How Coaching Influences Teachers' Beliefs and
Students' Self-Regulated Learning in High School English Classes

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Abstract

Our current society is experiencing a time of drastic change in education throughout the world so proactive and cooperative learning and teaching methods, i.e., “active learning,” need to be improved. Domestically, Japan is going through a series of reforms surrounding entrance examinations for both high school and University. In short, it is the time that we should recognize whom the lessons are for and how teachers should be teaching them.

Under this situation, I have met teachers who wish to support the students not just as teachers, but also as coaches. Their lessons using coaching skills seem to have impacts on their students, with the teachers acting as motivators as well as supporters. Coaching might be a key in our upcoming situation.

However, there is little academic analysis for coaching because it is considered practical knowledge rather than a scholarly resource. Thus, this thesis aims to define what coaching is and how it is done, and to use quantitative research to explore what influences coaching has on teachers' beliefs and high school students' academic achievement.

The findings of this thesis illustrate the key role of coaching in three ways: 1) teachers come to have student-centered beliefs when they learn coaching; 2) students feel rapport with teachers who have been trained as a coach and they change their learning by using reflection sheets and following the sequence of coaching; 3) the coaching sequence helps to prevent lowering students’ motivation and improves their quality of learning. This shows that coaching is an effective methodology in education.
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**Introduction**

This present time is widely appreciated as a time of severity and wanting drastic changes in education throughout the world. There is no counting the examples, but pick some. We should think about assessment and teaching of 21st century skills and singularity by artificial intelligence in the world. Domestically, there is the Reform of National Center Test for University Admissions, High School and University Articulation Reforms, proactive and cooperative learning and teaching methods, i.e., “active learning,” and so on. These trends in modern education have been the topic of extensive debate and discussion.

In addition, these changes have been especially quickened by two events: globalization and the declining labor force. Considering this, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) wanted to improve English education in Japan and started using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) and “can-do descriptors” (MEXT, 2014; 2015b).

CEFR was released in 2001 by the Council of Europe. One of its features is providing a common framework for skill-levels across various languages. This is because the EU wanted to create activated culture, education, economy and others beyond the national boundaries. This requires globalization, individual actions, and life-long autonomous learning (Terauchi, 2011). In fact, English classes in Japan today are focusing on what the students can do instead of how much knowledge they can gain (Haida, 2012; Kamiya, 2016). This shift is evident in the “On Integrated Reforms in High School and University Education and University Entrance Examination Aimed at Realizing a High School and University Articulation System” (http://www.mext.go.jp/component/english/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2015/03/31/1353908_1.pdf) released by MEXT in the midst of all this. MEXT’s endorsement of this trend has a lot of cues for English lessons in Japanese high schools as well as in primary
schools and junior high schools in the near future. This is what inspired my application of coaching to English lessons, which leads to changes of the type sought by MEXT's reforms.

As a matter of course, however English lessons change in Japan, the changes will not be effective unless students approach their lessons proactively. In short, it is the time that we recognize who the lessons are for and how the teachers should be teaching them. Dörnyei (2001) tells us, “Whose responsibility is it to motivate learners? My guess is that it is every teacher who thinks of the long-term development of his/her students” (p. 27). He proposes teachers ought to be motivators.

I am an English teacher at a high school and also a coaching trainer for teachers who want to go through coaching training. Through my experience in this role, I have met comrades who want to support the students as coaches. Their lessons with coaching skills seem to have impacts for the students and they appear to be motivators as well as supporters. In other words, coaching must be a key under the upcoming situation.

In this thesis, how coaching works in schools will be researched. This will contribute to not only English education but also the whole of education for now and in the future. Thus, this thesis has two main aims:

1) The first aim is to prove that applying coaching to lessons enriches quality of learning. Coaching's effect on education can be understood by observing students’ mental state and the actions they take in pursuit of their educational goals in a coaching environment compared to a traditional environment. The effect of coaching can be seen as enhancing students' "zest for learning."

2) The second aim is to show that coaching is not just suitable but essential for education. MEXT tells us about their reforms and their aims and what we as teachers should do. For example, they use the words like “help them [students] further build up for
themselves the requisite individuality and skills in intellect, decision making, and self-expression” (p. 1).
Chapter 1 Background

This chapter will have two parts. The first part establishes a definition of coaching, its history, and its current role in education, including a look at core coaching skills and principles, the practical procedures coaching entails, coaches’ beliefs and their role in coaching, and how coaching can be applied to lessons. It seeks to present an understanding of coaching and its application to education. Further, it will show that when teachers learn coaching their beliefs about teachers, students, and lessons become more student-centered.

The second part is what self-regulated learning theory is like, including not only its concept but also its research and evidence. These understandings reveal the compatibility between coaching and self-regulated learning theory. In other words, main factors in self-regulated learning theory can be found in the lessons applied with coaching.

1.1 Coaching

1.1.1 Definition of coaching

When you hear the word coaching, what do you think of? It might call sports to mind. That definition is not wrong, but not accurate for this thesis.

The sports term, coaching, is from the name of a town in Hungary, kocsi. This word went through changes in meaning, from a wagon to a private tutor for an examination, to an instructor for a rowing match, and to what is used in sports today. (Nishigaki, 2013, pp. 8-10).

There is another meaning of coaching which has a different root. This coaching made its way into the business arena, exploding into the corporate environment in the 1990s. Its birth can be found in the 1960s in America. In those days, huge protests and student movements were held against the Vietnam War, especially the Human Potentials Movement on the west coast of the United States. It created hippyism, several communes, and enhanced the personal development field. The Esalen Institute was also founded on the west coast in
HOW COACHING INFLUENCES

1962. It was influenced by many influential psychologists: Maslow, A. H. from humanistic psychology, Perls, F. S. from gestalt therapy, Rogers, C.R. from Client-Centered Therapy, Satir, V. M. from family therapy and Skinner, B.F. from Behavior Analysis (Nishigaki, 2015, pp. 13-19).

Taking these founders into consideration, we can understand what coaching is more deeply. Kogo, Dousaka, and Izawa (2015) explain the relationship between coaching and Adlerian psychology, which is the system of psychology set up and developed by Alfred Adler often called *individual psychology*. Kogo insisted “the basis of coaching lies in Adlerian psychology because Maslow, Rogers and other humanistic psychologists, who had been influenced by it, laid the foundation for coaching” (pp. 114-115).

Afterwards, coaching moved into the business field through Timothy Gallway and Thomas Leonard. The former published *The Inner Game of Tennis* in 1974. The later established *the International Coach Federation: ICF* in 1955, and began teaching the way of coaching in the course *Design Your Life* in 1988 (O’Connor & Lages, 2007, pp. 21-31). Up to the present, coaching has embodied the aspect of being quite unifying. It integrates the ways or methods of success in many fields and the innovative thinking of many great pioneers.

Now, many companies utilize coaching. Gargiulo (2012) says that coaching of managers and executives is becoming more common, with the examples of Bill Clinton, Oprah Winfrey and top sports stars. This is confirmed through a study by the Institute of Leadership and Management (ILM). In a survey of 250 UK companies, 80% said they were using or had used coaching, and another 9% were planning to do so. Clearly, coaching is becoming a mainstream practice throughout the business world.

It seems too complicated to define coaching partly because it spans a broad array of issues. However, taking a number of perspectives of coaching into account, O’Connor and
Lages (2007) state “coaching is a means to an end, to help people lead a full and satisfying life” (p. 13). One of the most popular definitions of coaching is that it “is unlocking people’s potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them” according to Whitmore (2009, p. 10).

One of the founders of coaching, Gallwey (2000), claims, “if a coach can help a player to remove or reduce the internal obstacles to his performance, an unexpected natural ability to learn and to perform will be revealed without the need for much technical input from the coach” (p. 10). Coaches recognize that internal obstacles are often more daunting than external obstacles, so they work to support their clients in noticing obstacles. From a different angle, coaching is also an accepted way of forming a relationship between a client and a coach. Gallwey also says that “the coach is not a problem solver, a teacher, an adviser, an instructor, or even an expert” (p. 41). Being a coach is nothing more than being a supporter.

In Japan especially, coaching is often considered as a skill of communication. It is easy to find some books on coaching which tell us that learning to coach can change communication (Koyama, 2014; Yaosaka, Katayama, & Harada, 2016; Wakamatsu, 2017). Haraguchi (2008) alleges that “coaching is a system to improve personal skills for communication, integrating many useful skills to achieve that goal” (p. 24).

The difficulty of summing up what coaching is is caused by not categorizing that coaching is a profession. However, even when defining coaching as a profession in a narrow sense, there still seems to be a long way to go. Bennett (2006, pp. 241-242) points out the following critical gaps between the necessary criteria for coaching as a profession and the current practice of coaching. There are currently no generally accepted, identifiable and distinct skills for coaches.
• Training and/or education are not required before a person can practice as a coach, although various coach training programs are available.
• The general public and related professions do not recognize coaching as a profession.
• There is not an established community of practitioners; for example, less than half the estimated coaches in the world belong to representative bodies such as the International Coach Federation (ICF).
• There is a lack of defined theory on which coaches base their practice.

But, in fact, while admitting that coaching has a lot of actual practices, there is no doubt that its effect is real. “We believe that coaching is chiefly about discovery, awareness, and choice. It is a way of effectively empowering people to find their own answers, encouraging and supporting them on the path as they continue to make important life-giving and life-changing choices” (Kimsey-House, Kimsey-House, & Sandahl, 2011, p. 14).

Many books and papers on coaching exposit the difference between counseling and coaching by describing counseling as looking back into the client’s mind and solving problems of the mind, while coaching is focused more on the future. In contrast to this, Chichibu (2007, p. 42) insists not only that developing the potential inside a client through questioning originated in Rogers’ approach, but also that many skills, such as listening, acknowledgement and questioning or rapport in coaching are derived from counseling. Coaching is a structured problem-solving approach to achieving a goal, utilizing counseling methods.

Chichibu (2007, p. 37) illustrates the difference succinctly and clearly between coaching and other approaches similar to coaching like the table 1 below, revising Honma (2001, p. 58).
Table 1

*Differences between coaching and other approaches to guidance (Chichibu, T., 2007)*

| Coaching & Counseling | Similarity: listening ability, questioning to elicit the answers  
| Difference: why-questions for the past / how-questions for the future |
| Coaching & Consulting | Similarity: providing information, presenting action agenda  
| Difference: limited or unlimited in specialized field |
| Coaching & Advising | Similarity: objective advice  
| Difference: should-advice / support to the achievement |
| Coaching & Teaching | Similarity: guidance to enhance the ability  
| Difference: uniform education / tutorial process |
| Coaching & Mentoring | Similarity: tutorial process to problems and specific circumstances  
| Difference: based on personal experience in common or not |
| Coaching & Managing | Similarity: utilize resources to the achievement  
| Differences: achievement by current ability / development of ability |

In addition, Kondo (2006) notes that more and more counselors are combining the use of counseling and coaching these days, because it is difficult to solve problems just using Rogers’ approach. Practicing of any method will cross traditional boundaries and the boundaries will blur.

Chichibu (2007) states that, while many books on coaching make a distinction between coaching and teaching based on whether it delivers noticing or knowledge, this explanation provides a feeling of strangeness to many teachers. In fact, in the world of education, many teachers have devised better ways to provide educational materials or structure questions to have students think more deeply, which are done in terms of teaching. Therefore, Chichibu concludes “that the principle of coaching is approachable for teachers in
Japan, even though many educational experts give the impression that Japanese teachers often use forceful teaching [passive learning]” (p. 36).

In regards to teaching, the culture and structure of lessons in Japan may have advantages. Barr and Tagg (1995) propose that classrooms should be transformed from “the instructional paradigm” to “the learning paradigm” or from teacher-centered to student-centered models. This refers to social constructivism which is focused on and encouraged in education around the world. Research comparing the structure of lessons in Japan, Germany and America shows different degrees of social constructivism in each nation. Through illustrating the educational process in each country, Stingler & Hiebert (1999) show the differences between them. Styles in Japan lean more towards social constructivism and a student-centered approach. Pupils in Japan had less time for being given information compared to others, and had more time to think subjectively.

Chichibu’s view that teachers in Japan can benefit from the principles of coaching is exactly right. Now, coaching has spread into the educational field as well as businesses throughout Japan. It is possible to find many books and lectures on education or parental care using theories of coaching. For example, in 2007, the Kyoto City Board of Education conducted coaching instruction courses and reported summarized developments in “To enhance teacher’s ability: ‘Educational Coaching’ develops children’s potential” (2007). It contains articles contributed by teachers who practice Educational Coaching (that is, the practice of adapting coaching strategies to an educational model) in other prefectures, such as Mie, Aomori and Tottori.

