graduation
was also an area of motivation. While all of these different areas of motivation appeared during Coach E’s interview, he felt his biggest motivator, in regards to basketball, is competition.

**Coach F**

Many of the motivators that were seen in prior coaches showed up in the interview with Coach F as well. Topics like fulfillment and the ability to help kids were once again present. Also addressed was the ability to provide for his family and the enjoyment of the profession. Competition and strategy were areas of motivation that have led to feelings of satisfaction throughout his coaching career. Relationships with the players and former players were a key area of motivation. The ability to have a positive impact on their lives once again surfaced. A sense of “comradery” with other coaches was another relationship mentioned. The understanding of what other coaches go through introduced the ideas of a “club” and “sweat equity” between one another. Coaches on the same staff go through similar challenges and work towards the same goals, which also means shared success of the group and failure of the group.

Success and failures appeared to have some affect. Coach F said failures were more influential. When failures occur such as relationships or losses, it promoted the question of “why?”. Those failures were an area of motivation for Coach F. Outside of those failures there was little effect due to amount of experience in the field. This specific coach felt confident in his ways and how he and his staff went about day-to-day responsibilities and tasks. The relationships and type of people around him were his answer to getting the results he wanted.
Once again the gaining and sharing of knowledge was an area of motivation for this coach as well. He felt sharing the knowledge was “at the core” of what you do as a coach. “That’s the player/coach relationship at the core, you sharing knowledge with the student athlete. If you can’t get motivated for that, you’re in the wrong business.” As with the other coaches, it was more than just on the court but off the court life lessons as well.

Tangible factors were only of interest in the fact that his job feeds his family and it is how he makes his living. Winning was important because that was what it takes to retain his job. Other than that, all other factors were said to be intrinsic. Setting goals was not important to this individual. Goals like winning championships are the same as everyone else, but unforeseeable factors, like injuries, occur all the time and limit your ability to reach goals. The most important idea was that the team as a whole reaches the peak of its potential: “anything less than that is a failure and you cannot do anything more than that.” Outside influences such as fan expectations had little influence on Coach F. The important opinions were those of the staff and the members in the athletic department who have the ability to hire and fire, but those opinions were addressed together.

Motivators that were not mentioned early in the interview, but later addressed, were similar to those of Coach E. Pride and success in his job and as a coach/teacher are motivators he identified as the most influential. Success in his job brought great satisfaction. Success included winning as well as establishing good relationships with everyone involved with his position as a basketball coach. Helping others, especially players, were the main focus of attention in regard to what he considered success. His definition of success came from Coach Wooden’s pyramid and the belief of self-satisfaction, which is a
direct result of knowing as an individual, you did the best you could to reach your full potential in the position you are put in and the responsibilities you are given.

**Coach G**

Similarities appeared once again with this coach as with the other coaches. A love of the game and the enjoyment of sports in general were in the first statements offered by this coach. Financially, the coach has found himself in the highs and the lows and believed he has made a good financial living from coaching. Wins and losses were heavy influences in this coach. He believed a lot of his motivation was in competition and winning. The competition was seen as a “rush” that you could not simulate elsewhere. Relationships were also important. Watching players improve over time and seeing them succeed on the court was an area of satisfaction. Good working relationships with those above him in the athletic department and in the university was also an area of importance. He addressed the need to have a “close and trustworthy relationship” with the other coaches; however, his thoughts were, “the relationship they (coaches) have with their players, that’s the most important.”

Successes and failure were identified as motivators. A success is the “fuel to continue to work hard”; on the other hand, failures “motivate you to prove people wrong.”

Like the other coaches, there was a lot of emphasis put on the importance of gaining and sharing knowledge with players and other coaches, in particular, the want and motivation to improve the players and share knowledge of the game on the court. Individual instruction was one of the specific points mentioned by Coach G. He loves improving players and helping them with their game. This particular coach was a head
coach and felt an important area of sharing was helping prepare assistant coaches for potential head coaching jobs. He also believed in encouraging his assistants to share their ideas with him and challenge them to expand their knowledge.

In regard to tangible factors, the need to take care financially of his family was the only connection that was associated with money. The other point about money that Coach G made was that if you do well, the money will take care of itself. This coach also offered during the interview that he has never in his career negotiated his pay. Winning was emphasized as a serious motivator during this conversation.

