



# Coaching discourse and linguistic resources for player-centered training: A case study of three professional football coaches

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博士論文

Coaching discourse and linguistic resources for player-centered training:

A case study of three professional football coaches

(選手主体のためのコーチングにおける談話構造と言語資源：

3人のプロフットボールコーチに関する事例研究)

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Coaching discourse and linguistic resources for player-centered training:

A case study of three professional football coaches

Graduate School of Intercultural Studies

Systems of Second Language Education

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### Abstract

Globalization has had a significant impact on sports. An increasing number of Japanese athletes and sports coaches have begun to pursue career opportunities overseas. However, they face numerous obstacles in the process of attempting to accomplish their goals, including limited language proficiency, cultural adaptation challenges, and competition-specific misalignments. Several attempts have been made to support them, particularly in terms of foreign language learning, primarily by Japanese private companies, wherein a number of teaching materials and resources intended to deliver English language education in sports have been developed and made available. However, to date, the existing educational materials lack theoretical underpinnings. Previous studies that have focused on second language (L2) learners who have domain-specific needs have been undertaken in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The branches of ESP research and teaching are generally held to include English for academic purposes (EAP), English for occupational purposes (EOP), and English for business purposes (EBP). While a substantial number of studies have been conducted in the EAP, EOP, and EBP domains, little attention has been paid to the communicative needs and practices of individuals working in *sports* domains.

Therefore, the present study aims to address the gap in the ESP research by exploring the teaching and learning of discourse for sports communities. According to functional linguists, individual language choices are formed and shaped by contextual needs (Eggins, 2004; Goh & Burns, 2012; Halliday, 1994). Drawing on the idea of functional linguistics, this study examined the contextual elements of football coaching sessions, focusing on how football coaches interact with their players in English in authentic training situations. This study specifically sought to investigate what kinds of linguistic resources the coaches used to construct meaning and foster player-centered approach (PCA) (Jones, 2006; Souza & Oslin, 2008; Bowles & O'Dwyer, 2020).

This study is designed as exploratory research and hypothesis-generating in nature and, thus, draws on the use of qualitative research methods. Through the triangulation of various data sources, this study examined the coaching behaviors of three professional coaches using a qualitative data analysis method called the modified grounded theory approach (M-GTA). In addition, while aiming to provide ESP practitioners with a list of context-specific linguistic data, this study attempted to identify the features of coaching language that represent a PCA, which has been regarded as a preferred coaching method for developing players' autonomy (Cope et al., 2016; Forrest, 2014; McNeill et al., 2008). Two sets of data were drawn from authentic training situations at a foreign language learning program designed for Japanese football players and coaches pursuing their careers overseas. A third set of data was gathered during an intact training session led by a Japanese coach who used to be a professional coach at an academy team for an Australian professional football club. While numerous studies have been conducted on the interaction between coaches and athletes in the previous coaching science literature, few empirical studies have delved into coaches'

linguistic choices and players' reactions in naturally occurring training situations. It is for this reason that the present study was designed and implemented. It is expected that the obtained findings will provide new insights into naturally occurring authentic football training situations in both ESP and coaching science fields and eventually lead to interdisciplinary cross-fertilization between the two fields.

The findings of this study revealed that the three coaches' coaching processes generally included the following phases: explaining the purpose and procedure of the training to the players, providing feedback to the players while they were engaged in the training, interrupting the training to correct the players' poor performance, and concluding the training. Based on the circumstances surrounding each coaching context, the coaching method varied. While fundamental procedures are generally the same in the domain of football coaching, the methods of each individual coach, at a micro level, are rather diverse. Idiosyncratic coaching behaviors were identified among the three coaches as a fractal recursive structure, showing authentic modeling or player-centered question-based instruction. The findings indicate that the diverse coaching characteristics observed were the result of the coaching context, characterized by an asymmetrical relationship between coaches and players who have different linguistic backgrounds (a situation where coaches are native speakers (NS) of English and players are non-native speakers (NNS) of English / another situation where a coach is a NNS of English and the players are NS of English), as well as varied coaching philosophies or mindsets. Furthermore, the analysis of language functions and resources for PCA revealed that there are four basic language functions: *question*, *response*, *modulated instruction*, and *involvement*, each of which is further divided into sub-categories with patterned linguistic traits.

These findings have several theoretical and pedagogical implications. First, the investigation into the coaching techniques, philosophies, or background of the internationally trained coaches assisted us in understanding the act of sports coaching in global settings as an intricate and complex phenomenon, comprising many context-embedded elements such as instructional behaviors, coaching backgrounds and mindsets that influence their coaching philosophy. Further, the findings offer insight into how language can facilitate and promote player autonomy and engagement, enabling researchers to conduct a more profound analysis of coaching interactions between coaches and players from the perspective of functional linguistics.

The findings of this study provide pedagogical implications to support L2 players and coaches who wish to pursue their career opportunities overseas. The lexico-grammatical resources identified in this study are types of linguistic forms that tend to occur in naturally-occurring football interactions. Thus, they can be presented to learners to demonstrate how these items can aid football coaches in fulfilling their coaching tasks in real-world scenarios. In addition, the study reveals some specific coaching methods and techniques each of the coaches used to achieve success in the professional context. Given that the objective of the learners was not to achieve proficiency in football-specific grammar and vocabulary, but rather to become competent football players or coaches in foreign countries, the elements of football coaching identified in each coach's coaching process should be taken into consideration in the classroom so that they can understand the essential coaching skills required for coaching practice in foreign contexts.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASUOI: Arizona State University Observation Instrument  
CA: conversation analysis  
CBAS: Coaching Behavior Assessment System  
CBS-S: Coaching Behavior Scale for Sport  
CQPs: coach questioning practices  
CLIL: content and language integrated learning  
DRaC: Demonstration Rigour and Credibility  
EAP: English for academic purposes  
EBP: English for business purposes  
EG: Ethnomethodology  
EMCA: Ethnomethodology-based conversation analysis  
EMI: English-medium instruction  
EOP: English for occupational purposes  
ESP: English for specific purposes  
ETA: English Teaching Assistant  
FES: Football English Session  
GBA: genre-based approach  
GTA: grounded-theory approach  
JFA: Japan Football Association  
LSS: Leadership Scale for Sport  
L2: second language  
M-GTA: modified-grounded theory  
NS: native speakers  
NNS: non-native speakers  
PCA: player-centered approach  
PE: player engagement  
RLSS: Revised Leadership Scale for Sport  
SFL: systemic functional linguistics  
TBLT: task-based language teaching

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Background

In recent years, a growing number of Japanese people have sought opportunities to pursue their interests overseas in both the academic and sports fields. As of 2016, the Japan Football Association (JFA) had 19 Japanese staff members who worked as national team managers, coaches, and/or referee instructors in Asian countries (Japan Football Association, 2016b). Poli et al. (2019) reported that Japan produced 128 players who played overseas in 2019, which was the largest number in Asia. Among the many types of sports, *football* (called soccer in the US) plays a leading role in facilitating the globalization of sports.

The number of locations where individuals engaged in sports can work has increased proportionately with globalization. However, such individuals often confront challenges in their attempts to cross borders and participate in a sports community in a different cultural context. Nishijo (2016) surveyed Japanese football players and coaches who stayed in New South Wales, Australia, finding that approximately half the respondents had difficulties communicating using foreign languages. Tsuji (2013) pointed out various factors that can perplex Japanese student-athletes overseas, including the language barrier, the different football skills required by the local team, and the local coaches' disparate coaching styles during games or training, suggesting that these factors make it difficult for them to be successful in their chosen fields.

Along with the increase of Japanese people going overseas and the country's effort to reinforce this nationwide trend, many supportive projects and educational programs have been established to prepare those planning to study abroad for their new

environment and to help them to achieve goals overseas, especially from the viewpoint of acquisition of social skills and L2s. Their influences and effectiveness have also been a major interest for a number of researchers. Tanaka (2011) demonstrated the utility of offering a preparatory course for students planning to study abroad in the United States, where they are afforded the opportunity to acquire social skills that are deemed essential for thriving in the academic environment in America. Moreover, at Aichi Prefectural University, over 60 percent of students majoring in foreign studies are expected to study abroad for at least one year (Ohyama, 2013). As part of this preparatory program, students are able to participate in a special study program designed to enable them to hone their language skills and communicative competence. Ohyama (2013) found that this program has thus far been effective in aiding students in achieving their academic goals. The programs offered by schools and institutions are just a small portion of the efforts made to support those with academic aspirations overseas. However, although institutional supports to prepare students to go abroad for academic purposes has been extensively provided, the corresponding supports or scaffolding have rarely been offered for those who study abroad for sports purposes.

As noted above, numerous Japanese individuals currently go abroad as football players or coaches. This trend can also be observed in other fields beyond football. As the number of Japanese athletes going overseas has increased, private enterprises have made efforts to assist them in learning their target language, leading to the creation of a range of teaching and learning materials. For instance, in 2016, the Japan Ice Hockey Federation collaborated with companies involved in language education initiatives to offer online English conversation services to members of the women's national team who were seeking to join overseas university or professional teams. Football academies

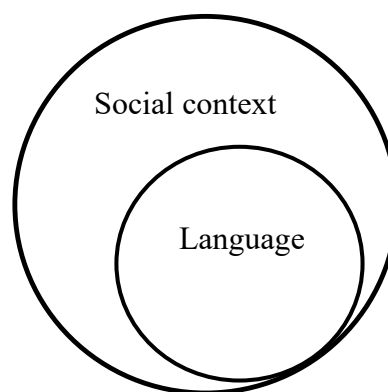


that employ English in their training to teach football have also been established for children aspiring to play overseas in the future. Additionally, textbooks, glossaries, apps, and other media featuring football-related terms and conversations have been developed. In 2020, the Sports English Department at Riseisha College of Medicine and Sports Sciences was founded with the belief that learning English is crucial for players, coaches, trainers, and referees in all positions, in response to the globalization of the sports industry.

Each organization has developed its own support programs and language teaching materials for those desiring to go overseas in the field of sports. However, these materials are not theoretically founded. To more effectively meet the needs of international students in the field of sports, a more theory-based, systematic, and comprehensive study needs to be conducted to investigate the quality and effects of instructional methods and curriculum design.

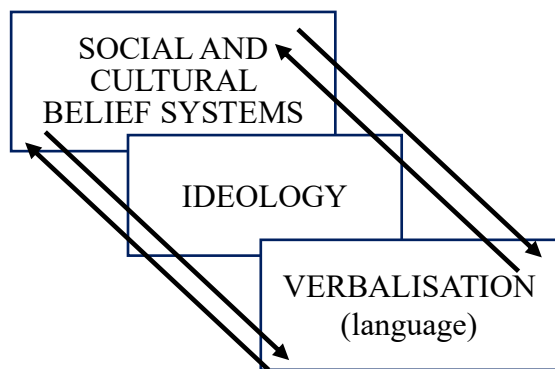
## 1.2. Aims and scope

This study aimed to investigate how professional football coaches interact with their players and identify the features of their language use in intact coaching sessions. To analyze the patterned use of coaching language by professional football coaches, this study employed the concepts of a linguistic theory known as *systemic functional linguistics* (SFL). In SFL, a



**Figure 1. The relationship between language and social context (created by the author and based on Halliday and Martin, 1993)**

language is defined as a semiotic tool, not a set of rules, for accomplishing a task based



on relevant social goals in accordance with the idea of SFL. This study also refers to communication as meaning-making processes realized through participants' language choices, which is formed and shaped by contextual needs (Eggins, 2004;

**Figure 2. Language and ideology (Hasan, 1985)**

Goh & Burns, 2012; Halliday, 1994)

(Figure 1). A context comprises social and cultural beliefs and ideologies, such as an opinion, voice, or viewpoint concerning the reality being talked or written about (Figure 2) (Hasan, 1986). Therefore, in order to understand the authentic features of language use in football coaching, it is necessary to first outline the contextual information of football coaching and identify the behaviors, coaching policies, and linguistic resources used by football coaches to improve their players' performance in intact football training sessions.

In this study, I collected coaching data from three professional football coaches, Oliver, Hiro, and Micky, who had been using English in their own respective coaching contexts. Oliver and Hiro demonstrated their football coaching in English for Japanese student-athletes who wished to go overseas in the future at a pre-study program held in 2017. Micky's coaching data were obtained during a training session at an Australian football academy where he worked as a full-time assistant coach. All the collected coaching data were analyzed to show how the three professional football coaches behaved and used coaching language to enhance the players' performance during the training sessions.

This *asymmetrical* interactions between coaches and players, who have different mother tongues and cultural backgrounds, have rarely been explored in prior research on coaching science, suggesting that we may be able to identify unique coaching behaviors that have not been identified previously. In particular, using multiple analytical approaches, this study aimed to describe how the three professional football coaches use language devices and discourse strategies to communicate with their players in relation to situated coaching behaviors and values they have held for an extended period. This was supposed to lead to a more profound understanding of how football coaching in authentic situations unfolds from a coaching science perspective.

In addition, the current study aimed to explore previously undiscovered types of sports context-related linguistic resources. Using corpus tools, previous English education-related studies in the sports domain have focused on finding technical terminology prevalent in various sports settings (e.g., football, rugby, or basketball) (see section 2.2.2.1.). However, linguistic resources that have interpersonal functions have not been studied in sports contexts, despite many efforts in academic contexts, particularly with written texts. As there has been a shift towards non-didactic, non-reciprocal interactional coaching approaches, it is vital to examine how sports coaches' messages are modified or refined by language usage to establish relationships with their players. This will provide both sports science and ESP scholars with a crucial analytical framework for analyzing their research contexts from their own disciplinary perspectives.

With the ultimate goal of gaining English education-related pedagogical implications for a preparatory program for Japanese student-athletes seeking to go overseas, the present study was conducted to serve three main purposes. First, the study

investigated how professional football coaches behave and what coaching philosophies they have when interacting with their players. This investigation aimed to understand the contextual aspect of the context / ideology-language continuum (Halliday, 1994; Hasan, 1985) (Figures 1 and 2). Second, this study explored what kinds of linguistic resources constitute the interaction between coaches and players in naturally occurring training sessions.

Finally, this study discussed how the findings of this study would advance the knowledge of current coaching science and English language teaching for those who have special needs in sports domain.

### **1.3. Study overview**

This paper is organized as follows. Section 1 has discussed the rationale and justification for developing domain-specific pedagogical resources for students-athletes seeking career opportunities overseas. Section 2 examines the literature on both sports coaching and English education for second language (L2) learners with domain-specific needs, thereby illuminating the recent trend in sports coaching and how it can aid in obtaining pedagogical implications for English instruction for learners with particular needs in this field. Thereafter, to clarify the study's research methodology, an overview of the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms is provided, followed by the description of the modified grounded theory (M-GTA), the analytical tool used in this study. The section also presents the study's research question. Section 3 describes the data collection methods used in the study, as well as the analytical frameworks. Section 4 presents the results of the data analyses, and Section 5 addresses the theoretical and pedagogical importance of the findings, and concludes the paper by summarizing the

results and suggesting directions for future research in this field.

## CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter comprises five parts. To begin, I review the literature on sports coaching to outline the contexts of football coaching and identify how professional football coaches behave to improve their players' performance during authentic football training sessions. The subsequent section then reviews the literature on how learners can be supported from the perspective of language education to address the issue of English-as-a-foreign-language student-athletes who are confronted with communication problems due to their limited language proficiency (Murofushii, 2016; Nishijo, 2016; Tsuji, 2013). This interdisciplinary viewpoint is vital for us to consider how we, as educators and researchers at a tertiary-level educational institution, should devise pedagogical methods that meet the needs of learners seeking to succeed abroad in the sports field using foreign language skills. Third, the section introduces two different research paradigms: positivism and interpretivism. This comparison of research epistemology is important because the M-GTA draws on the concepts of both, while various earlier research projects only adopted one or the other. Fourth, the research methodology of M-GTA is overviewed, including its developmental history, methodological foundation, and philosophical assumptions regarding research epistemology. Finally, the chapter concludes by introducing the theoretical foundation for the analysis of coaching language. The theory is based on SFL, which plays a central role in identifying linguistic features of coaching language produced by the professional football coaches examined in this paper.

## **2.1. Sports coaching contexts**

Based on the SFL perspective on the relationship between language and contexts (see section 1.2), the first step in gaining pedagogical implications for developing language educational resources that are specific to the context of football coaching would be to clarify the target contexts, which would imply that we must investigate how football coaches interact with players to improve football performance. Obtaining further knowledge on how authentic football coaching unfolds may provide us with insights into coaching-related abilities, as well as football coaching-related language skills, thereby enhancing our understanding of the context-language continuum in the target domain. Thus, this study began by conducting a literature review of extant analyses of the contexts of sports coaching.

For most of the 20th century, the study of sports coaching, known as “coaching science,” was a subset of sports science, with the fields of sports physiology, psychology, and biomechanics contributing significantly to theoretical and empirical research on the coaching process (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004; Potrac et al., 2000). Coaching science comprises research on the coaching, learning, and instructional processes directed by coaches (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004; Potrac et al., 2000). The research focus has predominantly been on coaches’ behavior, followed by their thoughts, characteristics, and career development (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). Since the discipline emerged in the early 1970s, most of the coaching science research has been based on a quantitative epistemology known as the product-oriented approach. In recent years, however, qualitative research, which adopts a sociological approach, has assumed a more prominent position in the coaching science research (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). In the following two sections, I review some previous studies that take either the

quantitative or qualitative approach, highlighting the fundamental premises of the two distinct epistemologies underlying them.

### **2.1.1. Product-oriented approach to the study of coaching**

Most of the coaching science research has followed a quantitative research philosophy (see 2.3.), employing quantitative procedures such as questionnaires, scales, and systematic observation instruments. These approaches are defined by their emphasis on deductive reasoning, random sampling, large sample sizes, artificial or controlled settings, and statistical data analysis tools (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). Smith et al. (1977) created the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) by observing and recording the behavior of youth football coaches during practice and game sessions (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). The contents of the behavioral descriptions were analyzed, and a preliminary collection of scoring categories was developed. The system was then used to monitor the behavior of basketball, baseball, and football coaches (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Individual variations in behavioral preferences can be identified using the scoring system, which was found to be comprehensive enough to include most coaching behaviors. These behaviors are categorized into 12 dimensions and classified as either reactive or spontaneous (Smith et al., 1977).

The Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS), which was created by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) to assess coaching behavior in sports, collects information on athlete and coach perceptions of existing and desired leadership styles. It has 40 questions and measures five coaching behaviors: training, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, rewarding behavior, and social support. Athletes who complete the questionnaire determine their preferred and actual behaviors based on the coaching behaviors they



favor or those they observe in their coach. Coaches determine prescribed coaching behaviors based on how they believe they coach. The LSS has been shown to be accurate for several purposes, including depicting perceptions and self-perceptions of and preferences related to coaching styles. Zhang et al. (1997) updated the LSS in 1997 by increasing the number of dimensions. The Revised Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) has 60 components that measure six different behaviors, including the original five plus situational consideration, where individual athletes' maturity and ability levels are taken into account, in addition to situational factors affecting behavior. The RLSS has been used to explore the disparity between male and female coaches at various levels of coaching (Jambor & Zhang, 1997). The Coaching Behavior Scale for Sport (CBS-S) was created to enable athletes to evaluate a coach's effectiveness along seven dimensions of coaching, namely technical skills, competition strategies, personal rapport, physical training and planning, mental preparation, goal setting, and negative personal rapport. The CBS-S is similar to other questionnaire-based instruments that are designed to measure coaching styles in that judgments of effective coaching are based on athletes' perceptions and subjective assessments of their coach (Gilbert & Jackson, 2004).

The Arizona State University Observation Instrument (ASUOI), which was developed by Lacy and Darst (1984), has traditionally been employed as an observational tool to quantitatively identify the behavioral patterns of coaches during training (Evans, 2017; Potrac et al., 2000). Using 10 different behavioral categories comprising instruction, questioning, manipulation, modeling, hustling, praising, scolding, management, use of first name, and other, the ASUOI enables researchers to quantify coaching practices, compare them across a wide range of settings, and create

generalized models of the coaching processes (Evans, 2017; Potrac et al., 2000).

Previous systematic observations using this instrument have revealed that a type of coaching behavior, namely *instruction*, was the most prominently observed among coaches, with some variation. The findings obtained using these measures have led to some important insights in coaching science. For example, Guzmán and Calpe-Gómez (2012) analyzed the interaction between game actions in high-level handball and the verbal behavior of the coach in a game of the 1<sup>st</sup> National Division of male Spanish handball. The type of behavior and the content of the message conveyed by the coach were recorded using a modified version of the CBAS. The study revealed that the coach provided more positive feedback and encouragement after the players' positive actions and more negative feedback and queries after their negative actions, indicating that the content of communication pertained to the results of the technical-tactical action. Jowett et al. (2017) explored whether the quality of the coach-athlete relationship was related to a number of coaching practices in training and competition. The CBS-S-based analysis revealed that athletes' perceptions of good quality relationships, as demonstrated by high levels of closeness and engagement, were better and stronger predictors of various coach activities, whereas high levels of complementarity only predicted positive personal rapport. In addition, high levels of closeness (trust, respect, and appreciation) predicted low levels of negative personal rapport. Jowett et al. (2017) concluded that athletes who develop strong connections with their coaches receive better coaching, suggesting that relationships may play a key role in developing effective coaching environments.

Using the ASUOI, Becker and Wrisberg (2008) systematically examined the practice behaviors of Pat Summitt, the collegiate basketball coach with the most wins in

NCAA Division I history. Summitt's verbal and nonverbal practices were video recorded over six training sessions throughout the 2004–05 season. The results showed that Summitt's coaching behaviors were directed almost equally toward the team and the individual players. The most frequent behavior was instruction, followed by praise and hustle. Contrary to expectations, there was no difference in the quantity or quality of coaching behaviors that Summitt directed toward players with high or low expectations.

Several studies have compared sports coaches from diverse backgrounds, finding that coaching styles vary by cultural backgrounds. Perera and Pushpakumari (2016) explored the relationship between coach leadership behavior and team success in sports in state universities in Western Province, Sri Lanka, by examining basketball, netball, and volleyball matches during the inter-university games in 2014. Data were collected using LSS and RLSS, which were adapted to suit the context. The results showed that training and instruction, democratic behavior, and positive feedback behavior were important in winning the games. The study also found that women perceive more training and instruction behavior than men. Further, a moderate relationship was observed between coach leadership behavior and team success. These findings have important implications for a better understanding of the determinants of athletes' performance beyond coach leadership behavior.

Research on sports leadership using the LSS from a cross-cultural perspective can also provide helpful and meaningful insights for the current study. Chelladurai et al. (1988) explored the differences between Japanese and Canadian university-level male athletes in their leader behavior preferences, perceptions of leader behaviors, satisfaction with leadership and personal outcomes, and the relationship between leader

behaviors and satisfactions. The results showed that 1) the Japanese athletes preferred more autocratic behavior and social support, whereas their Canadian counterparts significantly preferred training and instruction; 2) the Japanese athletes perceived higher levels of autocratic behavior, whereas their Canadian counterparts perceived higher levels of training and instruction, democratic behavior, and positive feedback; and 3) the Canadian athletes expressed significantly more satisfaction with both leadership and personal outcomes than their Japanese counterparts. Thus, coaching behavior or athletes' expectations of their coaches may be influenced by cultural values (Chelladurai et al., 1988).

### **2.1.2. Sociological approach to the study of coaching**

As discussed, sports coaches' behaviors or leadership have traditionally been examined using quantitative methods by means of questionnaires, scales, and observational instruments. These approaches have been related to a growing product-oriented view of education (Macdonald & Brooker, 1995), with coaching expertise being perceived as an "autonomous body of facts that is passed down through generations" (McKay et al., 1990, p. 62). While such an approach has clearly improved athlete performance, it ignores the notion of socially constructed coaching knowledge and tends to portray coaches as "merely technicians participating in the transfer of knowledge" (Macdonald & Tinning, 1995, p. 98). This approach considers coaches' behaviors to be objectively categorizable and causally derived events, essentially separating them from the social contexts in which they are rooted, shaped, and made meaningful. Thus, sociological critics have argued that the resulting models, which are still commonly used in the coaching research, are mechanistic, oversimplified, and fail

to account for the sociocultural nuances of coaching (Cushion, 2007; Jones & Wallace, 2005). In response to a tradition of “realistic” and “decontextualized” approaches to coaching science, contemporary coaching scholars have placed a greater emphasis on understanding sports coaching in its sociocultural sense (Jones et al., 2002; Potrac et al., 2000). This acknowledgment is crucial to the paradigm shift in methodology in coaching science.

As the scientific epistemology for sports coaching has shifted from quantitative/positivist approaches to qualitative/sociological ones, multiple sociological insights have been introduced into the development of coaching science.

Ethnomethodology (EG) and conversation analysis (CA) are related approaches to examining social behavior that aim to reveal the way in which members of society create identifiable and ordered features of social life in real time (Evans, 2017). Both share common origins (Button & Sharrock, 2016; Hester & Francis, 2000; Psathas, 1995). The ethnomethodological view of context originated in Garfinkel’s interest in social order and coordinated social action, as well as the issue of intersubjectivity. Garfinkel (1967) argued that social actors must realize a shared understanding of their situation and the course of action available to them in each context. Culturally derived systems of symbols, values, behavioral predispositions, and social expectations shape how a society perceives and acts in a given context. These contexts are not fixed, but rather “reflexive,” in the sense that they are fundamentally influenced by singular actions and the relevant specifications of identity, place, time, and meaning involved in those actions (Evans, 2017; Lynch & Peyrot, 1992). With these in place, sociologists can investigate how actors collaborate to understand context and decide how to behave.

CA was heavily influenced by ethnomethodology and focuses on the organization

of talk-in-interaction (Evans, 2017; Potrac et al., 2007). CA views context as “reflexive” in that it assumes that the production of talk is considered by social members to be doubly contextual (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Evans, 2017). That is, members’ contributions to interactions are “context-shaped” as they are produced and recognized in relation to various contextual elements that occur before the action (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Evans, 2017). Contributions are “context-renewing,” as they serve as a foundation on which the participants in the interaction can build subsequent contributions. By incorporating analytical perspectives of context-shaping and context-renewing, CA applies the reflexive viewpoint of ethnomethodology to its own analysis of talk-in-interaction (Evans, 2017).

Ethnomethodology-based conversation analysis (EMCA) has been widely used to investigate the situated accomplishment of collaborative work (Arminen, 2008; Luff et al., 2000). Focusing on the sequential study of recordings of naturally occurring embodied institutional interaction, EMCA analyzes the interplay between speaking, bodily behavior, and the use of material artifacts and ecologies to achieve tasks in particular settings using video recordings (Heath & Luff, 2013). Studies begin by looking at a specific detail of talk, gesture, or other multimodal activity in its sequential and interactional environment to see what its design and timing indicate about the participants’ understandings of the “current state of play” (Schegloff, 2005, p. 476) and what new contribution(s) it makes to the unfolding interaction.

Conducting a reflexive interview is another effective way to understand the sociocultural dynamics of the instructional process (Potrac et al., 2000). These interviews enable researchers not only to understand the multifaceted interactions involved in the dynamic coaching process but also to be aware of the contexts in which

coaches act and the influences these contexts have on their pedagogical strategies (Strean, 1998). It has been recognized (Potrac et al., 2000; Sage, 1989; Salmela et al., 1993) that practitioners' enthusiasm, attitude, commitment, and outlook on coaching are shaped by their own experiences of their sport. These experiential, social, and contextual variables that influence the instructional process in sports can only be investigated through interpretive research that focuses on the coaches' "lifeworlds" (Strean, 1998). Researchers have traditionally combined the systematic observation of coaches' behavior and participation observation work to obtain insights into factors that explain expert coaches' high levels of performance and to help sensitize practitioners to recognizing the need to both know the local situation and make adjustments.

The findings obtained using these sociological approaches have led to some important insights that coaching knowledge may be socially constructed, which had not been achieved through the quantitative approach. Evans (2017), for example, adopted ethnomethodology and CA to demonstrate how actions and contexts are interpreted as reflexive phenomena by participants in and as their ongoing accomplishment of intersubjectively intelligible social activities. The study shows how EMCA provides a research technique through which coaching can be considered a profoundly social and contextual practice by demonstrating how one aspect of coaching, namely the correction of player errors, unfolds as a course of situated collaborative action (Evans, 2017). Focusing on the analysis of coach questioning practices (CQPs), which has been recognized as an effective coaching technique to increase players' problem-solving and decision-making skills, Cope et al. (2016) found similar CQP patterns among five different professional youth football coaches' utterances during training sessions. These patterns were 1) coaches' requirements for an immediate player response, 2) leading

questions for a desired response, and 3) the monologist nature of coach/player interaction. In-depth analysis using CA revealed that the coaches positioned themselves as gatekeepers of knowledge and the learners as passive recipients. Cope et al. (2016) suggested that this coach-dominant discourse is not preferable because many of these practices do not enable players to develop their critical thinking skills or take responsibility for their learning. Jones (2006, p. 9) argued for a move away from such an approach, in which is a “high degree of athlete dependency...where athletes are heavily reliant on the coach in terms of their decision-making.” It has, thus, been argued that rather than a coach-centered approach, a player-centered approach (PCA) to coaching and teaching sport is required to give players the autonomy to make their own choices both within and outside of the game (Souza & Oslin, 2008).