These perspectives present teaching and coaching as two sides of the same coin, implying that they are both necessary and interrelated. Koyama (2008, p. 14-15) supports this idea that education ‘kyouiku’ consists of teaching ‘kyou’ and coaching ‘iku.’ Coaching ‘iku’ has two roles. One is to elicit joy and security from students to produce interest, concern and
motivation so that they will be inspired to seize the topic of study and make it their own. The other is to encourage creativity and premeditation from the students in order to apply knowledge obtained through teaching in their own life. Moreover, Yamaya (2012) mentions that “coaching is an effective way to bring up independent individuals, who find their paths in life and grow towards self-actualization. This is to serve as a base for social development” (p. 5).

1.1.2 Core skills of coaching

It seems difficult to identify what is done in coaching partly because coaching has various styles today. However Chichibu (2007) notes that there are three key skills in coaching, which are of particular importance, listening (listening to clients in a positive manner), acknowledgement (esteeming clients’ existence and believing in their capability) and questioning (not forcing views on clients but encouraging them to find solutions by themselves). Chichibu also remarks that these three skills are introduced to business persons as essential elements in dealing with interpersonal relationships.

Of these, listening might be the most important. Kimsey-House, et al. (2011, p. 32) declares that:

To be listened to is a striking experience, partly because it is so rare. When another person is totally with you – leaning in, interested in every word, eager to empathize – you feel known and understood. People open up when they know they’re really being listened to; they expand; they have more presence. They feel safer and more secure as well, and trust grows. This is why listening is so important to coaching.

O’Connor and Lages (2007) also emphasizes that “listening establishes the coaching relationship, and is an essential skill in all the coaching models” (p. 173).
Chichibu (2006) reveals the difference between listening and acknowledgement. The former is not hearing but accepting and realizing what the client says. The latter is acknowledging the client’s presence. Both lead to acceptance of the presence, but the priority issue for each is different.

These are closely related to rapport. “Rapport is a word used to describe the quality in a relationship of trust and mutual influence. It is essential in coaching” (O’Connor & Lages, 2007, p. 92). Building a rapport within a coaching relationship is essential. It improves communication and helps both parties understand each other. Kang (2016, pp. 51-52) reveals that it takes time and effort to build rapport, and that a literacy coach’s collaboration with teachers can result in professional growth and collaborative relationships. Then, in coaching, there are lots of skills necessary to build rapport, such as keeping a safe distance, position, pacing, repeating, nodding, behavior, response and so on (Koyama, 2004a). Kimsey-House et al. (2011) insists that “no matter what form the coaching takes, we believe that it will be most effective when coach and client create a safe and courageous space for the work and when both parties consciously design their working alliance” (p. 22).

Acknowledgement in coaching takes the form of feedback. Coaching feedback is much different from corrective feedback, which judges the value or correctness of something. There are no hidden agendas in coaching feedback and it never does judge or evaluate anything. It is like a mirror to the client, expressing the truth (Koyama, 2004b). Nevertheless, clients find some meanings there for themselves, and notice their own answers after recognizing what they are.

The last key skill is questioning. Chichibu (2006) maintains that, while listening and acknowledgement are skills to motivate the client, questioning arouses the client to act. Thinking of action initiators, we come up with instructions or orders. However, in coaching, questioning is thought to produce the client’s act. Coach A and Suzuki (2009) explains “this
feature of coaching in that, by questioning the client proactively, the coach has the client think voluntarily and solve his or her problems by him or herself in the end” (pp. 18-19). In other words, the client is an agent in resolution, while the coach is just a supporter.

1.1.3 Practical procedure of coaching

The nature of coaching is defined by one specific feature, goal-oriented action. This focus helps clients motivate themselves toward their problem-solving. In the sequence of coaching, the GROW model is the simplest and is the underlying basis for most other coaching models. O’Connor and Lages (2007) indicate the “GROW model is presented in ‘Coaching for Performance’ as a basis for coaching. […] GROW is an acronym for Goal, Reality, Options and Will (what will you do)” (p. 62). This sequential model is used by a lot of coaches even though they aren’t conscious of doing so and make no statement that they are applying the model (Nishigaki, 2015, p. 38).

According to O’Connor and Lages (2007), GROW is a sequence of steps. The first step ‘Goal’ is where a goal will be set. A goal is defined as the client desired outcome from the coaching, and it implies a change from the status quo. There are two types of goals: the ‘end goal’ which describes what the client wants to achieve; and the ‘process goals’ which are the stepping stones they take to get there. Once the ‘end goal’ is made, the client can find their route with the ‘process goals.’ The second step ‘Reality’ is where observations will be made to recognize gaps between the set goal and current reality. You need to know what you have in order to change it, so you need to know where you are starting from. The third step is ‘Options’. This step means brainstorming choices, not finding the right answer, because nobody knows it. Fortune, time, physical capacity, knowledge, circumstances, etc. are included as resources. The final step is ‘Will, (what will you do)’ where the client decides what action to take. The coach asks many questions to help clarify the action and the
consequences (pp. 62–66).

Whitmore (2009) gives an example of an autocratic boss using the GROW model for his staff, which doesn’t work well. “He has created no awareness and, although he thinks he has threatened his staff into taking responsibility, this is not so, because they had no choice” (p. 56). Rapport between a coach and a client and how the coach presents him or herself are very significant in successfully implementing the GROW model.

In short, coaching is fundamentally a goal-oriented practice. So the practice of setting goals is a necessary component of coaching. An incredible number of studies have been done which show that explicit, challenging goals enhance motivation and performance attainment (Cialdini, 2007; Dewett, 2007; Latham & Locke, 1991).

Goal-setting also specifies the conditional requirements for positive self-evaluation. An example of this are the desirable effects on students of self-driven goal setting, which emerge within a relatively short time frame. As students develop their goal-setting abilities, their ability to self-evaluate and self-regulate their participation and performance also grows. Goals also provide a structural benefit to self-regulation by helping people to organize, prioritize and manage their motives (Shah & Kruglanski, 2008).

It is noteworthy that the goals people set by themselves predict their performance level and self-satisfaction better than do the traditional personality measures of need for achievement (Arvey & Dewhirt, 1976, pp. 179-189). In their paper, there is also clear evidence that the attribute of goal-setting has positive correlation with student self-satisfaction.

Figure 1 illustrates the communication structure in coaching (Koyama, 2004a). The girl is on the left and the coach is on the right. There is rapport between the client and the coach, and the coach will ask questions of the client. The client answers the questions and the coach listens actively to them. Then the coach acknowledges the answers and give further
questions. This cycle is repeated again and again. Questions are based on problems or obstacles or what the client wants. The client will notice his or her own answers by thinking and seeing things differently via questions a skilled coach give.

**Figure 1. Communication Structure in Educational Coaching**

This figure illustrates the cycle of communication in educational coaching. Koyama, H., 2004.

At the beginning, the client must be in a foggy mess either not knowing or losing sight of his or her purpose. Then the session starts and, in most situations, finding the client’s purpose makes the client’s needs and goals clearer. Through the session, the client can find the way, when, where, how, with whom etc. and is motivated to move forward.

### 1.1.4 Coaches’ beliefs

Each person acts, naming, recognizing, and interacting with their surroundings. The actions people take are the result of the interplay between themselves and their surroundings, mediated by their beliefs. In this way, belief is an intermediary in attaching a meaning to something. It is often called by another name - philosophy, bias, conception, or form of perception. The concept of belief is understood in many ways and “it [belief] is a personal perspective, different from knowledge, which changes over time” (Yamada, 2014, p. 8).
The International Coach Federation has core competencies for skills and approaches coaches will use. In these competencies, the words “co-creating the relationship”; “communicating effectively”; and “facilitating learning and results” are found, but belief itself is not found and can only be observed behind the words.

As Nishigaki (2014) has illustrated, there is no special condition or obligation that must be met by any training institute bringing up coaches and curriculums. As there are no normative guidelines, observations about what beliefs coaches have are limited to what can be deduced from assessing individual coaches’ actions. However, there is an expectation that coaches will have certain characteristics, some of which they share with counselors. In particular, they are thought to have an outlook called “counseling-mind,” a Japanese-English word which means mental attitude counselors ought to have.

Coaches from a variety of training institutions gathered and talked about what coaching is in a book (Fukaya, 2010). Their reports reveal that coaching has a core set of coaches’ beliefs. Specifically, the coauthors for the book found that coaches think that clients have their own answers.

Moreover, taking into consideration the fact that coaching has been shaped and affected by humanistic psychologists (see 1-1), it is easy to guess what coaches’ beliefs are like by gaining an understanding of humanistic psychology. The humanistic psychology perspective is summarized in five core principles by Bugental (1964) and Greening (2006). The five basic principles of humanistic psychology are:

1. Human beings, as humans, supersede the sum of their parts. They cannot be reduced to components.

2. Human beings have their existence in a uniquely human context, as well as in a cosmic ecology.
3. Human beings are aware and are aware of being aware - i.e., they are conscious.

   Human consciousness always includes an awareness of oneself in the context of other people.

4. Human beings have the ability to make choices and therefore have responsibility.

5. Human beings are intentional, aim at goals, are aware that they cause future events, and seek meaning, value, and creativity.

   There can be no doubt that the coach thinks the client is an agent. This understanding of the learner as agent is the reason that when people learn coaching, they change their beliefs about teachers, students and lessons. This is one of the main topics for next chapter in this paper.

1.2 Self-regulated Learning Theory

1.2.1 Concept of self-regulated learning theory

   Self-regulated learning (SRL) is a core conceptual framework in understanding the cognitive, motivational, and emotional aspects of learning. Self-regulation (or self-regulated learning) refers to self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions, that are planned and systematically adapted as needed to affect one’s learning and motivations (Schunk & Ertmer, 2000, p. 631).

   Meanwhile, SRL is a wide umbrella concept and is grounded in a lot of theory (Zimmerman, 2001). Therefore, it has a variety of practical applications in education. However, the main feature of self-regulated learning is that the shaper of the learning is the learner themselves. In support of this, Zimmerman (1990) states, “self-regulated students select and use self-regulated learning strategies to achieve their desired academic outcomes on the basis of feedback about learning effectiveness and skill” (pp. 6-7).
Zimmerman (2002, p. 70) adds that "self-regulated" does not refer to students reliance on socially isolated methods of learning, but rather their personal initiative, perseverance, and adaptive skills. This is because self-regulated students focus on how they activate, alter, and sustain specific learning practices in social as well as solitary contexts.

Zimmerman (2002, p. 65) describes the early days of self-regulated learning. During the late 1970s and early 1980s, a new perspective on students' individual differences began to emerge from research on metacognition and social cognition (metacognition being the awareness of and knowledge about one's own thinking).

Social cognitive researchers were interested in social influences on children's development of self-regulation. They sought a cause for what was regarded as students' deficiencies in learning and the students’ lack of metacognitive awareness of personal limitations and resulting inability to compensate for these limitations. Then they studied issues such as the effects of teacher modeling and instruction on students' goal-setting and self-monitoring.

Bandura (1991) recounts that “SRL systems lie at the very heart of causal processes, and that they not only mediate the effects of most external influences, but provide the very basis for purposeful action ”(p. 248). This shows the importance of goal-setting itself and its relationship to the underlying beliefs of individuals as they adjust their behavior toward desired goals in complex situations.

Zimmerman and Moylan (2009) suggests, according to a social cognitive perspective, that SRL is divided into three phases, (1) forethought, (2) performance or volitional control and (3) self-reflection. Subsequently, these three phases complete a self-regulatory cycle as a whole (Figure 2).

The first is the forethought phase, where the individual plans their course of action doing Task Analysis composed of goal-setting and strategy planning. The forethought phase
continues, going through Self-Motivation Beliefs, which is divided into self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, task interest value and goal orientation.

The second is the performance phase, where metacognition is the most significant feature, and which has Self-Control and Self- Observation components. In this phase, monitoring of both performance and motivation exercises metacognition as an individual attempts to both exert self-control and monitor their thoughts and behaviors.

The third is the self-reflections phase, which occurs after the learning activities are completed. This phase has “Self-Judgement” consisting of self-evaluation and causal attribution, and “Self-Reaction” made up of self-satisfaction/affect and adaptive/defensive responses to the learning activity. During this phase, the students try to understand why such outcomes occurred and manage their emotions with respect to the achievement outcomes. Then they engage in self-evaluation and reflection as learning. This whole formulation views motivational feelings or beliefs as closely intertwined with metacognitive processes within and across phases.

1.2.2 Research and evidence on self-regulated learning theory

Considering Zimmerman’s model of the self-regulated learning cycle, it is easy to understand that research and studies are varied depending on which phase will be covered. An analysis of this research leads to many categories of research findings, including: performance goals, extrinsic rewards, task value, interest, mastery goals, efficacy, cognition, help seeking, environment, attention, willpower, emotion, other motivation, and others.