Coach G liked to use goals as outlines. Areas he felt needed improvement and what he needed to do with his team were where he often focused his goals. Goal setting is used with the team, individuals, and his staff. He much preferred to set his own goals because he believed that others outside of the program do not have the proper understanding of what the team was trying to accomplish, therefore limiting their abilities to set proper goals. He believed those on the outside can become distractions that can keep a coach from focusing on the goals he set. As with many of the other coaches, both short-term and long-term goals were said to be of importance. Without one, it was almost impossible to have the other. The difficulty of the short-term goals in the coaching profession seemed to be with the ever-evolving nature of the sport and the players involved. Some players transfer, other players, especially in more competitive schools, leave to go to professional teams, and finally some just do not continue with college. The most important goal to this particular coach was to be fit, both mind and body. Coach G believed fitness affected energy, which can have an effect on preparation and what it takes to be success-
ful. When asked about other motivators, Coach G said it came down to the simple love of the game, love of sports, and winning.

**Hypotheses**

According to the results, hypothesis 1, 2, and 3 were all true. Hypothesis 1 being that coaches will have multiple motivators, hypothesis 2 assuming motivators will both be intrinsic and extrinsic, and finally, hypothesis three believing there would be a variation in motivators due to demographics. NCAA Division I basketball coaches did have multiple motivators, both intrinsic and extrinsic, that varied based on demographics.

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**CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION**

**Coaches’ Motivation**

There were many similarities in the motivations or needs of this group of coaches. Common themes included, taking care of their families by providing food and shelter,
doing what they love for a job, building relationships with players while impacting them on and off the court, and winning. Goals and goal setting were also important for personal motivation and accomplishing short-term and long-term goals. It was an area of importance for each coach to help players reach their full potential, not only on the basketball court but also in life. Some of the coaches addressed the need for players to graduate and help them understand how important the education is that they are being offered. Watching players graduate was a commonality in the coaches’ definitions of success.

Another common theme between the coaches was the motivation to gain and share knowledge with their players and colleagues. Most of the coaches did agree that tangible factors were motivators but not the most influential.

No two individuals are exactly alike and neither are their thought processes. This being said, it is no surprise that there are a wide variety of motivators and they vary from person to person. Coaches are obviously no exception to this, which supports the findings of McLean and Mallet (2012). As seen in the results of the interviews, each coach made different points but also had similar thought processes and motivations. Their motivators and needs could be identified in the levels of Maslow’s (1943) Hierarchy of Needs. The motivations also varied from intrinsic to extrinsic, supporting the efforts of Jowett (2007)

Relationships were a common theme in the interviews, more specifically relationships with the players. These relationships can start in the recruiting stages of the coaching process and last up until the death of one of the parties involved. These relationships could also be looked at as a sense of belonging. Being part of a team in its own right creates a sense of belonging.
Vallerand (2004) also addressed the idea that various social factors could impact a person’s motivation. The interviews with the coaches proved this to be true. While not all the coaches said that successes and failures influenced their motivation, it could be argued that they limited their ideas of success and failure to that of winning and losing. It was clear that all of the coaches believed athletes who graduated and went on to succeed as professional basketball players or in other professions were considered to be successes. The coaches found these successes or failures, when a student did not graduate or left, to affect their motivation. The successes brought feelings of satisfaction and influenced them to continue in their efforts to impact other former and current athletes. Social factors do play a role in the motivation of NCAA Division I basketball coaches.

House’s (1971) Path Goal Theory discussed how difficulty and attainability make for the perfect combination of motivation. Most of the coaches preferred to set their own goals because they were more difficult than goals others could give them. This supports the theory that goals and goal setting are important motivators. An important point from Weinburg and Gould (2011) is to remember that goals must have a purpose and direction to increase motivation. Speaking with many of the coaches it was clear that the use of short-term and long-term goals was important. However, long-term goals are the main focus and often coincide with the goals of the team. It is important to lay a foundation and stepping-stones that can be followed using short-term goals so the final goal can be reached. Without the use of short-term goals, a coach could feel like they have not accomplished anything at all. At the end of the season or a couple of years, the long-term goal may not be achieved. This could lead the coach to feeling unaccomplished or what
Vallerand (2004) refers to as amotivation, or the idea of the lack of motivation. Short-term goals can help prevent the occurrence of either. The use of different types of goals, such as objective and subjective, is also important. Goals that can be easily measured appeared to be preferred by the coaches interviewed. Most of the goals were also outcome goals like those described by Burton, Naylor, and Holiday (2001) as well as Hardy, Jones, and Gould (1996). Victor Vrooms (1964) Expectancy Theory can be used to understand the valence, expectancy, and instrumentality associated with set goals as well. Coach E had mentioned the fact of receiving incentives/rewards as a result of being recognized for the accomplishment of certain goals.