Potrac et al. (2002) used the ASUOI to identify the pedagogical strategies of a football coach in the practice environment. The researchers also used an interpretive interview technique as a follow-up method to investigate how the coach’s behaviors were influenced by social, contextual, and experiential factors. The data were analyzed using the notions of “social role,” “power,” and “the presentation of the self.” The authors concluded that the coach’s coaching practice was affected by his perceived need to create a strong social connection with his players and build a bond supported by high levels of trust in his professional knowledge and personal manner (Potrac et al., 2002). Using qualitative approaches, including participant observation and semi-structured interviews, Guest (2007) analyzed the meanings and motivations for the sports participation of male football players in two distinct cultural contexts, the US and the Republic of Malawi. The study revealed that the US team members were likely to perceive sports as a competitive proving ground, an expressive outlet, and an occasion



for self-improvement, whereas members of the Malawian team did not focus as much on these common Western conceptions of sports. Instead, they considered sports a demonstration ground, a pastime, and a venue for self-actualization. These comparisons are related to broader cultural definitions and models that are linked to specific locales. The findings are discussed as demonstrating the usefulness of understanding sports as an empty cultural form that is given meaning in local contexts. As Guest (2007) pointed out, this perspective can be helpful for coaches, administrators, and psychologists engaging with varied athletes who add local meanings to sports activity. While any competent practitioner must respect individual differences among sports participants, understanding the importance of larger cultural meanings can lead to the development of a motivating environment. This seems like a particularly important aspect of sports coaching for the Japanese learners in this study who seek international coaching opportunities.

## **2.2. Language education for specific needs**

I now review the literature on English teaching for learners with specific needs. Teaching methods that aim to enable students to use English in specific situations have been widely studied in the disciplinary area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Dudley-Evans, 1998; Hyon, 2017; Paltridge & Starfield, 2014; Woodrow, 2018). ESP places significant emphasis on the “needs” of the learners who learn English in order to respond to the specific requirements of the target context in which these learners will have to use target language that is “genuine” and “authentic” to be able to serve its purpose. Thus, ESP includes (a) a goal, (b) specificity, (c) the needs of the learners, (d) the target situation, and (e) authenticity and genuineness (Anderson, 2017; Donadio,

2019; Tahririan & Chalak, 2019). ESP can be classified further into two groups: English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which is designed for learners who need to write reports or make oral presentations in the target language in educational and academic settings, and English for Occupational Purposes, which is for learners who aim to be able to perform specific tasks in specific professional fields (Woodrow, 2018; Hyon, 2017). ESP is sometimes contrasted with English for General Purposes (EGP), which is targeted at teaching English to learners with a wide range of goals and motivations (Woodrow, 2018).

Practitioners of ESP aim to provide efficient instruction that meets the particular needs of learners by using text types that are specific to the purpose, content, form, and context of each learner's language use (Hyon, 2017). For example, it has been pointed out that it is inappropriate to use materials with written language for learners aiming to learn spoken language because there are significant differences between written and spoken language in terms of lexical density, grammatical complexity, and degree of situational dependence between the two in terms of their linguistic characteristics (Burns et al., 1996; Goh & Burns, 2012; Mizusawa, 2015). According to Goh and Burns (2012), it is important to be aware of these distinctions when teaching or learning foreign language depending on the target mode (speaking or writing), as these target modes differ in many aspects, some of which are stated below in Table 1:

**Table 1**

*Main Differences Between Spoken and Written Texts (Goh & Burns, 2012)*

Spoken language	Written language
Dialogic / interactional. Co-constructed spontaneously by more than one speaker.	Monologic / non-interactional. Constructed over time by individual writers / readers.

Shared knowledge of context.	Assumed knowledge of context.
Unplanned and negotiated.	Planned and redrafted.
Impermanent (produced for “real time”).	Permanent (produced for the “long-term”).
Close to action in time and space (context-embedded).	Distant from action in time and space (context-removed).
Uses more informal language.	Uses more formal language.

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Choosing an appropriate form of teaching material is also important to meet learners’ needs. When considering teaching English to student-athletes who want to become football players overseas, for example, the foreign language skills they need depend on what situations they are likely to experience. For instance, Japanese football players aiming to join a semi-professional team in New South Wales, Australia, may have to write an e-mail in English to secure an appointment to participate in the first training session. In this case, they must be proficient in written English. After becoming a team member, they may have to understand instruction given by the coach or their teammates in English, which requires them to improve their listening skills. In addition, in games, they may have to give instructions to their teammates using spoken English. In this light, it is important to consider which aspects of language usage should be emphasized on in this ESP context.

### **2.2.1. Main research topics in ESP**

According to Liu and Hu (2021), the field of ESP encompasses a range of significant topics, including needs analysis, various methodological approaches (such as genre-based, corpus-based, contextual, and critical approaches), and research interests (e.g., move analysis, cross-disciplinary and cross-linguistic variation, lexical bundles, vocabulary lists, metadiscourse, and academic writing in a global context). In my

review of the literature on these topics, I aim to illustrate the most recent debates and clarify the significance of this research.

Identifying the target tasks of specialized learners is an essential initial step in language program design. To improve the English proficiency of nursing professionals in Taiwan, Lu (2018) conducted a qualitative needs analysis to understand nurses' English needs and challenges related to clinical nursing practice, as well as to explore their perspectives on ESP courses provided to them. These aspects were identified with a focus on whether the courses adequately reflect their actual English needs and challenges. The findings indicated that participants required strong English communication skills to establish trustworthy nurse-patient relationships and provide effective nursing care. However, they also reported difficulties in English communication in the areas of vocabulary, pronunciation, and accent, and developed negative coping strategies to address these challenges. The nurses found their ESP classes unhelpful, as the content did not adequately address their language needs and obstacles. Similarly, Arias-Contreras and Moore (2022) conducted a needs analysis exploring the English language requirements of agricultural technicians in Chile. They also investigated how these needs are perceived by individuals working in the agricultural industry and by those who educate this group. The findings revealed that technicians needed to comprehend English in order to perform certain job functions. All the teachers in the sample concurred that their students should not only learn general English, but also English that is relevant to their interests and needs.

Unlike genre-based approaches, which typically work with small samples of texts (see 2.2.2), corpus-based ESP research often employs large corpora of written and transcribed spoken texts to identify clear and justifiable patterns in the texts. Gilmore

and Millar (2018) used a corpus-based method to investigate the 8 million word Specialized Corpus of Civil Engineering Research Articles to identify words associated with civil engineering research articles and of potential pedagogic value, identifying pedagogically useful keywords and fixed expressions in these articles. Lan et al. (2022) investigated how the use of noun phrases is associated with L1- and L2-English language backgrounds in academic writing. The 11 noun modifiers (e.g., premodifying nouns, relative clauses, prepositional phrases) were used to measure the complexity of the noun phrase. A Chi-square test followed by a residual analysis was used to statistically analyze noun phrases in the two corpora. Their results indicated an association between the use of noun phrases and whether the author is an L1 or L2 user of English.

Various contextual and critical approaches demonstrate how institutional, social, and global contexts affect the practices and politics of academic literacy and scholarly publication. Ethnographic methods, which are prototypical of contextual approaches, have been used to study academic literacy and disciplinary assimilation. Tao and Gao (2018) utilized life-history interview data to examine the identity construction and negotiation of eight English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teachers at a Chinese university. The study found that becoming an ESP teacher involves a complex process of transforming professional practices and constructing professional identities. Participants also reported a sense of personal satisfaction from their teaching experience, which aimed to assist graduates in acquiring the ESP skills necessary for regional economic development. However, the study also revealed that the marginalization of ESP by the institution made it difficult for participants to establish their professional identities. Kim et al. (2018) investigated the perception of professors

teaching Humanities and Social Sciences of English-medium instruction (EMI) in the context of enhancing the global competitiveness of Korean higher education. Using questionnaires and interviews, they demonstrated that while participants generally supported the internationalization of higher education, they perceived a lack of autonomy in the selection and implementation of the policy as a significant issue. This revealed how an EMI policy is influenced by local factors, such as a shared understanding of the impact of the instructional language on the teaching of these subjects.

Utilizing Swales's (1990) framework for analyzing rhetorical moves, Parkinson et al. (2022) conducted a study on the rhetorical strategies employed in engineering student case studies, a topic that has received limited attention compared to case studies in business, law, and medicine. The study identified three compulsory sections: Introduction, Analysis, and Recommendations, and identified eight moves within these sections that writers can utilize in constructing arguments related to their recommendations. In their analysis, the students drew upon background information, identified issues and questions concerning the case, and employed conceptual frameworks to examine the cases from multiple angles and make recommendations regarding the problems presented in the case. In a separate study, Kesser (2020) examined the rhetorical strategies of successful applicants to the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant grant program. Using a move-step analysis, the study analyzed the personal statements and statements of grant purpose from 50 successful applicants. The results indicated that successful ETA applicants commonly employed four moves in their personal statements: (1) competence claims, (2) motivation for pursuing the ETA grant, (3) motivation for applying to the target country, and (4) framing their childhood

and family history. In their statements of grant purpose, most writers utilized three of the moves identified in their personal statements (1-3).

Contrastive analysis literature has examined L1-L2 differences in academic discourse and English as an L2. Using a three-dimensional model of self-mention, Walková, (2019) analyzed three types of writing in the field of linguistics – L1 English, L1 Slovak, and L2 English writing by Slovak authors. The findings revealed that authors employed various degrees of the three dimensions of self-mention to meet the expectations of their readers while maintaining a balanced power of self-mention. This suggested that certain, but not all, discourse practices related to self-mention might be transferable to L2 English from an individual's L1.

Cotos et al. (2017) conducted a top-down analysis of 900 texts from 30 academic fields in order to examine the rhetorical structure of Methods sections in research articles. This analysis resulted in the creation of a comprehensive, cross-disciplinary model called “Demonstrating Rigor and Credibility” (DRaC), comprising three moves and 16 steps that are defined in terms of functional and content realizations. DRaC was also utilized as the framework for analyzing corpus annotation, which revealed the most common moves and steps, as well as those that are infrequent but consistent within and across disciplines. Using a corpus derived from the legal jurisdiction of the United States, Vass (2017) studied the use of epistemic lexical verbs as hedging devices in law journal articles, Supreme Court majority opinions, and Supreme Court dissenting opinions. The results indicated that patterns of use of epistemic lexical verb hedges can be identified for each genre and can be linked to different communicative purposes, suggesting that a better understanding of hedging use in different genres can improve hedging competence, particularly hedging interpretation skills.

Given the crucial role of vocabulary in language use, it is unsurprising that ESP researchers have recently focused on it. Nation (2022) reviewed theoretical and empirical studies on vocabulary teaching and learning, including the teaching and learning of vocabulary in different language skills, vocabulary learning strategies, measuring vocabulary knowledge, and designing vocabulary instruction in a language course. This review drew scholarly attention to mid-frequency vocabulary, multi-word units, and specialized vocabulary lists, particularly Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List. Rogers et al. (2021) created a corpus-based list that provides multi-word units that occur in academic English, with the aim of producing a large-scale resource that could either be studied directly or used as a reference for practitioners to create additional resources.

Furthermore, research on formulaic language, particularly lexical bundles, has garnered significant scholarly interest. Liu and Chen (2020) investigated the functions of high-frequency lexical bundles in academic lectures. They also examined the similarities and differences in lexical bundles across four disciplines with the goal of aiding L2 English-speaking students enrolled in universities in English-speaking countries in improving their listening comprehension. They found that lexical bundles most frequently perform referential and stance functions in academic lectures, although their function as discourse organizers is also important. Instruction focusing on these functions and other functions of high-frequency lexical bundles can assist in the improvement of core listening skills. They also discovered differences and similarities in the use of lexical bundles in various fields, indicating that these differences should be taken into account when teaching using these bundles to enhance students' proficiency in lecture comprehension.



Building upon the foundational research of Hyland (1998, 2000, 2002, 2005) and utilizing the methodological tools he developed, many researchers have analyzed various types of metadiscourse used in various contexts. Herriman (2022) examined metadiscourse in 10 English instruction manuals using Hyland's (2005a) taxonomy. The results showed that interactive metadiscourse is dominated by frame markers and code glosses, which reflects the purpose of instruction manuals to clearly and efficiently explain how a machine functions. The interactional metadiscourse reflects the dual relationship between the writers and their readers: on the one hand, that of instructor and inexperienced users of the product and, on the other, that of manufacturer and customer. There is considerable literature examining the use of metadiscourse, particularly by Swales (2019), that focuses on the analysis of written texts in academic contexts. Some researchers have investigated how a speaker employs metadiscourse in spoken and non-academic environments. Sari (2014) identified the types and functions of interpersonal metadiscourse markers used in a speech by Michelle Obama. The results indicate that two categories of interpersonal metadiscourse markers were utilized in the speech: interactive and interactional metadiscourse including hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mention, and engagement.

Academic English in a global context deals with issues such as English for research and publication purposes (Liu & Hu, 2021). In an effort to develop preparatory and support courses that help graduate students worldwide write about their research in English for international publication, Cargill et al. (2018) presented a workshop method for advanced graduate students currently writing papers. They also provided modifications to make it appropriate for graduate students who are still taking preparatory coursework before embarking on their research projects. Their decision to

devote half the course to discipline-specific English skills aligned with students' pre-course perceptions of their major challenges. Positive outcomes included student engagement with course tasks, awareness of the links between English learning and scientific research design, conduct, and reporting, and confidence in writing a paper for international submission, indicating that the context-specific adaptation process could be utilized in other contexts to teach writing for publication. McDowell and Liardét (2020) aimed to support Japanese scientists in publishing their work in a foreign language. They examined error patterns in research article manuscripts written by 13 Japanese materials scientists. The results showed that almost half of the identified errors occurred within complex nominal groups. The findings also revealed that the most dominant error pattern involved errors with articles and plurals and suggested the design of a pedagogical tool to assist Japanese materials scientists and language specialists in identifying and correcting these errors.

### **2.2.2. Genre, register, and the genre-based approach**

The ESP approach to teaching and learning the target language is underpinned by the genre theory proposed by John Swales. Swales (1990) defined genre as structured communicative events engaged in by specific discourse communities whose members share broad communicative purposes. Following Swales, many ESP scholars have examined how communicative purposes are conveyed in textually conventionalized ways by members of a particular discourse community who regularly participate in a specific genre and share similar communicative purposes (e.g., Belcher, 2004; Bhatia, 1991; Flowerdew, 2005; Hyland, 2004; Paltridge, 2004). Specifically, ESP genre practitioners believe that communicative purposes are expressed in a sequenced manner,

with a text being built up schematically through a series of moves and steps (Swales, 1990). In this vein, ESP genre research is inclined to focus on the social context or the regularly occurring activities in academic, professional, and workplace settings. Consequently, rather than examining elemental genres or text types, such as recount, description, and explanation, ESP theorists are more interested in macrogenres, such as term papers (Mustafa, 1995), science papers (Hammond & Macken-Horarik, 1999), reports (Flowerdew, 2005), exegesis (Paltridge, 2004), film reviews (Pang, 2002), tourist information (Henry & Roseberry, 1998), care plans (Gimenez, 2008; Leki, 2003), and sales letters (Bhatia, 1991)—genres that are valued as disciplinary discourses within specific discourse communities where communicative purposes are specified. Disciplinary discourses within the ESP framework encompass the meaning of “thinking and talking like an engineer (or biologist, or philosopher, and so on)” (Tardy, 2009, p. 11). That is, from the ESP perspective, genre is viewed as being more than language; it is a conventionalized disciplinary way of being/identity, which involves not only language but also discourses that “shape our perceptions of the world, including how we communicate, act, interact, and understand” (Tardy, 2009, p. 11).

ESP has also shared and diverged from Sydney School genre work, a tradition founded on systemic functional linguistics (SFL), which was used as an analytical framework in this study. As Eggins (2004, p. 20) explains, “SFL has been described as functional-semantic approach to language which explores both how people use language in different contexts and how language is structured for use as a semiotic system.” Within the SFL framework, the genre has been described as a “staged, goal oriented social process” that cultures use to carry out various functions (Martin et al., 1987, p. 59). This SFL concept is similar to the ESP concept of genres such that both

have communicative purposes and structural moves (stages). However, what distinguishes the SFL-oriented genre is its emphasis on the breadth and detailed analysis of the interdependence between social contexts and lexico-grammar (vocabulary and grammar), enabling us to interpret genres from a semantic or functional perspective as patterns of meaning (Martin, 2012). ESP is concerned with genre description at a more macro level, such as moves or organizational patterns of different genres, while SFL is concerned with more micro-level linguistic choices to construct meaning (Yasuda, 2017). In SFL, the social contexts affecting the formation of texts consist of three elements: *field*, *tenor*, and *mode*. *Field* describes the area wherein actual communication tasks take place, the *tenor* is concerned with relationships between speakers and listeners or between writers and readers, and *mode* describes the type of medium through which linguistic messages are conveyed (Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 2004) (see 2.5. for details on the SFL).

Drawing on the notion of genre, a language teaching method called the *genre-based approach* (GBA) has played a central classroom role when we teach language: A genre-based perspective focuses on language at the level of the whole text while at the same time taking into account the social and cultural contexts in which it is used (Dudley-Evans, 1989). The goal of the GBA is to guide students “toward a conscious understanding of target genres and the ways language creates meanings in context” (Hyland, 2004, p. 21) and provide them with explicit, systematic explanations of the ways that language functions in social context (Hyland, 2004). To help learners understand how texts in the target language enable them to accomplish tasks in real-world situations, the GBA adopts authentic teaching materials that include material produced by and for native speakers with communicative purposes since these materials

reflect the kind of language people might actually use in natural situations outside the classroom (Burns et al., 1996; Goh & Burns, 2012). The adoption of such teaching materials is guided by the idea that language is a meaning-making resource for achieving social goals and is shaped by social and cultural elements (Eggins, 2004; Goh & Burns, 2012; Halliday, 1994). In other words, this means that language materials containing a contrived and idealized version of the language that is based on formal sentence grammar (Burns et al., 1996) overlook the nature of language as it is used to fulfill social purposes. Thus, language teaching materials would normally be based on authentic source materials and tasks that mirror the target situation or the skill focus of the textbook syllabus (Woodrow, 2018).

On the assumption that the genre or context determines the repertoires of semantic resources or lexico-grammatical items used in the target communities, genre-based pedagogy practitioners have been advised to identify domain-specific lexico-grammatical items and teach them explicitly or implicitly to learners (Eggins, 2004; Goh & Burns, 2012; Hyon, 2017). Bartlett (2005) collected 248 interactions at three coffee shops and identified widely attested idiomatic uses in this context that are unlikely to appear in commercially published pedagogic materials. Using a systemic functional-based analytical framework (Halliday, 1994), Hayakawa (2008) analyzed English commentary text in art books, a genre that students in art schools frequently encounter in their everyday school life and use as a model when they write a commentary on their own works of art. In another case, Iwamoto (2015) attempted to clarify the register of newspaper English in sports articles, explaining specific and limited patterns in the choice of lexico-grammatical resources: words, rhymes, metaphors, allusions, and polysemy. Burns et al. (1996) provided sample analyses of six

texts collected during the Spoken Discourse Project, from a mother chatting to her son's new friend to making an appointment. De Silva Joyce and Slade (2000) also identified the different genres that occurred over 27 hours of casual workplace conversation. The authors collected and analyzed these conversations to show their learners the structure of their spoken interactions and how they help workers talk to one another, predict the kind of things someone is likely to say, and successfully take turns speaking.

In general, while extracting genre-specific linguistic features, it is conventional to consistently study texts from a particular analytical angle, focusing on language functions that allow participants to accomplish socio-cultural objectives within each discourse community. To examine how speakers and writers in a community interact with listeners or readers, or how they attempt to establish a connection with one another—the present study's focus—a variety of analytical frameworks and functional approaches have been adopted.

This interpersonal nature of texts has always been fundamental to both systemic functional and social constructionist frameworks, which share the premise that all language usage is contextualized by the particular social, cultural, and institutional settings (Hyland, 2005). These approaches have tried to explain how linguistic elements contribute to the formation of the language-context relationship as communicators remark on their propositions and shape their texts to meet their audience's expectations. Halliday (1994), for example, views the system of modal assessment, such as the usages of modal adjunct or finite modal operators, as linguistic elements that realize a speaker's / writer's *attitude* (e.g., opinion or judgment) toward interaction. The most notable approach to these issues is the concept of *appraisal* proposed by Martin (2000), which offers a typology of evaluative resources available in English. Based on Martin's

theory, an appraisal is primarily concerned with the speaker's attitudes, dividing them into three subcategories—affect, judgment, and appreciation, which roughly translate as construing emotion, moral assessment, and aesthetic value, respectively—and how these are graded for intensity. According to Hyland (2005), writers of academic texts make various interpersonal metadiscourse choices, enabling them to show their attitude of balancing confidence and circumspection, facilitating collegial respect, and seeking to locate propositions in the concerns of and interests of the discipline. In popularizations, for example, it helps writers convey their findings as relevant, newsworthy facts for people who may not have a lot of knowledge about the subject or be interested in disciplinary practices.

#### **2.2.2.1. Lexico-grammatical features in sports**

These previous studies on the investigation of the relationship between language and contexts show that the genre or context determines the repertoires of semantic resources or lexico-grammatical choices in the target communities, and language choice in the sports domain is no exception. Drawing on this notion, several studies have revealed the characteristics of language use in sporting situations. Goh and Burns (2012) analyzed the utterances of spectators watching a basketball match and pointed out that when describing the events happening in front of them, spectators did not need to make direct reference to the context because their utterances were produced in relation to the immediate action of the game, which resulted in a much lower use of content words. Lavric et al. (2008) identified football-related technical vocabulary focusing on word strings or multiword units, such as corner ball or to score a goal. The vocabulary used in sub-domains, such as TV, radio, and online commentary, as well as

written match reports have been examined (Bergh, 2011; Humpolík, 2014; Schmidt, 2008). Bergh and Ohlander (2012, 2017) identified 25 core English football words (e.g., match, corner, and dribble) and investigated their influence in 16 European languages. Rugby has also been examined with research's primary focus has been on team-based speech (Wilson, 2009a; 2009b, 2011) and TV rugby commentary (Desmarais & Bruce, 2009, 2010; Kuiper, 1996; Kuiper & Lewis, 2013). Benson and Coxhead (2022) examined technical vocabulary in spoken rugby discourse by identifying and creating single- and multi-word word lists, leading to the creation of a spoken rugby corpus, and analyzed vocabulary load and supplementary lists.

### **2.2.3. Complementing teaching approaches to ESP**

Recently, in addition to the GBA (see 2.2.2.), many new language education strategies have been implemented to complement or collaborate with the ESP approach. One example of this is task-based language teaching (TBLT). This language teaching method attempts to teach learners the target language by having them apply what they learned in the classroom to real-life situations in which they try to achieve a social goal or *task* (Ellis, 2003; Long, 2014; Anthony, 2018). A “task” may be defined as real-world activities that people perform in their daily lives (Long, 2014). In some respects, TBLT is similar to ESP, notably in its focus on learner-centeredness and relating classroom activities to real-world situations that learners may encounter in the future (Woodrow, 2018). Therefore, TBLT exercises are often implemented in the ESP classroom. ESP practitioners may want to create TBLT activities that target learner needs, build the essential language skills for a particular academic or occupational setting, and help learners practice these language skills in authentic or near-authentic



settings (Long, 2014; Woodrow, 2018). In ESP workplace contexts, including football coaching, which is the focus of the present research, TBLT activities are especially applicable since learners will have clear tasks to accomplish to be able to succeed in their professions.

The teaching method that attempts to apply some concepts of SFL (see 2.5.) to TBLT to enrich the fields of learning, teaching, and evaluating learning outcomes is called *SFL-informed genre-based tasks* (Yasuda, 2017). According to Yasuda (2017), the interplay between SFL and TBLT has two major benefits in teaching English to learners who have specific needs. First, through the lens of SFL as a “linguistic conceptual theory,” which explains how the register variables of field, tenor, and mode are realized as linguistic forms, both ESP practitioners and learners can systematically understand how the choice of optimally appropriate linguistic resources contributes to communicative success for particular genres and tasks. Second, by employing TBLT as a “pedagogical framework” for language teaching and learning, ESP teachers or learners seeking to apply genre-specific linguistics items discovered through SFL analysis to their teaching or learning can comprehend how these identified linguistic resources can be used to develop a pedagogical curriculum or supplemental materials (Yasuda, 2017). Thus, SFL-oriented genre-based tasks are a teaching approach that is systematically sequenced for learners to enhance their second language aptitude.

A method of instruction known as content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has recently gained popularity and is often seen as a competitor to ESP. CLIL encourages language teachers to become more engaged with the content and expects content teachers to become more concerned with language (Woodrow, 2018). For instance, Ruiz-Garrido and Palmer-Silveira (2008) explained how English language

instructors serve as language coaches for content teachers, allowing them to gain confidence in teaching content courses in English in their Universitat Jaume I CLIL program. Some of the ideas and qualities of ESP overlap with those of CLIL, particularly in terms of its interdisciplinary nature. However, according to Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés (2015), CLIL should probably be considered more as a language teaching policy than as an approach to the teaching and learning of languages. Considering this, it is clear that ESP and CLIL are not in direct competition with one another. On the contrary, one might argue that the English instructors in Ruiz-Garrido and Palmer-Silveira's CLIL program are practicing a new form of ESP that addresses the needs of content teachers instead of a traditional student body.

### **2.3. Qualitative and quantitative research paradigms**

The present study employs the modified grounded theory (M-GTA) as an analytical framework to explore how professional football coaches behave or act during training sessions. This method is a type of qualitative research. In this section, with the aim of justifying the choice of M-GTA as an analytical tool for this study, I describe how it differs from the opposing quantitative research approach in terms of their paradigms and methodology, including the issue of the validity and reliability of data analysis.

#### **2.3.1. Paradigms**

All research is based on certain underlying philosophical assumptions, or paradigms, which are mainly positivist or interpretivist (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015; Kuhn, 1966; Lin, 1998): Quantitative research is underpinned by the positivist

paradigm, while qualitative research is grounded on the interpretivist paradigm. A paradigm is “a framework or a set of assumptions that explain how the world is perceived” (Neuman, 1991, p. 57). The selection of a research methodology depends on the paradigm that guides the research venture (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). According to Khan (2014), the positivist view of the world is “objective where behavior and cause and effect can be measured, and human activity can be predicted” (p. 225). This approach enables the findings to be generalized to a larger population of people. On the other hand, as Khan explained, “an interpretivist view of the world is subjective, where individuals form their own reality of the world in different contexts through interactions with others. Every individual perceives the world differently and views it in different contexts” (p. 225). As such, the participants’ actions and behaviors are unpredictable, resulting in findings cannot be generalized. The interpretivist approach, however, allows us to ground the results in the particular realities of each participant and conduct in-depth analysis of the subjects (Lin, 1998). Furthermore, as Lin (1998) noted, “positivist work can identify the existence of causal relationships that are present in data, with some degree of probability. ... Interpretivist work, by contrast, can produce detailed examinations of causal mechanisms in the specific case, explaining how particular variables interact” (p. 163).

These paradigms are based on two perspectives: ontology and epistemology (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015). Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality, while epistemology is concerned with researchers’ perceptions of reality (Creswell, 2007; Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015). In terms of ontology, the positivist perspective holds that there is a concrete social world “out there.” Interpretivists, on the other hand, see social reality as multiple (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015). In terms of epistemology, the

former's goal is to ascertain "the truth" in order to predict "laws" of human behavior; the latter's objective is to understand multiple subjectives (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015.)

### **2.3.2. Research methodology**

Whatever one believes about finding the truth, a research strategy is required to translate ontological and epistemological principles into guidelines that show how research is to be conducted, and principles, procedures, and practices that govern research (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). This strategy is called a "methodology."

The positivist research paradigm draws on quantitative methodology, which requires an objective or detached research method that focuses on measuring variables and testing hypotheses that are linked to general causal explanations (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015; Sarantakos, 2012). Positivist research uses experiments, especially changes in groups, to measure effects. The data collection techniques focus on obtaining hard data in the form of numbers so that evidence can be demonstrated in a quantifiable manner (Neuman, 2007; Sarantakos, 2012). This type of research aims to identify the truth through the verification and replication of observable findings, variable modification of the study objects, and statistical analysis. Consequently, positivists emphasize the use of valid and reliable techniques to describe and explain phenomena (Antwi & Hamza, 2015).

Interpretivist epistemology, on the other hand, adopts a qualitative methodology. This approach assumes that meaning is embedded in the research participants' experiences and that this meaning is mediated through the researcher's own perceptions (Merriam, 1998). A qualitative research design provides the best

means to explore complex processes and investigate little-known phenomena (Kambaru, 2018). Researchers employing qualitative methodology immerse themselves in a culture by observing its people and their interactions, frequently participating in activities, conducting interviews, obtaining life histories, conducting case studies, and analyzing documents or other cultural artifacts. The qualitative researcher's objective is to obtain a perspective from inside the group or community that is being investigated; they assume that reality is multifaced and cannot be fragmented or studied in a laboratory, rather it can only be studied as a unified whole within its natural context (Candy, 1991). These distinctive research approaches are summarized in Table 2.