Wigfield, Klauda, and Cambria (2011) organizes the development of self-regulatory processes in terms of the three phases. This organization is based on the idea that, given the links between self-regulation and achievement, it is essential to understand the development of self-regulatory processes, and how some children learn to regulate their behavior effectively.

Researches reveal the more SRL strategies students have, the better academic performance they show (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993; Wolters, 1998; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman & Pons, 1986).

Now also in Japan, many books have been translated and a study group on SRL was established. Research and studies have been done, too (Jikochouseigakusyu kenkyukai, 2012; 2016). Some of them focus on practical exercises (Masui, Noda, Tanabe, & Asai, 2010; Takai, Naganuma, & Morimoto, 2013; Shinogaya, 2013). Japanese psychologists are working to improve the ways in which teachers are trained and students are learning, and to show SRL is effective with Japanese students.

This self-regulated learning is what learners do, a volitional choice, such as selecting and using learning strategies, aiming to learn effectively (Hayamizu, 1998; Sato & Arai, 1998). Thus the study of self-regulated learning is an approach which constructs integrative understanding of learning strategies and motivation for learning. Therefore many SRL studies are on learning strategies that are self-regulated. Besides, what strategies have an effect in
learning is universally understood for researchers on learning, so also the strategies have been studied from theory to practice. On the idea of self-regulated learning, educational psychologists think that deep learning strategy and metacognitive strategy are considered valuable for learning. It has been asserted repeatedly that these learning strategies are significant for learners to be autonomous (Sato, 1998; Uesaka & Manalo, 2013; Zimmerman, 2001).

Bembenutty (2017) makes remarks that:

Japan’s scholarly work is a reflection of how well SRL has expanded its frontiers globally. [...] We need to fly over the skies, and look at SRL scholars in Japan to learn from them that transformation of curriculum, teaching, and learning into academies of learning is possible.

1.2.3 Compatibility between coaching and Self-regulated Learning Theory

It is very clear that the GROW model (see 1-3) is similar to the Zimmerman’s model (see 2-1). One-to-one coaching may seem limited to the time spent with a client or immediately after it, but once the client goes through a coaching session, they come to do self-coaching by themselves. In this way, coaching is explicitly a form of self-regulated learning in which clients work with coaches to develop proficiencies that they then apply independently. Haraguchi (2010) describes “how coaching sessions themselves are a good way for the client to learn the cycle of PDCA” (p. 98). PDCA is a Plan-Do-Check-Act sequence which is widely used in industry such as in “Kaizen” at Toyota, and coaching skills are able to help the client gain proficiency with the cycle as a self-coaching tool. Grant (2012, p. 149) also says “the self-regulatory cycle sits at the core of the coaching process and the coach’s role is to facilitate the client’s movement through the self-regulatory cycle, and onwards towards goal attainment.” These matches between two conceptually separate models
show the strong link between coaching and SRL.

In terms of self-coaching, metacognition or self-reflection is a key component. These terms are widely cited in the educational world in connection with the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), which conducts the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), as key competencies for lifelong learning by European Communities. Fadel, Trilling, & Bialik (2016) point to the importance of metacognition in education as vital. The validity of this claim is amplified by the current situation, which has students to brush their competency as 21st Century Skills. How we can teach students metacognitive strategies is one of the main issues for education.

Here, I would like to compare the GROW model to Zimmerman’s model. The first aspect of GROW is goal-setting, which seems to fit in the first “forethought phase” in Zimmerman’s self-regulated learning model. The R in GROW is comparable to “strategic planning” or “outcome expectation.” In addition, this R supplies “self-reflection.” The outcomes of reflection will be benefits for the goal-setting and resources in the future. The O in GROW is options or strategy for how to do. This O and the W correspond to the “Performance Phase,” because they are on-going self-reflection as well as action. Reflection is regarded as a part of R because the past experiences and the future access to goal-setting are put into words. Dialogue with others promotes self-reflection and enhances self-understandings (Schon, 2001; Nakahara & Nagaoka, 2009).

Additionally, O’Connor and Lages (2007) notes similarity between coaching and the Kolb learning cycle. The Kolb model deserves a brief summary here. It is typically represented by a four stage learning cycle; (1) concrete experience, (2) reflective observation, (3) abstract conceptualization and (4) active experiments. A person progresses through the cycle of four stages (Kolb, 1984). Indeed, we can find many similarities between the GROW model and the Kolb learning style; O’Connor and Lages state “Goal setting is the proposed
experience. Reality is explored by reflection and observation. Options come from conceptualization, and action is the planned experiment to test the hypothesis” (pp. 66-67).

Zimmerman’s is a canonical model in educational psychology, and has been extensively researched, so much so that it has become a criterion against which other models are compared (Ito, 2009). Though GROW has not achieved this level of recognition, its many similarities in Zimmerman’s SRL model, as well as its compatibility with Kolb’s learning cycle, indicate that it is valid and useful. In the next chapter, I would like to statistically discuss the correlation between coaching and self-regulated learning.
Chapter 2. Research

In this chapter, three points are discussed. The first is the effect of coaching on teachers: how coaching influences teachers’ beliefs. The second is the effect of coaching on students; how coaching influences students’ views. The last point is about the effect of coaching on academic achievements; how coaching influences self-regulated learning. These three dimensions will give you a chance to consider the value of coaching in education as a whole.

2.1 Teachers' Side: How Coaching Influences Teachers' Beliefs

2.1.1 Definition of teachers' beliefs

Beliefs, and what beliefs coaches have, have already been considered in this paper (see 1.1.4). People have beliefs consciously or subconsciously and act on them. “Teacher belief is a particularly provocative form of personal knowledge that is generally defined as pre- or in-service teachers’ implicit assumptions about students, learning, classrooms, and the subject matter to be taught (Kagan, 1992).”

Much research has been done on the relationship between teachers, their beliefs, and their educational practices. This research reveals that the beliefs about learners that teachers wear naturally often regulate the approaches taken by teachers and their learners’ outcomes (Ishida, Ito, & Kajita, 1986; Kagan, 1992; Kajita, 1986).

Kage, Uebuchi, and Oie (1997) show clearly that teachers’ beliefs relating to autonomy and control behavior are reflected in classroom teaching, and they have effects on the students’ attitudes and achievements. Kawamura and Kokubu (1996) showed that primary school teachers often hold compulsory beliefs, which make them act towards students in a strict or domineering manner.
2.1.2 Purpose and Hypothesis

The goal of this section is to examine the changes to teacher beliefs that occur when they are trained as coaches. There is no statistical evidence of exactly what the nature of these changes is. Thus offering the statistical one bears significant meaning for both education and coaching. This will give greater persuasive force to the validity of applying coaching as a teaching method to the lessons in Japanese schools.

Essentially, coaching is learner oriented (see Chapter 1). Therefore, when trained as coaches, the nature of classes changes based on the principles of coaching (Koyama, Mineshita, & Suzuki, 2016). Based on the current research, changes to the quality of classes are expected, with a shift away from teacher-centered pedagogy and toward learner-centered pedagogy. Comparing coaching and other teaching methodologies in terms of what influence each has on the teachers, the respective benefits of coaching will be clear.

2.1.3 Method

Participants

The participants were 460 people who worked as teachers as of January, 2017. Teachers from nursery school to university, cram school teachers and instructors for lectures were all included. Many had learned coaching at a variety of different training institutes.

Scale (See Appendix A-1 & A-2)

Jidou/seito kan oyobi gakusyusidou nikannsuru syakudo [Scale of beliefs for pupils/students and teaching behavior] (Sakihama, Hayashi, & Fujita, 2016)

This scale was created to judge appropriately the difference between teachers and university or graduate students who want to be teachers. This measure was based on an idea supported by Ito (1992) that beliefs teachers hold about children (pupils, students) and about lessons or learning processes can be divided by “teacher-centered” or “student-centered.”
This is a 4-point Likert scale, but has an additional feature in that it is biaxial. Each item can be recognized as either constructionist perspective (student-centered) or traditional perspective (teacher-centered). The smaller number an answerer selects, the more constructionist he/she is considered to be, while the larger the number, the more traditional.

In this research, the questionnaire (See Appendix A-1 & A-2, and A-1 was used for practical purposes) also includes sex, years of experience, targeted students, style of classes and a range of professed beliefs, related to the children (pupils, students) and to lessons or learning processes. Options on this questionnaire are counselling (group encounter), coaching, experience (learning from other teachers), religion, psychology (educational psychology), teaching method (cooperative learning, collaborative learning, Manabiai [mutual learning], Manabino kyoudoutai [learning community], TOSS (Teacher's Organization of Skill Sharing), Tsuzurikata kyouiku and others.

**Implementation**

This questionnaire was web-based. The participation requests were made through supervisors, coaching associations, and a meeting of high school principals in the Hokusei-chiku [North area] in Mie prefecture. Multiple responses were avoided by requiring that respondents specify their mailing address. The survey period was from 30 January to 3 March, 2017.

**2.1.4 Results**

I analyzed the data of 460 people, excluding any missing data. To comprehend how coaching influences teachers’ beliefs, the teachers were split into several groups based on what their beliefs had been affected by, the teachers’ point of view about the autonomy of schoolchildren and teaching behavior were then considered. In this research, three groups of
the teachers were examined. The three groups are a) including coaching (209), b) including counseling (121) and c) only experiences (123).

As for the four factors in Sakihama et al. (2016), Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was calculated in SPSS ver. 24. The way of teaching subscale consisted of 9 items (\(\alpha=.768\)), the autonomy subscale consisted of 6 items (\(\alpha=.847\)), the self-control subscale consisted of 4 items (\(\alpha=.762\)) and the teaching behavior scale consisted of 11 items (\(\alpha=.852\)) (Table 2 and 3).

A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict the three dependent variables based on four independent variables. In particular, a) including coaching, b) including counseling and c) only experiences were defined as dependent variables, and way of teaching, autonomy, self-control, and teaching behavior were identified as the independent variables.

Table 4 shows the result of the analysis. In three independent variables, a) including coaching indicates positive standard partial regression coefficient. On the other hand, c) only experiences shows negative one in each independent variables. Thus, teachers who are only molded by their own experiences have a tendency to hold beliefs of teacher-centered instruction, whereas those who are shaped by coaching are inclined to be student-centered.
Table 2

*Means, Standard Deviations and Cronbach Alpha for Four Factors:*

*Way of Teaching, Autonomy, Self-Control and Teaching Behavior*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Way of teaching</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching behavior</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 460. ** p < .01.*

Table 3

*Intercorrelations for Scores with Effects on Teachers’ Beliefs*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Including coaching</th>
<th>Including counseling</th>
<th>Only experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Including coaching (209)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including counseling (121)</td>
<td>0.18 **</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only experiences (123)</td>
<td>-0.55 **</td>
<td>-0.36 **</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 460.*
### Table 4

*Multiple Regression Analysis Relating Effects on Teachers’ Beliefs and Beliefs for Schoolchildren and Teaching Behavior*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Way of teaching</th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Self-control</th>
<th>Teaching behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$SE B$</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>$B$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including coaching (209)</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.33 **</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including counseling (121)</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only experiences (123)</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.16 **</td>
<td>-.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>.07**</td>
<td>.11**</td>
<td>.04**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>35.47</td>
<td>11.04</td>
<td>18.52</td>
<td>5.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 460. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01.*
2.1.5 Discussion

Coaching has made progress on a broad array of issues, but one idea has taken on a pivotal role, which is that client has his/her own answer inside him/herself (see 1.1.1). Every coach stays with clients, listening, acknowledging and questioning them (see 1.1.2). The principle of coaching is that the clients and their coach work cooperatively so that the clients can induce their answers from inside or retain their indigenous state (Chichibu, 2007; Fukaya, 2010; Nishigaki et al., 2015). In other words, the interaction between coach and client is central to coaching, and learning coaching has an effect on the teachers’ qualities and beliefs. The results of this research tend to support this conclusion.

In the meantime, the words, “teaching from the senior colleagues,” can be found in the free descriptions for “only experiences.” This implies that schools in Japan fundamentally have teacher-centered classroom. This also supports Kawamura & Kokubu (1996) showing that teachers commonly hold high compulsive beliefs in daily school situations and these beliefs come from not their personal factors but their occupation as a teacher.

2.2 Students' Side: How Coaching Influences Students’ Views

2.2.1 Applying coaching to classes: Reflection sheet

a. a reflection sheet (Figure 3)

When thinking of applying the procedure of coaching to classes, it is necessary to remember the definition of coaching (see 1.1.1), and the sequence of coaching (see 1.1.3). Moreover, we should take the context of classes in schools into consideration.