Giving coaches the opportunity to make their own goals could also be motivating. Ryan and Deci’s (2000a, 2000b) Self Determination Theory mentioned the importance of autonomy. Although there was not much discussion of autonomy in the interviews, it was clear that each coach had their own job and responsibilities. In talking with Coach G, at the beginning of his career, when he was given new tasks, he found himself excited and motivated by the new responsibilities. Head coaches could gain from this by sharing responsibilities and increasing the chance for free thought among the assistant coaches. Coach G mentioned how he actually encouraged his assistants to learn and share their thoughts regarding game planning and preparation. The feeling of satisfaction has appeared in the many areas of research regarding motivation. Satisfaction was also identified as a common feeling following success. Goals and new responsibilities can provide more opportunities for satisfaction and what some coaches referred to as gratification.

In regards to leadership styles, it could be argued that the coaches above act as
both Burns’ (1978) and Bass’ (1974) transactional and transformational leaders. Most of the coaches preferred to set their own goals rather than being told what to do. This could lead to the assumption that the coaches are similar to Burns’ (1978) transformational leaders. A transformational leader wants to have a positive impact on those around him and allow for equal growth. There is no doubt that Coach D is a transformational coach in this regard. Transformational leaders often create strong relationships with their followers. Each of the coaches identified player relationships as a key to their motivation. On the other hand, Bass’ (1974) transactional leaders look to share information and impact their followers.

House and Mitchell’s (1974) Path Goal Theory of Leadership also offers the idea that the coaches change their leadership based on the situation. Coach D admitted in his interview that times have changed and you have to approach every athlete differently. The difference in personalities and behavior from one athlete to the next could impact the style of leadership the coach chooses to relay information. Also many of the coaches stated they have goals for themselves and goals for the team or both. This would support the idea that varying styles of leadership are needed depending on the situation, also known as situational leadership. That goes for both the player/coach relationship and the coach-to-coach relationship, more specifically the head coach to assistant coach relationship. Coach G is a perfect example in the fact that he encourages his assistants to share ideas with him, a style similar to House and Mitchell’s (1974) participative leadership.

After the interviews, it was clear that the gaining and sharing of information as well as impacting their followers motivated all the coaches. The gaining and sharing of
knowledge could easily be associated with competence, which was one of the key factors in the Self-Determination Theory of Ryan and Deci (2000a, 2000b). The need to learn and share knowledge supports the findings of Potrac, Jones, and Armour (2010) and the importance of demonstrating competence. Stebbings, Taylor, and Spray (2011) made connections between competence and psychological well-being. The psychological well-being of coaches brings us back to Maslow’s (1943) Hierarchy of Needs. Well-being and competence could make impacting players a much easier task for coaches. Impacting players in their careers and lives could create increased motivation in coaches and their careers. Weinberg and Gould. (2001) found that coaches relied more on subjective measures like feedback. Transactional leaders are more focused on feedback to their followers and impacting performance. The fact that impacting players was a key motivator could imply that most coaches are more transactional leaders.

Tangible factors were an area of focus highly questioned going into this research. Upper NCAA Division I level coaches’ salaries are pretty impressive to say the least. Vallerand and Losier (2008) believe that tangible rewards can actually destabilize the impact of internal motivators on an individual. All the interviewed coaches mentioned tangible rewards; however, they were not key motivators for any of them. It was admitted that money and rewards came as a result of winning or accomplishing goals listed in a contract, but the internal reward and feeling or accomplishment was more “gratifying.” Money and rewards appeared to be a bonus and a notable means to provide for a coach’s family while pursuing a loved career. The level of competition could also lead to effects revolving around coaching ego. This could undermine the motives of both head and assis-
tant coaches due to pride taken from game planning and success. Winning was often mentioned in the interviews, but it was usually in regards to job requirements and a necessity for job safety and security. It was made clear though by multiple coaches that a “good” win can be very motivating.

Winning could also be associated with the integration or internalization of goals as well. Integration and internalization is commonly associated with group goals that align with personal values. Some of the coaches mentioned that their goals closely aligned with goals of the team. Winning is often a goal for teams; therefore, the high frequency of winning during discussion in the interviews could be due to this integration/alignment or internalization of team goals, values, or the need to win for job security. As mentioned in the readings of Ryan and Deci (2000b), integration and internalization can make extrinsic motivators more self-determined causing effects like increased feelings in relatedness. This would make sense because of the team environment coaches operate in every day.