**Table 2**

*Qualitative-driven and Quantitative-driven Approaches (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015, p. 5)*

	Subjective	↔	Objective
	Qualitative-Driven		Quantitative-Driven
Ontology: What is the nature of the reality?	Social reality is multiple.		There is a concrete social world "out there."
Epistemology: What can we know?	The goal is to understand multiple subjectivities.		The goal is to ascertain "the truth" in order to predict "laws" of human behavior.
Types of questions	The purpose of this research is to understand (the what, how, and why).		Statement of relationship between independent and dependent variables. Question phrased in terms of a hypothesis.
Types of data collected	Naturalistic settings: Participant observation, in-depth interviews, focus groups.		Experiments: Randomized controlled trials.
Types of analysis	Inductive. Using "thick descriptions" to identify context-specific features.		Deductive. Testing our hypothesis.

### 2.3.3. Quality of research

In the quantitative approach, the quality of the research can be determined according to four criteria (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). First, it is important consider *internal validity*, which refers to the appropriateness of the instruments or procedures used in the research. A proper measure of the relationship between two variables would be to create an experimental field and measure whether the independent variable affects the dependent variable. Second, one must consider *external validity*. External validity refers to the extent to which the findings can be generalized to other research contexts. More precisely, it is concerned with whether the results obtained from a randomly selected sample from a population can be applied to that population as a whole. To increase internal validity, it is necessary to create a perfect experimental space and control that space; however, this internal validity applies only to that specific experimental setting and is less likely to apply to general situations, resulting in lower external validity. Conversely, hypotheses with high external validity are harder to control in the laboratory and have lower internal validity (Cook & Campbell, 1979). In other words, external and internal validity are complementary, and both cannot be enhanced simultaneously. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the degree to which internal and external validity must be balanced depending on the content of the research (Kubota, 1997).

Next, the quality of research is also assessed in terms of *reliability*, which refers to the consistency of results across different locations and subjects. A study is considered reliable if its findings can be reproduced through careful measurement and repetition of the experiment (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Conversely, if the research

methodology is flawed or data is collected in an inconsistent manner, the experiment may be less reproducible and less reliable. Reliability is a necessary prerequisite for validity, and valid conclusions cannot be drawn from unreliable measurements.

Finally, *objectivity*, which evaluates the extent to which the researcher's findings are free from personal bias, interest, or intent, must also be considered (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Objectivity can be enhanced by using methods that minimize subjectivity, such as questionnaires and tests, and by avoiding direct involvement of the researcher with the research subject (Kubota, 1997). This helps to ensure that the results of the study are not influenced by the researcher's personal beliefs or preferences.

Given their positivist origin, these four criteria must be modified for use within an interpretive framework (Golafshani, 2003). Lincoln and Guba (1985) introduced the concept of *credibility*, a viable alternative to internal validity in the quantitative approach. Whereas positivist research aims to minimize the influence of subjective perspectives on the study, the credibility of qualitative research can be assessed based on the perspectives of the participants (Ohtani, 2019). To establish credibility, the longitudinal observation of participants, triangulation, and peer debriefing are needed (Kambaru, 2018).

*Transferability* corresponds to external validity or generalizability in quantitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). However, unlike in quantitative research, which aims to test hypotheses and generalize findings to a larger population through random sampling, the purpose of qualitative research is not to generalize but rather to create working hypotheses and understand the research subjects (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Therefore, qualitative research employs intentional sampling and does not rely on statistical methods. According to Geertz (1973), it is not possible to generalize the

findings of qualitative research in the same way as those of quantitative research. Instead, it is necessary to provide “thick descriptions” that allow readers to evaluate the applicability of the study results to their own circumstances. To enable readers to apply the working hypotheses to other contexts, it is necessary to provide them with sufficient factual information and interpretive detail (Ohtani, 2019).

*Dependability*, equivalent to reliability in quantitative research, refers to the degree to which data remain stable over time (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Additionally, the credibility of the research process may be compromised if the researcher experiences fatigue or stress. In contrast to quantitative research, where changes in methods can compromise reliability, it is expected and advisable for qualitative methods to evolve during the course of qualitative research to enhance the study (Creswell, 2007; Kambaru, 2018). To ensure dependability, it is important to clearly document any changes in methods so that the evolution of the research process can be traced, if necessary. This allows the reader to understand the decisions made during the study (Ohtani, 2019)."

*Confirmability*, analogous to objectivity in quantitative research, requires that research results be based on data collected from the research subject rather than on the researcher's personal assumptions (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). In quantitative research, objectivity is achieved through rigorous experimentation that minimizes the influence of the researcher's values and biases on the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). (Kubota, 1997; Lincoln & Guba, 1990). In contrast, confirmability in qualitative research is enhanced by transparently describing the process of data collection and the collaborative process of constructing truth from the data. To ensure that the process is easily understandable to the reader, it is important to clearly present the methods used in



collecting and analyzing the data (Kubota, 1997; Lincoln & Guba, 1990).

Table 3 summarizes the various criteria for evaluating the quality of qualitative and quantitative research."

**Table 3**

*Comparison of Criteria for the Quality of Quantitative and Qualitative Research*

<b>Quantitative approach</b>	<b>Qualitative approach</b>
internal validity	Credibility
external validity	Transferability
reliability	Dependability
objectivity	Confirmability

## **2.4. M-GTA**

This study employed a modified version of grounded theory analysis (M-GTA) (Kinoshita, 2007) to examine the interactions between professional football coaches and their players. M-GTA is a modification of the original grounded theory approach (GTA) developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). This section provides a historical overview of GTA, the basis for M-GTA, and introduces its fundamental characteristics. It also outlines the modifications made to the original GTA and presents the methodological foundations and analytical procedures of M-GTA.

### **2.4.1. Development of GTA**

The GTA was developed by sociologists Barney G. Glaser and Anselm L. Strauss. They conducted fieldwork in a hospital to analyze the interactions between hospitalized patients with end-stage cancer, their families, and healthcare professionals. They also showed that the nature of contacts with medical workers varied and fluctuated

based on whether the patients were informed of the disease's name, and whether they perceived it even if they were not informed (Glaser & Strauss, 1965). It was GTA that was used here to explain how the interactions between them unfolded. Glaser and Strauss questioned grand theory, which takes the position that all social phenomena can be conceptualized in a certain abstract form (Mills, 2000), and they grounded their theory on their fieldwork data. Glaser and Strauss (1967) detailed what a theory is and how it is generated from empirical data.

The GTA has undergone continuous modification since its development by Glaser and Strauss in 1967, as the original version provided little guidance on coding. The divergence in the philosophical perspectives of the founders, Strauss with a background in interpretive sociology from the Chicago School and Glaser with roots in positivist sociology from Columbia University (Charmaz, 2006), led to two distinct versions of GTA: the Glaser version (Glaser, 1978) and the Strauss and Corbin version (Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). After Strauss' death, Corbin took the lead in revising the GTA analytical methodology (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Other versions of GTA include those of Saiki, a student of Strauss and Corbin (Saiki, 2014), and Charmaz (2006), who adopts a social constructivist perspective.

#### **2.4.2. Basic research concept of GTA**

The GTA is a qualitative research approach that aims to generate inductive hypotheses that can explain and predict human interactions, processes, and changes based on qualitative data collected through interviews and field observations (Kinoshita, 2007). As a type of qualitative research, GTA shares many characteristics with other forms of qualitative research. Hagner and Helm (1994) identified four advantages of

using qualitative research: 1) studying behavior in its natural setting, 2) examining the meaning and perspective of the phenomenon for those involved, 3) exploring new or understudied phenomena, and 4) investigating complex social processes. GTA can also be used for these purposes. However, if the research variables are well-understood and the objective is to understand the relationships among those variables (e.g., through positivist research with the aim of hypothesis testing) or to identify causal relationships, it may be more appropriate to use quantitative research methods (Saiki, 2006).

GTA diverges from other qualitative research methods in that it endeavors to identify common themes from individual instances gleaned through interviews and observations, as well as to formulate theories and models that can explicate the phenomena in question, rather than providing detailed accounts of the cases. Additionally, due to GTA being a qualitative research method, “thick description” (Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015) is required, which involves describing a portion of an action or event along with the specific circumstances and context in which it occurred, and the historical process including preceding short episodes, and interpreting the meaning structure contained in the description (Duff, 2018; Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015). In the case of GTA, it is not only necessary to explicate the variables and their relationships, but also to demonstrate to the reader the type of variables generated, the type of data (e.g., interviews) collected, and the specific relationships among the variables (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020).

#### **2.4.2.1. Constant comparative method**

I will now introduce the concept of the constant comparative method, which is the core analytical approach shared by GTA and M-GTA, and the four characteristics of

the research concepts that M-GTA inherits from the original version. Despite the diversification of GTA methods, including M-GTA, the fundamental concept underlying all forms of analysis is the constant comparative method, comprising the following three research methodological perspectives: 1) conceptualization of data, 2) theoretical sampling, and 3) theoretical saturation (Kinoshita, 2020).

Initially, GTA codes the collected data under a common concept, and then compares the concepts with one another to highlight analogous elements. At this stage, it is crucial to verify that the interpretation is supported by or grounded in data in order to increase the credibility of the concepts. Moreover, it is important to consider not only the similarities between the concepts, but also the characteristics that are in contrast to the generated concepts in order to prevent exceptions from occurring through the examination of counter-examples and to check for arbitrary bias in interpretation (Kinoshita, 2020). Once the relationships between concepts begin to be interpreted, they must be validated or supported by data, potentially by adding new data if necessary (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020). This process is referred to as *theoretical sampling* (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020).

Therefore, GTA does not aim to construct a comprehensive theory from the outset. If data are insufficient, additional data are added incrementally to confirm the credibility of the constructed theory. However, the researcher must eventually conclude the generation of theory. This phase is referred to as *theoretical saturation*, where data will only add to what has already been interpreted but will not lead to the generation of new concepts or categories (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020).

#### **2.4.2.2. Research concepts that the M-GTA inherits from the original version**

M-GTA shares many research concepts with the original version. Kinoshita (2020) enumerates the following four characteristics: orientation towards theory generation, grounded-on-data principle, empirical positivity, and real-world application.

M-GTA ultimately aims to generate a theory, which is the most important characteristic inherited from the original version. It is worth noting, however, that the underlying theory of qualitative research differs significantly from that of the natural scientific perspective on science. This point is related to the argument that positivism perceives truth differently from interpretivism (see 2.3.1.). The theory in the original version is inductive, based on the notion of a theory of natural science, and adopts the position that it is derived from objective analysis, which is similar to the idea of quantitative research. M-GTA, however, inherits the objective of generating theory, but not the position that theory is objectivist, as objective analysis is deemed essentially impossible in an analysis in which humans interpret meanings, such as in qualitative research (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020). M-GTA also does not adopt the position of constructing a formal theory that aims to explain several individual events at a higher level of abstraction, as GTA does, based on a substantive theory that endeavors to explain individual events (Kinoshita, 2020). It positions theory generalization at a moderate level of abstraction where the balance can be adjusted between theory and social reality (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020).

Secondly, in qualitative research, where the analysis involves interpreting the meaning of qualitative data, this task is entirely reliant on the researcher's subjective judgment, leading to the analyst having doubts about the accuracy of their interpretation (Kinoshita, 2020). To address these doubts, Kinoshita (2020) asserts that, based on the

grounded-on-data principle mentioned earlier, it is vital to establish the definition of each concept by continually comparing one's interpretation with various concrete examples in the data, in terms of similarities and contrasts.

Thirdly, Kinoshita (2020) explains how the subjectivity of the researcher can be utilized in the analysis using M-GTA. It concerns the information that will be interpreted, as well as its substance, perspective, and the level of detail with which it will be interpreted. According to Kinoshita (2020), these decisions are also made by the analyst's subjectivity, and they can achieve the goal of analysis through the transitional analytical process from data collection to data analysis, and from analysis to practical application (see 2.4.3.3.) until they feel a sense of "reality" between the data and their interpretation of it. This researcher's skill of being attuned to their subjectivity, called theoretical sensitivity, is also incorporated into the M-GTA method as empirical positivity.

Finally, both M-GTA and the original version place great emphasis not only on evaluating the analytical results, but also on the impact of study results on society at large (Kinoshita, 2020). This means that in GTA, theoretical solutions to problems are tested to see how well they work in the real world. Qualitative research will always be an unsolvable problem to some extent, no matter how advanced analytical methods become, as it endeavors to understand the complexity of individuals. However, this is precisely why qualitative research is important. Given the complex social interactions between individuals, as well as the complex and ever-changing environment in which they occur, the relative diversity of interpretations and explanatory models is a strength for practical application, rather than a weakness (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020).

### **2.4.3. Methodological concepts of M-GTA**

In the previous section, three research methodologies and four research concepts that M-GTA inherits from the original GTA were introduced. In this section, the methodological foundations that M-GTA uniquely developed, as described by Kinoshita (2020), are discussed in terms of the systematization of coding methods, deeper interpretation of meaning, and response to interactivity.

#### **2.4.3.1. Systematization of coding methods**

Traditionally, qualitative research has been criticized for being arbitrary in its interpretation of data, as its research methodology has not been as explicitly stated as in quantitative research. This has led to the belief that, even today, when qualitative research has spread to many research fields, it is essential to make explicit the analytical method and the actual analysis process (Kinoshita, 2020).

As qualitative research expanded beyond sociology and cultural anthropology into various academic fields and became the dominant analytical tool, specific research methodologies were required (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020). Therefore, M-GTA sought to standardize concrete analytical procedures (see 3.3.1).

#### **2.4.3.2. Deep interpretation of meaning**

The M-GTA is designed to allow analysts to make multifaceted in-depth interpretations of the data by adopting unique research methods, including *analytical themes*, *analytically focal persons*, and *analytical worksheets* (Kinoshita, 2003; 2007; 2020). First, an *analytical theme*, which is equivalent to a research question in general research, must be formulated. Next, it is necessary to determine an analytical viewpoint

or analytically focal persons through which the meaning of the data can be interpreted, allowing for a deep interpretation (Kinoshita, 2020). For example, in the context of this study, the analytical theme would be the coaching process for improving player performance, and each coach who instructs training would be the *analytically focused person*. This facilitates a consistent and in-depth interpretation of meaning by linking the analytical theme to the viewpoint of the analytically focused person.

The concept of “deep interpretation” as envisioned by the M-GTA refers to the comprehension of the contexts surrounding the subjects being examined. It is not something inherent to an individual, but rather manifests through interactions with others within society and culture. This is the aim of qualitative research, known as “thick description” (Kinoshita, 2003; 2007; 2020). The M-GTA takes the stance of contributing to the real world by utilizing qualitative data and constructing explanatory models of human behavior (see 2.4.2.2.).

#### **2.4.3.3. Interactivity**

Finally, the epistemological stance of the M-GTA will be discussed. The M-GTA draws from both positivist and social constructivist perspectives, though it does not fully adopt either (Kinoshita, 2020). The positivist component of the M-GTA suggests that the ultimate research objective is “theory generation,” inherited from the original GTA (see 2.4.2). However, the M-GTA does not utilize the concept of “theory” as proposed in the original version. In other words, the M-GTA does not inherit the original version’s theory development process, starting with concrete theory and proceeding through substantive theory and formal theory. Kinoshita (2007; 2020) stated that this approach based on positivist viewpoint emphasizes the construction of a theory

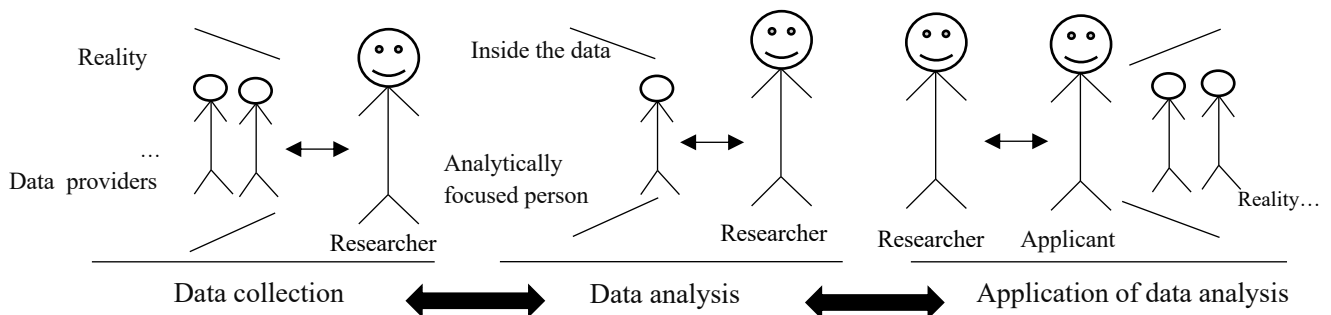


rather than providing a detailed account of reality, which may prevent us from gaining a deep understanding of specific phenomena, including contextual information. He added that when studying social interaction, which is a complex phenomenon in an intricate, ever-changing society, elevating the level of abstraction of the theory to be constructed makes it difficult to accurately capture the real world (Kinoshita, 2020). Following the notion of interactivity, Kinoshita (2007; 2020) explains the M-GTA epistemology in terms of pragmatism rather than objectivism, as it is expected that a theory generated using the M-GTA may be applied to the actual world. It is also claimed that articulating the analytical method and process, and making them accessible to others, would ensure “objectivity” by allowing anyone to validate them without being self-indulgent, even though the terminology used differs from positivism’s definition of “objectivity.” (Kinoshita, 2020).

Next, the social constructivist perspective adopted in M-GTA is recognized in the process of making the researcher the subject and interpreting the meaning of language. However, Kinoshita (2007; 2020) avoids categorizing M-GTA as social constructivism altogether, as he believes that this idea alone cannot adequately consider factors that lie outside of language. That is, M-GTA introduces the perspectives of “inside” and “outside” language and recognizes the limitations of understanding the real world solely through language, which is a key aspect of social constructivism. According to Kinoshita (2020), it is insufficient for analysts to fully comprehend the complexity of social interactions by merely examining the “inside” of language, as reality comprises multiple dimensions - such as the work done by those adopting the positivist position - and physical environmental factors that influence social reality, all of which are non-linguistic elements. For example, both positivist and interpretivist perspectives have

been employed to understand the nature of sports coaching (see 2.1.)

For these reasons, M-GTA does not adopt either objectivism or social constructivism as its epistemological foundation, but rather seeks its own stance that incorporates elements of both. The central concept is illustrated in Figure 3 through the three-phase interactivity based on pragmatism. This diagram consists of two ideas that have been combined. First, the act of conducting research can be viewed as a single social activity, rather than an isolated entity, and consists of three research phases: *data collection*, *data analysis*, and *application of the analysis results*. The investigation progresses from data collection through data analysis to practical application, although there is an overlap and interdependence between these stages.



**Figure 3. Interactivity of M-GTA (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020)**

Additional data may be added as needed during the analysis process, and in doing so, the analysis results may be verified to see if they can be applied to other cases. In the analysis using M-GTA, research is viewed as a social activity that begins and ends in the real world, which means the application of analytical findings is an ongoing process that leads to the collection of new data in subsequent studies, with the aim of optimizing research and addressing theoretical concerns through further investigation.

Second, the researcher's position in a social activity is highly valued. That is, the researcher who interprets the meaning of qualitative data cannot be seen as an independent entity, capable of objective analysis from a neutral position (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020), suggesting that the analysts' subjective viewpoints play a central role in interpreting the data in qualitative research, as opposed to in quantitative method. In addition, in qualitative research with M-GTA, maintaining consistency and continuity in the interpretive analysis is vital, as is developing an understanding of the impact of one's own study on others. To achieve this, an analytical theme must be established, based on which the analytical findings are discussed in relation to other real-world situations, if they are also applicable in other real-world contexts (Kinoshita, 2007; 2020).

In summary, the epistemology adopted by M-GTA is neither positivism nor social constructivism; rather, M-GTA is in the process of developing its own epistemology while incorporating the elements of both. Although Kinoshita, the developer of M-GTA, has proposed "critical realism" as an epistemology on which M-GTA can rely in the future, a detailed review of the concept in this study is avoided, given that it has not yet been firmly positioned. However, we must not forget that the core concept is "pragmatism" through interactivity. In this study as well, the researcher aiming to gain pedagogical implications for language education is the analyst, and the social activity of supporting student-athletes is the site of practice, which can benefit greatly from the concept of interactivity.

## **2.5. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)**

This study utilized SFL as the primary analytical framework to investigate the

linguistic resources employed by professional coaches during their coaching sessions. This section first provides a theoretical foundation of SFL, followed by discussions of the SFL perspective on language learning, and the analytical strength of the theory in analyzing authentic language data.

### **2.5.1. Background of SFL**

The SFL used in this study has been developed building on the foundation laid by the social semiotic linguist Michael Halliday (Eggins, 2004). Unlike traditional grammar, this theory is based on an interest in how people use language with each other in accomplishing everyday social life (Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 2004). SFL also focuses on the interrelationship between language and its contexts and on how the language is used to achieve the goal of the communication in terms of the concepts of context of situation and context of culture (Halliday, 1976). It was also influenced by the Prague Linguistic Circle, in particular its notion of functional sentence perspective, examining utterances in terms of their semantic contribution to the discourse as a meaning-making tool as a whole (Halliday, 1994; Berry et al., 1996; Eggins, 2004).

According to Halliday (1994), this linguistic theory is called functional is because “it is designed to account for how the language is used” (p. xiii). It focuses on how language use functions to get things done based on our purposes. This function of language is further explained by Derewianka (1992):

A functional approach looks at how language enables us to do things –  
to share information, to enquire, to express attitudes, to entertain, to  
argue, to get our needs met, to reflect, to construct ideas, to order our

experience and to make sense of the world. It is concerned with how people use real language for real purposes. (p. 1)

Consequently, it fundamentally differs from traditional grammar which pays attention to form and rules as well as the correctness and incorrectness of usage. Rather, this theory emphasizes understanding and explaining how language enables people to do things in everyday life to achieve their purposes (Halliday, 1994; Derewianka, 1992; Harris et al, 2006).

Thus, Halliday attempted to analyze language used in the real world from the outset, focusing on how to theorize the context of language use. He developed a method to analyze languages from multiple directions, through his so-called metafunction, attempting to show how the sentence relates to the world outside the language by analyzing one sentence from three viewpoints: ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions (see 2.5.2.2.).

## **2.5.2. SFL Core Concepts**

### **2.5.2.1. Clause and text**

SFL uses the term *clause* as an approximate equivalent of the sentence as a unit of analysis. This section first clarifies the difference between the unit called a *clause* in SFL and a *sentence* in conventional traditional grammar. Then, another important notion of text is explained.

In SFL, the compositional structure of the language is differentiated into a writing system (graphological constituency), sound system (phonological constituency) and grammatical system (lexicogrammatical constituency). Halliday (1994) defined the unit

called the “sentence” as a unit ending with a period, in graphological terms, and as a unit corresponding to a particular prosodic sequence (tone group), in phonological terms. He also found that both units in these two systems are related to the clause as a lexicogrammatical compositional unit. That is, in the written language, the unit called a *sentence* is recognized by the period symbol or its equivalents in other languages, but in the spoken language there are no signs such as periods, so a break between utterances is recognized as the (phonological) pause. This implies that different means are used to recognize “sentences” in written and spoken form. Therefore, Halliday (1994) called the unit containing grammatical elements a Subject – the nominal group in the clause – and Finite – it can signal time in relation to the speaker or be a modal sign of the speaker’s opinion – a clause, and said that these appear in both the writing system and the sound system. In this study, too, the basic unit of analysis is within a clause.

*Text* in SFL is defined as a semantic group that realizes one concept in language (Halliday, 1994; Tatsuki, 2006). Realization in this case means embodying content with a certain meaning in graphological, phonological and lexicogrammatical units. The difference between the text and the clause is that the latter conveys the constituent meanings, while the text refers to a “collection of meanings.” It should be noted that if a single clause conveys a meaning of completion, regardless of whether it is spoken or written, it is called a text (Eggins, 2004). Multiple clauses consolidated as a whole are also a text, indicating that a text’s length is not important.

#### **2.5.2.2. Register and metafunctions**

According to Butt et al. (2000), there are three contextual elements that define the forms of language used in a context. The first element is *field*, which governs the topic

or the objective of the text and refers to what experience or idea language is trying to express. Another one is called *tenor*, which concerns the relationship of people involved in the interaction in the text. The last one is *mode*, which looks at the means of communication (e.g., spoken, written, or signed).

These three factors determine language forms—if one of these three elements is replaced with another, the text will vary along the axis of context called *register* (Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 2004). These three contextual variables are related to the creation of the three-layered meanings in one identical text: ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions respectively.

Ideational metafunction, influenced by the contextual aspect of field, is a function of language concerned with building and maintaining experience, which includes the experiential metafunction and the logico-semantics (Halliday, 1994). This experiential meaning, which is a type of function for construing the world of experience into a manageable set of process types, is produced through the system of transitivity, a semanticized system composed of participant, process, and circumstance (Halliday, 1994).

Affected by the contextual element of tenor, interpersonal metafunction is the realization of the social relationship between the participants, their attitudes toward speech functions: a statement, a question, an offer, or a command, and their evaluation of people who hear or read it. These are encoded via the mood block consisting of the two grammatical features: the Subject and the Finite (Butt et al., 2003). The manipulation of the mood block determines to what extent the system of interpersonal metafunction is instantiated in the text.

The textual metafunction, the linguistic realization of mode dealing with the

medium people use to communicate with others (e.g., spoken or written) is divided into two roles: Theme–Rheme development and information structure (Halliday, 1994).

While the former is an analytical method focusing on logical development, the latter involves analyzing the shared information, the known knowledge, between the interactants. In SFL, the appearance of an effect of mode on language is linked with the realization of textual meaning through the manipulation of Theme and Rheme in the lexicogrammar.

### **2.5.3. The SFL perspectives on language teaching**

#### **2.5.3.1. Authenticity in teaching**

SFL has recently been used to show L2 learners how authentic text is going to fulfill its social role in terms of language function (Burns et al., 1996; Goh & Burns, 2012; Eggins, 2004). Goh & Burns (2012) point out several limitations of using available published materials for teaching speaking in the classroom. First, teachers have problems teaching certain speech acts (i.e., using language to accomplish specific communicative purposes and functions). Second, the materials place insufficient emphasis on teaching communication strategies. Third, the materials are devoid of authenticity in terms of the models of speech. It is often said that they do not reflect the fluidity of spoken interaction and do not include adequate teaching of formulaic expressions or patterns of language that are common in speech. They also do not pay attention to the grammatical and discourse features of spoken language. Last, learners do not receive sufficient training to produce spoken discourse that is socially and interpersonally appropriate and grammatically accurate, on which SFL puts a heavy emphasis as described in the previous section (Burns, 1998; McCarthy & O’Keefe,



2004). Consequently, it has been argued that teachers should take into consideration the fact that oral communication is a socioculturally situated activity, where each event or genre has predictable discourse patterns and structures (Carter & McCarthy, 1997; Goh & Burns, 2012).

Contextually appropriate linguistic features have only recently been incorporated into the methodological framework of teaching speaking (Goh & Burns, 2012). Burns (1998, p. 107) states that “teaching speaking shifted from regarding the constituent forms of language as primary, to thinking about language from the perspective of larger textual units.” In this approach, teachers guide students to explore naturalistic language data from native speakers’ spoken discourse. This is to develop their awareness about register, or the way language is used in interaction according to the situation, the participants, the topic, and the location. Thus, SFL has been increasingly used to find linguistic features that are idiosyncratic to the situations of specific contexts. A well-known approach to teaching English that incorporates SFL is called the genre-based approach, whose goal is to guide students “toward a conscious understanding of target genres and the ways language creates meanings in context” (Hyland, 2004, p. 21) and to provide students with explicit, systematic explanations of the ways that language functions in social context (see 2.2.2.).

#### **2.5.3.2. The analytical strength of SFL**

Some important reasons why SFL was chosen will be explicated in this section. As Eggins (2004, p. 20) explains:

SFL has been described as a functional-semantic approach to language

which explores both how people use language in different contexts and how language is structured for use as a semiotic system. What is distinctive to systemic linguistics is that it seeks to develop both a theory about language as social process and an analytical methodology which permits the detailed and systematic description of language patterns.

Furthermore, the SFL-infused genre described in the above section has the advantages, unlike the other two genre schools (ESP, NR) (Freedman & Medway, 1994). It prescribes functions to the lexical level, so that learners who have already learned their respective lexical grammars can systematically organize them functionally again in the context (Yasuda, 2017).

This indicates that extracting lexico-grammatical resources frequently used in a specific field is a top-down method for selecting learning items according to the “purpose” of a language activity. By contrast, traditional Japanese English education can be said to be a bottom-up approach, in that it first covers individual grammar items in a complete manner (Nishijo, 2018). To select appropriate lexico-grammatical resources according to “purpose,” the characteristics of each one must be understood. In bottom-up language education in Japan, this point is already emphasized. So, by adopting the top-down method, a mutual complementary effect can be expected.

#### **2.5.3.3. Incorporating findings into the practice of language teaching**

Some researchers eschew the traditional static linguistic approach, advocating that authentic linguistic data be analyzed based on the communicative needs of learners, and that the linguistic features seared by the analysis be taught in pedagogic tasks (Long,

2014).