A Coaching Portals framework is presented by Nieuwerburgh & Campbell (2015) based on their definition of coaching in (Nieuwerburgh, 2012, p. 17);

A one to one conversation focused on the enhancement of learning and development through increasing self-awareness and a sense of personal responsibility, where the
coach facilitates the self-directed learning of the coachee [client] through questioning, active listening, and appropriate challenge in a supportive and encouraging climate.

They propose, in the light of use of coaching, that school leaders, educators and students can use coaching skills in everyday interactions, adopting a "coaching approach" or working towards the creation of coaching cultures. However, they do not provide any concrete measures that would indicate that this had occurred.

Figure 3. Reflection Sheet, Appendix B-1 (Japanese) was used
Coaching has some advantageous conditions as mentioned before. It is a cyclical process, is goal-oriented and encourages reflective thinking. These unique characteristics were used to develop a reflection sheet for the students as a means of implementing a specific and effective measure of student beliefs and attitudes (Figure 4). It builds on the models introduced in section 1.1, starting with goal-setting, followed by reflections and self-evaluation. By using the reflection sheet, students will be engaged in the procedure of coaching without being made explicitly aware of it. Whenever the students reflect on their own ongoing achievement during the class, writing their reflection sheet, they will be led to mobilizing their meta-cognition. Moreover, the reflection sheet prompts them to readjust their behavior toward the goal attainment by themselves, which raises aspirational standards, achievement motives, and external incentives.

b. The Structure of Class

At the same time, I produced a class structure to help students and teachers provide mutual support for each other. It was composed of 5 phases (Figure 4). A reflection sheet was created to provide a practical guide to using this approach for teachers and students.

Figure 4. The Sequence of the lesson
**1) Goal-Setting Phase, “Today’s GOAL” in the reflection sheet**

At the beginning of the lesson, the students do the goal-setting by themselves after the teacher explains the procedure and the aim of the lesson. They will set their concentration on what they hope to achieve by end of the lesson. This phase includes a lot of both intrinsic and extrinsic effects.

**2) Brief-Review**

In the second phase, the students take time to look back on the previous lesson and share the content with their classmates. This session works as a bridge between lessons.

**3) Activity and Mini-Reflections Phase, “mini Reflection” in the reflection sheet**

The students reflect on their behavior and learning just after each activity (session), answering the questions on the sheet or from the teacher. This questioning gets them to reflect on their behavior, achievement, and feelings, and to check their aspirational standards, achievement motives and external incentives, through metacognition. In short, if this phase is successful, the students grow up to be autonomous learners, adjusting their behavior or goals by themselves.

**4) Reflection Phase – evaluating behavior and learning, “Evaluations” in the reflection sheet**

This phase may be the most valuable for growing cognitive structure. Using the rubric on the reflection sheet, the students reflect on their achievement and behavior. This means that they determine the value of the lesson.

Using a rubric lets the students think about their behavior, what to do or what is desired in the lesson. This helps them make their own goals. At a glance, it looks like an attempt to control the students, but without any guidance in the lesson, the students lose their way, struggling to find their own desired goals. Once they become accustomed to making their own goal using the rubric and succeed in setting up their own norms in the lessons, they
will be able to make up another rubric by themselves. The activity in which the students
create a rubric for lessons becomes a challenging and interesting experience not only for the
students but also for the teacher (Kurita, 2017).

The reflection phase is relevant to student beliefs about the basis of ability and
intelligence, and the ability to alter them through effortful action (Nakaya, 2012). Some
people who regard ability as an acquirable skill have a tendency to increase their ability by
exerting effort to gain knowledge and perfect competencies. Others who see ability as an
inherent capacity are apt to run away from challenging assignments so as not to make errors.
Or some want to achieve something, but others want to compete with others or to be praised.
There are countless aims that cause people to make an effort. For this reason, with the
assumption that feedback and questioning from the teacher appeal to the beliefs of the
students, they should be done to encourage them to acquire a new skill.

The students conclude this phase by stating what they have learned in a short time and
sharing it with their classmates. This session works as a bridge as Looking-Back Phase does,
which gives them an extra learning opportunity. Some of them may practice sharing the
content in advance at home in order to decrease the threat of the beginning of the next lesson.
This becomes an effectual rehearsal activity.

5) Anticipation Phase, “Message for myself in the next lesson” part in the reflection
   sheet

In this phase, the students anticipate the next lesson. The students think about their
desired behavior in the future, which plays a significant role in image training. Students or
clients visualizing and feeling what they want to be or do is a meaningful activity in coaching.
In coaching, it is believed that people will be what they desire to be.

c. a ground rule

In addition, this sheet has “ground-rule” on the back, which is a kind of code of
HOW COACHING INFLUENCES

conduct in the classroom to foster community. Coaches create a peaceful atmosphere using a similar rule when they start a seminar. The ground rule, stated below, presents students with two ideas intended to foster communities: a) None of the participants in this class are wrong or mistaken; b) We respect each other’s “individuality” so that we can enjoy mutual growth in a safe and rewarding atmosphere.

By studying classes in a primary school in Japan, Matsuo and Maruo (2007; 2009) found that there is a common process for generating a discussion well, which is ground rules. These rules exist to help the children be proactive in talking together and learning from each other.

2.2.2 Advantage for English lessons

The reflection sheet is considered to have advantageous points, especially for English lessons. This is because English lessons in Japanese schools usually consist of a few different activities or developing a succession of them out of consideration for attention span and the appeal of novel activities (Higuchi, Midorikawa, & Takahahi, 2007; Ota, 2012). This allows ongoing reflections to be taken easily during lessons (see 2.2.1 & 2.2.4).

The situation around English lessons in Japan tells us more about why they are in this condition. Currently, English lessons are required to teach five skills; listening, reading, interaction, production and writing based on CEFR and the new university entrance examination (MEXT, 2015a; 2017). Consequently, aims of the lessons are shifting from the students’ knowledge to the students’ capabilities, in other words, what they can do rather than what they can remember (see Introduction).

This may mean there are strengths of this reflection sheet as well as limits in it uncovered in this research. However, considering education nowadays wants students to be reflective and metacognitive, this research shows meaningful and promising outcomes for
using the reflection sheet to develop those skills. Furthermore, it can be said that English lessons offer leading examples for other subjects in developing new approaches to take with students.

2.2.3 Purpose and Hypothesis

This research aims to answer two questions. The first is how the teaching environment created by teachers who have trained as coaches differs for students when compared to the teaching environment created by teachers who have not trained as coaches. The second is how these differences affect students. The reflection sheet described before was used (see 2.2.1).

Every coach undergoes several pieces of training. Often they are planned to help to create a good atmosphere and complete efficient sessions. Therefore coaches consider building rapport with their clients as the primary purpose (see 1.1.2).

Thus it would appear that whether a teacher has learned coaching skills or not makes a difference in their teaching environment. Additionally, considering the outcomes in the first research, which showed that coaches tend to be student-centered, the teaching environments the students face are understood to be different. The lessons taught and teaching environment are expected to be student-centered and the students are expected to feel rapport or trust for teachers with coaching skills.

In addition, coaching sequence has goal-setting at the beginning, and reflection at the end. Grant (2012) explains that “the monitoring and evaluation of actions and the generation of feedback as the coachee [client] moves through the self-regulation cycle is a vital part of the coaching process” (p. 159), pointing out the difficulty and importance of the coach’s skills in setting goals that will generate useful feedback. The goal-setting in this research raises students’ motivation to learn.
2.2.4 Method

Conditions

I will compare the response of the students after they have taken two different classes. Teacher 1 is a teacher with some training in coaching skills, while teacher 2 is a teacher without training.

To level the playing field for this research, the following things were considered:
1) Both of the teachers are the same sex; 2) They both have a similar amount of experience; 3) Neither teacher has ever taught any lessons to the participants before; 4) Lesson contents and procedures are the same; 5) Both classes were usually taught by the same teacher in regular lessons.

Participants

All the participants are first grade students at a high school. Out of 78 students, 37 belong to class A and 41 to B. They took two classes on consecutive days and answered the questionnaire at the end of each of the lessons.

Lesson contents and procedures

The lesson is for English Communication I for the first grade in a high school. Students in class A takes a lesson by teacher 1 first, followed by teacher 2, while those in class B do the opposite. Teacher 1 teaches class A on the first day, while teacher 2 teaches class B (see Appendix C-1). They do the reverse on the next day (see Appendix C-2). The contents on the first day’s lesson are described in part a) in the lesson outline below and the second day’s contents in part b).

Lesson Outline (See Appendix C-1 & C-2)

1. Agreement on the “Ground-Rule” (only in the lesson by teacher 1)
2. Lesson goal: The students are told that the goal of the lesson is to increase the number of English words they speak in 1 minute.
3. Goal-setting (only in the lesson by teacher 1)

4. Counting the number of English words each student can speak in 1 minute with tally counters: They are asked,
   a) Please introduce yourself, or b) What do you like?

5. Check their vocabulary: They are asked, a)/b) What is it, displaying images simultaneously.

6. Reflect on their behavior and learning (only in the lesson by teacher 1)

7. Information Exchange: They are asked, a) To introduce the person to their partners, looking at a picture, or b) To explain what present they give to their friends.

8. Reflect on their behavior and learning (only in the lesson by teacher 1)

9. Counting the number of English words each student speak in 1 minute.

10. Reflect on the lesson using the reflection sheet (only in the lesson by teacher 1)

11. Answer the questionnaire (see Appendix D-1).

**Scales**

I. Students’ Trust for Teachers (Nakai & Shoji, 2006)

This scale is for measuring how much trust the students have for their teachers. They used this to investigate junior high school students' trust in their teachers, and to examine factors contributing to trust. Exploratory factor analysis of Students' Trust in Teachers Scale reveals three factors. These are a sense of security, distrust, and validity of teacher's behavior.

II. Evaluation Scale of Teaching (Tsugawa, Hoshino, Yoshimura, Senoo, & Terada, 2008)

This scale was created for university students to evaluate teaching excluding seminars and exercises. One of its main features is that the evaluation of the teachers is divided into two categories: contents of teaching and teacher’s efforts.
Appendix D-1 and D-2 are questionnaires using these two scales, and Appendix D-1 was the questionnaire used in this study.

2.2.5 Results

When it comes to the increase rate of wordage, all these classes raised their rate. The classes were aimed at increasing the number of words students speak in 1 minute and the students were all told this goal. The contrast in the rate of progress between the girl and boy students in the experimental condition is worthy of note (Table 5-1 & 5-2). The rates of girl students make more progress in the lesson by teacher 1 than by teacher 2, which contrasts with the boys.

As for two factors mixed plan analysis of variance (Table 6), the teacher’s effort differs significantly between teacher 1 and 2. This is caused by the coaching skills that exert a positive impact on teacher’s description, classroom’s ambiance, clear voice and awareness of students. These are consonant with outcomes of the questionnaire.

To analyze the particulars of students’ feelings, the 5 questions which show the largest difference in students’ response to teacher 1 and teacher 2 were selected for closer analysis. These questions are marked in table 7. Question 37 (the largest margin), 13 (the second largest) and 34 (the fifth largest) are about what they think of the teacher; He is easy to listen to, has confidence in instructing, and has zeal and will for the lesson. The question 32 (the third largest) is whether they think the contents of the lesson will be advantageous for their future. Although the content of the lessons by the two teachers is the same, they assess the value of the lesson so differently. Question 18 is whether they feel comfortable talking to the teacher about their personal problems. This shows how much rapport they have with each of the teachers.
Table 5-1

*Increase Rate of Wordage for Class A and Class B*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Increase Rate of Wordage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Class A</td>
<td>109.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class B</td>
<td>140.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>125.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Class A</td>
<td>112.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class B</td>
<td>118.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>115.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 78. (Class A = 37. Class B = 41.)*

Table 5-2

*Increase Rate of Wordage for Boys and Girls*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Increase Rate of Wordage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>109.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>140.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Girls</td>
<td>109.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>115.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 78. (Boys = 38. Girls = 40.)*
For Sense of Security, Distrust, Validity of Teacher's Behavior and Teacher's Efforts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Class A (n=37)</th>
<th>Class B (n=41)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher 1 Mean (SD)</td>
<td>Teacher 2 Mean (SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of security (α=.84)</td>
<td>3.09 (0.45)</td>
<td>2.95 (0.58)</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distrust (α=.87)</td>
<td>1.22 (0.33)</td>
<td>1.28 (0.45)</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validity of teacher's behavior (α=.78)</td>
<td>3.43 (0.47)</td>
<td>3.30 (0.58)</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content of teaching (α=.88)</td>
<td>3.52 (0.41)</td>
<td>3.30 (0.56)</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.07  †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's efforts (α=.90)</td>
<td>3.63 (0.41)</td>
<td>3.32 (0.54)</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>.03  *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 78. †p < .10. *p < .05.
Table 7

*Margin in two teachers' means for each question*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Mean margin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>3.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2.6 Discussion

This research shows that there are certain differences in the students determined by whether their teacher has coaching skills or not. It is difficult to determine the reason for the difference because there are a lot of elements such as characteristics, relationship, attitudes, community of learners and so on. However, considering the situation, coaching skills and the reflection sheet are regarded as the biggest factors in these results.