Many of the coaches mentioned the presence of public opinions. Some of the coaches said that over time they have learned to ignore most public opinions, especially regarding criticism. While the public can provide positive support and encouragement, it can also provide negative criticism and energy. Therefore, it could be assumed that coaches need to be and must have strong intrinsic motivators that push them to continue to coach.

Female coaches are beginning to breakthrough at all levels of basketball on the men’s side of participation, most recently at the collegiate and professional level. All par-
Participants were male; therefore, no conclusions can be made in regards to their motivators. Inferences based on the research of Frederick and Morrison (1999) would suggest that female coaches would be more intrinsically motivated meaning tangible rewards would not be as significant as they are to male coaches. Looking at the results there was not a great deal of motivation in male coaches directly associated with tangible rewards. That being said, women coaching at the collegiate or professional level could potentially have very few if any tangible motivators. The ability to compete and succeed with males in a similar professional environment could be a major driving factor.

Chelladuri (2009) uses a systems thinking approach that shows how inputs from

**Figure 1: A Systematic Look at Motivators for Coaches**

Autonomy
Goals
Athletes/Coaches
Learning
Financial Resources

Decision Making
Sharing Information
Planning
Teaching/Training
Pay Bills/Care for Family

Motivation
Individual/Team Success or Failure
Coach/Athlete Success or Failure
Ability to Provide/Satisfy Basic Needs
an environment are processed into outputs that are beneficial to an organization and its environment. As seen in Figure 1, a similar process was used. The list of inputs is made up of resources mentioned in the interviews that can be used in different processes to create outputs or motivation for coaches. This process is continuous. The outputs provide feedback to the coaches to help create new inputs or make changes to old inputs and processes. For instance, a head coach may give more autonomy to his assistant coaches that allows for them to plan and make decisions on their own. The assistants could have great success individually and with the team. As a result, the assistant may become a head coach the following year. The growth becomes a personal motivator for the assistants turned head coaches as well as a motivator for their former boss/head coach. The feedback becomes the success of autonomy as an input.

An input like money was most often associated with paying the bills and taking care of family. The motivation becomes the ability for the coaches to provide for their families while being employed as a coach in the sport they love. The coaches interviewed were consistent in their feelings that they prefer to set their own goals or often associated them with the goals of the team. Working with the players and adding value to the team could potentially lead to individual and team success. The success or failure to accomplish the goals will have an effect on new goals and how the coaches approach goals.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

To address the hypotheses, Hypothesis 1 was found to be true in that NCAA Division I basketball coaches have multiple motivators. It was found that multiple motivators existed for each one of the coaches interviewed. Hypothesis 2 assumed that multiple motivators of NCAA Division I basketball coaches would be both intrinsic and extrinsic. This was also found to be true. Many of the coaches admitted that tangible factors such as money and other rewards were motivators in their profession; however, the common theme was these rewards were not the main motivators. Creating lasting relationships, helping players and others, as well as being close to the game they love were some of the more valued motivators for why they coach. Hypothesis 3 stated that the coaches’ moti-
vators would vary based on demographics. In regards to this hypothesis, there were clear indications that demographics played a role in the different motivators of the coaches. A common motivator, which came as no surprise, is the personal motivation to provide for a family. Older coaches with more experience and larger families had more family oriented and time sensitive goals. Roles as a head coach or assistant coach also offered some a small variance in motivators. Head coaches were not only motivated by helping players progress but also helping the members of their staff improve as well. In regard to basketball, it was clear that relationships as well as success, both personal and that of others (athletes, individuals on staff), played a role in the motivation of the coaches. The opportunities to gain and share knowledge as well as impact players were also motivators.

Even at a high level of competition, a large majority of focus and motivation for the coaches interviewed revolved around their past and present athletes’ successes on and off the court. The athletes’ successes following their time with the basketball program was equally important. These findings could indicate altruistic characteristics; however, it could be argued that receiving satisfaction from an outside influence or the actions of another person may not be truly selfless.

Winning is essential for a coach to be considered successful from the public point of view. Winning was frequently mentioned in the interviews; however, the consensus appeared to be that wins will come and go. The love of the game and the chance to continue to compete was the key. Adding to that, the opportunity to impact a player was more valuable than that of a win. That being said, it could be argued that frequency does not mean the same as the value. Multiple wins can be very motivating but the success or
failure of one athlete holds more value than those wins and/or losses. Winning is essential for a coach’s job security. Coaches with a family depend on the income they receive to provide for their families making job security very important.