In applying the findings of text analysis to language teaching, the focus is not on presenting all the extracted linguistic features to the learner, but rather on how they contribute to the learner's completion of the task. Long (2004) explained the extent of the role of textual analysis in language teaching by using two different terms: discourse analysis and analysis of discourse. That is, while discourse analysis is carried out by linguists to construct linguistic theories, analysis of discourse is always conducted from the viewpoint of application, aiming to find language dimensions necessary for learners to complete tasks. Therefore, the SFL framework is relevant in this study as well, as it provides a perspective of the essential aspects of language needed for football coaching, rather than analyzing target discourse based on all the systems covered by SFL.

## CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND METHODS

This chapter first elucidates the research questions (RQs) after justifying the research. Following this, the methods, including the participants, site, and data collection processes, are discussed. The basic principles of the M-GTA analytical framework are discussed, which was used to explore how professional football coaches conduct training sessions (the analytical framework used to investigate RQ1). Thereafter, the analysis of the obtained coaching language data using SFL theory to extract linguistic resources that are specific to the context of football coaching (the analytical framework used to investigate RQ2) is described.

### 3.1. Significance of the study and research question

The significance of this study can be explained from two disciplinary perspectives: coaching science and ESP. First, the present study sheds light on coaching behaviors in intact situations, those that often remain unnoticed explicitly. Specifically, this study focuses on coaching behaviors that occur in *asymmetrical* interactions between coaches who are native speakers (NS) of English and players who are non-native speakers (NNS), and between a coach who is an NNS of English and players who are NS of English. Such a situation has rarely been explored in prior research on coaching science. Previous studies on sports coaching have extensively explored the symmetrical interaction between coaches and players who are both NS of English and share the same first language. Unlike previous studies, this study focused on the asymmetrical interactions between NS and NNS participants in training sessions. The three professional coaches, Oliver, Hiro, and Micky, come from different linguistic

backgrounds and each has unique experiences as a coach. Oliver and Hiro, both NS of English, demonstrated their football coaching in English at an English-learning course for Japanese student-athletes planning to go overseas in 2017. The objective of this training session was to give the learners in the program a taste of authentic English football training and to prepare them to conduct football coaching in English on their own. Micky, a Japanese coach who had coached a local football team in Australia for three years and whose first language is Japanese, was chosen as a model coach for Japanese learners as it would benefit them, particularly those aspiring to become coaches, to see how a Japanese coach conducts football coaching in English in a real-world context. The other two coaches are NS of English, which would also be important in helping the learners gain insights into authentic football coaching. If the learners' future objective were to become an athlete abroad, they would have to comprehend the English of NS. It was believed that it would be beneficial for them to become accustomed to coaching in native English prior to leaving Japan and playing overseas. In addition to their different mother tongues, the participants, including the coaches and players, had diverse cultural backgrounds, indicating that we might be able to observe unique coaching behaviors that have not been fully explored in previous studies. The unique asymmetries between coaches and players may allow us to identify some discourse and linguistic features that have not been addressed in previous coaching science studies. Therefore, the obtained findings will extend our understanding of how sports coaches interact with their players in the context of sports coaching in an increasingly globalized and borderless world.

Second, this study serves as a springboard for advancing our understanding of the linguistic/functional features of coaching utterances produced by sports coaches during

football training. As discussed in the literature review, most attention in the previous ESP literature has been devoted to EAP in formal educational contexts; therefore, the findings of this study, whose focus is English for sports purposes, will add to our knowledge of domain-specific/context-appropriate language usages in a variety of ESP contexts. Several studies attempted to identify sports-domain-specific vocabulary (Lavric et al., 2008; Schmidt, 2008; Wilson, 2009a, 2009b, 2011; Bergh, 2011, 2012, 2017; Goh & Burns, 2012; Humpolík, 2014; Benson & Coxhead; 2022). These studies examined technical vocabulary in each sports context by identifying and creating single- and multi-word word lists. According to the notions of SFL, there are three core analytical viewpoints for text analysis: experiential, interpersonal, and textual metafunctional analysis. The identification of any technical terms (e.g., match, corner, intercept or pick up) is a type of discourse analysis from the experiential analytical perspective, indicating there are other aspects of linguistic resources that can be explored, such as interpersonal and textual metafunctional analytical frameworks (see 2.5). As one of this study's objectives is to demonstrate how a PCA is reflected upon coaching language used by football coaches during training sessions, I go beyond merely identifying technical terms and explore how coaches' attitudes of interacting with their players and encouraging them to engage in training are manifested in the form of linguistic and rhetorical features. This will require adopting an interpersonal metafunctional analysis, which has not been attempted in the study of language use in sports contexts.

Aiming to provide ESP practitioners with a list of context-specific linguistic data, this study attempted to identify the features of coaching language that represent these coaching behaviors during training sessions. These insights may also provide sports

scientists with a novel analytical lens through which they may discover new evidence to define the effectiveness of sports coaching. To this end, the current study conducts a preliminary investigation to explore the genuine setting of football training. As this study aims to identify meaning-making resources used by coaches in intact training sessions, the researcher employed a hypothesis-generating and inductive approach to collecting and analyzing data.

Thus, this study first aimed to examine how football coaches interact with their players in English in authentic training situations. I then investigated what types of linguistic/functional resources coaches use to promote coaching instruction that represents a player-centered approach. To meet this purpose, the study endeavored to address the following research questions:

- 1) How do professional football coaches behave during NS-NNS asymmetrical interactions of intact football training sessions?*
- 2) What type of linguistic resources realizing PCA do coaches use to enhance their players' football performances during their training sessions?*

### **3.2. Participants**

Three male football coaches from three youth teams in Japan and Australia were chosen through purposive and convenience sampling (Ohtani, 2019). They were chosen as the study's model coaches because they are all professional football coaches. I regarded them as "professional" football coaches in that they all conduct football coaching in English, regardless of the demographics of the players, and they do it for a living. The participants' ages ranged from 32 to 35 years. Informed consent was

obtained from the coaches before the study was conducted. A biography of each coach is provided below so the reader can examine the applicability of the findings or reproduce them in different situations. Such biographies can help readers contextualize the reported observed behaviors and can result in better comprehension (Potrac et al., 2007).

Oliver was born in Seattle, Washington, and moved to Japan when he was three, when his father accepted a job offer in Kyoto. When Oliver turned 12, he returned to Seattle. He began playing football at the age of eight and continued to play throughout his education at Western Washington University. After completing his collegiate football career, Oliver sought to fulfill his dream of becoming a professional football player. He moved to Japan at 23 and played in the third division of the Japanese Football League (JFL). After retiring at 25, he began working in education, teaching both English and football. At around the same time, he began practicing yoga seriously, which he continues to do regularly. In 2016, he formed Kosmos FC, which combines his football and educational backgrounds, as well as his yoga training. He has official football coaching licenses from the United States Soccer Federation and the JFA.

Hiro was born in the US and began his professional football career with the Dallas Texans before moving to Japan to play high school and college football. In March 2010, he was on the verge of quitting football to seek a more conventional career when he was offered the opportunity to play in Australia. He signed with APIA Leichhardt Tigers of the New South Wales Premier League for the 2010 season. His achievements at APIA earned him a professional contract with Sydney FC, a member of Australia's top football competition, the A-League. He spent two years with Sydney FC before joining FC Gifu, a J-League club, where he lasted another two years. He retired



and established a football academy in Osaka, Japan, with the aim of teaching English through football. He has a coaching license from the JFA.

Micky desired to be a professional football player right from childhood, but chose to pursue a career as a coach. He majored in sports science at college. He continued his education at the graduate level and completed a master's thesis on goalkeepers' situational judgments. While still a student, he gained coaching experience in high schools and J-League clubs. He worked as an assistant coach for Albirex Nigata Singapore, a Japanese professional football team based in Singapore, for two seasons. He returned to Japan to finish his master's degree and began his professional career in 2016 as a goalkeeper coach at Australia's Sydney FC Academy.

A summary of the three coaches' profiles is presented in Table 4.

**Table 4**  
*Details of the Three Coaches*

Name (pseudonym)	Oliver	Hiro	Micky
Age	33	34	33
Nationality	American	Japanese	Japanese
Gender	Male	Male	Male
First language	English	Japanese	Japanese
Years as a football coach	10	2	5
Years as a football player	Japanese Football League Division 4 (semi-professional)	- the Australian A league (professional) - J2 League (professional)	Amateur in Japan

Working context	Worked at a local football academy with training conducted in Japanese and English	Worked at a local football academy in Japan with training conducted in Japanese and English	Worked at football academies in Singapore and Australia
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### 3.3. Data sources

#### 3.3.1. Videotaped recordings of the three coaches' behaviors

Between April and August 2017, Oliver and Hiro were observed multiple times during an English learning program called Football English Session (FES) at a private university in Japan. The FES is a 15-week preparatory course for Japanese student-athletes that aims to help them develop professional skills in the English language associated with football coaching. The participants were recruited because they all desired to work as football players or coaches abroad in the future and recognized the need to increase their English language skills. Oliver and Hiro were asked to conduct football coaching demonstrations in English as a model for English learners to show them how football coaching is carried out in the language. I filmed the training sessions during the 15 weeks, and the visual and audio data obtained were organized into five video files based on training themes. Permission to use the videos and their transcripts was obtained from both coaches. Two datasets were chosen from the available five for this study's analysis: pass and move (by Oliver) and dribbling (by Hiro).

Micky's coaching data were collected from August 15 to 16, 2017. To obtain his coaching data, I visited Valentines Park in New South Wales, Australia, the home of Sydney FC's Academy U-15, which was established to provide talented young players with an elite pathway toward becoming professional footballers. Consent to participate in the study was obtained from Micky and the director of the Sydney FC Academy.

During the two days over which training sessions were held, I was allowed to video record all of Micky's instructions. The training sessions lasted for two hours each day. The training content for the first day included a *3 v 1*, shot-saving, and a *practice game*. On the second day, the training session comprised a warm-up with *ball-catching* and a *practice game*. There were three goalkeepers in the training sessions: Jacob, Harry, and Steve. The *3 v 1* scene from the first day was selected for analysis because it contained many interactions between Micky and the players, which allowed me to analyze the nature of coaching instruction in Australia. The total length of the data analyzed from Oliver, Hiro, and Micky was 50 minutes.

### **3.3.2. Interpretive interviews**

Interpretive interviews are defined as a type of data collection strategy for qualitative inquiry that enables researchers to obtain a deeper understanding of the complex dynamics that occur within people's interactions (Merriam & Tisdale, 2016; Potrac et al., 2002). This type of interview aims to uncover the social meanings, intentions, motives, attitudes, and beliefs that underlie human actions (Jones, 1997) and is, consequently, concerned with understanding how people construct and continue to construct social reality given their interests and purposes (Sparkes & Templin, 1992). In addition, a context, which is the essential element in exploring what the authentic forms of coaching language are (see 2.5.2.2.), comprises social and cultural beliefs and ideologies, such as opinions, voices, or viewpoints on the reality being talked or written about (Hasan, 1986) (see 1.2.).

Potrac et al. (2000) also pointed out that the observation of coaches should be followed by an additional interview and/or participant observation work to uncover the

*why* and *how* of coach behavior rather than just the *what*. Thus, the findings from the examination of the distinct types of coaching behaviors of the three coaches can provide more valuable pedagogical implications if qualitative data are collected. Such sociological knowledge can help place an individual act into a normative behavioral range within a specific setting and provide insights into the action (Potrac et al., 2000). The epistemic assumptions held by each coach can influence how they see their role as coaches (Jones et al., 2016). I, thus, argue that in order to discover, examine, and understand the nuances, actions, and behaviors of coaching practitioners, research should focus on the social world of individual coaches and how they operate within given contexts.

To explore the experiential, social, and contextual aspects that influence the instructional process in sports coaching, I conducted interpretive interviews with each coach following examinations of their coaching behaviors. I investigated the behaviors of the three football coaches, each of whom has a different career and background as football players or coaches: Hiro and Oliver are both former professional football players who speak native English, while Micky has no professional football experience but decided early on to pursue a career as a coach and had the most coaching experience of all three at the time of this study. The primary distinction between Micky, Hiro, and Oliver is that Micky is not a native speaker of English and teaches football to youth players who are native speakers of English. The three coaches' diverse experiences were beneficial to the objective of this study: Understanding the coaches' prior experience and success in the situations into which the learners were about to enter can help us understand the rationale for the adoption of certain coaching strategies in each coaching context. It can, thus, yield valuable insights for facilitating L2 learners in this

domain.

Each interview was approximately 60 minutes long. The interviews began with general information on the project's objective and progressed to background and demographic issues. Following these introductory questions, open-ended questions were used to elicit information on the experiential, contextual, and situational aspects that each coach considered to influence their instructional behaviors in the practice environments. Interview guides were created (Table 5) to investigate how the coaches perceived the coaching behaviors I identified as the key factors that improved the players' performance. While these interview guides captured the topics to be examined, any new topics that arose throughout the discussions were also addressed and probed. This method allowed not only for the complete and systematic collection of information from the coaches but also for flexibility in sequencing the questions and the amount of time and attention given to the many themes covered. The interviews were "reflexive" in nature (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2019), with the coaches being invited to discuss certain topics with the interviewer (Sparkes & Templin, 1992). Thus, the insider perspective remained central to the interviews, with the respondents' motivations, meanings, and interpretations for engaging in specific coaching behaviors all being significant. The interviews were conducted on Zoom due to the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and 2021.

**Table 5**  
*Inquiry Items Used in the Interpretive Interviews*

1) General questions related to coaching philosophy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• What is your coaching philosophy?</li><li>• How do you usually motivate players?</li><li>• What did you take into account during the coaching demonstration in front of the learners?</li></ul>

2) Scene-specific questions (Open-ended questions)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Why did you make a pose here?</li> <li>• Why did you use players' first names?</li> <li>• What is the purpose of asking the players questions during training?</li> </ul>

The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed by the researcher for subsequent analysis. The three coaches' utterances were transcribed verbatim to guarantee a thorough and accurate record of the data acquired.

The data collected were used to better understand the results of the qualitative coding analysis of the three coaches' coaching behaviors, with a focus on exploring how each coach's thoughts, beliefs, and philosophy were reflected in their coaching patterns. I believe that the present study can provide learners with a more holistic view of the football coaching process (Potrac et al., 2000) and prepare them for the likelihood that different countries and cultures have varying views and values related to the same sport.

### **3.4. Analytical procedure**

This section explains two analytical procedures. First, it explains how M-GTA (Kinoshita, 2007) was adopted to explore the three coaches' coaching behaviors during their football coaching sessions. Second, to acquire an analytical perspective or set of criteria for the analysis of coaching language features, the section defines the concept of the PCA, a coaching method that has long been believed to play an important role in the development of athletes' autonomy (Jones, 2006; Souza & Oslin, 2008; Bowles & O'Dwyer, 2020).

### **3.4.1. Phase 1: Exploration of coaching behavior**

#### **3.4.1.1. Analytical framework (M-GTA)**

This study used the M-GTA (Kinoshita, 2007) to analyze the three sets of coaching behaviors. The M-GTA is a modified version of the original grounded theory approach developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), which seeks to produce a theory from a phenomenon by extracting concepts through the coding of interview data and focusing on the relationships among the concepts (see 2.4.). The M-GTA aims to be more “grounded on data” by introducing a unique procedure to this method (Kinoshita, 2003). The first distinguishing feature of the M-GTA is that it “emphasizes the contextuality of the data without discarding it” (Kinoshita, 2007, p. 30). Analysts must carefully “verbalize their ideas” by using worksheets to clarify the process of concept formation (Kinoshita, 2007, p. 30). The goal of M-GTA analysis is to produce “concepts with explanatory power” through data interpretation and to develop a “coherent theory” by relating the concepts generated this way (Kinoshita, 2007, p. 35).

There are several advantages of using the M-GTA. First, as discussed in 2.4.2.2., the M-GTA is not aimed at constructing a formal theory that seeks a way to explain several individual phenomena at once at a higher level of abstraction. Instead, it positions the theory generalization at a moderate level of abstraction, allowing us to theorize the three coaches’ coaching behaviors distinctively. This is important because one of the objectives of this study is to investigate how the three distinct professional coaches with various social and cultural backgrounds conduct their coaching practices in different coaching environments.

Second, the M-GTA’s theory-generating orientation, which originated in the positivist approach, at four abstract levels at least (Figure. 4) enables us to see how the

various coaching behaviors discovered in previous product-oriented or positivistic studies work together to contribute to the completion of coaching from a new perspective. Coaching behaviors have been extensively examined (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Lacy & Darst, 1984; Smith et al., 1977). For instance, the ASUOI, which classifies coaches' behaviors into 13 categories, has been used to gain a general sense of the features of coaches' behaviors across all types of competition. However, such a linear classification of coaching behaviors over time is based on a single level of abstraction for the coach's behaviors during a given training session and does not allow us to study how each behavior is connected in a multilayered and hierarchical manner. For instance, the *question* and *positive modeling* listed in ASUOI do not work independently: They are employed in conjunction with each other in *pre-instruction* and occasionally in the category of *concurrent instruction*, and each behavior seems linked to the others in a complex and hierarchical manner. The M-GTA involves at least four rounds of coding and categorization, which allows for a hierarchical and multilayered analysis of coaching behavior.

Third, the author's personal experience in the past as a football player and agent overseas can become a great help in analyzing the coaches' coaching behaviors. In the analysis procedure using M-GTA, the researcher's position in a social relationship is highly valued in the process from data collecting, data analysis, through to the application of data analysis. This is based on the assumption that he or she cannot be seen as an independent entity capable of object analysis (see 2.4.3.3). In other words, what type of data are collected, how the data are analyzed (coded), and how the findings shall be applied to the real world should be all be consistent with the researcher's subjective viewpoint. The fact that the researcher of this study, the author, was a



football player and agent in the U.S. and Australia for a total of three years may lead to the identification of appropriate data sources, angles of analysis, and the direction of data analysis application. In sum, M-GTA's adoption of a positivist and interpretivist point of view enables us to reconcile the dichotomic research approach that has been used in the field of sports science—product-oriented or sociological approach (see 2.1).

The procedure for conducting an analysis using the M-GTA is as follows (Kinoshita, 2007). First, it employs a two-stage data analysis approach: *open coding* for concept generation and *selective coding* for thematic category construction (Kinoshita, 2003). Open coding involves the transcription of written responses or recorded interviews. Sentences with similar patterns are grouped together and given a concept name. While coding, a concept's name, definition, examples, and theoretical notes are written on an analysis worksheet. These notes are used to keep track of questions, concepts, and counter-examples. In the next step, categories are formed by combining many ideas, and core categories are created by combining the previously formed categories. Finally, a diagram is created to depict the links between ideas, categories, and core categories to create a storyline that describes the whole process. An image of the overall coding process is shown in Figure 4.

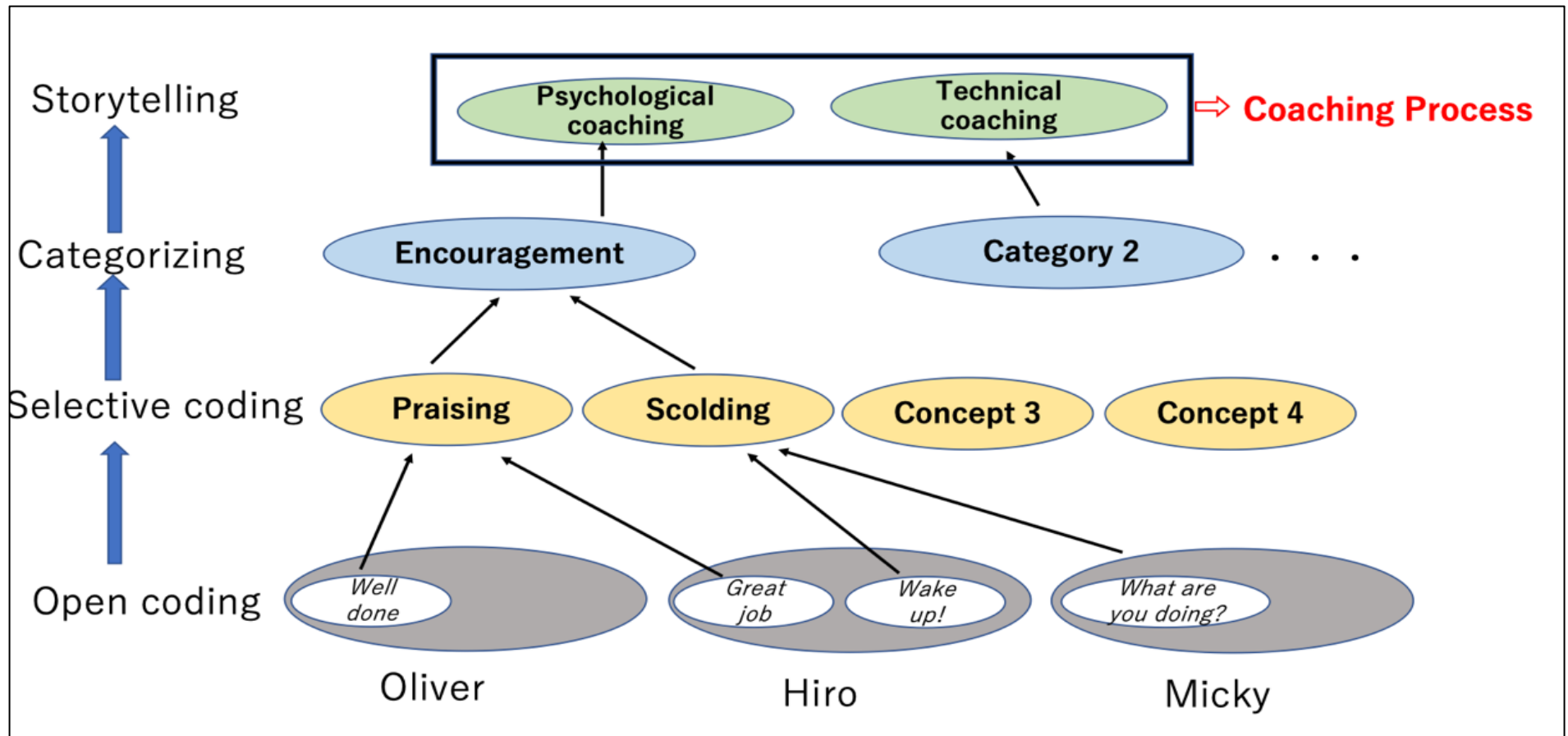


Figure 4. Sample of overall coding process using the M-GTA

#### 3.4.1.2. Coding procedures

All coaching data were entered into the qualitative analysis software NVivo, and concepts were created using the M-GTA (Kinoshita, 2012). During the M-GTA-based coding process, an *analytical theme*, which is equivalent to a research question in a general sense, must be composed (Kinoshita, 2012) (see 2.4.3.2). An examination of prior studies on sports coaching has provided us with a general concept of the behavioral features that sports coaches often employ, regardless of the sport. However, as mentioned earlier, such a linear classification of coaching behaviors over time is based on a single level of abstraction for the coach's behaviors during a given training session and does not allow us to study how each behavior is connected in a multilayered and hierarchical manner. Whereas earlier studies have examined coaching from a macro perspective, this study investigated how the categorized actions of coaches are linked and the substructure of each behavior in more depth. I examined coaches' behaviors from multiple perspectives, including macro and micro viewpoints and explored what, if any, unique coaching approaches were employed by each coach in their individual contexts. Thus, the analytical theme for the analysis using the M-GTA was the "Coaching Process in Each of the Three Coaching Contexts." An *analytically focused person* in the M-GTA is the subject of the analysis (see 2.4.3.2.). In this study, the three professional football coaches were the analytically focused people. Qualitative research, which includes the M-GTA, offers the benefit of requiring as few as three participants for analysis. The M-GTA does not discuss their fundamental characteristics in the study report unless these details are required for data interpretation because the M-GTA is designed to hypothesize about the common features of a data provider. Thus, their uniqueness is irrelevant. In 3.2, however, I included a biography of the coaches since

providing background information could help readers comprehend the results of the scene-specific descriptive analysis and the interviews conducted after the M-GTA analysis. The M-GTA aims at theoretical saturation and generality. However, as the aim of the present study was to identify and describe the distinctive coaching behaviors of each coach in their respective coaching settings, I present the findings of the three coaching behaviors as separate processes. In the M-GTA, it is critical for a researcher to construct concepts from the beginning without any preconceived assumptions. Therefore, the concept names and definitions of coaching behaviors that had already been identified in previous studies (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Lacy & Darst, 1984; Smith et al., 1977) were not used in the first phase of the analysis. However, when the final results were presented, the coding results were reviewed, and those with definitions that were consistent with those of the behaviors found in previous studies were changed to the same names.

As the present study sought to analyze the hierarchical structure of coaching behavior, when the same category or concept name appeared in many locations, it was written in distinct places. They were then classified according to category, and ultimately, core categories were created. To examine coaching behavior in depth, sub-concepts that did not originate in the M-GTA were created in the lower level of the concepts. Finally, the findings were presented in the form of a diagram containing descriptions of the relationships between concepts, categories, and core categories, as well as a storyline that included a narrative theme comprising concepts, categories, and core categories.

During the analysis, a worksheet was used to track the coding process (Table 6). This worksheet contained four items: the names of the concepts, their definitions,

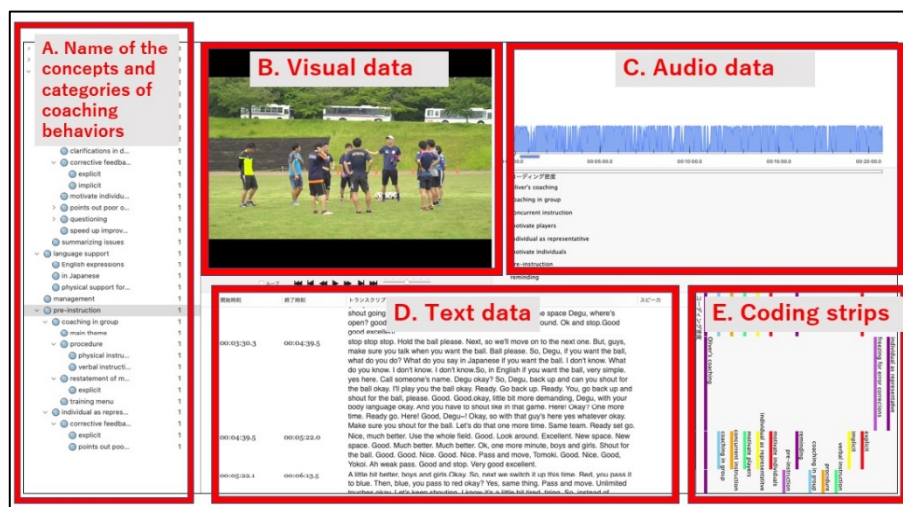
variations as concrete examples, and theoretical notes. The semantic range of the core category, category concepts, and sub-concepts was standardized such that each conveyed a dimension of the general phase of the coaching process, each coach's coaching behaviors, and the manner in which the behaviors were exhibited. Their constant abstractness was reflected in their expressive forms, that is, noun phrases, verbal nouns, and adverbs/participles/prepositional phrases.

**Table 6**

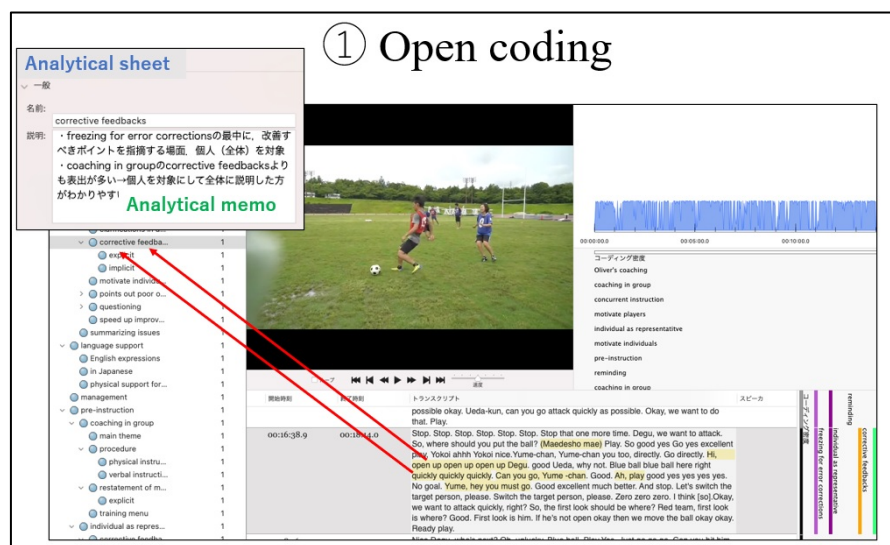
*An Example of the Analysis Worksheet Based on the M-GTA*

Concept	<i>giving corrective feedback (to individual players)</i>
Definition	Scenes in which coaches tell their players what they need to improve about their performance during concurrent instruction.
Examples	Hiro <i>You gotta go through / you cannot block / loser okay</i> Oliver <i>Can you hit him / Can you look / Look up. Look up.</i> Micky <i>Go. Keep going / Change the positioning. / Quick, quick.</i>
Theoretical notes	- This was implemented for an individual. Differentiate it from the ones that were directed toward the group. - This behavior can be divided further into two subcategories, implicit instructions and explicit instructions.