Students’ responses to the questionnaire, table 6, show they changed their attitude, and eventually, the things they learn will change as well, even if they are studying the same thing. This proves that lessons by teachers who go through coaching training help students motivate themselves. Sato (2001) established that the “more empathic and strict in the lesson the students find their teachers, the more the students accept learning strategies (p. 11).” The outcome of this analysis of variance shows the students were more willing to learn the strategies if they were presented using a conventional method in combination with a coaching atmosphere.

Additionally, it deserves particular mention that the students feel the significance of learning the lesson. This is mainly because they set the goals and raise their intrinsic motivation. Whatever the reason(s), it is clear coaching processes in GROW support the students in choosing what to do, and, moreover, that their choice will be respected and valued. Perceived competence and self-determination are accepted as two main factors in intrinsic motivation, and self-determination prior to the other and often even elicits it (Deci, 1985; Usui, 1992). Hiromori (2005) indicates that learners of foreign languages who are given the opportunity to make decisions are apt to be motivated intrinsically, and that this self-determination will be an important factor for motivating English learners.

Especially, girls may be more inclined to depict their reflection accurately and are better at revealing their emotions, or shedding the interior of their mind brings their
motivation up (see Table 5-1 & 5-2). This follows Hayamizu (1993), which shows girls tend to transform extrinsic motivation into intrinsic one better than boys. Coaching sequence deserves an opportunity to transform the extrinsic motivation into intrinsic one.

2.3 Academic Achievement: How Coaching Influences Self-Regulated Learning

2.3.1 Purpose and Hypothesis

The previous section shows that lessons taught using coaching skills and the reflection sheet have a positive effect on the students. Coaching skills are favorably received by the students. The reflection sheet encourages the students to learn and concentrate on what to do.

In this section, the contribution to self-regulated learning such a lesson will make is discussed. Right from the start, coaching helps clients become more independent (see 1.1.1). Therefore, coaching may well support self-regulated learning.

As to learning strategies, Ames and Archer (1988) insist that there should be target setting such as mastery goals if you want students to use learning strategies. Also, according to Schiefele (1991), students will not use the strategies unless they are motivated to use them. Thus, if they have goals and are motivated to utilize the strategies, the situation will be changed.

2.3.2 Method

Participants

All the participants are first grade students at a high school. They all take English Communication I. The lesson for one class is done using coaching skills and the reflection sheet is the one introduced in the previous sections. The other 6 classes are done without them. The former is the experimental group, while the other 6 classes are the control group.
How coaching influences

**Scale**

Learning Strategy Scale (Sato & Arai, 1998)

This scale was designed from and is composed of two scales: the metacognitive strategy scale and the cognitive-resource strategy scale. The former has two factors: flexible strategy and planning strategy, while the latter has three factors: operational strategy, social resource strategy and cognitive strategy.

The study was conducted to explore the construction of learning strategies and to investigate how these strategies were related to students' learning goals and causal attributions. Questionnaire that assessed the use of learning strategies, learning goals and causal attributions was administered to 405 Japanese primary and junior high school students.

In addition to this scale, the questionnaire includes questions about how many strategies they use and how well they use those strategies in learning and motivation (see Appendix E-1 & E-2, and E-1 was used for practical purposes). Additionally, the questionnaire investigation using this scale was conducted three times during the first semester. Only the third investigation had a free description answering the question: What did you learn through this English lesson?

### 2.3.3 Results

As for these four factors in Sato and Arai (1998), Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was calculated in SPSS ver. 24. The flexible strategy subscale consisted of eight items ($\alpha=.89$), the planning strategy subscale consisted of six items ($\alpha=.82$), the operational strategy subscale consisted of seven items ($\alpha=.84$), the social resource strategy subscale consisted of four items ($\alpha=.78$), the cognitive strategy subscale consisted of seven items ($\alpha=.89$), the strategy use consisted of three items ($\alpha=.68$) and the motivation use consisted of three items ($\alpha=.80$) (Table 8).
Two factor mixed plan analysis of variance shows that the students who did not use the reflection sheet provided significant reduction in all of the factors. In general, it appears that using the reflection sheet helped students keep their motivation to learn.

In these lessons, we did not teach learning strategies explicitly. If the students had had the opportunity to be taught them, the outcomes might have been more compelling.
Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations, and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results for the Effects of Using the Reflection Sheet on Seven Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>With Reflection Sheet (= 39)</th>
<th>Without Reflection Sheet (=236)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>Second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible strategy (α=.89)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25.87</td>
<td>25.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning strategy (α=.82)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19.90</td>
<td>19.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational strategy (α=.84)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23.38</td>
<td>23.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social resource strategy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(α=.78)</td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>12.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive strategy (α=.89)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23.44</td>
<td>23.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy use (α=.68)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.92</td>
<td>8.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation use (α=.80)</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>6.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 275. **p < .01.
The last questionnaire had free writing. It is possible to explore this research in a little more depth using this information. Free writing in the questionnaire was examined by KH Coder 3, which analyzes data from texts.

The number of the students in the control group (without the reflection sheet) was 236, while experimental group (using the reflection sheet) was 39. However, the number of valid responses in the control group was 113 and the number of valid response in the experimental group was 33. The rate of the former was 0.48%, but the latter was 0.85%. There is a large difference in the number of students who wrote their thoughts in the free writing part. It may show the students who had used the reflection sheet are accustomed to reflection and write more than those who had not used it.

To examine free writings by students (Appendix F), KH Coder was used. Table 9 shows the top ten most frequently appearing words. In regard to frequency of word use, control group has “difficult” in the 3rd, which means 16% of the students answer that English is difficult, while experiment group does not have the word in the top ten.

In addition to analyzing the frequency of word use, KH Coder 3 was also used to analyze the co-occurrence of words. As both groups had “English” and “important” in the top two spots, it is useful to pay attention to the words used in conjunction with these two words.

As for “英語[English],” in control group, the word is used in conjunction with “大切[important],” but in experiment group, it is in conjunction not only with “大切[important],” but also with “学ぶ[learn]” and “将来[future]” (Figure 5-1 and 5-2). With respect to “大切[important],” in control group, as written before, the word is used in conjunction with “英語[English],” but in experiment group, it is in conjunction not only with “英語[English],” but also with “理解[understanding]”, “予習[preparation]”, “内容[content]” and “コミュニケーション[communication]” (see figure 5-1 and 5-2).
Table 9

**Frequently Appearing Words on Free Writing Part on the Reflection Sheet**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extracted words</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>Extracted words</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using the reflection sheet (= 33) [experiment group]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Without the reflection sheet (= 113) [control group]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>Learn</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>Think</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronounce</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 5-1. Co-occurrence words network in the experiment group
Figure 5-2. Co-occurrence words network in the control group
2.3.4 Discussion

First, the numbers of all sources in the ANOVA results (Table 8) decreased. Additionally, the students who did not use the reflection sheet reduced these numbers by much more than the students using the reflection sheet did. Yamamori (2004) reveals that one third of the students in the first grade of junior high lose their will and lower their self-efficacy after the final exam at the end of the first term. This is believed to be the result of their belief that their effort is not effective, which decreases their subsequent motivation to learn. This is true for the situation in this research.

What's remarkable with this outcomes is that using the reflection sheet appear to have helped students keep their motivation to learn. This may be because the students understood why they were studying English (see section 2.2). This motivation became clear also from their free writing responses on the questionnaire. Three points are found there, that is, issues related to “English”, “important” and “difficult” (see Table 9, Figure 5-1 & 5-2).

The analysis of “English” reports the difference of detail or specifics. In the control group, they don’t connect “English” with what to do or their wants. In contrast, in the experimental group, they connect it also with “learn” and “future,” which implies that they picture how they will learn English and use it, and visualize their futures.

The analysis of “important” uncovers that the students in the experimental group tend to consider the importance of English in more detail. They value the time for learning such as preparation for lessons and lessons themselves and the understanding of verbs in sentences and meaning of passages, and how to learn and what to learn.

In the analysis of word frequency, only the control group has “difficult”, what is worse, it is the third most frequent word. However, this does not happen in the experimental group. What is more, the experimental group’s free writings contained the followings: (I learned in lessons [that])
struggling to the end

- studying over and over so that I can learn English

- the longer time I study English, the more things I can do in English

- communicating in English is very fun for me

- how to learn English

This implies that using the reflection sheet helped reduce the cost of reflection or caused meta-cognition and academic delay of gratification which means learners' intentions to postpone immediately available rewards in order to obtain larger rewards which are temporally distant. In other words, when the students realize the rewards of reflection, they may be willing to do it.

The research in this section revealed the role of coaching in self-regulated learning. The role is to help students keep motivation to learn and encourage them to learn English thoroughly. It also serves to reduce the cost of reflection, cause meta-cognition and academic delay of gratification, which are considered important in self-regulated learning theory.
Limitations

There are limitations to the studies in this thesis. Firstly, the number of the teachers who are compared in section 2.2 is only two, which causes a situation in which their personal character may have a large influence on the outcomes. In fact, the teacher without training in coaching is recognized as quite a gentle and kind individual who easily develops the rapport with students and teachers alike.

Secondly, the targeted students are limited to a high school in section 2.2 and 2.3. Each school has its own culture, which influences school spirits and traditions. The school where the studies were done is not high-achieving. This may be why some of the students lost their self-efficacy, but they are more cooperative than competitive. These conditions of the school and the students may limit the scope of the research.

Conclusion and suggestion

Research in section 2.1 uncovers that teachers who have learned coaching come to think and behave in more student-centered ways than those who have not. Their lessons will therefore have a tendency to be student-centered ones. This will encourage them to welcome lessons that enhance 21st Century Skills for students.

When it comes to the question of how to practice student-centered teaching in classrooms, coaching creates a meaningful answer for teachers. Yajima and Arai (1996) expressed that “raising motivational structure in the classroom leads to students’ autonomy learning, thus it is clear that making more affinity in the classroom to lower anxiety to learn is important” (p. 338), the outcomes of this research supports this goal. Besides, Hamada and Shoji (2013) implemented psychological testing to determine the effects of coaching, and they found that coaching reduces the anxiety of subjects. Speaking of anxiety, especially
lessons for foreign languages is said to raise the anxiety of learners. The effect of coaching described above can be a clue for teachers for foreign languages.

Research in section 2.2 proves two things. Firstly, teachers who have learned coaching can convey a sense of enthusiasm to students. This enables their lessons to be more attractive to the students. Secondly, the students who experience the coaching sequence become more conscious of why they learn and how and what to learn. It also gives the students chances to transform their extrinsic motivation.

Research in section 2.3 reveals that the students who learn using the reflection sheet keep their motivation to learn better than those who do not. According to previous studies, students will not use learning strategies, and even if they study them they will not use them when they feel the cost of using them is too high (Ichikawa, 1993; Sato, 1998). However, the outcomes of this research show that students will reduce the cost of using learning strategies and come to foster the ability of self-regulated learning.

Now I would like to consider “a process model of learning motivation in the L2 classroom” in Dörnyei (2001). It defines the process as three phases composed of choice motivation, executive motivation and motivational retrospection, and that learners’ motivation moves from one to the next over time (pp. 19-23).

Linked to Dörnyei’s model, the studies in this thesis have goal-setting, learning strategies and the reflection sheet, each of which reflects one of the phases of Dörnyei’s model. Goal-setting is described earlier and represents choice motivation. The reflection sheet might have the role of motivational retrospection for the students, if not, teachers can ask the students to do it on the reflection sheet. The executive motivation aspect of the model is present in the learning strategies. Thus, thinking of learning effectiveness, the point I wish to emphasize is that teachers should teach learning strategies in addition to the coaching skills
and their sequence to help students to become self-regulated or autonomous learners. (Figure 6)

1) Section 2.1 illustrates coaching skills and their sequence and indicates their importance in lessons.
2) Section 2.2 proves the transition of the motivation.
3) Section 2.3 implies lowering the cost of learning strategies.
4) Then, what is more, teaching learning strategies will enhance self-regulated learning.