With the sports industry growing at such a high rate and companies like ESPN and FOX continuing to expand, the spotlight on coaches is growing. Coaches at the NCAA Division I level receive a great deal of public opinions through social media, television, radio, newspapers, and more. A coach who is more extrinsically motivated may not be as successful as coaches who are more intrinsically driven. All the public opinion can create a very stressful environment that could affect the decisions of a coach. Intrinsic motivation at the NCAA Division I level is essential.

A player graduating and winning would be considered an extrinsic motivator. When those two are internalized and integrated into the minds of coaches, it appears they have a major impact in the motivation of coaches at the NCAA Division I level. Thus it could lead to similar properties found in intrinsic motivation as a result of extrinsic motivators. The desire to impact players points to more transactional leaders; however, the personal investment into the players and how they perform after their time as college athletes leads to the idea that the coaches are more transformational leaders.

Motivators could exist between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Internalization and integration make motives more self-determined, but these motivators would have much stronger similarities to intrinsic motivators while still impacted by extrinsic factors. The same could be said for transformational and transactional styles of leadership. The coaches in this study want to impact the player to the best of their abilities while creating
lasting relationships. It is possible to attribute most of these characteristics with transformational leaders; but a better-defined style of leadership may exist, more commonly seen in a coach, that lies between the transformation and transactional leader.

There are an uncertain number of motivators for NCAA Division I basketball coaches; however, continuous research through interviews and observations can help increase the understanding of motivators for NCAA Division I basketball coaches as well as other coaches and individuals around the world. The results and findings suggest that relationships, helping others, goals, and being successful while staying involved in a sport they love are the most motivating factors to an NCAA Division I basketball coach.

**Recommendations for Athletic Directors and Head Coaches**

Coaches at the NCAA Division I level are constantly looking to improve. Providing coaches the opportunity to learn and interact with other coaches within and outside the college/university will be beneficial for all involved. It allows them to gain and share knowledge that may relate to their specific sport or just coaching in general. Small get-togethers or outings like a breakfast, lunch, or dinner could be the answer. Allowing for learning opportunities (e.g., attending coaching conferences or classroom seminars that relate to creating and building relationships) is another suggestion. Knowledge is power.

Athletic directors should have a good understanding of how their coaches are feeling. Communicate but do not make it seems as if they are being monitored. Having someone look over your shoulder can threaten autonomy.

Coaches should be challenged. Although the consensus appeared to be that coaches preferred to make their own goals, it was also agreed that they liked the challenge of
goals they were given and the opportunity to over deliver.

Finally, coaches should be cognizant of the environment. They should encourage and participate in communications with the staff. Relatedness should not be overlooked. Relationships between coaches are just as important as relationships with the players. It is always good to have a staff that challenges each other, but a complete disconnect could be detrimental to the environment and lead to amotivation.

Limitations

This was a purposeful sample of NCAA Division I coaches; however, these interviews may not represent the thoughts and motivators of each and every Division I basketball coach. Although this case study protected the identity of those involved, data collected may be skewed due to worries regarding professionalism and fixed responses due to the nature of the profession regarding public interest from the press. Responses given by those involved could be cautionary. Topics regarding money and rewards are usually not welcome discussions for any individual. This makes it very difficult to confirm the data that was collected.

The sample size used, although purposeful, was only a small representation of all the basketball coaches at the NCAA Division I level. The interviews that took place do not represent the thoughts of all NCAA Division I coaches. Also, the coaches interviewed were representatives at schools that most would consider mid-major meaning less resources (i.e., buildings, equipment, money) compared to the high major coaches listed in...
the introduction section. The salaries are significantly less than those schools considered to be high major.

No female coaches were interviewed during this process. It is impossible to make any conclusions in regards to what motivates female coaches or how their motivators compare to that of male coaches. In regards to males, the average age of the coaches interviewed was fifty-one. Younger coaches could have more varied motivators than the ones identified in this research due to difference in age as well as other demographics that may or may not have been addressed in this research.

**Future Research**

Future research should be focused around coaches at multiple schools within the Division I level but also representative of low major, mid major, and high major coaches. The larger sample size and interviews at the wide variety of schools could help explain any gaps in motivation that could be caused by available resources and contract gaps like money and other incentives. An in depth look at the motivators of NCAA Division II, Division III, and even NAIA Divisions I and II could show significant differences in motivators.