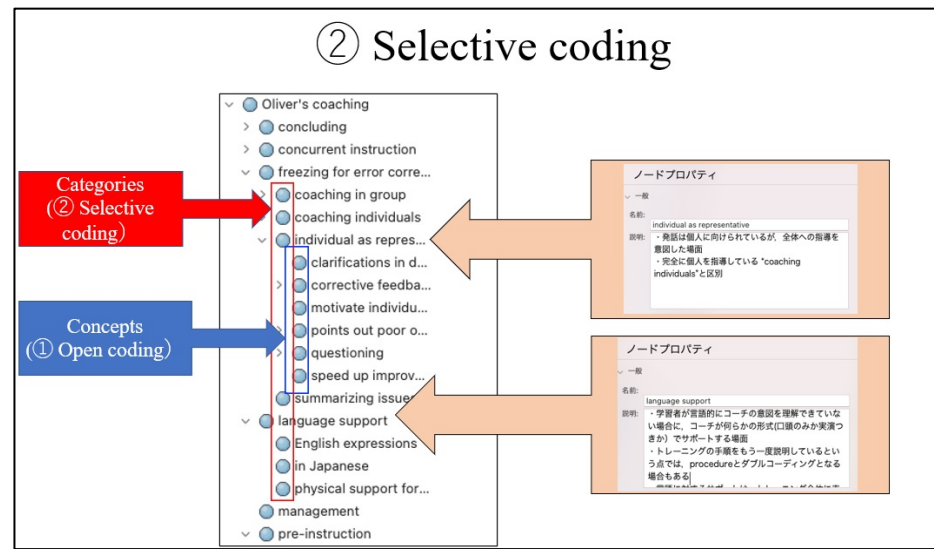
After describing the *what* aspects of the coaching behaviors of the three coaches using the M-GTA, I used the content of the interviews with each coach to investigate the *why* and *how* aspects of each coaching behavior. Comprehending the extent to which the coaches' prior experience in the contexts into which learners were about to enter influenced their coaching behaviors would aid in understanding the rationale for the methods employed in each context and furnish valuable insights for assisting those who aspire to go abroad in the future. Figure 5 illustrates how I conducted a qualitative analysis of coaching behavior using the M-GTA.



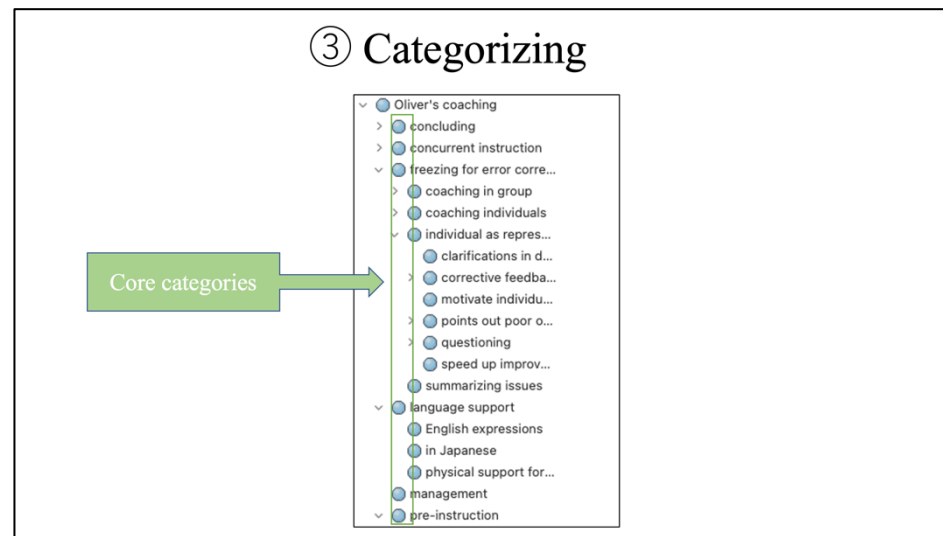
This is a PC screen for coding analysis in N-Vivo. The screen is further divided into five sub-windows: Window A for the name of the concepts and categories of coaching behaviors, window B for visual data, window C for audio data, window D for text data, and window E for coding stripes, which keep track of how each coaching behavior has been coded so far.



First, coaching behaviors that can be categorized as the same concepts in window D were gathered and labeled under the identical names of nodes in the window. Analytical memos containing the reasons why I coded each coaching behavior into each concept were also recorded in the analytical sheets.



In this second coding phase, the concepts extracted from open coding were further coded and integrated into higher dimensional concepts called “categories.”



In the final stage, each category was promoted to the highest dimension of categorization, called a “core category.” These core categories were used to describe similarities and differences in the coaching process by each coach in the form of storytelling (diagram).

Figure 5. M-GTA coding process using a qualitative data analysis in NVivo

### **3.4.2. Phase 2: Exploration of coaching language**

#### **3.4.2.1. Analytical viewpoints of coaching language: *Player-centered approach (PCA)***

I now turn to analytical viewpoints of coaching language. In 2.1., I described how researchers in sports science have shifted their analytical perspective from a product-oriented approach to a sociology-based approach. The sociology-based approach has described sports coaching as a relational, dynamic social microcosm involving complex layers of social interaction and interdependence (Bowles & O'Dwyer, 2020; Cushion, 2007). These studies have shown that a dialogic, reciprocal, PCA is effective for coaches to enhance their players' performance. As a consequence of this movement, coaching approaches that adopt "player-centered" philosophies have become more prevalent (Bowles & O'Dwyer, 2020; Jones, 2006; Souza & Oslin, 2008). Therefore, when studying the features of coaching language produced by the three model coaches in this study, I also consider how these dimensions of PCA-based coaching are realized as language forms. Though I briefly mention the notion of PCA in the literature review section, I will elaborate more on this concept in the following paragraphs to present more thorough criteria for analysis.

Enhancing game-playing skills is critical for athletes to demonstrate effective sports performance. Throughout gameplay, the player is ultimately responsible for identifying and analyzing game needs, solving problems, and reacting with appropriate decisions and skills. However, coaches are traditionally in charge of assessing game problems and formulating solutions (Jones, 2006; Souza & Oslin, 2008). A PCA—in contrast to a coach-centered approach—is a coaching style where the coach supports player autonomy by implementing various strategies intended to develop each player's decision-making skills within or outside of the game (Souza & Oslin, 2008). Decision-



making refers to the player's reflective ability to solve tactical problems within the game (Mitchell et al., 2020). PCA is consistent with social constructivist theories of learning, where coaches and athletes are both centrally involved in the learning process (Penney & Kidman, 2014).

PCA practitioners see the development of player autonomy and decision-making as critical components of athlete-centered coaching orientation (De Souza & Oslin, 2008). This involves using a coaching style “that promotes athlete learning through athlete ownership, responsibility, initiative, and awareness, guided by the coach” (Pill, 2018, p. 1). Potrac and Cassidy (2006, p. 40) noted the complexities of interaction between coaches and players, stating that “the coaching role requires more than either the one-directional transmission of knowledge from coach to athlete or the total ownership by athletes for their own development.” Thus, the coach becomes a facilitator of learning by positioning learning at the center of a model of PCA (Davies, 2010).

A coach's leadership style is critical for the creation of a player-centered atmosphere (Kidman et al., 2005). Highlighting the importance of that leadership, Miller and Kerr (2002, p. 147) advocated for creating “an environment that provides a structure for learning and is also conducive to open communication, shared goal-setting and collaborative decision making.” An environment containing these coaching dimensions should be democratic, empowering, and focused on the player's holistic development, with the coach assuming a particular instructional responsibility (Griffin et al., 2018; Jones, 2006). The suggested benefits of PCA include increased player confidence, competence, engagement, and motivation (De Souza & Oslin, 2008).

Hanson (n.d.) argues that coaching that is not player-centered leads to a lack of

player engagement (PE), which leads to poor team performance. PE refers to the extent to which athletes' hearts and minds are committed to their sport, their coach, and their team (Hanson, n.d.). Athletes who are dedicated, self-motivated, and passionate tend to train smarter, harder, and more consistently than those who do not have these traits, take personal responsibility for their performances, and seek ways to improve on their own initiative. Whether an athlete shows PE or not is dependent on coaches' ability to be flexible with their leadership style; they are required to treat their players as individuals (valuing their differences) and adopt the type of leadership style required considering the individuals involved, the varying circumstances, and situations (Hanson, n.d.).

As shown above, it is critical to take into consideration how these characteristics of PCA and PE, both of which are regarded as central components of efficient sports coaching today, are reflected in the language use provided by the three coaches.

#### **3.4.2.2. Coaching language analysis procedure**

A case study was conducted to investigate how the coaching behaviors of a PCA can be realized as language forms during football training sessions. To achieve this objective, the data analysis involved several different stages. First, using the information obtained from previous research on PCA, I summarized the respective key constructs; examples of PCA-based coaching are provided in Table 7. Then, all the coaching data sets were transcribed and imported into an analytical excel sheet. Third, based on the identified key constructs relevant to the research topics indicated in Table 7, I tried to identify the elements of coaching language data that I thought would exemplify PCA practices among the three coaching data sets. Then, I labeled and categorized them under the same concepts (Appendix 1). A previous study presented

four basic coaching approaches (TELL, SELL, ASK, and DELEGATE) for use in sports coaching, depending on the situation or background of the athletes (Ito, 2022).

However, as this research considers coaches' single-word reactions (e.g., *excellent*, *good*, *umm*, etc.) or even one word-choices (e.g., *I* or *we*) to be significant contributors to the development of players' autonomy or engagement, the coding analysis in this study did not adhere to Ito's framework for PCA.

As I proceeded with the coding analysis, I was guided by the six "phases of thematic analysis" described by Braun and Clark (2006, p. 87): data familiarization, generation of initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, definition and naming of themes, and report production (Table 8).

**Table 7**  
*Concepts of PCA-based Coaching*

Coaching value	Concept	Description
Player-centered approach (PCA)	PCA-based sports coaching is a dialogic, reciprocal, and democratic process rather than a didactic, one-directional (coach-centered), and autocratic process.	A PCA intends to enhance player <u>autonomy</u> by developing each player's decision-making skills within / outside the game and training. It also aims to create player <u>engagement</u> by adopting the required leadership style considering the individuals involved, the varying circumstances, and situations.

The transcribed data were coded by the author using a "theoretical thematic analysis" (Braun & Clark, 2006), which is a process of coding the data for the purpose of trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher's analytic preconceptions, as opposed to coding inductively. This enabled me to provide a more detailed analysis of some PCA aspect of the coaching data sets.

**Table 8***Phases of Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clark, 2006)*

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarizing yourself with the data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each other.
3. Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes	Checking how the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells; generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

In this study, a thematic map (as suggested in phase 5 in Table 8) was not created, as tagging and naming selections of text within each data item using a Microsoft Excel sheet was more convenient to sort the different codes into the same categories (sub-themes or themes).

Table 9 illustrates a trail showing examples of how I developed the themes and sub-themes that exhibited the elements of PCA while coding the data sets.

**Table 9**  
*Generating Themes*

Sample of Data	Codes	Sub-themes	Themes
“So, <i>basically</i> , what you’re doing is you’re passing and moving, okay? You <i>could</i> dribble <i>if you want to</i> ...”	Proposal		
“ <i>Carry</i> the ball”	Enforcement	Command	MODULATED INSTRUCTION
“ <i>Make sure</i> you talk when you want the ball.”	Insistence		
“ <i>Maybe</i> increasing the percentage of losing the ball, right?”	Hedge	Statement	

The identified themes or sub-themes represent the coaches’ intention, or “functions,” not “forms” of each coaching instruction. Thus, when characterizing their use of coaching language, it is also necessary to show how these “functions” were realized as linguistic “forms.” I used the system of mood and modal assessment (Halliday, 1994) (see 3.3.2.2.1) as the main theoretical foundation to encode the identified functions into the linguistic realization. When I uncovered functional components that could not be categorized using the SFL framework, which is extremely probable since SFL was not created particularly for the study of PCA-based sports coaching, I assigned them new functional or form labels.

Finally, I calculated the number of times each coach used each linguistic element. This allowed me to discover what linguistic resources helped the coaches accomplish the coaching tasks on each coaching occasion and then to gain access to the linguistic functions and items that are idiosyncratic to the context of football coaching. These patterned, contextualized linguistic resources can assist ESP practitioners in devising strategies that aid L2 student-athletes pursuing career opportunities overseas in the

future (see 2.2.2.).

#### **3.4.2.2.1. The system of mood and modal assessment**

Considering that this study focuses on the analysis of how PCA-based coaching, which is accomplished through the social interaction and interdependence between coaches and players (see 3.3.2.1.), is reflected on linguistic resources, it is important to use an analytical tool that can allow us to analyze these interpersonal dimensions of language phenomena. I argue that *mood* and *modal assessment* analysis, which belong to the analytical category of interpersonal metafunctional analysis (see 2.5.2.2.), take this role, as it enables the evaluation of how language is used to foster social interaction, create and maintain relationships, develop and project a personal identity, express opinions, and engage with the views of others (Derewianka, 2011).

#### **Mood system**

I categorized some of the discovered linguistic elements in phase 2 of this study, using the notion of mood system in SFL. English speakers manipulate the mood system through which interpersonal meanings are realized within the interaction, to establish a relationship between speakers: between the person speaking and the person who will probably speak next (Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 2004). To do this, individuals take turns at speaking. As each turn is taken, individuals adopt different *speech roles* in the exchange. The basic speech roles that can be taken on are:

Giving:

Would you like something to drink?

He is such a talented player.

Demanding:

Can I borrow your gloves?

Who played striker last night?

At the same time as choosing either to give or demand in an exchange, we as individuals also choose the kind of commodity that we are exchanging. The choice here is between exchanging *information*:

Who played striker last night?

He is such a talented player.

or exchanging *goods and services*:

Can I borrow your gloves?

Would you like something to drink?

These two dimensions of speech role and commodity can be combined to provide the four fundamental functions that can be made to initiate a dialogue. These four basic functions are *statement*, *question*, *offer*, and *command*, which are referred to by Halliday (1994) as speech functions (Table 10).

**Table 10**

*Speech Roles and Commodities in Interaction (Based on Halliday, 1994: 69)*

---

<u>Commodity exchanged</u>
----------------------------

Speech role	Information	Goods and Services
Giving	Statement	Offer
Demanding	Question	Command

Each speech function is realized as linguistic forms, or what Halliday calls *mood structure*, in a typical or untypical manner (Table 11).

**Table 11**

*Summary of Dialogue (Created by the Author Based on Eggins (2004))*

Speech function	Typical mood structure	Non-typical mood structure
Command	Imperative (e.g., <i>Make an angle and pass the ball.</i> )	Modulated interrogative (e.g., <i>Can you make an angle and pass me the ball?</i> )
Offer	Modulated interrogative (e.g., <i>Would you like some water?</i> )	Declarative (e.g., <i>You're not standing here.</i> ) imperative (e.g., <i>Have some water.</i> )
Statement	Declarative (e.g., <i>It was his goal.</i> )	Declarative (e.g., <i>There's some water here.</i> ) tagged declarative (e.g., <i>It was his goal, wasn't it?</i> )
Question	Interrogative (e.g., <i>Was it a pass?</i> )	Modulated declarative (e.g., <i>I was wondering if it was a pass or not.</i> )

Table 11 shows that each speech function does not necessarily need to be realized as the one carrying a typical mood structure. For example, although the clause “*You're not standing here,*” is in the form of declarative, it can function as a command that provides a direction to players. Likewise, the forms of interrogative, which typically has the function of question, can be used to give a command as in “*Can you make an angle and pass me the ball?*” According to Eggins (2004), a speech function realized through a non-typical clause structure is a marked clause, influenced by contextual demands.



## Modal assessment

This study employed some functional linguistic notions of a modal assessment system (Halliday, 1994) to classify the identified linguistic resources that express the coaches' attitude or judgment toward their instructions during their conduction of training sessions. The modal assessment system construes the region of uncertainty that lies between "yes" and "no," or "the positive poles" and "the negative poles" (Halliday, 1994, p.176). The intermediate degrees between the two, are known as modality and are realized through two types of functions: propositions and proposals.

In a proposition, there are two kinds of intermediate possibilities: 1) degrees of probability; 2) degrees of usuality. Both probability and usuality can be expressed in the same three ways. First, by a *modal auxiliary*, e.g., "*John might have been a good player.*" Second, by a *modal adjunct*, e.g., "*Probably John is a good player.*" / "*He usually plays striker.*" Third, by both together, e.g., "*John might probably have been a good player.*" These intermediate positions are referred to as modalizations (Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 2004). The modal adjunct can be categorized further into *comment adjunct*, which typically occur in a clause initial position to express an assessment about the clause as a whole, and *mood adjunct*, whose function is to provide a second chance for the speaker to add his or her judgment of the probability/likelihood to a proposition (Butt et al, 2003).

In a proposal, there are also two kinds of intermediate possibility, in this case depending on whether the speech functions are a command or an offer. In a command, the intermediate points refer to degrees of obligation. In an offer, they refer to degrees of inclination. Both obligation and inclination can be expressed in one of two ways. The first is with a *modal auxiliary*, e.g., "*You should do it. / I will help them.*" The second is

with an expansion of the predicator, e.g., “You’re required to do it” / “I’m supposed to do it.” These intermediate positions are called modulation.

Thus, both modalization and modulation are used to signal that speakers are not definite about their messages (Butt et al., 2000), and can be considered to play an important role in adjusting what the speaker is intended to convey. The Modal Assessment System is summarized in Table 12.

**Table 12**  
*Modal Assessment System*

System	Type	Form
Modalization	Probability	- Mood auxiliary - Mood adjunct  (e.g., John <b>might</b> have been a good player. / John is <b>probably</b> a good player. / John <b>might probably</b> have been a good player.)
	Usuality	- Mood adjunct (e.g., He <b>usually</b> plays striker.)
	Obligation	- Mood auxiliary - Expanded predicator (e.g., You <b>should</b> do it. / You <b>must</b> take one touch. / You <b>are required to</b> do it.)
Modulation	Inclination	Mood auxiliary Expanded predicator (e.g., I <b>will</b> do it. I’m <b>supposed to</b> do it.)

## CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

This study has thus far investigated the research question by establishing two analytical phases; 1) how professional football coaches behave and what coaching philosophies they have when interacting with their players; and 2) what kinds of meaning-making resources constitute the interaction between coaches and players in naturally occurring training sessions. This chapter presents the results of the two-phased research topics below.

### **4.1. Phase 1 analysis: Investigating coaching behaviors— Results of the M-GTA analysis**

The data obtained from the qualitative analysis using the M-GTA are presented in tabular format. These data represent the coaching behaviors that the three coaches exhibited in their practice. The results of the M-GTA analysis are presented in the order of Oliver, Hiro, and Micky. Next, I describe specific situations in which the coaches' efforts improved the players' performance, while focusing on some of the coaching scenes that were unique to each coach. After the main findings from both analytical phases were highlighted, the interpretive interview data were utilized to explain the previous two datasets, thus generating knowledge of the "why" behind each coach's employment of specific coaching actions. Here, the data and analytical framework were intertwined not only to capture "the richness and indeterminacy" of the three coaches' experiences as "professional" football coaches but also to increase our understanding of the complex nature of sports coaching, which I believe led to the "thick description" (see 2.3.2) of the coaching contexts of the three coaches. The coaching behaviors that

are given the same label names among the three coaches are coded under the same definition. The coaching behaviors identified in the literature and confirmed in this study are underlined. The symbols << >>, [ ], { }, and ( ) are used to indicate a core category, category, concept, and sub-concept, respectively.

#### 4.1.1. Oliver’s coaching

Table 13 presents the results of the analysis of Oliver’s coaching behavior using the M-GTA. Five core categories were generated to describe the distinctive characteristics of Oliver’s coaching behavior: *goal-setting*, *concurrent instruction*, *correction demonstration*, *wrap-up*, and *language support*. These core categories were classified further into *coaching the group* and *coaching individuals as representatives*. The overall results indicate that Oliver’s coaching behavior started with informing the players of the objective of the training session and proceeded to the implementation of players’ training, pausing the session to discuss how the players could enhance their performances during training. He also focused on developing the players’ ability to comprehend instruction in English.

**Table 13**  
***Oliver’s coaching behaviors***

<<Core category>>	[Category]	{Concepts}	(Sub-concepts)
<u>goal-setting</u> (28)	coaching the group (22)	providing the main theme (1)	
		explaining the procedure (18)	using physical demonstration (3)
		restating the main theme (2)	using verbal instruction (8)
		enlisting training content (1)	explicitly (2)

		providing language support (2)	using physical demonstration (1)
	coaching individuals as representatives (3)	giving corrective feedback (3)	explicitly (1) by pointing out poor performance (1)
		using the players' first names (9)	
		giving corrective feedback (139)	implicitly (5)
	coaching the group (90)	reacting to players' performances (32)	<u>reinforcing positively</u> (32)
			explicitly (2)
		reminding them of the key points (45)	implicitly (3) in the form of interrogatives (2) explicitly (2)
		giving corrective feedback (7)	implicitly (13) in the form of interrogatives (2)
<u>concurrent instruction</u> (132)	coaching individuals as representatives (42)	reacting to players' performances (25)	<u>reinforcing positively</u> (25)
		pointing out poor performances (2)	explicitly (1)
			explicitly (2)
		reminding them of the key points (8)	implicitly (1) in the form of interrogatives (1)
		using the players' first names (27)	
		<u>questioning</u> (3)	
		reacting to players' performances	<u>evaluating</u> (3) acknowledging (1)
		giving corrective feedback (4)	explicitly (1) implicitly (2)
<u>correction demonstration</u> (50)	coaching the group (9)	reminding them of the key points (1)	
		summarizing the key points (5)	
		providing language support (3)	explicitly (1) in Japanese (1)

	coaching individuals (2)	giving corrective feedback (9) <u>questioning</u> (3)	explicitly implicitly in demonstration (1) implicitly (1)
		pointing out poor performances (6)	in the form of interrogatives (1) by mimicking (1)
	coaching individuals as representatives (1)	giving corrective feedback (9) reacting to players' performances (10) clarifying the key points (1) speeding up improvements (3) summarizing the key points (1) using the players' first names (18) <u>questioning</u> (2)	explicitly implicitly <u>reinforcing</u> <u>positively</u> (10)
wrap-up (12)	coaching the group (11)	reacting to players' performances (3) reminding them of the key points (3)	<u>evaluating</u> (2) elaborating the main theme (2)

---

#### 4.1.1.1. Goal-setting

The phase of <<goal-setting>> occurred at the onset of the coaching instruction, where Coach Oliver imparted initial information to the players prior to the desired action to be executed. This goal-setting provided an explanation of how to execute a skill, play, strategize, and other elements associated with the sport. However, a more thorough examination of its contents reveals a complex interaction among various coaching elements. First, Oliver addressed all the players participating in the training ([coaching the group]) and informed them of the main theme of the upcoming training ({providing the main theme}). After presenting the training procedure ({explaining the procedure}), the coach reiterated the main theme ({restating the main theme}) to ensure that the players had a thorough understanding of the purpose of the training they were

about to engage in—“looking up and making a good choice.” He also created situations in which he brought out a player’s weak performance before the entire squad ([coaching individuals as representatives]), so that the rest of the team could learn from it. Oliver further provided language support ({providing language support}) because English was not the players’ native tongue. For instance, if he felt that his coaching aims were not adequately communicated through verbal information alone, he employed physical demonstrations to provide visual cues ((using physical demonstrations)).

#### **4.1.1.2. Concurrent instruction**

Oliver’s coaching proceeded to the phase of <<concurrent instruction>>, where cues or reminders were given during the actual execution of the skill or play (Lacy & Darst, 1984). Both coaching behaviors of [coaching the group] and [coaching individuals as representatives] were observed. In both cases, Oliver’s primary focus was on reminding the players of the main theme he had delivered to them in the <<goal-setting>> phase ({reminding them of the key points}). In the event that a player failed to meet the performance objective of the main theme, Oliver would provide corrective feedback at regular intervals throughout the training ({giving corrective feedback}). Whenever the players made adjustments to their performance, he furnished additional feedback. Immediately after a favorable reaction from a player, Oliver encouraged them to reinforce the performance ((reinforcing positively)), which is a crucial component of the behavior of successful team coaches (Erickson et al., 2011).

#### **4.1.1.3. Correction demonstration**

In Oliver’s coaching, the phase of <<correction demonstration>> played a

particularly important role in improving the performance of the players. This included instructing the players explicitly on conducting themselves competently in athletic activities (Garfinkel, 2002). These behaviors are a part of the central constitutive practices of sports training sessions (Evans & Reynolds, 2016). <<Correction demonstration>> differs from <<concurrent instruction>>, where the players paused, and the coach had time to work with them to improve their performance. In the <<correction demonstration>> phase, Oliver did not abruptly address the players' errors in either [coaching the group] or [coaching individuals as representatives], but rather began correcting their performance by asking them questions ({questioning}) as follows. The symbols and meanings in the below dialog are explained in Table 14.

#### Dialog between Oliver and the players

O1: Okay, so, if I play into Degu on blue team, okay? Okay, Degu has one touch so, the blue, surrounding blue players, what should you do?

O2: Muzukashiikana (Seems difficult)

P1: NA

((A player moved to a space near Degu))

O3: Good. Open or what should you do? What do you think?

P2: NA

((One player, looking unsure of herself, pretends to approach Degu little by little))

O4: Chotto hazukashiika (Seems embarrassed).

(One player, looking unsure of herself, pretends to approach Degu little by little)

O5: Okay so the key word we're looking for here is support, alright?

O6: For example, let us say that... Yume-chan, can you come here, and Fujii-kun can you go a little bit far over there, please? Okay. Can you go over here?

O7: Let's say, for example, Degu is isolated here, okay? Okay. He only has one touch. What should you guys do?



O8: What are you doing? What are you doing? What is that? What's that, huh? What is that? What are you doing?

P2: NA

((Used a gesture to tell the coach that she is about to get close to Degu))

O9: Good. Supporting. Fujii-kun, what should you do? He only has one touch.

P3: NA

((Spreads hands to show that he is trying to spread out into the space around Degu))

O10: Open to this space, okay, or Yume-chan, what you are doing is you are getting closer to him, right? Right. Because he only has one touch. Let us try it.

**Table 14**

*Symbols and Meanings in the Dialog*

Symbol	Meaning
<u>word</u>	Underlining is used to indicate the utterances are intended to pose questions to players.
(( ))	Double parentheses are used to describe the movement of the participants.

Here, Coach Oliver recognized the necessity to enhance the performance of the players participating in the training and posed queries to assist them in determining how to make adjustments. Nevertheless, Oliver, being apprehensive about the deficiency of comprehension of the instruction due to their inadequate English proficiency, employs question-based instruction in a manner that accommodates their linguistic disadvantage. As an illustration, Oliver attempted to elicit an opinion from the players regarding how to support a teammate who had to handle the ball within two touches in the middle of the field (O1). Upon observing that the players appeared bewildered by Oliver's inquiries (P2), he muttered in Japanese regarding his concern for their state (O4). Coach Oliver subsequently arranged a situation in which the players themselves could find the

solution to the initial question by specifying the positioning of the players and creating a scene to elicit the response (O5, 6, 7): They would only be left with the option of spreading out into space or approaching the player with the ball. Oliver's intention behind narrowing down the range of players' responses can also be seen in his comments in the interview, as follows:

*“I think it is still difficult for them to give an open opinion in English, so I tried to ask questions that have very simple answers. For example, the player who has the ball can only take one touch, so his teammates should get close and support him, get into his field of vision, in short, just get close to him. In English, you can say “get close” or “near,” and the students can say that too, so I wanted them to say that.”*

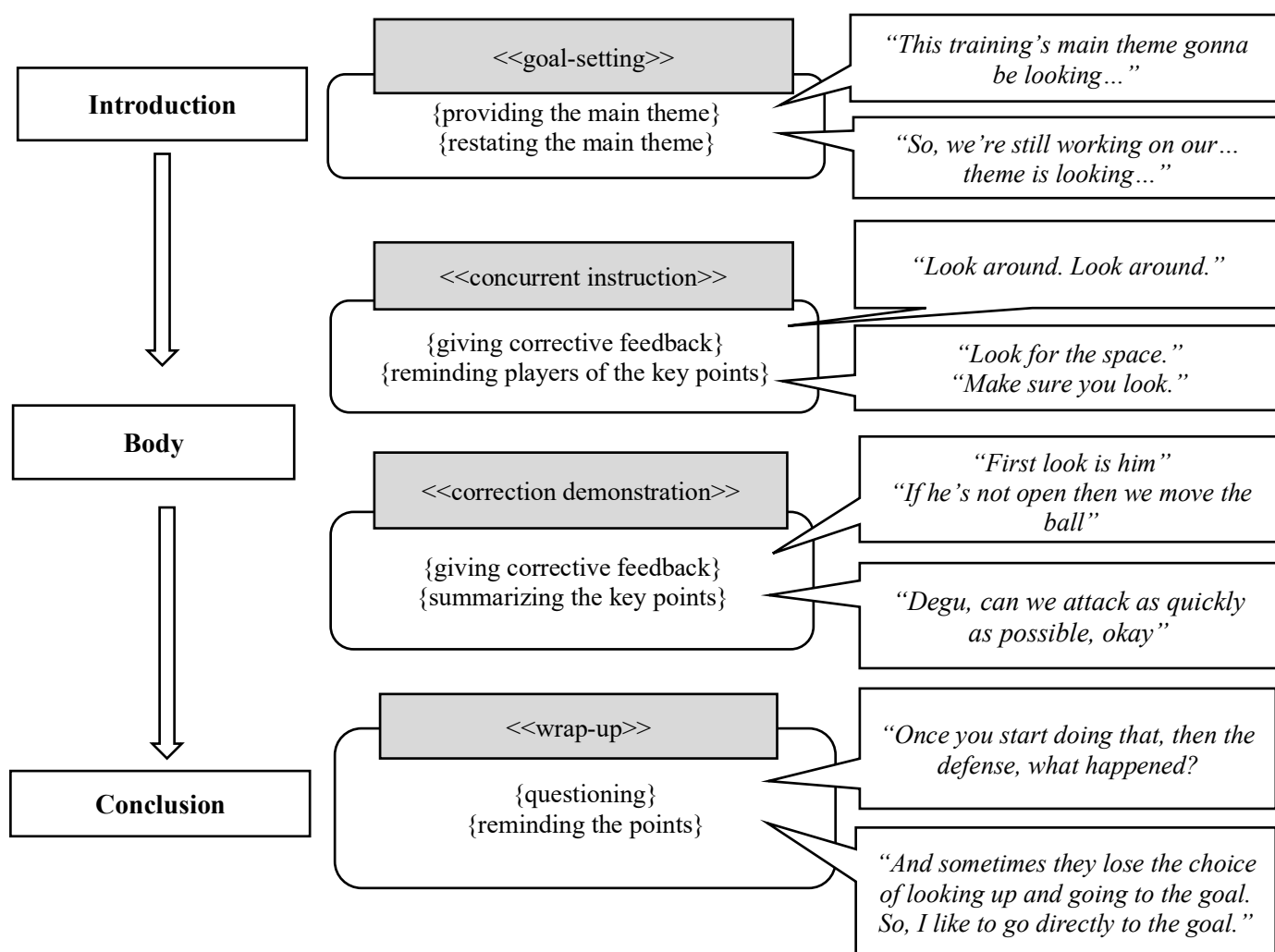
Thus, Oliver used question-based instruction to allow players to come up with solutions to correct their play, while taking into account their limited language proficiency.