Figure 6. Conclusive Suggestion
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HOW COACHING INFLUENCES


HOW COACHING INFLUENCES


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Appendix A-1 Questionnaire for teachers’ beliefs in section 2.1 (Japanese)
1. 以下の1〜19の教師からみた子どものとらえ方や学び方について、自分の考えがAとBのどちらに近いかですか。1:Aに近い 2:Aに少し近い 3:Bに少し近い 4:Bに近い のうち、あてはまるところに〇をつけてください。

(例) 児童・生徒は元気だ。

1. 児童・生徒というものは、好奇心が強く自発的に色々学んでいくものだ。

2. 児童・生徒は放っておかれると自分からすすんで活動するものだ。

3. 児童・生徒は、自由にさせておくと、なかか独創的なことをしているものだ。

4. 児童・生徒は放っておかれると、かえって自分なりに工夫して、勉強していくものだ。

5. 自然に任せていても、児童・生徒自身が、自分の生活を良くするために努力するものだ。

6. 児童・生徒は、自分なりに適切な方向をみつけて成長していくものだ。

7. 児童・生徒は教師の目がなくても、やるべきことはきちんとやっていくものだ。

8. 物事の正しさ、善し悪しなどはとくに教えてやらないで、児童・生徒なりに身につけていくものだ。

9. 特にしつけに気を配らなくても児童・生徒なりに地域や学校できちんと生活できるものだ。

10. 児童・生徒は、信頼して任せておけば、とくに悪いことや困ることをしないものだ。

11. よい教師は、児童・生徒に問いの解決に至る道筋を示すものだ。

12. 教師の役割は、児童・生徒の自発的な探求を促すことだ。
A

13. 授業では、正解でなくても構わないので児童生徒にいろいろな意見を述べさせるべきだ。

14. 児童・生徒が学びに最も意欲的になるのは、問題の解き方を自分で発見できた時だ。

15. 学びの目的は、考える力を育てることなので、授業では考える道すじの習得を中心とすべきだ。

16. 時間が限られているからと言って、教師が直接答えを教えるのではなく、まず児童・生徒に考えさせることが大切だ。

17. 効果的な学びのためには、自分以外の考え方に触れることが重要なので、児童・生徒同士の自由な話し合いを認めるべきだ。

18. 学びにおいては、どのように考えたかという過程が大切だ。

19. 児童・生徒の活動や発表は、できるだけはめることが大切だ。

20. 学びにおいては、児童・生徒から多種多様な答えが出るのが当然だ。

21. 人は自ら育つ生き物であるので、できるだけ教えることを避けたい。

B

授業では、児童・生徒が混乱しないように教師が正解を提示すべきだ。

児童・生徒が学びに最も意欲的になるのは、良い成績を取った時だ。

学びの善し悪しは、知識量に左右されるので、授業ではできるだけ多くの知識を教えるようにすべきだ。

学校での時間は限られているから、児童・生徒には問題とその答えを教えるべきだ。

効果的な学びのためには、教師の指示がよく聞こえるように、静かで私語の少ない教室であるべきだ。

学びにおいてはどれだけたくさんの知識を身につけたかが大切だ。

児童・生徒がどんなに頑張ったとしても、結果が伴わない場合はむやみに求めるべきではない。

学びにおいては、そもそも児童・生徒に求められる答えは1つしかない。

人は白紙として生まれるので、できるだけ多くのことを教えたい。
<p>| | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22. 生徒一人一人の進度に合わせて指導する。</td>
<td>生徒全体の進度がそろうように指導する。</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. 授業では生徒の発言の機会を多くとる。</td>
<td>授業では教師の説明の機会を多くとる。</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>24. 結果よりも生徒の取り組みの過程を重視する。</td>
<td>生徒の取り組みの過程よりも結果を重視する。</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>25. 授業では生徒が問題を解く（考え る）時間を十分にとる。</td>
<td>授業では教師の説明の時間を十分にとる。</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. 生徒の誤りは、生徒自身で気づくよう指導する。</td>
<td>生徒の誤りは、教師が指摘することを通して指導する。</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. 授業では生徒が自ら学ぶ時間を多くとる。</td>
<td>授業では教師の指導の時間を多くとる。</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. 公式・法則の成り立ちは、児童・生徒自身が考えることを通じて理解させる。</td>
<td>公式・法則の成り立ちは、教師が説明することで児童・生徒に理解させる。</td>
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<tr>
<td>29. 生徒に寄り添い、生徒が自信を持てるようにしながら授業を進める。</td>
<td>到達すべき客観的な目標を中心にすえながら授業を進める。</td>
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<tr>
<td>30. 生徒のつまずきや誤りを意図的に取り上げ指導する。</td>
<td>正しい見方・考え方や解き方を中心に指導する。</td>
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<tr>
<td>31. 指導の過程は、型にはめず流動的に考える。</td>
<td>指導の過程は、導入・展開・まとめ、といった流れを考える。</td>
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<tr>
<td>32. 困難な問題は時間をかけてじっくり考えさせる。</td>
<td>困難な問題はヒントなどを出して解決できるよう導く。</td>
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<tr>
<td>33. 一つの解き方だけではなく、他にもいろいろな解き方があることに気付かせるような指導をする。</td>
<td>一つの解き方について何度も反復することでしっかりと身に付けさせるような指導をする。</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. 授業はできる限り生徒のペースで進める。</td>
<td>授業はできる限り教師のペースで進める。</td>
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<tr>
<td>35. やさしい問題だけでなく、できれば難しい問題にも挑戦する機会を設けながら指導する。</td>
<td>難しい問題を避け、できるだけやさしい問題だけを解かせるように指導する。</td>
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<tr>
<td>36. 生徒が問題に興味・関心を持ち、生徒から積極的に疑問や質問が出るような授業の組み立てや指導を行う。</td>
<td>生徒から疑問や質問が出ないように丁寧な説明を行い、問題に興味・関心を持てるようにする。</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

ご協力ありがとうございました。
Appendix A-2 Questionnaire for teachers’ beliefs in section 2.1 (English)

• **Gender**  Male / Female

• **Targeted students**  Nursery school / Elementary school / Junior high school / High school / Senior to high school

• **Class scale**  Individual / Group (up to 10 people) / Class

• **Things that have influenced the teacher’s beliefs**

  - Counselling (or group encounter) / Coaching / Experience (or learning from other teachers) / Religion / Psychology (or educational psychology) / Teaching method (e.g. cooperative learning, collaborative learning, Manabiai [mutual learning], Manabino kyoudoutai [learning community], TOSS (Teacher's Organization of Skill Sharing), Tsuzurikata kyouiku and others)

**Of A and B, which is your belief closer to? Select a number from 1 to 4.**

  - Number 1 is close to A / Number 2 is a little close to A / Number 3 is a little close to B / Number 4 is close to B

1. A. Students are curious and learn many things voluntarily.
   
   B. Students are not willing to learn something without external stimuli

2. A. Students willingly do a lot of things when they are given freedom
   
   B. Students are not willing to do anything when they are given freedom.

3. A. Students are do creative things when they are given freedom.
   
   B. Students do not do very meaningful things when they are given freedom.

4. A. Students manage to study in their own way when they are given freedom.
   
   B. Students do ineffective things and kill time when they are given freedom.

5. A. Students naturally make an effort to make their life better.
   
   B. Students cannot help spending their time poorly.
6. A. Students grow up by finding the right way by themselves.
   B. Students cannot grow up without direction from others.

7. A. Students keep up with their responsibilities even if they are not watched by teachers.
   B. Students do not keep up with their responsibilities if they are not watched by teachers.

8. A. Students learn to distinguish right from wrong without being taught.
   B. Students learn the wrong things if they aren’t taught.

9. A. Students can manage their lives without being disciplined by adults.
   B. Students cannot manage their lives unless they are disciplined by adults.

10. A. Students do not do bad things when they are trusted.
    B. Students are apt to do bad things unless they are watched.

11. A. Good teachers show students the way to move toward solving problems.
    B. Good teachers show how to solve problems directly.

12. A. The role of teachers is to encourage students to explore on their own.
    B. The role of teachers is to make students pursue a goal the teacher made.

13. A. In lessons, it is better to let students have their own opinion regardless of whether it
    is right or false.
    B. In lessons, teachers should show students the right answer so as not to bother students
    by asking them to create their own answers.

14. A. Students become most motivated when they discover how to solve problems.
    B. Students become most motivated when they get good marks.

15. A. The aim of school is to foster students’ thinking power and learning how to think is the
    main goal in classes.
    B. The value of school is decided by the volume of knowledge learned and gaining as
    much knowledge as possible is the main goal in classes.
16. A. Even if time is limited, it is important for teachers to let students think.
   
   B. Time is limited, so teachers should teach questions and their answers.

17. A. To learn effectively, it is important to know others’ opinions, so students should be allowed to talk with each other.
   
   B. To learn effectively, students should be quiet in order to listen to what teachers say.

18. A. In learning, students’ thought processes are most important. OR In learning, the way students think is most important.
   
   B. In learning, how much knowledge students learn is most important.

19. A. It is important that teachers praise their students’ efforts as much as possible.
   
   B. Even if students make their best effort, if the results are not good, teachers should only praise them modestly.

20. A. In learning, it is natural for students to have a variety of opinions.
   
   B. In learning, the answer is the only one for students to answer in the first place.

21. A. We grow up on our own, and teachers should avoid telling us how to think.
   
   B. We are born as a blank slate, and teachers should teach as much as possible.

22. A. My instruction is tailored to each of my students.
   
   B. I instruct all the students in the same way.

23. A. Students have many opportunities to speak in my lessons.
   
   B. I use most of my hours of lessons to explain things in lessons.

24. A. I stress processes and efforts by students rather than outcomes.
   
   B. I stress outcomes rather than processes or effort

25. A. I give time for students to think and solve problems.
   
   B. I don’t have enough time to explain in lessons.

26. A. I have my students notice their mistakes by themselves.
   
   B. I point out my students’ mistakes.
27. A. I provide a lot of time for students to learn by themselves in classes.
   B. I spend a lot of time teaching things to students in classes.

28. A. As for formulas and rules, I let my students think and learn it.
   I present formulas or rules to students, and let them discover how to apply them.
   B. As for formulas and rules, I teach my students so that they can understand them.
   I teach students how to use rules or formulas so they will apply them correctly.

29. A. I support my students so that they have confidence in classes.
   B. I give lessons toward an objective goal set in advance.

30. A. I intentionally lighten the importance of student mistakes in my lessons.
   B. I focus on the correct view, way to think, or solve in my lessons.

31. A. I think of the process of instructing as flexible.
   B. The process of instructing has a rigid form: introduction, development and conclusion, in that order.

32. A. I let my students have enough time to grapple with difficult problems.
   B. I give some hints for my students to reach the solution without taking too much time.

33. A. I give lessons aimed at helping students realize there are many solutions.
   B. I give lessons aimed at teaching students the correct solution through repetition.

34. A. In lessons I try to match the pace of students’ understanding as much as possible.
   B. In lessons I move at my own pace as much as possible.

35. A. I give students opportunities to attempt more difficult problems in lessons.
   B. I avoid difficult problems and give easier problems to students.