A comparison between individual goals and team goals could show similarities as a result of integration and internalization. With tangible rewards and extrinsic motivators being a difficult subject for some, research in a laboratory setting similar to that of Pessiglione et al. (2007) could be extremely valuable in identifying their effects.

Vroom’s (1964) expectancy, instrumentality, and valence would allow researchers to gain a better understanding of motivators relative to performance goals. An individual
can rate their performance using outcome goals and process goals. Transformational and
more specifically transactional leadership styles play a big role in how an individual per-
forms and how a leader impacts performance.

A look at achievement behavior and achievement motivation could also be bene-
ficial. Winter (2010) believed achievement motivation affected the success of business
and political leaders due to situations of control or lack thereof. It was noted that leaders
with high power motivation might fare better in these situations. Coaches are often put in
situations of high stress and lack of control. There could be a similar connection with the
success of coaches and achievement motivation versus power motivation.

Female coaches will be a significant percentage of the NCAA Division I basket-
ball coaches population in the near future. Now is the perfect time to start learning about
their motivators and what drives them compared to their male colleagues and counter-
parts.

The gaining and sharing of knowledge is important for a coach to impact those
around him or her. Focusing on how a coach prefers to learn or what environment is the
most preferred when learning could be beneficial to athletic directors or head coaches
looking to help their coaches.
Appendix A: Survey

Motivators for NCAA Division I Basketball Coaches

Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Name: _______________   Age: _____  Position:  ______________   Experience: _____

1. How does coaching meet your needs?

2. Are there relationships that motivate you as a coach?

3. Is your motivation influenced by successes and failures?

4. Are you motivated by gaining knowledge about the sport of basketball?

5. Are you motivated to share your knowledge with the athletes you coach?

6. Are you motivated by tangible factors?

7. How do goals and goal setting affect you?

8. Are there other motivators we have not mentioned that impact why you coach?
Appendix B: Word Frequencies

Goals – 77
Player(s) – 64
Win(ning) – 52
Job – 50
Work – 42
Team(s) – 40
Help(ing) – 37
Relationship – 36
Success/Successful – 35
Joy/Enjoy/Enjoyment – 24
Love – 19
Money – 16
Tangible – 8
Knowledge – 8
Satisfaction - 6
Competition – 5

Appendix C: Other questions (varied from coach to coach)

- What is your primary motivator in one word?
- Do you feel any safety or sense of security as far as building relationships and building a family around you?
- Do you set goals for yourself on a daily basis?
- Do you think, as you grow older as a coach, that motivation; building relationships and helping players or young men out, do you think that will ever change?
- Would you say you set goals on a daily basis?
- What about personal goals for you, are there any areas you focus on to improve?
- Do you think as you’ve grown as a coach your goals have changed?
- When it comes to working with the student athletes, do you think that those motivations/relationships will ever change?
- Do you think the tangible factors impact you directly?
- Does being apart of the game help you provide for yourself or family?
- From the beginning to the end of the year, do your goals change?
- Is there a part of you when scouting and game planning that you get enjoyment from?
- Do you usually set short-term or long-term goals, and do you think one is more beneficial?
- Would you say the relationships between you and the other coaches effect and motivate you as a coach?
- Do you think failures make you timid in your approach and motivation?
- Would you say the more you learn the more you want to share?
- Do you think you use short-term because you see the results at a quicker rate?
• Do you think short-term goals that you set for the basketball year motivate you as a coach throughout the season?
• Do you think when it comes to coaching the athletes; are you pretty selfless in helping them and helping them accomplish their goals as well as yours?
• Would you say coaching meets the needs to support your family?
• When you see an athlete apply some of the knowledge you’ve shared with them, do you think that motivates you more as far as you wanting to gain knowledge?
• Would you say when it comes to contracts or at the DI level, so much is about money and inflated, with all that money and sponsorships do you think it motivates you in any way?
• Would you say that goal setting motivates to you to work harder?
• Do you prefer setting goals on your own or other people setting goals for you?
• Do you think student-athletes graduating motivates you?
• How do you approach goals that others set for you?
• Do you gain any self-esteem or confidence? Does it challenge you in creativity or in areas of problem solving?
• Being in a head coaching position, what about sharing that knowledge with those below you?
• Do you think being at the Division I level it’s more important to set more short-term goals because you never really can plan for long-term? Especially that 2-3 year range.
• What would you say is the most important goal for you at this time in your life?
• Are you motivated when you’re given the choice to make your own decisions, specifically as an assistant coach?
• When it comes to your players, how important is it to help them reach their goals?


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