Through this interaction, Oliver praised the players' responses ((evaluating)), approved of those that differed from his expectations ((acknowledging)), and promoted desirable responses ((reinforcing positively)), eventually presenting the model answers to the questions himself ({clarifying the points}). Then, at the conclusion of the <<correction demonstration>>, he summarized the tips that he had given during these phases ({summarizing the points}), which helped them understand why he halted the training. The message conveyed during {summarizing the points} was identical to that of the main theme provided in the <<goal-setting>> stage.

#### 4.1.1.4. Wrap-up

The series of training, <<goal-setting>>, <<concurrent instruction>>, and <<correction demonstration>> was completed in the final phase, <<wrap-up>>. Oliver reiterated the main theme of the training, that is, “looking up and making a good choice,” which he had conveyed to the players at the beginning of the training in the <<goal-setting>> phase. In the <<wrap-up>> phase, the pattern of communication with the players was the same as that of the <<correction demonstration>>, starting with {questioning}. Finally, Oliver instilled the importance of the main theme in the players by sharing his own experience as a football player ((elaborating the main theme)).

Thus, one of the characteristics of Oliver’s coaching behavior was that it consistently conveyed essential technical advice, from the <<goal-setting>> to <<wrap-up>> stages, using the easy-to-follow discourse structure (Introduction → Body → Conclusion). He always attempted to direct the players’ attention to the main theme by {giving corrective feedback} and {questioning} and ended the phase by {reminding them of the key points} or {summarizing the points} to convey the main theme. It seems to be a recursive structure with a fractal phenomenon (see 5.1.), where a section resembles the whole, as shown in Figure 6.



**Figure 6. The fractal recursive structure in Oliver's coaching**

As Figure 6 shows, the way Oliver conveyed the most important message, that is, the main theme of the training in the course of coaching, appeared to be based on the basic discourse structure, which comprises an *introduction*, *body*, and *conclusion*. I asked him about this in the interview.

Question: "The way you delivered your message while coaching was very similar to the structure of writing an essay. It's hard to find this elsewhere. Did you do this intentionally during the training?"

*Answer: “I was not aware of it, but it’s simply the most reasonable method to use.*

*First, you instruct them on what to do. Then, because they may not have understood it during the training, I made them repeat it. After several repetitions, the players will intuitively comprehend. I believe you will need to consciously correct them at first.”*

This comment shows that he believed that following this structural pattern in training was an effective communicative approach for improving the players’ performance. He made the following observations concerning this communication strategy:

*“If you don’t do this, you will not be able to train the players adequately.*

*Whenever I deal with youngsters at my academy, I always use this instructional method. Goal-setting, correction, and conclusion are necessary. You will not get anything into your head if you don’t do this.”*

These comments show that Oliver used this communication method to improve the performance of the students in his football academy. He also reflected on his life in the US and mentioned the style of football coaching there.

*“In the US, I believe that children aged between 8 and 10 years should be taught this method of thinking because this is how we think when we reach adulthood. It is a logical understanding that A causes B, and B causes C.*

*Soccer players must make logical decisions on whether to pass or dribble during a game. It is a little different in Japan, but I believe this logical progression is vital for English speakers because the players want to be convinced.”*

From the above comments, it is clear that Oliver believed that this logical mode of thinking is necessary not only for coaches to talk to their players persuasively but also for players to improve their own performance.

#### 4.1.1.5. Language support

Oliver’s behaviors were occasionally aimed at assisting the players in comprehending his English (<<language support>>). The following are the findings from a coding analysis of coaching behaviors for this core category (Table 15).

**Table 15**  
*Oliver’s Coaching Behavior for Language Support*

<<Core category>>	[Category]	{Concepts}	(Sub-concepts)
language support (11)	coaching the group (7)	supporting players’ understanding (1)	using physical demonstration (1)
		helping players’ verbalization (6)	explicitly (1) eliciting (5)
	coaching individuals as representatives (4)	supporting players’ understanding (1)	explaining in Japanese (1)
		helping players’ verbalization (3)	eliciting (3)

When he saw that the players he spoke to did not understand his English, Oliver assisted them, ({supporting players’ understanding}) by (using physical demonstration)

or (explaining in Japanese). During training, he frequently asked the players questions in order to obtain their comments ((eliciting)). He explained as follows in the interview:

*“There weren’t many students pursuing professional careers at the time. I paid attention to how well they understood English. I am always trying to figure out how learners who do not speak English may grasp it and express themselves.”*

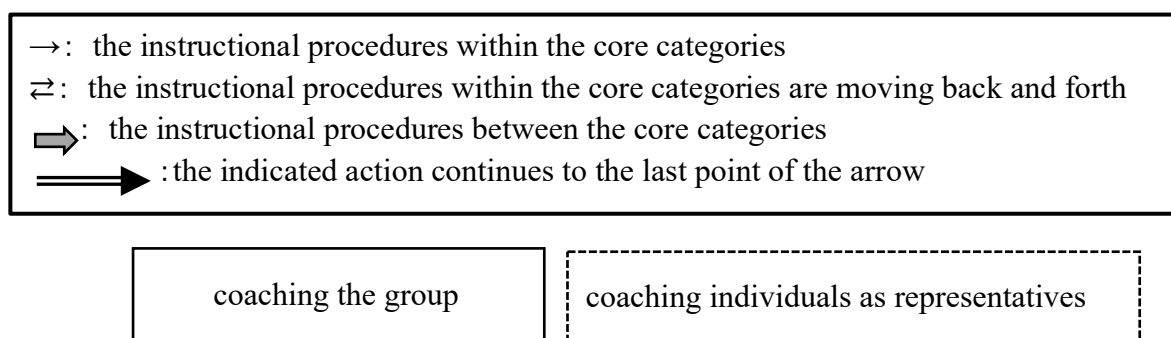
This illustrates that Oliver viewed the phase of (eliciting) an opportunity to assess the players’ understanding, assist them in verbalizing a few English words ({helping players’ verbalization}), and a time for the players to respond to fact-seeking questions. For example, there was a scene where he (explicitly) demonstrated to them how to articulate a football training-related situation in English, such as in *“In English if you want the ball, very simple. “Yes.” “Here.” Call someone’s name.”*

#### **4.1.1.6. Coaching process**

Figure 7 presents the categories and core categories containing the concepts obtained from the M-GTA analysis and their correlations.







**Figure 7. Oliver’s coaching process**

#### 4.1.2. Hiro’s coaching

Table 16 presents the results of the analysis of Hiro’s coaching behavior using the M-GTA. Four core categories were generated to describe the distinctive characteristics of Hiro’s coaching behavior: *goal-setting*, *concurrent instruction*, *halt for error correction*, and *enhancement of language development*. These core categories were classified further into *coaching the group* and *coaching individuals as representatives*. The overall results indicate that Hiro’s coaching behavior started with informing the players of the objective of the training session and proceeded to the implementation of players’ training, pausing the session to make error corrections to allow players to understand of the training procedure. Hiro also focused on developing the players’ ability to comprehend instruction in English.

Hiro’s coaching was unique in that many attempts were made to enhance both the players’ football performance and their English comprehension. His coaching behaviors for developing football skills and for increasing English comprehension were examined separately. The following are the results of the coding analysis of Hiro’s coaching behaviors for the development of the players’ football performance.

**Table 16**  
*Hiro's Coaching Behaviors*

<<Core category>>	[Category]	{Concepts}	(Sub-concepts)
<u>goal-setting</u> (21)	coaching the group (14)	providing the main theme (3)	using his own experience as a pro (1)
		explaining the procedure (11)	using physical demonstration (2)
		using the players' first names (3)	using verbal instruction (4)
	coaching the group (24)	giving corrective feedback (7)	explicitly (4)
		reacting to players' performances (11)	implicitly (1)
		reminding them of the key points (6)	evaluating (4)
<u>concurrent instruction</u> (53)	coaching individuals as representatives (22)	giving corrective feedback (6)	<u>reinforcing positively</u> (7)
		reacting to players' performances (15)	explicitly (6)
		showing authentic modeling (3)	explicitly (3)
	coaching individuals (4)	reminding them of the key points (1)	implicitly (1)
		clarifying the key points (1)	in the form of interrogatives (2)
		using the players' first names (8)	evaluating (2)
<u>halt for error correction</u> (7)	coaching the group (6)	giving corrective feedback (3)	<u>reinforcing positively</u> (13)
		restating the training procedure (3)	explicitly (1)
	coaching	reacting to players' performances (3)	explicitly (3)
		reacting to players'	evaluating (1)

#### 4.1.2.1. Goal-setting

Hiro began training by stating the main theme of the training—“dribbling and turning with the ball.” In the beginning, he explained why this main theme was chosen ({providing the main theme}). He mentioned:

*“The most important skill I learned overseas as a player was how to deal with the local players because they have huge bodies and are so powerful. I had to learn how to hide and keep the ball, and how to use my body against them. So, I wanted them to learn these skills from me.”*

From these remarks, it was clear that Hiro used his professional expertise to create training menus for the learners who were interested in becoming football players overseas ((using his experience as a pro)). After communicating the main theme, he explained the training procedure (using verbal instruction), and then explained it (using physical demonstration) based on the player’s level of understanding.

#### 4.1.2.2. Concurrent instruction

Hiro had three patterns of <<concurrent instruction>>: [coaching the group], [coaching individuals as representatives], and [coaching individuals]. Hiro also prioritized {giving corrective feedback} while they were actually training and reacted to the players’ reactions to the feedback, such as by (evaluating) or (reinforcing positively) ({reacting to players’ performances}). To help the players develop their football skills,

Hiro took on the role of a player during training, thus {showing authentic modeling}.

H1: The theme will be dribbling and turning with the ball and \*Turning with the ball, okay? Turning with the ball and... okay?

((\* Flipped his body around ))

Training theme

Because when I played as a professional overseas, I played against \*massive, big\* defenders, yes? I had to... I cannot go 50-50 I cannot win, 50-50

((\*Spread his hands out to show how big they are))

What do I do? I use my body \* and turn and shield \* the ball, and I keep the ball okay?

((\*Flipped his body around))

So, if you guys are interested in going overseas, I think it will be really good for you to know how to keep the ball against the big guys, alright?

(Training in progress: 04:00)

Embodiment of the issue

H2: \*NA

((\*Fake turning with body and dodged the opponent))

Authentic modeling

Picture A

H3: Oh, sorry guys hahahaha. Who's up next?

There are a lot of different varieties of turning guys, so...

P1: \* NA

((\*Fake turning with body ))

Picture B

Verbal clarification

H4: Good, good.

P2: \*NA

((\*Fake turning with body))

Picture C

Symbol	Meaning
(( ))	Double parentheses are used to describe the movement of the participants.
*	The symbol indicates the starting point of action



**Figure 8. Hiro performs an authentic demonstration and the players imitate his play**

In H1, Hiro first set the theme of the training based on his professional experience abroad. As the training proceeded, problems in the players' performance became apparent. In H2, he joined the training and showed the players how to play (Picture A of Figure 8). Hiro performed the action of “dribbling and turning with the ball” that had already been given to the players as the focus of the training. Immediately after this, the players began to copy the style of play shown by the coach (Pictures B and C of Figure 8). Hiro then verbalized the demonstration that he had just physically shown to the players and responded to the challenge posed at the start of the session. As he mentioned in the interview:

Question: *“Did you realize that the players were significantly influenced by*

*your demonstration during the training?”*

*Answer: “I wasn’t sure if I had any influence on the players. But I always perform my demos in the hope that the players will see me as a role model. At my academy, the children may learn something from watching the adults and imitate them, or they may incorporate one or two of their own elements into it and establish their own approaches. Not everything I do is correct, but I always educate the children to think for themselves and use what they learn to develop their own new skills.”*

Based on Hiro’s remarks, it is clear that he aimed not only to have the players mimic him but to also provide them with a basis on which they could build their own new abilities, utilizing the skills he had just taught them.

#### **4.1.2.3. Halt for error correction**

Hiro’s <<halt for error correction>> is the equivalent of Oliver’s <<correction demonstration>>. Hiro stopped training to correct mistakes in the players’ training process, rather than pausing it with the aim of improving football performance itself, as Oliver did. As a result, the labels were changed to distinguish between each of them. Here, Hiro was {restating the training procedure} that he had explained in the <<goal-setting>>. Thereafter, he was {reacting to the players’ performances} by (evaluating) or (reinforcing positively). A core category that concluded the training, such as <<wrap-up>> in Oliver’s coaching, did not appear in Hiro’s coaching because there was another training session afterward.

#### 4.1.2.4. Enhancement of language development

Hiro made numerous attempts to improve both the players' football performance and their English comprehension. Table 17 presents the findings from a coding analysis of coaching behaviors for the latter purpose.

**Table 17**  
*Hiro's Coaching Behaviors for Language Enhancement*

<<Core category>>	[Category]	{Concepts}	(Sub-concepts)
Enhancement of language development (42)	coaching the group (29)	helping the players' listening comprehension (21)	speaking (8) repeating (4) restating the procedure (3) using physical demonstrations (1)
	coaching individuals as representatives (3)	checking the players' understanding (8) checking the players' understanding (3)	

Hiro implemented behaviors to help the entire team enhance its English listening comprehension skills. He began by conveying the training procedure to the players solely through verbal communication ((speaking)). When he saw that the players did not seem to understand what he was saying, he either repeated his statements ((repeating)) or the procedure in full ((restating the procedure)). To ensure that they understood, he also used physical demonstrations to give them visual information ((using physical demonstrations)). During the session, Hiro occasionally made sure that he was ({checking the players' understanding}) of his utterances in English. An example of this is shown below.

H1: Today we will be doing dribbling, okay? Our main theme will be dribbling and what we're going to be focusing on is turning with the ball, okay? Turning with the ball \* all right? Degu, you got that?  
((\* Looked at one player and told him with a smile that it is okay if he did not understand)

D: NA  
((Nod with a wry smile))

H2: The theme is dribbling and turning with the ball \* Turning with the ball, okay? Turning with the ball, okay?  
((\* Flipped his body around))

Because when I played as a professional overseas, I played against \*massive, big defenders, yes? I had to...I cannot go 50-50. I cannot win 50-50.  
((\* Spread his hands out to show how big they are))

So, what did I do? I used my body \* and turn and shield \* the ball and I kept the ball, okay?  
((\* Flipped his body around))

So, if you guys are interested in going overseas, I think it will be really good for you guys to know how to keep the ball against the big guys, alright? \* So, I hope you guys understand that, yeah?  
((\* Looked at everyone and told them with a smile that it was okay if they did not understand)

H3: Okay \* get in, to get inside—how many, one, two, three, four, five, six  
((\* Walked out in the direction of the field to start practice and counted the number of players))

Okay, I want four of you on each cone or each triangle please, okay? One person on a triangle inside, please, inside. We will be taking turns, okay? We will be taking turns, okay?

We will play a warm-up game. What we are going to do is \* there will be six balls inside, okay? (2.2)  
((\* Pointed to the six balls in front of him))

The person inside \* the triangle you...when I say go, you go inside and get a ball and put it back into your triangle, your area, okay?  
((\* Used gestures to convey what he was saying verbally))

Now we will be doing this for 10 or 15 seconds, okay? Whoever has the most balls wins (1.0) whoever has the most balls wins  
\* Okay? (1.5) Guys got that? Yeah? (1.0) Yes? (1.3) Yeah? All right  
((\* Looked around at all the team members))



Symbol	Meaning
<u>word</u>	Underlining is used to indicate some form of stress or emphasis, either by increased loudness or pitch. The more underlining, the greater the emphasis. Underlining is sometimes placed under the first letter or two of a word.
(( ))	Double parentheses are used to describe the movement of the participants.
*	The symbol indicates the starting point of action

(Checking players' understanding):

Hiro used this to ensure that his utterances in English were understood by the players.

(repeating):

Hiro repeated the sentences multiple times to verify whether the players had an adequate grasp of the English language.

When utilizing English expressions that may prove challenging for the players to comprehend, he would elevate his vocal intonation or employ nonverbal cues to supplement his explication of the term. Also, when checking to see if the players were catching up Hiro's English instruction, he also tried to check their understanding by interjecting a brief pause after each inquiry. He described these behaviors of <<enhancement of language development>> in the interview as follows:

Question: *"What was your first thought on the objective of conducting football coaching for the players who were planning to go overseas as players or coaches?"*

Answer: *"One of my goals was to generate a sense of place. As there were just Japanese people there, I was aware of how I could create a local vibe. I felt that it was vital to prepare them ahead of time so that they would not experience a disconnect between Japan and the places they would visit. For*

*example, I tried not to speak too slowly.”*

These comments show that Hiro considered his English instruction an opportunity for learners to improve both their football abilities and to appreciate English spoken at natural speed, also referred to as authentic English by Goh and Burns (2012). He also said:

*“At my academy, I usually attempt to look at the kids’ faces to see if they are following my English lessons. If they don’t, I say it once or twice. I explain it by doing it in front of them, because visual information is far more understandable than audio information. I did this while coaching here [at the time of this study].”*

Hiro used his standard coaching conduct from his academy in this study. His {showing authentic modeling} was intended to enhance the players’ English comprehension and football skill development (see 4.1.2.). Thus, I discovered that Hiro promoted the players’ English proficiency levels. I asked him about this during the interview:

Question: *“What do you think Japanese athletes or coaches should bear in mind while going abroad? What skills do you think they need to have?”*

Answer: *“I believe that I was able to become a professional player in Australia largely because of my ability to communicate in English, although*

*I believe that there are many other technical and mental qualities as well. There were many other players who came from Japan to the tryouts. They were strong at soccer, but I think I got picked because I could speak better English than them. These experiences have led me to my current activities in Japan, that is, teaching football in English.”*

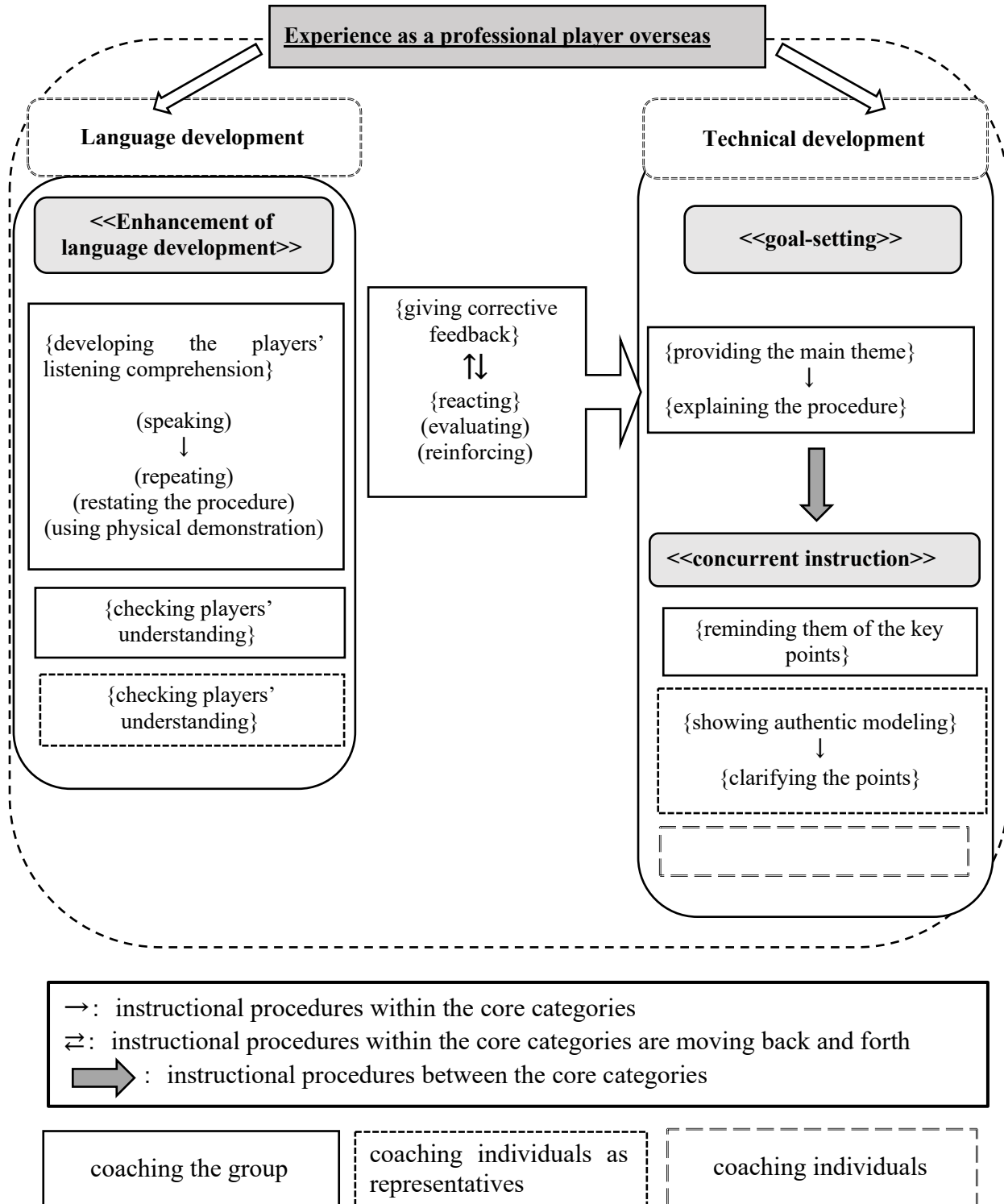
This quote shows Hiro’s conviction that his English proficiency benefited him in securing a professional contract during his time in Australia, which inspired him to establish an English football academy for Japanese children. I asked him how he believed that his ability to speak English contributed significantly to his successful football career in Australia, and he said:

*“It was critical for us players to fully comprehend what the head coach had told us during the meeting and to precisely follow his instructions throughout the games. Players will not be able to perform successfully unless they understand the coaches’ instructions accurately. Simultaneously, we Japanese players should thoroughly explain ourselves to our teammates and coaches and tell them exactly what we want them to do.”*

Hiro noted that being fluent in a local language to interact effectively with team members, such as coaches and teammates, can play a significant role in assisting Japanese athletes to secure successful sports careers in other countries.

#### 4.1.2.5. Coaching process

Figure 9 presents the categories and core categories containing the concepts obtained through the M-GTA and their correlations.



**Figure 9. Hiro's coaching process**

#### 4.1.3. Micky's coaching

Table 18 presents the results of the analysis of Micky's coaching behavior using the M-GTA. Three core categories were generated to describe the distinctive characteristics of Micky's coaching behavior: *goal-setting*, *concurrent instruction*, and *correction demonstration*. These core categories were classified further into *coaching the group* and *coaching individuals as representatives*. The overall results indicate that, like the previous two coaches, Micky's coaching started with <<goal setting>>, then progressed to <<concurrent instruction>> and <<correction demonstration>>. At the end, as with Hiro, the training was still going on, so there was no <<wrap-up>> to conclude the session. These core categories were classified further into *coaching the group* and *coaching individuals as representatives*.

**Table 18**  
*Micky's Coaching Behaviors*

<<Core category>>	[Category]	{Concepts}	(Sub-concepts)
<u>goal-setting</u> (12)	coaching the group (12)	explaining the procedure (12)	using verbal instruction (6)
		using the players' first names (9)	explicitly (10)
		giving corrective feedback (14)	implicitly (3)
<u>concurrent instruction</u> (39)	coaching individuals as representatives (18)		in the form of interrogatives (1)
		reacting to players' performances (21)	<u>reinforcing positively</u> (11)
		pointing out poor performances (3)	explicitly (1)
		reminding them of	implicitly (1)
			explicitly (1)

		the key points (1) using the players' first names (27)	
	coaching the group (13)	<u>questioning</u> (12) clarifying the key points (1) <u>questioning</u> (6)	in motion (3) only verbally (9)  in demonstration (6) showing agreement (8) providing corrective viewpoints (1) showing disagreement (1) showing his interest (1)
<u>correction</u> <u>demonstration</u> (42)	coaching individuals as representatives (20)	reacting to players' performances (11)  clarifying the points (3) using the players' first names (18)	

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#### 4.1.3.1. Goal-setting

Like the previous two coaches, Micky started his coaching with <<goal-setting>> but moved on to {explaining the procedure} without {providing the main theme} as Oliver and Hiro did. Micky explained the training procedure by providing verbal information alone ({using verbal instruction}) and did not provide visual information as in (using physical demonstration).

#### 4.1.3.2. Concurrent instruction

After <<goal-setting>>, Micky moved on to <<concurrent instruction>> in the same way that Oliver and Hiro did, where the players engaged in the training. Here, the <<concurrent instruction>> appeared alternatively with the core category <<correction demonstration>>.

Micky's <<concurrent instruction>> included {giving corrective feedback}, {pointing out poor performances}, and {reminding them of the key points}. The key points were the coaching content that was covered in the <<correction demonstration>>. Micky's coaching attitude toward the players' error correction was similar to that of Oliver and Hiro, in that he gave corrective feedback and then encouraged the players to continue performing the action if they modified their performance appropriately ((reinforcing positively)).

#### **4.1.3.3. Correction demonstration**

It can be observed from Coach Micky's coaching, like Oliver's, that <<correction demonstration>> had a substantial impact on the improvement of players' performance. That is, Micky consistently initiated the instruction of these phases by {questioning} the players in both [coaching the group] and [coaching individuals as representatives]. Like Oliver, Micky ultimately provided the players with a clear solution to the questions he posed through verbal information ({clarifying the points}). In particular, in the situations of [coaching individuals as representatives], various forms of interaction occurred between the coach and the players prior to {clarifying the points}; that is, the coach asked a question, the players replied, and the coach further replied to the response ({reacting to players' performances}), but there were various ways of responding. First, the instance in which Micky expressed agreement with the players' opinions was frequently observed ((showing agreement)). If he did not concur with the player's perspective ((showing disagreement)), he presented alternative perspectives that were more critical for enhancing performance. Even if a player responded to Micky in an unexpected manner, he would indicate his interest in their response ((showing his

interest)), demonstrating his recognition of the player's responses as potential alternate solutions to the issues. As it worthwhile to make this interaction scene a particular focus of analysis, I describe their interactions in the section below.

Micky 1: Hey what's happening?

Steve 1: There's one kicker?

Micky 2: No, yeah, two kickers. But what's happening? Why did you lose the ball at the beginning of the game?

((Went for one ball and gave it to a player and looked at his face))

Steve 2: I'm not too quick

Micky 3: "Too quick." Yeah. Steve, over there. Try again.

((Micky gestured for Steve to move over))

Players: NA

((Restarted the training))

Micky 4: Bounce back, yeah. And stop. It's the same problem.

Micky 5: So why did you lose the ball? This is... firstly...the ball from me...but why did you lose the ball again?

((Started looking at Jacob))

Jacob 1: Because staying in the same spot? So, I could have

Micky 6: So, why do you still need a change in the positioning?

Jacob 2: So, it's easier to keep the ball coz you got an option, right? So, if he stands here, he can cut off...



Micky 7: So, what's our objective? What's the purpose?

Harry 2: Break the line.

Micky 8: Break the line.

So, why you need to change the positioning? This is effective for me. Also, what will happen if you change your position? What will happen to Harry?

Jacob 3: Because Harry will be like, "Oh you're saying just staying on the same spot"

Micky 9: Yes. If you over there, what will happen to Harry?