36. A. I make lessons and plan instruction so that students will become interested in problems and ask questions
   B. I make lessons and plan instruction so students questions will be answered without the need for them to ask or take a special interest.
Appendix B-1 Reflection sheet used in English lessons (Japanese)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A(3)</th>
<th>B(2)</th>
<th>C(1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>意思</td>
<td>言葉をよく聴けた</td>
<td>言葉を聞き逃すところがあった</td>
<td>言葉をあまり聴けなかった</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>意見</td>
<td>自分なりの意見を持ち、まとめた</td>
<td>自分なりの意見あったが、まとめられなかった</td>
<td>自分なりの意見は持ってなかった</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>活動</td>
<td>自分の意見を、分かろうように話した</td>
<td>結論はできた</td>
<td>結論に達しなかった</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>習得</td>
<td>分かりやすく解説ができ</td>
<td>解説ができた</td>
<td>解説がうまく書かなかった</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>動く</td>
<td>自分で頑張って動いた</td>
<td>動きを隠して動かせた</td>
<td>動けなかった</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>貢献</td>
<td>熱心に意見を提言</td>
<td>まるで意見を提言</td>
<td>貢献は見られなかった</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) 学習目的:
- 本日の授業の学んだ点 _________ / 100

(3) 上記のことについて、以下のことを書いてください。
- わかったこと・わからなかったこと・こんなことがある
- 次の授業での自己自身へのメッセージ

三重大学大学院教育学研究科（三重県立桑名西高等学校）石田正寿 ver.
Appendix B-2 Reflection sheet used in English lessons (English)

[Image of the reflection sheet]

Grade:  
Class:  
number:  
name:  

English Expression [Content]

0. Introduction (Today's GOAL)
1. 1st Session (mini Reflection1)
2. 2nd Session (mini Reflection2)
3. 3rd Session (mini Reflection3)
4. Quiz & Whole Reflection

(Today's GOAL) * I would like to do / I want to learn to do /…

(mini Reflection1) * I did / I did not / I feel / Next I would like to…

(mini Reflection2) * I did / I did not / I feel / Next I would like to…

(mini Reflection3) * I did / I did not / I feel / Next I would like to…

(1) [Attitude]  □ How much I enjoyed this lesson _______/100

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A (3)</th>
<th>B (2)</th>
<th>C (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Listened carefully</td>
<td>Listened sometimes</td>
<td>didn't listen so well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion</td>
<td>Formed an opinion and summarized it</td>
<td>Formed an opinion</td>
<td>Unable to form an opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking</td>
<td>Talk simply my own idea</td>
<td>Talk each other</td>
<td>Cannot talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Asked in a succinct and organized manner</td>
<td>Asked questions</td>
<td>Didn't ask any questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking action</td>
<td>Acted voluntarily</td>
<td>Acted when ordered or asked to</td>
<td>Didn't act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributions</td>
<td>Contributed meaningfully for others</td>
<td>Contributed a little bit</td>
<td>Didn't contribute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) [Learning]

□ How much I learned in this lesson _______/100

(3) Think and write more  
□ What I learned, want to learn more and what I did during the lesson

________________________________________________________________________

□ Message for myself in the next lesson

________________________________________________________________________
### Appendix C-1 Teaching plan for the first lesson in section 2.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content / Procedure</th>
<th>Notes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong> (5min)</td>
<td>Explain the research and ask the students to participate in it &amp; Show today’s goal <em>/“Goal setting” and “Ground rules” only in teacher 1’s lesson</em> &lt;make groups of four&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Practice using tally counter</strong> (2min)</td>
<td>Try using the tally counter in pairs. <em>It’s good for one student to read the text “One of you will read your textbook, and the other will use the tally counter so you can learn to use it.”</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Count the number of words the student speak in 1 minute</strong> (3min)</td>
<td><strong>Q1. Please introduce yourself.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson (30min)</strong></td>
<td>“I will give you some hints to make your sentences longer and more interesting. …”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0. Students will do 3 activities with the goal of adding reasons to their opinion to make their speech, more detailed, more convincing and longer.</td>
<td>“☆ ☆ ☆”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☆ ☆ ☆</td>
<td>Vocabulary that is useful for answering Q1, and it can also be used in Q2. One student will look at the blackboard, and the other will look backward/opposite. One will explain a vocabulary word using other expressions, and the other will guess it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Vocabulary Guess Game</td>
<td>Information Gaps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-introduction words (baseball, rabbit, sister, snow) are reviewed or introduced to students.</td>
<td>Students introduce a person from a worksheet while their partner listens and fills in the missing information. They then reverse roles and repeat. Finally, students check each other’s answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☆ ☆ ☆</td>
<td>“Ask your partner to fill your blanks. You have to use only ‘Questions and Answer’ style. Get the information of your partner.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Information Gaps</td>
<td>“Check your answers with your partner.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students check words, expressions and questions in pairs (2min)</td>
<td>Fill in the blanks on the sheet in the counter pair (4min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check their answers (2min)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>Instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Make up a person’s profile on a worksheet</td>
<td>“In this session, we will make up a profile of a girl. You have the sheet with words you have already practiced. Now, do you have anything else for a profile?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check and practice of vocabulary</td>
<td>“Make up a profile by yourself.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual work (2min)</td>
<td>“Make up a profile with your partner.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner work (4min)</td>
<td>“Show your profile to your group.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation in group (3min)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count the number of words the student speak in 1 minute (3min)</td>
<td>Students answer the question by speaking for 1 minute. Count the number of words each student speaks and record it. <strong>Q2. What do you like?</strong> Recommend it to your friend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaire (7min)</td>
<td>Have students complete the questionnaire. Class, number, gender, the number of words at the beginning and the end of the lesson, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix C-2 Teaching plan for the second lesson in section 2.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content / Procedure</th>
<th>Notes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Introduction** (5min) | Explain the research and ask the students to participate in it & Show today’s goal  
*“Goal setting” and “Ground rules” only in teacher 1 lesson  
<make groups of four>  
Teacher 1 and 2 explain and ask.  
The lesson is taught in English from this time onwards. |
| **Practice using tally counter (2min)** | Get ready to use the tally counter  
Try to use tally counter in actually (1min)  
Try using the tally counter in pairs.  
*It’s good for one student to read the text  
“One of you will read your textbook, and the other will use the tally counter so you can learn to use it.” |
| **Count the number of words the student speak in 1 minute (3min)** | Students answer the question by speaking for 1 minute.  
Make a note of the number of words spoken.  
Q1. What do you like?  
“I will give you some hints to make your sentences longer and more interesting. …” |
| **Lesson (30min)** |  
0. Students will do 3 activities with the goal of adding reasons to their opinion to make their speech, more detailed, more convincing and longer.  
☆ ☆ ☆  
1. Vocabulary Guess Game  
Objects that students may like (book, game, flower, money) are reviewed or introduced to students.  
☆ ☆ ☆  
2. Information Exchange  
Students check words, expressions and questions in pairs (2min)  
(What is your present for your friend/mother/son?)  
I will buy/present ～ for my ～, because ….  
Fill in the blanks on the sheet in pairs (4min)  
☆ ☆ ☆  
Check and make up their plans (2min) |
| | Vocabulary that is useful for answering Q1, and it can also be used in Q2.  
One student will look at the blackboard, and the other will look backward/opposite. One will explain a vocabulary word using other expressions, and the other will guess it.  
☆ ☆ ☆  
(What is your present for your - ?)  
Students present information about plans to buy a gift for someone while their partner listens and fills in the missing information. They then reverse roles and repeat.  
Finally, students check each other’s plans.  
“Ask your partner to make up your plan. You have to use only ‘Questions and Answer’ style. Get the information of your partner.”  
Then, students make up sentences by themselves on the same topic. |
3. Today is X’s birthday. Let’s buy a present for him/her together.
Check and practice of vocabulary

Individual work (2min)
Partner work (4min)
Presentation in group (3min)

“In this session, you will decide a present for your friend. Use the sheet we have been using in today’s lesson for words. Now, do you have anything else you want to give as a present?”
“Decide a present by yourself.”
“Decide a present with your partner.”
“Introduce and recommend your agreement to your friends in a group.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Count the number of words the student speak in 1 minute (3min)</th>
<th>Students answer the question by speaking for 1 minute. Count the number of words each student speaks and record it.</th>
<th>Q2. What do you want? “Recommend it to your friends in a group.”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaire (7min)</td>
<td>Have students complete the questionnaire.</td>
<td>Class, number, gender, the number of words at the beginning and the end of the lesson, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D-1 Questionnaire in section 2.2 (Japanese)

(Question 1 to 10 is used for sex and the number of words in lessons.)

11. この授業の先生は、いつも私を拉げる動機にかかず人格になるだろうと感じた。
12. この授業の先生は、自分の考えを押し付けてくると感じた。
13. この授業の先生は、自信を持って指導を行っているように感じた。
14. この授業の先生は、威厳を持っているように感じた。
15. この授業の先生は、一部の人を、ひいてしていると感じた。
16. この授業の先生の考え方は否定的だと感じた。
17. この授業の先生なら、私との約束や秘密を守ってくれるだろうと感じた。
18. この授業の先生なら、いつでも相談ができるだろうと感じた。
19. この授業の先生は、一度言ったことを、一貫性を失うと感じた。
20. この授業の先生は、正直であると感じた。
21. この授業の先生は、何事にも一生懸命であると感じた。
22. この授業の先生は、自分の見解で態度が変わると感じた。
23. この授業の先生は、教師としてたくさんの知識を持っていると感じた。
24. この授業の先生は、私を大事にしてくれていると感じた。
25. この授業の先生には、教師としての威厳があると感じた。
26. この授業の先生には、正直感を感じた。
27. 私が悩んでいるとき、この授業の先生は私を支えてくれるだろうと感じた。
28. この授業の先生と話していると、困難なことに立ち向かう勇気が沸いてくるだろうと感じた。
29. この授業で学んだ内容は、興味や関心が湧いてくるものだった。
30. この授業で学んだ内容は、自分を成長させるものだった。
31. この授業で学んだ内容は、就職や進学に役立つものだった。
32. この授業で学んだ内容は、将来仕事をする上で役立つものだと感じた。
33. この授業で学んだ内容は、他者に誇れるものだった。
34. この授業の先生は、授業に対して熱意を煮凝があった。
35. この授業の先生は、よく準備された授業をおこなっていた。
36. この授業の先生は、授業内容をわかりやすく説明していた。
37. この授業の先生は、聞き取りやすい話し方をしていた。
38. この授業の先生は、学生の理解に合わせた授業をしていた。
39. この授業の先生は、学生の反応や意見を活かした授業をしていた。
40. この授業の先生は、授業を受けやすい環境をつくっていた。
Appendix D-2 Questionnaire in section 2.2 (English)

(Question 1 to 10 is used for sex and the number of words in lessons.)

11. I thought that this teacher came to care about me as a person.
12. I felt that this teacher forced his opinion on me.
13. I felt that this teacher had confidence in his instruction.
14. I felt that this teacher was arrogant.
15. I felt that this teacher played favorites with some students.
16. I felt that this teacher had negative thoughts.
17. I thought this teacher could be trusted to keep a promise or secret.
18. I thought I could ask this teacher for some advice about my personal problems at any time.
19. I felt that this teacher often changed what he said.
20. I felt that this teacher was honest.
21. I felt that this teacher was a hard worker for our lessons.
22. I felt that this teacher changed his attitude or mood.
23. I thought that this teacher was very knowledgeable.
24. I felt that this teacher cared about me.
25. I felt that this teacher was dignified.
26. I felt that this teacher had a sense of justice.
27. I thought that this teacher would support me if I was confused.
28. I thought that I would be encouraged to tackle something difficult by talking with this teacher.
29. The contents of this lesson interested me.
30. The contents of this lesson changed my perspective or gave me a new understanding of something.
31. The contents of this lesson were useful for my future job and further education.
32. I thought the contents of this lesson would be advantageous for my future.

33. The contents of this lesson are something that I would be proud to share with others.

34. This teacher was excited and engaged by the teaching of this lesson.

35. This teacher seemed well prepared for the lesson.

36. This teacher was easy to understand.

37. This teacher was easy to listen to.

38. This teacher modified the lesson to the students’ understanding.

39. This teacher took advantage of students’ responses and ideas about the lesson.

40. This teacher created a comfortable atmosphere for students.
Appendix E-1 Questionnaire in section 2.3 (Japanese)

【この授業を受講する生徒へ】

このアンケートを実施することで、この授業を通して、「どのような学習の力が身についたか」を調査したいと考えています。授業担当の先生の指示にしたがい、アンケートへの回答をしてください。

現在の自分自身を振り返り、勉強をする際に「どういうことをしているか」「どんなことを考えているか」を正直に答えてください。構造です。

なお、今回のアンケート結果は、成績評価には一切入りません。授業担当の先生に個人の結果を見せることはありません。また、調査に協力をしたくないという方は、回答欄を白紙のままで提出をしてください。

以上のことを理解した上で、アンケートに答えてください。

データの整理をするため、回答欄の最初に「学年、クラス、出席番号、名前」を記入してください。出席番号は、1年2組3席であれば、10203とマークをしてください。

よろしくお願いいたします。

三重大学大学院教育学研究科
荒尾研究室 石田正寿

以下にしたがって、マークカードへの記入をしてください。

1. 男性は“1”，女性は“2”にマークをしてください。

以下の2〜33については、
「頻繁にそうする」：5，「どちらかと言えばそうする」：4，「どちらともいえない」：3，
「どちらかと言えばそうしない」：2，「まったくそうしない」：1
でマークをしてください。