Harry 3: Well-

Micky 10: If I pass the ball back, where will Harry move to? Harry has moved over there. So, what about this direction? Yeah, give me the ball. If your position is close to me, where is the Harry's position now? Maybe he will be closing this direction. You will be more likely to lose the ball, right? So, every time you change your positioning, you can create more opportunities or options to play, alright?

#### Interaction Between the Coach and the Players

Symbol	Meaning
<u>word</u>	Underlining is used to indicate the utterances are intended to pose questions to players.
(( ))	Double parentheses are used to describe the movement of the participants.

First, Micky signaled the transition to <<correction demonstration>> during the phase of <<concurrent instruction> by asking "*What's happening?*" (Micky 1). This is a

scene in which a player failed to make a pass to a teammate and the coach investigated the reason for the error. Here, Coach Micky incited the players to undertake a thorough examination from the ground up, without offering any hints as to the reasons for their underperformance. Subsequently, he gradually imparted information to the players, facilitating their comprehension of the underlying causes of their errors (Micky 2). He refrained from providing concrete solutions, but instead resumed training in a manner that sustained the players' thinking process (Micky3).

After this, Micky continued training for a while, but the same problems recurred, so he moved on to <<correction demonstration>> (Micky 4). Coach Micky's utterance, "*It's the same problem,*" empowered the players to investigate the causes of the error, while maintaining the continuity of their cognitive process. Then, he again asked the player about the factors that prevented him from passing the ball well (Micky 5). In response to this query, the player responded, "*Coz staying in the same spot? So, I could have...*" (Jacob 1), which led Micky to inquire further (Micky 6). As an indication of the players' cognitive advancement, they furnished divergent responses from those they had previously provided. Furthermore, the fact that the answer was proffered by an individual other than Steve, who had just supplied the answer, attests to this (Jacob 1). This prompted Coach Micky to formulate additional inquiries that engendered an understanding of the underlying causes of the failure among the players (Micky 6). This line of questioning by Coach Micky led to novel insights among the players (Jacob 2), and Coach Micky shifted away from his previous method of inquiry, which necessitated the players to analyze, integrate and evaluate the causes of the situation, to the utilization of fact-seeking queries. Here, Coach Micky endeavored to remind the players of their shared training objectives (Micky 7) and further reiterated that the

comprehension of the causes of the problems they encountered was a prerequisite for achieving their training goals (Micky 8). This is the moment when a player Jacob fully comprehended the underlying causes of their failure to attain their training objectives through this series of interactions (Jacob 3). Finally, Micky confirmed Jacob's response and explicitly conveyed to the players the coaching strategies he desired to impart through a series of interactions with them (Micky 10). The following chart (Figure 10) illustrates how Micky employed question-based instructions to assist players in enhancing their self-analytical skills.

The fact that the <<correction demonstration>> phase has the largest descriptions among the core categories is consistent with the fact that in the interview, he himself mostly referred to this phase as an occasion to enhance his players' performance. In my interviews with him, I attempted to begin with abstract questions in order to avoid leading him in the direction I wanted him to answer as follows.

*Question: "Since we were able to collect data throughout training this time, I was wondering if you could give us a general sense of what you look for in order to enhance your players' performance during training, or what your philosophy is."*

*Answer: "I always try to give the players chances to learn to develop their abilities on their own. During the training, I would tell them what to do to improve their performance, but whether they follow my instruction or not is totally up to them. This is important. In this regard, I make the most of their thoughts and views and respect them to the greatest degree possible. I ask them questions to encourage them to speak their opinions, and I try not to*

*steer them too much toward my answer as far as possible.”*

As mentioned above, Micky placed great importance on the players’ own initiative to improve their performance, and he viewed the act of asking them questions as a means to foster that attitude. Next, I asked him to watch his own scene of question-based instruction in the video and asked him the following:

Question: *“As you saw in the video, you asked the players a lot of questions. Was it intentional?”*

Answer: *“Yes, of course. Giving instructions is crucial in some cases, but I believe it is more important to let the players make their own decisions; whether to use an inside or outside kick, or how to position themselves, for example. In such situations where judgment is essential, the coach should ask the players questions to get them thinking, but even then, it is not good to provide the players the coach’s own solutions right away. There are many coaches in Australia who cannot bear the slowness or inability among the players to work things out, so they just tell them what to do before the players answer. I think this approach is inappropriate to nurture their thinking ability.”*

Micky’s statements show that his questioning technique was premeditated and designed to empower the athletes to exercise autonomy in regards to their strategic choices during games and training sessions, rather than solely adhering to the coach’s

guidance. Furthermore, he also highlighted a significant aspect of his demeanor when assessing their responses as follows.

*Question: “There was a situation where you were giving the players an answer, and one of them argued with you. I was curious what you would do in such a case. What do you do when there is a response that you want, but the players have a different viewpoint from you?”*

*Answer: “I want to respect their viewpoints, regardless of who they are. I accept them because opinions originate from within, and if I don’t accept their opinions, it means that I don’t accept the player or person. If you continue to do this, the players may go mute or cease to generate their own ideas. I don’t want it to happen, so even if they have a different or incorrect perspective than mine, I will accept it at first. It’s possible that they’ll have a better concept than I will, or that the player will have a better idea than I will.”*

As demonstrated by this comment, the evaluation in Micky’s interrogative methodology is a fundamental aspect of his pedagogy. That is, Micky felt that accepting players’ responses to his queries, regardless of their quality, would lead to improved players’ viewpoints, which would in turn result in enhanced performances in the long term. Indeed, throughout the question-based instruction process outlined above, Micky consistently initiated his feedbacks with a positive statement in the evaluation phase, regardless of the athletes’ responses..

He then explained the process that should be established prior to clarification, the final phase of the interaction.

*“Even if I have a message I want to deliver, I always make sure to ask the players first. I express my interest in their comments, regardless of their differing points of view, and accept them. Next, I provide them with an alternative viewpoint, and an opportunity to analyze issues from a different angle. Let’s say, if a player mentions an area that I want to lead them to, I will make use of it and guide them in that direction. In some cases, they still don’t come up with a solution, so I try to guide them by giving them hints, such as keywords or describing the situation in depth.”*

As illustrated in this remark, he posited that when a discrepancy arose in the athletes’ performances, they should first undertake an introspection to determine the cause of the deviation. Regardless of the players’ reactions, he would approach them with empathy and gently steer them towards the insight he sought to impart. His pedagogical philosophy played an important role in the meticulous and comprehensive manner in which he guided his players, as follows:

Question: *“You asked your players a lot of questions throughout the training. Is it a key component of your coaching?”*

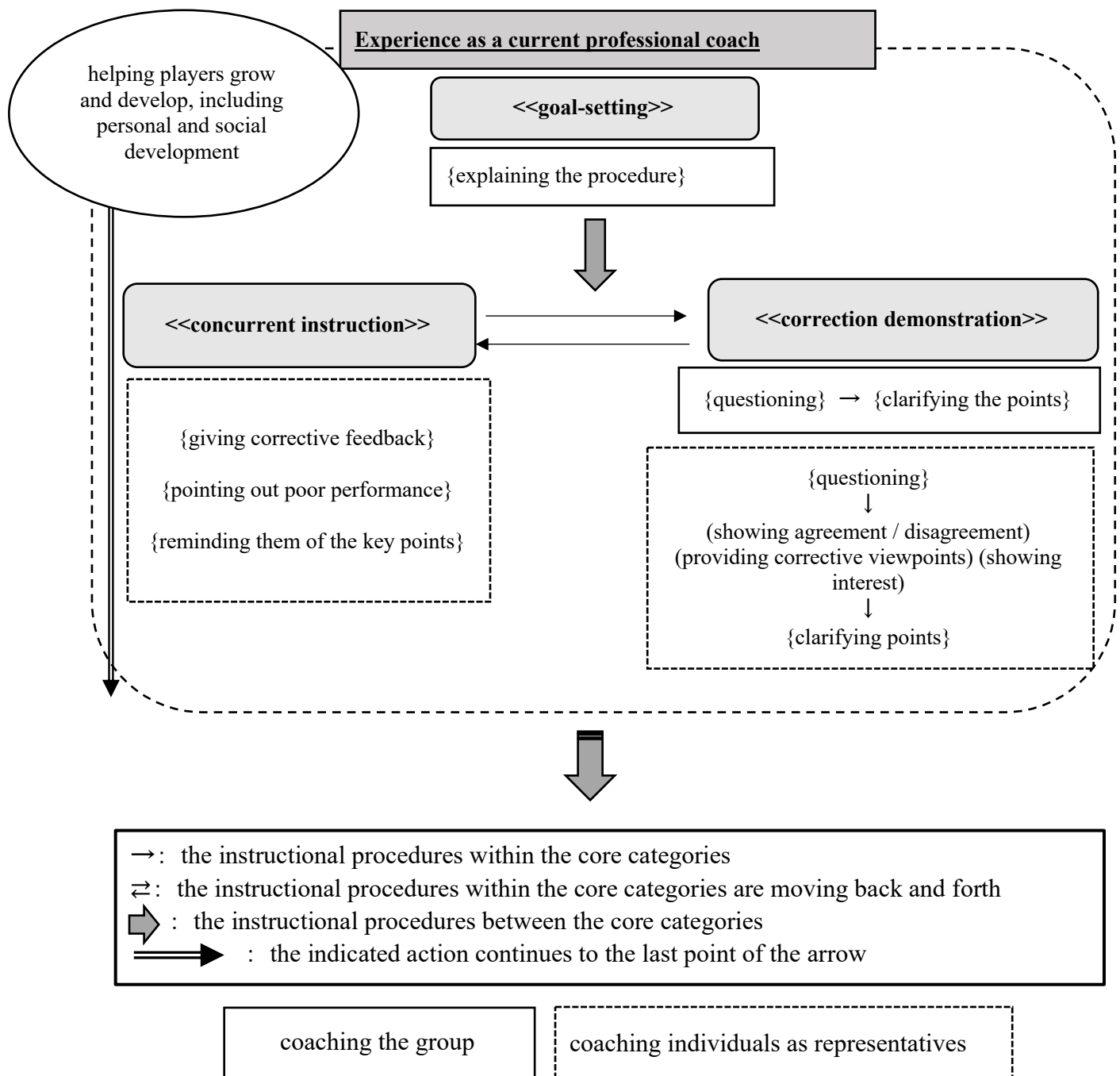
Answer: *“I believe that just teaching football is insufficient as a coach, especially for young players. Most players in the youth program do not*

*become professional players. Even if they do so, their lives will continue afterwards, so I think they need to evaluate many problems they face in life, contribute their own views and opinions, and express them to others so that they can help them to overcome the obstacles. I cannot find anyone in Australia who cares about the growth of players except with respect to developing their football skills.”*

This citation demonstrates that Micky’s pedagogy of frequently proffering inquiries to his players and adhering to a systematic approach to facilitate their attainment of a resolution, stems from his aspiration to assist them in cultivating not only their football proficiency, but also their personal growth, which he acknowledged as his distinctive trait as a coach. Micky’s colleagues’ comments about his unique coaching style suggest that Micky’s socially supportive attitude toward his players may have contributed to the team’s development, although it is Micky’s subjective statement.

#### **4.1.3.4. Coaching process**

The categories and core categories containing the concepts obtained by the M-GTA analysis and their correlations are shown in Figure 10.

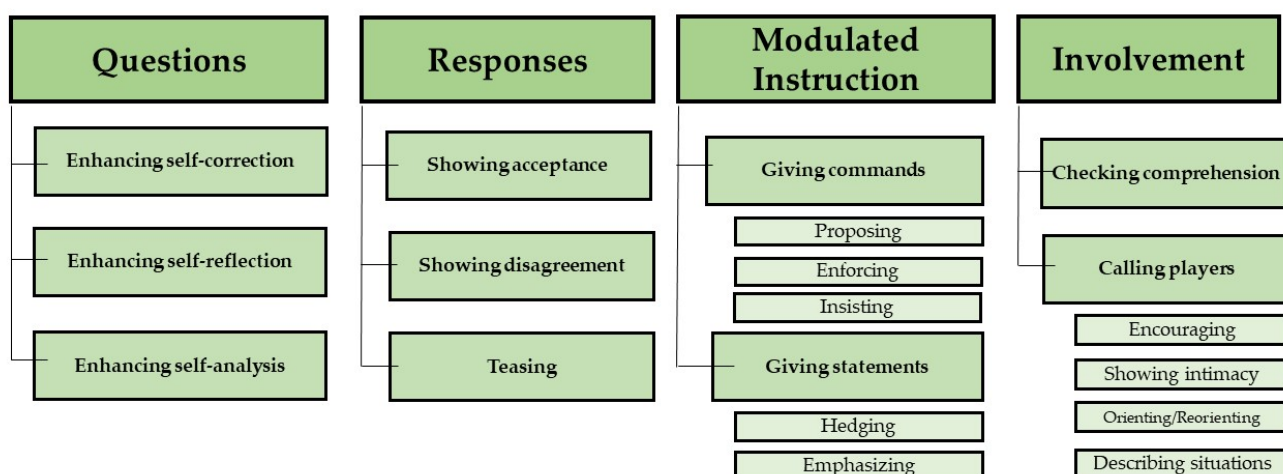


**Figure 10. Micky's coaching process**



## 4.2. Phase 2 analysis: PCA-based coaching language in football training sessions

This section presents the results of an investigation into the language use of the three professional football coaches during training sessions at FES (see 3.2.1.). It exhibits what PCA-based linguistic items appeared, especially focusing on the instructional language that emerged with the aim of fostering players' autonomy, which is the central component of PCA-based instruction (see 3.3.2.2.). Within the three sets of coaching language data, I found a total of four major categories and their subcategories of linguistic devices for promoting PCA-based instruction (Figure 11).



**Figure 11. PCA-based coaching strategies; Four major function & subcategories**

The definitions of these major categories are described in Table 19.

**Table 19**  
*Four Major Functions of PCA-based Instruction*

Category	Definition / Function	Data Sample

Questions	Used to enhance players' problem-solving and decision-making skills (Cope et al., 2016), which has been regarded as one of the most effective ways to increase players' autonomy inside and outside gameplay. They gave athletes an opportunity to reflect on their performances from multiple angles.	<p>•<i>Okay, so, if I play into Degu on blue team, okay, Degu has one touch, so, the blue, surrounding blue players, <b>what should you do?</b></i></p> <p>•<i>So, <b>why you need change the positioning?</b> This is effective for me. Also, <b>what's changing?</b></i></p>
Responses	Used to show how much the coaches agree with each player's perspective, with the aim of giving one possible solution to the issues in the end. These occur in conjunction with questions, aiming to increase players' decision-making skills. If a player did not react to the questions properly, coaches occasionally have the other players laugh at him intentionally, which generated more of an amicable atmosphere than an embarrassing situation.	<p>•<i>So, the blue, surrounding blue players, what should you do? (Players in action) <b>Good. Open</b> or what should you do?</i></p> <p>•<i>Harry: What... (Raise his hand) You can order a first touch by positioning to be in a good first place...</i></p> <p>•<i>Micky: <b>Umm.</b></i></p> <p>•<i>(The player was confused and bewildered) <b>What are you doing? What are you doing? What is that? What's that, huh?</b></i></p>
Modulated Instruction	Acts of coaches providing instructional information, including corrective feedback or instructional proposition during training sessions, in which they adjust the degree of instructional message based on how much they want players to make their own judgment.	<p>•<i><b>Make sure</b> you talk.</i></p> <p>•<i>You <b>could</b> dribble if you want, or you <b>could</b> take one touch if you want, ok?</i></p> <p>•<i>Can you look.</i></p> <p>•<i>Degu, with your body language.</i></p> <p>•<i><b>Maybe</b> this way.</i></p>
Involvement	Coaches draw players into training by checking comprehension, showing intimacy, creating unity, encouraging, and acknowledging the players' situations.	<p>•<i>Degu, <b>you got that?</b></i></p> <p>•<i>Well done, <b>guys,</b></i></p> <p>•<i>Okay, so, the key word <b>we</b>'re looking for here is support, alright?</i></p> <p>•<i>That's <b>excellent, Tomoki.</b></i></p> <p>•<i>So, the Ritsumeikan boys, you guys are the same level.</i></p> <p>•<i>So, Fujii, you'll play with the red team.</i></p>

Table 20 shows the list of linguistic resources that realize PCA-based coaching found in this study.

**Table 20**  
*The Linguistic Features of PCA-based Coaching Instruction*

Categories	Subcategories / codes		Forms and examples
QUESTION	Enhancing self-correction		- WH- / HOW- interrogatives - Mood auxiliary (e.g., <i>What should you do?</i> / <i>What should you guys do?</i> )
			- WH- / HOW- interrogatives - Present tense (e.g., <i>What do you do?</i> / <i>What do you say in Japanese?</i> / <i>How do you create an option?</i> )
	Enhancing self-reflection		- WH interrogatives - Present continuous (e.g., <i>Why you lose the ball and begin of game?</i> / <i>What's changing?</i> / <i>what's happening for Harry?</i> <i>If I back the ball, you ...where the, where the moving Harry?</i> )
			- Affirmative (e.g., <i>Good.</i> / <i>Alright.</i> / <i>Okay, so...</i> / <i>Yeah</i> / <i>Yes</i> )
RESPONSE	Showing acceptance		- Resonance (e.g., <i>Break the line.</i> / <i>First good touch.</i> ) - Causal connections (e.g., <i>So, when we communicate?</i> )
			- Doubt (e.g., <i>Umm</i> )
	Showing disagreement		- Double check (e.g., <i>One?</i> / <i>But why lose the ball again?</i> ) - Impersonating (e.g., <i>I don't know. I don't know. I don't know.</i> )
		Teasing	- Making fun (e.g., <i>What are you doing? What are you doing? What are you doing?</i> )
MODULATED INSTRUCTION	Giving Commands	Proposing	- Comment adjunct - Mood auxiliary - Modal clause (e.g., <i>So, basically, what you're doing is you're passing and</i>

			moving, okay. You <i>could</i> dribble <i>if you want to</i> or you <i>could</i> take one touch <i>if you want to</i> , okay? / Turn and go to the other side <i>if you want</i> . <i>If you're confident enough</i> to go to this side, you <i>can</i> keep going.)
			- Interrogative (e.g., <i>how's your positioning?</i> )
			- Imperative (e.g., <i>Carry the ball</i> / <i>Look around you</i> )
			- Declarative (e.g., <i>you're moving</i> / <i>you move</i> / <i>you want to be looking for space</i> )
		Enforcing	- Interrogative (e.g., <i>Where is the open space?</i> / <i>Who's open?</i> / <i>Can we attack quickly as possible, okay?</i> )
		Insisting	- Imperative (e.g., <i>Make sure you talk when you want the ball.</i> / <i>Make sure you shout for the ball.</i> )
		Hedging	- Comment adjunct (e.g., <i>Maybe</i> close this way. <i>Maybe increasing the percent of</i> the lose the ball, right?)
			- First pronoun
			- Mood auxiliary
			- Comment adjunct
	Giving Statements	Emphasizing	(e.g., If you guys are interested in going overseas, <i>I think</i> it will be <i>really</i> good for you guys to know how to keep the ball against the big guys.)
			- Tag interrogative (e.g., And what we're going to be focusing on is turning with the ball, <i>ok?</i> )
	Checking comprehension		
INVOLVEMENT			- Interrogative (e.g., <i>That makes sense?</i> )
			- Vocative with compliments (e.g., That's excellent, <i>Tomoki.</i> / <i>Yume chan</i> , nice talking. / Oh, <i>Masaki</i> , unlucky.)
	Calling Players	Encouraging	
		Showing Intimacy	- Vocative (e.g., Ok, let's start, <i>guys.</i> / Ok,

	good, <i>guys</i> . Well done, <i>guys</i> . / Yeah. I agree with you. Thanks, <i>Jacob</i> .)
Orienting / Re-orienting	- Inclusive (e.g., what <i>we</i> 're going to be focusing on is turning with the ball, okay? / The key word <i>we</i> 're looking for here is support, alright? / So, what's <i>our</i> what's <i>our</i> objective?)
Describing situations	- Second person pronoun (e.g., So, for example, Tomoki, I saw <i>you</i> just running the whole time. / <i>You</i> guys are thinking. Good. / So, if <i>you</i> guys are interested in going overseas, I think it will be really good for you guys to...).

#### 4.2.1. Questions: Starting a discussion

The use of *questioning* is central to a PCA to coaching (Light, 2013).

Traditionally, coaches have been found to use high levels of instructional behaviors (Cushion & Jones, 2001; Potrac et al., 2007), which limit learners' input (Cushion et al., 2012), positioning them as passive recipients of learning. For coaches to include players in the learning process, they need to move away from using such high levels of instructional behaviors toward the use of questioning (Davis & Sumara, 2003; Kidman et al., 2005). As we have seen in earlier sections, providing questions was a crucial component of coaches Oliver and Micky's attempts to enhance their players' football performance. When conducting their coaching practices, Oliver and Micky tried to elicit a reaction from the players 17 times and 28 times in a session respectively (Table 21).

**Table 21**  
*The Number of Questions Used by Each Coach*

Oliver	Hiro	Micky
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Length of training units	17:15	21:14	11:17
Number of total clauses	690	0	337
Enhancing self-correction	13 (1.9%)	0	1 (0.3%)
Enhancing self-reflection	3 (0.4%)	0	3 (0.9%)
Enhancing self-analysis	1 (0.1%)	0	24 (7.1%)
Questions used	17 (2.5%)	0	28 (8.3%)

Some examples of these questions are as follows:

- (1) Okay, so, if I play with Degu on blue team, okay, Degu has one touch, so, the blue, surrounding blue players, *what should you do?* Good. Open or *what should you do? What do you think?* Okay, so, the key word we're looking for here is support, alright? (Oliver)
- (2) So, Degu, if you want the ball, *what do you do? What do you say in Japanese if you want the ball?* (Oliver)
- (3) So, *why you need change the positioning?* This is effective for me. Also, *what's changing?* ...Yes. If you over there, so Harry, *the what's happening for Harry?* If I back the ball, you ...*where the, where the moving Harry?* Moving Harry over there. So, *what, yeah, this way?* Yeah, you know. Ball. If changing are close to me, *where the Harry now?* Maybe close the this way. It's... maybe, maybe increasing the percent of the lose the ball, right? So, every time changing the, changing the position in changing a ball. (Micky)

The strategic guidelines in both (1) and (3) (e.g., *if I play into Degu on the blue team, Degu has one touch..., If you over there..., If changing are close to me...*) were

used by coaches Oliver and Micky to instigate the players to analyze the unfolding events on their own first and have their own perspectives on the tactical problems. It can be argued that these coaches' behaviors of asking athletes questions before proposing a definite ideal solution (*So, the key word we're looking for here is support, alright?, So, every time changing the changing the position in changing a ball, its meaning creates opportunity or creates the option. Alright?*) were a clear indication of the coaches' intentions to enhance the players' performance. That is, through asking questions they can engage their players in dialogue and discussion that in turn enables them to critically analyze their performance (Forest, 2014). More specifically, these coaches' questioning is associated with their efforts to improve the players' "reflective attitude." (Oslin & Mitchell, 2006). It leads to the player's implementation of a cycle of reflecting on action (i.e., in a specific game scenario), which includes analyzing the situation verbally, developing an action plan, and finally putting the action plan into effect. In this way, making the players deconstruct and reconstruct actions allows coaches to examine their understanding about their performances and to enhance the players' knowledge of how to deal with the tactical problems they encounter during games or training sessions (Oslin & Mitchell, 2006; Wright & Forrest, 2007). Thus, it can be argued that these question-based coaching skills play a central role in achieving their tasks of correcting players' errors in both coaches' coaching practices (See 4.1.1.3. and 4.1.3.3.). Oliver and Micky's inclination to use a question-based approach as a way to enhance players' performances can be seen in their frequent use of questions (Table 21).

Most of the coaches' question-asking behaviors were realized in the linguistic forms of WH- or HOW interrogatives, with different tenses and aspects used depending on the types of responses the coaches were seeking. When the coaches recognized the

need to correct players' performances while they are in action during training sessions, the modality of obligation (e.g., *what should you guys do?*) was included, as shown in the excerpt (1) above. To afford players the opportunity to reflect on their own performances and develop general solutions applicable to other situations and unfolding events during training sessions, the coaches phrased their questions in the present tense (e.g., *What do you do? What do you say in Japanese?*), as in the excerpt (2). In order to enable players to analyze their performances during training sessions and reach an optimal solution to tactical problems independently, the coaches utilized questions in the present continuous tense (e.g., *What's changing? / what's happening for Harry? If I back the ball, you ...where the, where the moving Harry?*), as in the excerpt (3).

#### 4.2.2. Responses: Guiding players

The analysis of coaches' *responses*, which comprise their feedback and reactions to comments made by the players, is critical in terms of PCA-based instruction as these responses significantly impact the players' subsequent performances and mentality.

Table 22 displays the frequency with which each coach used the three types of reactions.

**Table 22**  
*The Number of Responses Used by Each Coach*

	Oliver	Hiro	Micky
Length of training units	17:15	21:14	11:17
Number of total clauses	690	347	337
Showing Acceptance	10 (1.5%)	0	17 (5%)
Showing Disagreement	0	0	4 (1.2%)
Teasing	9 (1.3%)	0	0



The below offers a description of each function of the responses, followed by several examples.

### **Showing Acceptance Toward players' verbal responses**

*Acceptances* were the most common type of response among the coaches.

Through this type of response, coaches are able to show that they agree with players' perspective, notifying that their decision or judgment are on the right track. This was accomplished through the use of affirmative, resonance, or causal connections, followed by further questions or directions:

(4) So, the blue, surrounding blue players, what should you do? (Players in action) *Good. Open* or what should you do? What do you think? (Players in action) *Okay, so*, the key word we're looking for here is support, alright?  
(Oliver)

(5)

*Micky*: Also, why you kicking out? It's meaning why we can't pass to the Stevie?

*Harry*: Oh, because the persons...we weren't talking as...If we are ah, as I expect him to see that, I think he should worth realize that...I should've communicated with him, too.

*Micky*: So, when we communicate?

*Harry*: When? Oh, before play.

*Micky*: Before played, right. Yeah?

(6)

*Harry: Micky, you could've taken touch the line.*

*Micky: Yes, thanks. Good instruction. Yeah. I agree with you.*

In the statement (4), the player demonstrated his own problem-solving viewpoints by physically reacting in response to Coach Oliver's inquiry (*So, the blue, surrounding blue players, what should you do?*). The coach's affirmative feedback *Good* and resonance *Open*, followed by the subsequent question (*what should you do?*), informed the players that they were proceeding in the appropriate direction. Then, the player's additional expression of his viewpoint, which was demonstrated by another physical response, was endorsed by the coach's further affirmative reaction, *Okay*. The subsequent causal connection *so* prepared the players to hear the coach's concluding advice (*the key word we're looking for here is support, alright?*).

In (5), using the causal connection *so*, Coach Micky informed Harry that his explanation for why he did not have the option to pass to his teammate (Stevie) was accurate, which was followed by Micky's additional inquiry (*when we communicate?*). Then, in response to Harry's answer (*Oh, before play.*), the coach shows his agreement with his opinion by resonating with Harry's comment *before play* (*Before played, right?*).

The situation described in (6) is rather unusual since it depicts the social roles being switched around, with a player offering corrective feedback to the coach's performance and the coach agreeing with the player's idea. First, the coach himself was participating in training with the players, and as they reached a particular training point, one of the players, Harry, advised the coach of a specific action that the coach should have taken (*Micky, you could've taken touch the line*). Micky not only acknowledged

the player's point of view with an affirmative *Yes*, but also showed his gratitude by saying "thanks." He also explicitly expressed his agreement with the players' viewpoint by stating, "I agree with you." Coach Micky's inherent attitude of embracing players' answers or voices is clearly consistent with his coaching philosophy that it is not coaches but players that make the ultimate decision regarding playing options during training sessions or games, and, therefore, coaches should first accept their viewpoints regardless of whether the viewpoints are appropriate. (See 4.1.3.3.).

Thus, the use of affirmatives, resonances, or causal connections in football coaching sessions displays coaches' acceptance or agreement with players' verbal responses, indicating they respect the views or answers that the players themselves came up with to challenges during training sessions.

### **Showing Disagreement about players' verbal responses**

In contrast to acceptance, *showing disagreement* was employed when the coaches were unsatisfied with the players' reactions or did not want them to continue to hold it:

(7) *Micky*: How many touches we can?

*Steve*: One

*Micky*: *One?*

*Harry*: Is it three?

*Harry*: No, I didn't say it's a limitation.

*Harry*: Any.

(8) *Micky*: So how... how do you make... how do you create other option by yourself ?

*Steve* : Move the ball

*Micky*: Move the ball.

*Micky*: How...now...now...it's... a Jacob has a ball.

*Steve* : First good touch

*Micky*: First good touch, but now it's a control the ball in a close your close  
foot.

*Harry*: What... (Raises his hand) You can order a first touch by  
positioning to be in a good first place...

*Micky*: *Umm*.

In (7), the player Steve realized he had misinterpreted the training regulation when he heard Coach Micky ask him again, stating, "One?" In (8), after presenting his point of view, the player Harry was given a hesitant reaction (*Umm*) by the coach, which led him to understand that there was another approach to solve the problem. These were not explicit but tacit ways of expressing disapproval by the coaches.