2. 勉強を始める前に、これから何をどうやって勉強するかを考える。
3. 勉強しているときに、やった内容をおぼえているかどうかをたしかめる。
4. 勉強でわからないときは、やる順番を考える。
5. 勉強しているとき、自分がわからないところはどこかを見つけようとする。
6. 勉強をしているときに、やっていることが正しくできるかどうかをたしかめる。
7. 勉強をするときは、これからどんな内容をやるのか考えてからはじめる。
8. 勉強しているとき、たまに止まって、一度やったところを見なおす。
9. 勉強するときは、自分でできた計画にそっておく。
10. 勉強するときは、その日の用事を考えて勉強のやり方を変える。
11. 勉強のやり方が、自分に合っているかどうかを考えながら勉強する。
12. 勉強しているときは、内容がわかっているかどうかをたしかめながら勉強する。
13. 勉強でわからないところがあったら、勉強のやり方をいろいろ変えてみる。
14. 勉強するときは、さじょに計画を立ててからはじめる。
15. 勉強する前に、これから何を勉強しなければならないかについて考える。
16. 勉強で大切なところは、くり返して書いたりしておぼえる。
17. 勉強で大切なところは、くりかえし声に出しておぼえる。
18. 勉強をするときは、内容を自分の知っている言葉で理解するようにする。
19. 新しいことを勉強するとき、今までに勉強したことと関係があるかどうかを考えながら勉強する。
20. 勉強をするときは、授業中に先生の言ったことを思いだすようにする。
21. 勉強していて大切だと思ったところは、言われなくてもノートにまとめる。
22. 勉強していて疲れたかったときは、しるしをつけておいて後で見おおす。
23. 勉強するときは、内容を頭に思いうかべながら考える。
24. 勉強する前に、勉強に必要な本などを用意してから勉強するようにする。
25. 勉強するときは、大切なところはどこかを考えながら勉強する。
26. 勉強していてわからないところがあったら、先生にきく。
27. 勉強するときは、勉強に集中できるような工夫をする。
28. 勉強するときは、さいごに友達と答えあわせをするようにする。
29. 勉強するときは、自分一人でできるようにする。
30. 勉強でわからないところがあったら、友達に勉強のやり方をきく。
31. 勉強でわからないところがあったら、友達にその答えをきく。
32. 勉強するときは、参考書や事典などがすぐ使えるように準備しておく。
33. 勉強できる友達と、同じやり方で勉強する。

以下の34.～39.については、それぞれの質問事項のa)～e)、あるいはそれとよく似たことを、「どれも使用していない」1、「いくつか使用しているがうまくいっていない」2、「いくつか使用しているが1つか2つはうまくいっている」3、「いくつか使用しており3つ以上うまくっている」4、でマークをしてください。

34. 勉強を始めようとするときに「すること」は以下にありますか。
   a) 始める前に、準備物を整える
   b) スマートフォンやゲームなどの「気が散る原因になりそうなもの」を片付ける
   c) 「いつまでに、なにを、どのように」といった計画を立てる
   d) 「やること」を具体的に細かく考える
   e) 「やり方」をいくつか考えて、そこから選ぶ

35. 勉強を始めるときに「感じたり、考えたりすること」は以下にありますか。
   a) そのことが自分にとって「どんな意味があるか」を考える
   b) やることの中に「興味をもつこと」を探す
   c) 「やり終えたときの自分自身」を想像する
   d) もううまくいかなくても「どういった成長ができそうか」を考える
   e) 自分自身に「うまくやれる」と励ます
36. 勉強をしている最中に「すること」
   a) 集中する
   b) 適宜、短い休憩をとり、「ベース配分や時間」を意識する
   c) 「覚えるところ」は何度も繰り返して覚える
   d) 理解が深くなるよう、「自分の言葉」に置き換えて理解をする
   e) 「考えて分からないところ」は友人に助けを求める

37. 勉強をしている最中に「感じたり、考えたりすること」
   a) 自分自身に「やることの価値」を確認する
   b) 「真しくやれているか」を確認する
   c) 「楽しくやられているか」を自問自答する
   d) 途中で数回「そこまでをうまくやっている自分」を確認する
   e) 自分自身に「頑張れ」と声を掛ける

38. 勉強をやり終えたとき「すること」
   a) 「自分がやったこと」の自己評価をする
   b) 「自分のやり方の良い点や悪い点」を振り返る
   c) 「十分な努力ができたか」を振り返る
   d) 「うまくやれた理由」と「うまくやれなかった理由」を考える
   e) どうすると「より良くできたか」を考える

39. 勉強をやり終えたとき「感じたり、考えたりすること」
   a) 「どんな意義があったか」を感じる
   b) 「新しく学んだこと」を書き出す
   c) 「どんな気分か」を感じる
   d) 「次はこんな風にしてみよう」と考える
   e) 自分自身に「よくやった」と声を掛ける

40. この授業を通じ、英語についてどんなことを学びましたか。
    回答用紙の記入欄に、自由に書いてください。

＊アンケートは以上になります。ご協力ありがとうございました＊
Appendix E-2 Questionnaire in section 2.3 (English)

1. Gender

From question 2 to question 33, answer number 5 for often do, number 4 for rather do, number 3 for neither, number 2 for rather not do, number 1 for never do.

2. I make plan for what and how to do before studying.

3. I check whether I remember what I studied.

4. I think of the order when I cannot understand something in studying.

5. I try to find what I cannot understand in studying.

6. I check whether what I do is right or not while studying.

7. I start to study what I am going to learn at the first.

8. I sometimes stop to check what I have studied during studying.

9. I follow my plan in studying.

10. I change the way to study thinking of what to do on the day.

11. I study considering whether the way suits me or not.

12. I study checking whether I can understand the contents or not during studying.

13. When I have something I cannot understand in studying, I try to change the way.

14. When I study, I start with planning.

15. I think about what to do before setting to study.

16. I repeat and memorize something important in studying by writing and so on.

17. I repeat and memorize something important in studying by speaking and so on.

18. I try to understand the contents using my words in studying.

19. Studying new things, I do with thinking of whether they are associated with what I knew.

20. In studying, I try to remember what my teacher said during the lesson.

21. When I think something important, I note them without direction.
22. When I make mistakes in studying, I mark them up and review them later.

23. In studying, I have a think imaging the contents.

24. I prepare needed books and other things before setting to study.

25. In studying, I study thinking of what is important.

26. When I cannot understand something in studying, I ask my teacher.

27. In studying, I make all kinds of efforts to concentrate.

28. In studying, I check the answers with my friends at the end.

29. In studying, I try to do all by myself.

30. When I cannot understand something in studying, I ask my friends the way.

31. When I cannot understand something in studying, I ask my friends the answer.

32. I prepare reference books, dictionaries and other things before setting to study.

33. I study in the same way as a talented friend.

From question 34 to question 39, about things in each question or something like them, reflect do you do them or not and answer number 1 for none, number 2 for doing some but go badly, number 3 for one or two going well, number 4 for more than three go well.

34. When you start to study, what do you do?
   a) Prepare things before starting
   b) Clear away distractions like smartphone or videogames
   c) Plan when, what and how to do
   d) Think specifically about what to do
   e) Make some ways to do and choose from them

35. When you start to study, what do you feel or think?
   a) Think what meaning the contents have for me
b) Look for what you are interested in in what to do

c) Imagine when you finish it

d) Think of what progress you gain even if you cannot do it

e) Say “I can do it” to yourself

36. During studying, what do you do?

a) Concentrate

b) Take breaks properly and think of pacing and amount of time required

c) Learn what to memorize again and again

d) Use your words to learn deeply

e) Ask friends for help for something beyond comprehension

37. During studying, what do you feel or think?

a) Check the value of what to do

b) Check whether the way you do is correct

c) Ask yourself whether you feel interesting

d) Sometimes check whether you have done it well until then

e) Encourage yourself saying “Cheer!”

38. When you finish studying, what do you do?

a) Evaluate what you have done

b) Reflect what is good and what is bad in your way

c) Check whether you have tried hard or not

d) Think of the reasons you can do well and the reasons you cannot

e) Think of something letting you do better

39. When you finish studying, what do you feel or think?

a) Feel and think what meaning the contents have

b) Write down new things you learned
c) Feel what you feel like

d) Think the next time how you would like to do

e) Say to yourself, “Good job!”

40. What did you learn in this English lessons?

    Please write anything on the space for free writing.
Appendix F Students’ Answers in Free Writing Part on Questionnaire

リフレクション・シート使用あり
英語を話せることは将来とても役立つということ
文法の幅広い使い方を学んだ
予習。復習をすることはとても大切だと学び、楽しく英語を学ぶことを理解しました
リスニングの聞き方や発音のしかた
これからの人々とつながることができる大切な言語で、人々の行動を読みとくことが重要だと学びました
動詞一つでもたくさんの択い方があるということ。同じ日本語でもいくつかの英訳があるということ
英語の使い方や発音を学びました
グループで話し合うことで自己一人で考えるとより頑張れることが
発音のしかた
人間は挑戦するのが好きということと英語の大切さと必要性
英語は将来とても大切だということ
英語は将来役立つ
友達と一緒に関し授業に取り組むこと
細かいところまで習得しないと高得点を取れないこと
その文はどういうときに使うのかなど
社会で自立するため
内容理解の大切さ、ある動詞の意味も文によって意味が変わるということ
ちゃんと予習をしていたら、授業の内容などをよく理解できるから予習は大切だと思った
やりきること
道とかで質問されたときに答えなければいけないので、英語のコミュニケーションは大切だということ
何回もくり返し覚えることで英語は身につく
勉強時間を増やすほどできることが増える
将来英語を勉強しておかないと大変だということ。英語は努力しないと点が取れない
英語でコミュニケーションをとることは楽しいということ
単語を覚えれば、ある程度点数が取れる
英語は難しい
文法、単語など
英語の受け答え。勉強法

リフレクション・シート使用なし
英語が大切だということ
将来英語がとても大切だということ
これからの生活で英語が必要だということを知りました
英語の必要性が上がった
話すこと、考えることはとても大切だと分かった
英語は将来使えると有利になるし大切だということを学ぶことができた
コミュニケーション能力、英語力のレベルアップ
単語の大切さ
英語は社会に出るのに必要だということ
英語を学ぶことは大切だと思った
笑顔、単語の意味、アクセントの位置
英語を読むことの楽しさ
友達とコミュニケーションが取れること
文法、単語、心、笑顔を学んだ
思っていたより楽しいけど難しいこと
英語の楽しさや難しさを学びました
英語は積み重ねが大切だということがよく分かりました
単語の発音とか
英語のコミュニケーション力アップ
単語、文法、表現方法など
勉強のしかた
復習が大切だと思った
勉強したことにより理解できたときの喜び。大切さ
英語
礼儀
知っている意味以外にもたくさん使い方がある単語を知った
英語は将来、社会に出たときも役に立つということ
難しいけど楽しいときがある
ちゃんと先生の話しを聞く
英語が難しいこと
予習復習をして英語を身につけることが大切だということ
英語は難しいということ
英語の大切さ
英語がこれからの人生にとってとても大切なものだということ
中学では学べなかった文法など内容の深い学習ができていると思う
中学校の授業では深くやられなかったことをやっていて、とても楽しかった
コミュニケーション
英語は難しいということ
先生がていねいに教えてくれるので、内容がよく入ってくる
英語はこれから必要
将来に役立つ英語のコミュニケーション力
社会に出たときに英語が役立つかどうか
将来とても大切になっていくことだと思いました
言葉や文法を覚えることに、英語の世界が広がること
コミュニケーションの豊かさ
コミュニケーションのとり方
英語を学ぶ大切さ
過去、未来、現在などの表現のしかた
英語を勉強することは大切だなと思った
単語を覚えていると長文がよく読めるなと思った
英語は大切だということ
英語は大切
教えあいが大切になる
英語は人との教え合いが大切と思った
文法
英語を学ぶことは楽しいと考えた
英語でのコミュニケーションのしかた
勉強する意義。分からない内容も少しずつなくなってきた
英語で話すとき、表情やリアクションが大切だと先生と見ていて感じました
英語は難しい
英語の楽しさ、難しさ
英語は難しいということ
英語の文の作り方などを学んだ
コミュニケーションを学んだ
英語
コミュニケーションについて
コミュニケーションの大変さ
発音記号や文法
英語は難しい
英語でのコミュニケーションの難しさと大切さ
英語は難しい
難しさを学んだ
勉強の大切さが分かった
英語の楽しさ
様々な表現を使いコミュニケーションが取れることが
英語は大切だということ
忍耐力が大切だということ
新しい表現や文の訳し方
英語は大切
コミュニケーションについて学んだ
一つの英語にいろいろな意味があること
いろいろな場面で英語が使われること
英語の難しさと大切さ
表現をすること
学習をしたことを理解すること
英語ができなくても、相手に伝えようとする努力が大切だということ
ジェスチャーが大切だということ
文法
文法について分かりました
コミュニケーション力の向上
表現方法
英語の大切さ
外国人の人と違で会ったら会話できるようになること
表現の大切な
単語はコツコツ覚えること
英語はやっぱり難しいけど、先生の授業は楽しい
暗記するときくらい返しやることの大切さ
英語が難しいということ
英語を学ぶ楽しさ
授業中に寝たら怒られること
英語には多様性があって、いろんなことを世界中に伝えられられと思った
英語
英語を勉強することの大切さ、勉強の大切さ
難しい
英語を学ぶことの楽しさ
英語はとても重要なことだと改めて感じた
単語
いろんな英語表現があること
文法
英語の大切さ
英語はすごく大切だということ
英語は重要
世界中で使われる言語が一つに統一されれば良いと思いました