## **Teasing**

The players were not always capable of articulating their ideas or taking appropriate actions in response to the coaches' instructions or questions. They sometimes displayed their confusion or perplexity. Correcting players' answer or performance directly in the eyes of their peers sometimes causes them to lose their face. To avoid this negative consequence, Oliver employed a teasing strategy in order to correct players' performance in an amiable and less-threatening manner :

(9) So, Degu, if you want the ball, what do you do? What do you say in Japanese if you want the ball? (The player is confused and bewildered) *I don't know. I don't know. I don't know.* (Oliver)

(10) Let's say, for example, Degu is isolated here. He only has one touch. What should you guys do? (The player is confused and bewildered) *What are you doing? What are you doing? What is that? What's that huh? What is that? What are you doing?* (Oliver)

In (9) and (10), in response to the coach's question (*What do you do? / What should you guys do?*), the players were unable to reply or react, which may have been due to their limited English comprehension. As soon as the coach detected confusion and bewilderment in their facial expressions or demeanor, he teased them by playing out their mental state (*I don't know. I don't know. I don't know.*) or giving them a ribbing about their indecisiveness (*What are you doing? What are you doing? What is that? What's that huh? What is that?*). Oliver here hurled good-natured "insults" to raise his intimacy with the player by making him and the other players laugh. In Japan, the act of picking on someone to amuse or entertain each other is known as "*ijiri*," and it leads to the creation of more pleasant and congenial environments. Thus, the coach Oliver was successful in creating a more amiable training atmosphere, as observed by the players' facial expressions.

With questions and responses in tandem, the coaches guided their players through a series of steps that eventually led them to a solution for their challenges while ensuring them that their viewpoints were being considered and valued. This was accomplished without the coaches having to resort to coercion.

#### 4.2.3. Modulated instructions: Adjusting the message

The three coaches annotated their coaching language to convey information, such as how much they wanted to compel the players to execute certain actions or what attitude they had toward an instructional proposition or the players' situations. I refer to this coaching behavior in which the language is fine-turned or adjusted as *modulated instruction*. I identified two types of modulated instruction in the three coaching data sets: *modulated commands* and *modulated statements*. Modulated commands were coaches' directive utterances to make players undertake certain actions, in which the degree of coercion was adjusted depending on the amount of pressure they wanted to place on the players. Modulated commands always involved demands, direction, advice, permission, or capability. Modulated statements were coaches' propositional utterances in which the degree of certainty was modified based on how much they perceived the fact to be credible. Table 23 shows the sub-categories of the two functions and the number of times each coach used them.

**Table 23**  
*The Number of Modulated Instructions Used by Each Coach*

	Sub-category	Oliver	Hiro	Micky
Length of training units		17:15	21:14	11:17
Number of total clauses		690	347	337
Modulated command	Proposing	18 (2.6%)	12 (3.5%)	7 (2.8%)
	Enforcing	45 (6.5%)	16 (4.6%)	5 (1.5%)
	Insisting	6 (0.9%)	0	0
Modulated	Hedging	0	0	3 (0.9%)

statement	Emphasizing	0	1 (0.3%)	0
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## Giving commands

### Proposing

The coaches provided the players with directions on how to perform better in a suggestive manner so that they did not feel pressured into performing the actions, indicating that the players had choices. These directions were expressed through declarative or interrogative forms with the use of modalities, which refer to all positioning by speakers about probability, usuality, typicality, obviousness, obligation, and inclination (Halliday, 1994), as follows:

(11) If he comes to the right side, you *can* turn, okay? Turn and go to the other side *if you want*. *If you're confident enough to* go to this side, you *can* keep going. (Hiro)

(12) So, *basically*, what you're doing is you're passing and moving, okay. You *could* dribble *if you want to* or you *could* take one touch *if you want to*, okay? (Oliver)

(13) Jacob, how's your positioning? (Micky)

The coaching utterances in (11) were made in a training setting where the players had to choose whether to dribble right or left depending on the positioning of their opponents, the defenders. This meant that the players had various options to evade the defenders, and they had to determine how to do it on their own. Coach Hiro's intention that the final decision should be made by the players themselves is indicated by his use of the modal verb or mood auxiliary *can* or the conditional clauses *if you want to* and *if you are confident enough to*. The same can be seen in another coaching situation with Coach

Oliver. In (12), Oliver used a low-valued obligation modality, which denotes a low level of compulsion to have an action performed (Halliday, 1994), in a situation where he had players decide on the actions they would take during the training, changing the instructions to a more suggestive tenor. As a result, he made his coaching less authoritative, as in “You could dribble if you want to, or you could take one touch if you want to.” These adjustments to the coerciveness of his instruction through the use of modal verbs were further reinforced by an adverb or comment adjunct, *basically*, a type of modality (Halliday, 1994). As in (13), the form of an interrogative is a type of suggestive instruction that informs the players that there are various playing options. Coach Micky here implicitly informed Jacob that his positioning was inappropriate, implying that he had to make his own decision on how to solve the issue, as opposed to the more precise suggested instructions in (11) and (12).

The most frequently utilized behavior in sports coaching is “instruction” (Potrac et al., 2000; Potrac et al., 2002), where coaches explain how to execute a skill, play, strategy, etc. However, coaches must occasionally defer to their players’ judgment over their ultimate decisions regarding how and what to play by using the proposal I introduced here. This is because players are required to analyze the situations that arise during games or training and make their own rational choices regarding what they are going to do (Cope et al., 2016; Souza & Oslin, 2008; Wright & Forrest, 2007).

## **Enforcing**

*Enforcements* were used to ensure players execute a certain action without using any type of modalities (e.g., modal verbs or modal adverbs).



(14) *Carry the ball, Yume-chan. / Look around you. / Stevie, change the positioning.* (Oliver, Hiro, Micky)

(15) *you're moving / you move / you want to be looking for space / you have to shout in the game / you must support / You gotta go get that / I want you to shield the ball.*

(16) *Where is the open space? / Who's open? / Can we attack quickly as possible okay?*

In (14), (15), and (16), the coaches specified the exact actions the players had to perform unlike in the proposals, which defers to their players' judgment over their ultimate decisions regarding their plays. These coaches' utterances demanding the players to carry out certain actions can be regarded as the speech function of a *command* (Halliday, 1994), which is realized in several types of linguistic forms (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994). In (14), for example, the command function was realized as an imperative form, which is the typical or congruent embodiment of command (Eggins, 2004). The coaching utterances in (15) also had the function of command, but this time they were realized as declarative forms, not imperatives. Other linguistic features include present progressive, present tense, and high obligation modality (*have to, gotta*) expressions. In addition, the first-person pronoun *I* was used as the subject to explicitly inform the players of the actions that the coaches wanted them to carry out (*I want you to shield the ball*). The first two commands in (16) were realized as WH interrogative forms. They are unique types of instructions in that, although the players were required to perform specific actions (such as *moving to an open space* or *making a pass to players in an open space*), they were expected to choose "how" they would achieve the

tasks; the players themselves had to choose where to move and to whom to pass the ball. This seems to be a type of proposal where the coach provided the players with some hints to play better, leaving it up to them to choose what steps they should take. However, I categorized these as types of enforcement because the players were ordered to execute certain actions. Although the last one (*Can we attack quickly as possible, okay?*) was formed as an interrogative, which is the typical realization of questions (Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 2004), the action that the players were to perform was directed (*attacking as quickly as possible*). Thus, in a sense, this can be categorized as a type of enforcement.

### **Insisting**

If the coaches wanted to reinforce their intentions to have the players conduct a certain action, especially when ensuring they were actually doing the actions they were already directed to do, they used the coaching language of *insistence*. Although insisting can be classified as a type of enforcement based on its sense of giving coercive instruction, I have placed it in a different category because I considered it to have a stronger connotation of coerciveness than enforcement as it was an instruction that had already been given to the players but was repeated with greater emphasis:

(17) So, after you pass, *make sure* you move. / Next, so we'll move on to the next one. But, guys, *make sure* you talk when you want the ball. / *Make sure* you look. (Oliver)

In (17), the instruction messages (the act of moving, talking, and shouting) had been

given to the players before the timing of each coaching utterance, and the players were reminded to carry them out once again by the coach, which was emphasized by the phrase *make sure* in each situation. When a given instruction takes on the form of either *enforcing* or *insisting*, it indicates that the players did not have a choice regarding their actions. This seems to contradict the principles of PCA-based coaching, which holds that players should be able to make their own decisions eventually on what playing options they choose. However, Ito (2021) states as follows:

The crucial aspect of implementing PCA is that, despite its fundamental principles being consistent across countries, the means of execution may vary depending on regional, cultural, and religious distinctions. For instance, in underdeveloped nations, children who lack access to formal education may struggle with being immediately encouraged to think independently, and in such cases, it is often more effective to provide some initial instruction to facilitate a smoother transition. The execution of PCA should not be understood as an unbridled relinquishment of responsibility to the players, rather, it must be contextualized within the player's personal circumstances and developmental progress. (p. 8)

I have classified this as a linguistic resource within the purview of PCA, as I believe it serves as a valuable tool when a coach discerns that training can be rendered efficacious through the judicious imposition of certain behavioral constraints, contingent upon the

individual athlete's circumstances. In addition, coaches must occasionally demonstrate their presence as professionals by directing their teams and telling the players exactly what to do; if they give too much decision-making authority to the players, coaches risk losing the players' trust (Potrac et al., 2002). Moreover, it should be noted that the coaching contents stressed by these insistings were identical to coaching messages conveyed as the main theme during the phase of <<goal-setting>> at the beginning of the training session (See 4.1.1.4.). When instructions are issued regarding actions that are related to the main theme of the training, they are likely to be accompanied by insistences.

### **Giving statements**

#### **Hedging**

*Hedges* were used to withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than an accredited fact. The coaches used them to avoid making any definitive statements while explaining rules and while describing the consequences and efficacy of training.

(18) So, why you need change the positioning? ... If changing are close to me, where the Harry now? *Maybe* close this way It's... *maybe, maybe increasing the percent of the lose the ball, right?* So, every time changing the changing the position in changing a ball. It's meaning creates opportunity or creates the option. Alright? It's giving me option. Alright? (Micky)

Here is a scene where Coach Micky explained to the players why they needed to

constantly change positions. The coach wanted the players to understand that by adapting their positioning depending on situation, they could create angles between them and the opposing defenders, allowing them to pass to their teammates (indicated by underlines). Initially, the coach advised the players that if they positioned themselves too closely, they might anticipate the opposing defenders would attempt to block the pass route (*Maybe close this way*). Then, the coach informed the players that one of them could have lost the ball because the positioning he had chosen was too close to his teammate, preventing him from obtaining the angle to provide the pass and resulting in the ball being lost to the opponents (*maybe increasing the percent of the lose the ball, right?*). It may be inferred that the coach's intention of using a modal adverb or mood auxiliary *maybe* was to notify the players that the cause of the unsuccessful performance that he examined and concluded was only "one of many possibilities," since the player might have lost the ball because of other factors. For example, it is possible that the player who lost the ball did not make a mistake in his positioning, but rather, the opposing defender was physically stronger, making it easier for him to steal the ball. Thus, the use of a hedge enables coaches to avoid making definitive statements and imply that there can be other angles to see the issue, leaving room for the players to come up with their own perspectives and solutions.

The use of hedges is critical in terms of both PCA-based coaching and the "nature" of football. It is argued that football is fundamentally "chaotic," which indicates that it is hard to predict what will occur in the next situation since so many factors (e.g., technique, tactics, physical strength, mentality) interact with one another (Muramatsu, 2009). In recent years, this idea of chaos has gained prominence in football coaching as "tactical periodization" (Muramatsu, 2008). Therefore, coaches

should instruct in a manner that permits their players to analyze training situations from multiple viewpoints instead of a single one. In this sense, Coach Micky's use of hedges, which indicates that the cause of the players' errors he pointed out was merely "one of the possibilities" and there could be other factors that led to the failure, was compatible with the concept of tactical periodization. Otherwise, it may deprive them of the chance to develop their own discernment, resulting in their inability to understand the inherent nature of football. Micky's use of a hedging device in (18) may be the result of such consideration.

Simultaneously, it is also true that a coach can ensure the power relationship that exists between coach and player by exhibiting a high level of instructional behavior (Potrac et al., 2007). Potrac et al. (2002) posited that a coach's power can fluctuate according to the expertise demonstrated by the coach on the training ground. Moreover, 'informational power' is determined by the information, or logical argument, presented by a coach to an athlete to influence a change in behaviors (Raven, 1993). Allowing other people's suggestions to influence coaches may lead to the perception that the coach is indecisive and lacking in expertise, resulting in players having little confidence in their coaches (Potrac et al., 2002). Thus, a coach must not only demand players' opinions but demonstrate and acquire "informational" to gain the respect of their players (Raven, 1993). In this regard, it should be noted that in Micky's coaching (18), the concluding remarks did not use any hedges or modalities and clearly stated a decisive conclusion to the problems found in the field, which resulted in ensuring what Raven (1993) calls "informational power" to maintain his social role as a professional coach.

## Emphasizing

*Emphasizings*, as opposed to hedges, were used to strengthen the coaches' propositional instructions:

(19) If you guys are interested in going overseas, *I think it will be really* good for you guys to know how to keep the ball against the big guys. (Hiro)

In (19), Coach Hiro explained why the training that the players were going to engage (Keeping the ball against the big guys) was so important, which originated from his own experience as a professional football player abroad. His emphasis on the significance of this training was reflected in the use of modal verb *will*, a type of modality that signifies the median level of probability / likelihood, and the modal adverb *really*, another type of modality that indicates the exceeding of what is to be expected (Halliday, 1994). In addition, we should note here the presence of the first person (*I think*). Using the first person is closely related to the desire to both strongly identify oneself with a particular argument and gain credit for an individual perspective. A personal reference is a clear indication of the perspective from which a statement should be interpreted, enabling writers to emphasize their own contribution to the field and agree with it (Hyland, 2005b). Based upon Hyland's notion of the first-person existence, it can be assumed that the coach's inclusion of himself as *I* in propositional instruction may have allowed him to show himself as someone who had already achieved success in the setting where the learners were to engage, resulting in the players valuing his advice more. Although it is believed that using the first person pronoun, which prevents authors from conveying voiceless, authorless, and impersonal

information, should be avoided, particularly in scientific writing (Seoane, 2006), in sports, an experienced coach's willingness to make himself overtly present in the utterances can be seen as a coaching skill that adds to the development of validity in his coaching.

#### **4.2.4. Involvement: Fostering players' engagement**

The coaches frequently attempted to draw the players into training by checking for comprehension, showing intimacy, creating unity, encouraging, and acknowledging their situations. These actions helped pique the players' interest and maintain their focus throughout the training sessions, which may have led to an increase in the degree of engagement shown by the players in the session. I identified two major categories of *involvement* within the three coaching data sets: *checking comprehension* and *calling players*. *Checking comprehensions* are the coaches' acts of asking players if they understood the procedure of the training or the training advice. Checking comprehensions were further grouped into two sub-categories: those used to check players' comprehension of English utterances provided by coaches, and those used to ensure that players understood coaching advice associated with the development of players' performance. *Calling players* are the most explicit ways of bringing players into a coach's talk, as they refer directly to the players and have multiple coaching intentions, including encouraging, showing intimacy, orienting / re-orienting, and describing situations. Table 24 shows the sub-categories of the two functions and the number of times each coach used them.



**Table 24**  
*The Number of Involvements Used by Each Coach*

	Sub-category	Oliver	Hiro	Micky
Length of training units		17:15	21:14	11:17
Number of total clauses		690	347	337
Checking comprehension	NA	45 (6.5%)	54 (15.6%)	9 (2.7%)
	Encouraging	27 (3.9%)	4 (1.2%)	2 (0.6%)
	Showing intimacy	0	1 (0.3%)	0
Calling players	Orienting / re-orienting	4 (0.6%)	3 (0.87%)	3 (0.9%)
	Describing situations	8 (1%)	6 (1.7%)	6 (1.8%)

### Checking comprehension

The coaches continually checked the comprehension of the players with little knowledge of football skills or English to ensure they were following along.

(20) Today we'll be doing dribbling, *okay*? And what we're going to be focusing on is turning with the ball, *okay*? Turning with the ball, all right? Degu, *you got that*? Turning with the ball, *okay*? Turning with the ball, *okay*? (Hiro)

(21) Blue team, you must support and get the ball as quickly as possible, *okay*? *That makes sense*? (Oliver)

(22) Where the Harry now? Maybe close this way. It's... maybe increasing the percent of the lose the ball, *right*? So, every time changing the changing the position in changing a ball. Its meaning creates opportunity or creates the option, *alright*? We don't need... it's giving me option,

*alright?* (Micky)

The *checking comprehensions* can be divided into two types: checking English comprehension and procedure-tactic comprehension. The former is seen in (20), where Coach Hiro repeatedly checked if the players followed his English instructions in an elaborated manner using tags. He wanted to make sure that his English instructions were being understood by the players, even going so far as to question an individual player (Degu), indicating he put a lot of emphasis on developing their language skills as we saw in (4.1.2). The latter can be seen in (21) and (22), where the coaches used tags to ensure that the players understood their coaching messages that were intended to improve their football performances, rather than to check their English comprehension skills as in (20).

Checking comprehensions are common in casual spoken encounters and, thus, add a degree of informality and closeness to sports coaching; however, more importantly, they indicate a coach's sensitivity to the potential knowledge gap (in terms of language and competitiveness) with the players and the need to ensure that they are following along. This is particularly true for training sessions in which coaches' native tongues are different from those of the athletes. Periodically referring to players' understanding and agreement, whether for language education-related or competitive performance-related purposes, can not only anticipate possible comprehension problems but also offer a guarantee that the players are thoroughly engaged in the training.

### **Calling players**

*Calling players* were the most explicit way of bringing players into a coaching

discourse as they refer directly to them. Openly addressing an interlocutor fosters familiarity with the coaching topic and with the players themselves. It helps create closeness by suggesting the proximity between coach and player and creating engagement with a matter of immediate concern. Various functions of player mentions were identified, as follows.

### **Encouraging**

The coaches would regularly use the players' personal names in conjunction with praises or uplifting remarks to let the players know that they were heading in the right direction or needed to forget their failures and move forward. These coaching languages were labelled *encouraging*.

(23) That's excellent, *Tomoki*.

(24) *Kouki*, good job *Kouki*. (Hiro)

(25) *Harry*, Good. / Good, *Stevie*.

(26) Oh, *Masaki*, unlucky. (Oliver)

In (23), (24), and (25), the coaches inspired the players by complimenting them by name in front of the whole team. Even if a player did not play well in (26), the coach called out the player's name and provided uplifting words to tell him to move forward.

The findings are in line with some crucial insights from existing literature. The frequent use of encouragement, especially praise, was because it can not only enhance players' self-efficacy and confidence levels but also reinforce the behavior their coaches want them to adopt (Potrac et al., 2002). Through praise, coaches can achieve more and

persuade their players to believe in themselves and their abilities (Potrac et al., 2002; Potrac et al., 2007). Encouraged by the coaches' positive feedback, the players were able to focus more on training.

### **Showing intimacy**

The coaches, using vocatives, attempted to reduce the psychological distance between themselves and the players by *showing intimacy*.

(27) Ok, let's start, *guys*. So, today, unfortunately coach Hiro has a backache.

So, I'll be doing the training. (Oliver)

(28) Last one. Last one. Who's going last? Ok, good, *guys*. Well done, *guys*.

(Hiro)

(29) Good D. Good D. Oh, it's a wrong goal, *mate*. Who's up next? (Hiro)

(30) Good instruction. Yeah. I agree with you. Thanks, *Jacob*. (Micky)

In (27) and (28), when signaling the beginning and end of the training, Coach Oliver and Hiro conveyed a sense of closeness to the players by adding the vocative *guys*. The vocative *mate* in (29) was uttered by Coach Hiro when he corrected a player's error, enabling him to notify the player about it in a friendly manner and reduce the player's embarrassment. In (30), the use of the vocative of personal name *Jacob* in conjunction with the word *thanks* must have created a sense of affinity and appreciation for the player's behavior, allowing the coach to indicate to the players that he would always listen to their opinions and welcome their own perspectives anytime through the training. All of these vocatives above can be regarded as linguistic devices for coaches

to involve affections to show intimacy for the players (Poynton, 1984) and, therefore, to remove the authorial and autocratic atmosphere that often arises from the socio-cultural relationship between coaches and players.

### **Orienting / re-orienting**

The coaches used the inclusive pronoun *we* and adjective *our* to announce training goals and tasks or to remind the players of the initial objectives of the training when they had lost sight of them. They functioned for *orienting* or *re-orienting* the players as to where they should be / should have been or were supposed to head as a team unit.

(31) Okay, let's start, guys. Today *we*'ll be doing dribbling, okay? *Our* main theme will be dribbling and what *we*'re going to be focusing on is turning with the ball, ok? Turning with the ball, all right? (Hiro)

(32) Okay, so, the key word *we*'re looking for here is support, alright? Okay, *we* want to attack quickly, right? So, the first look should be where? Red team, first look is where? (Oliver)

(33)

Micky: Why lose the ball again? So, why you need still a change in the positioning?

Player: So...like a...easier...keep the ball and easier...coz you got an option?

So, stand here...he can cut off...bounce...

Micky: So, what's *our* what's *our* objective? What's the purpose?

Harry: Break the line.

Micky: Break the line. So why you need change the positioning?

In (31), Coach Hiro explained to the players what they would be working on at the training session that day. The players were *oriented* to practice dribbling skills, especially focusing on flipping the body while handling the ball. The utterances in (32) were made during the training session conducted by Coach Oliver. Until this moment, the players had been instructed to attack as quickly as possible to score a goal, which was the initial goal and the main theme of that day's training. However, once they engaged in the training, they were oblivious of the point of the training and began exchanging meaningless passes. The training was then interrupted by Coach Oliver, and they were *reoriented* to their initial training goals. In (33), as Coach Micky guided them through a question-based instruction, a player responded with his own answer, but it was not a definitive or solid one. Therefore, the coach reminded them of the objective of the training, which was the perspective that the players should have initially had in mind as a shared goal among the team members. This resulted in helping the player to provide the expected answer (*Break the line.*) in his next response. Here, the use of *our* could have been replaced with *your*.

All of the inclusive pronouns and adjectives that have been discussed thus far may have some interpersonal effects, particularly in terms of fostering a feeling of unity among the players and coaches. Using the inclusive pronoun *we*, for example, helps the speakers breach the expert / audience barrier and establishes an “alignment” with them (Hyland & Zou, 2022). It can be assumed that Coach Micky attempted to pull the players into his orbit by implying to a shared experience or joint exploration of a training issue. Hence, it should have led to the development of their sense of belonging

to the team, increasing their engagement level in the training.

### **Describing situations**

When instructing, praising, and questioning the players, the coaches *described the many situations* they were in, including how they had been playing, what they were thinking, and where they were headed:

(34) So, for example, Tomoki, I saw *you* just running the whole time. Instead of just running, jog and look around. Where is open, okay? Let's play.

(Oliver)

(35) Oh, it's a long game now. *You* guys are thinking. Good. Good. Keep going. (Hiro)

(36) Yes. If *you* over there, what's happening to Harry? (Micky)

(37) When I was playing it as a professional overseas, I played against a massive, big defenders and I had to... I cannot go 50-50. I cannot win 50-50.

So, what did I do, I use my body and turn and shield the ball and I kept the ball, okay? So, if *you guys* are interested in going overseas, I think it will be really good for you guys to know how to keep the ball against the big guys.

Alright? (Hiro)

In (34), before explaining to him what to do (jog and look around) to improve his performance, Coach Oliver let the player know how he had played thus far by highlighting which of the player's actions should be improved (the act of running the whole time). In (35), Coach Hiro also ensured that the players were aware of the reasons

why he believed they were headed in the proper direction by elaborating on how well they were doing (the demeanor of thinking) before telling the players that they were playing well and that they were expected to maintain the conduct that they had been displaying. In (36), while guiding the players to reach the potential solution through question-based instruction (see 4.1.3.3.), Coach Micky made the player assume a situation (being in the position referred to as “over there”). This enabled him to direct the player’s viewpoint to a point where he could find an answer to the question asked by the coach. The use of player mentions *you guys* in (37) was used to direct the players’ attention to their future goal (to become a football player abroad), describing how what they were going to practice would be applied in the future.

Thus, before giving any type of coaching instruction—whether it was praising, correcting errors, guiding toward the solution, or mentioning the future needs—describing what they were or would be experiencing while mentioning players helped them get a better understanding of why they were instructed to do so in each subsequent coaching occasion. In this way, the introduction of players’ names in the coaching discourse had the effect of drawing the players’ attention to the coaches’ talk, and resulted in the enhancement of subsequent instruction, including encouraging, showing intimacy, orienting / reorienting, and describing situations. Calling an addressee’s name can, thus, be one of the effective ways for coaches to bring them into a coaching talk, fostering a sense of closeness between coach and player and of belonging to the unit as a team member.



## **CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION**

This study adopted the qualitative analytical procedure, M-GTA, to provide an in-depth description of three football coaches' behaviors in authentic training situations. Specifically, this study, drawing on the theoretical premise of SFL, examined the linguistic resources chosen by the coaches in developing players' autonomy and engagement during their football training.

In the sections that follow, I first summarize some notable coaching components that each coach displayed during their training sessions and discuss their theoretical implications from the sports science and ESP perspectives. Next, I explain what pedagogical implications we can obtain to support L2 players and coaches seeking career opportunities overseas.

### **5.1. The social construction of football coaching**

One of the most notable aspects of Oliver's coaching was his proclivity for questioning. He took care to start his engagement with the players by asking questions while referring to the significant advice on the main theme delivered during correction demonstration or wrap-up.

Previous studies have emphasized the importance of utilizing inquiry during sports coaching sessions. It is well-established that positioning learners as the focal point in the coaching process through the utilization of a questioning methodology can lead to favorable outcomes, such as enhancing self-correction, self-reflection, and self-evaluation.

As Oliver noted in his interview, being questioned by a coach requires players to engage in the process of "comprehending the coach's English utterance" and

“articulating their thought in English,” which serves as good practice for honing their English proficiency. However, as Oliver indicated, it can be challenging for Japanese learners to respond in English to questions that require analysis and synthesis to generate new information. This suggests that fact-seeking questions may occur more frequently than those requiring players to analyze the training situation in training sessions where coaches who are native speakers of English and players who are non-native speakers interact.

During the training session, Oliver succinctly conveyed crucial points to the players, most of which were related to the session's primary theme, employing a clear and coherent discourse structure of introduction, body, and conclusion. He would then initiate each segment by reiterating the essential training points (statement) and posing questions to confirm that the players comprehended the key concepts (elaboration). Organizing the session in this manner facilitated the players in acquiring a more comprehensive understanding of what they were supposed to learn in each session.

Therefore, at both the macro and micro levels, Oliver implemented a communicative structure of “stating” followed by “providing a concrete example or event.” As this communication structure is analogous to a fractal, a general concept introduced by Mandelbrot (1982) to signify self-similarity on all scales, this study conceptualizes this phenomenon as a fractal recursive structure in sports coaching.

Oliver stated in his interview that he did not consciously adopt this fractal recursive structure. However, given his upbringing and subsequent higher education background in the United States, it can be inferred that he implicitly utilized this mode of communication and applied it in his coaching demonstration in this study. He acknowledged that this communicative approach is efficacious in making coaches’

instruction more convincing and compelling to players. He also added that football players must also develop their capacity for reasoning in order to make logical decisions while participating in actual football activities. This “method of persuasion” has been a topic of discussion in recent years in the field of youth football development in Japan. Tajima (2007) argued that football players must make precise decisions quickly on the pitch and, in order to do so, they must possess logical thinking skills. The correlation between persuasion and logical thinking was also acknowledged by Oliver in the interview. The trend of fostering youth players’ logical thinking skills has been deemed a crucial element of successful football players. For instance, JFA Fukushima, which is a branch of the JFA established to develop elite football players, launched a language development program several years ago with the objective of enhancing youth players’ ability to communicate cohesively and persuasively on various phenomena in their environment (Sanmori & Ishiharano, 2010; Tajima, 2007).

Coach Oliver’s commitment to improving players’ autonomy, including the development of their critical thinking skills, was also expressed in the language he used not only in his questions but also in the instructions he gave to correct errors. This was observed in the frequent usage of proposing (Table 23) whose function was to inform the players that they were responsible for making the ultimate decision about whether or not to accept and implement the suggestions coaches gave. In the instruction in (12) (page 157), for example, three types of modal assessments were used: modal adverb, modal verb, and modal clause, and it can be assumed that Oliver carefully adjusted the degree of coercion in his instructions. Additionally, to provide instructions with a higher level of coercion, he also frequently used enforcing or insisting (see 4.2.3.). This behavior was appropriate given his position as a person with greater knowledge and

experience than the players, which is something that is required by coaches for them to keep their social role as professionals in society (Potrac et al., 2002).

Coach Oliver also sought to enhance players' performance by utilizing a strategy of encouraging and frequently complimenting the players when they exhibited good performance. Even when players failed or did not respond appropriately to the coach's queries, he reframed (using teasing) their failures to have a positive and constructive connotation, thus fostering a more amicable team environment. As a result, the entire squad was given the impression that mistakes were acceptable, which may have encouraged the players to feel that they could attempt anything during training. It is also worth mentioning that when the recursive structure was employed by the coach to reiterate the training goals or what he desired the players to learn, the inclusive pronoun "we" was occasionally used to indicate that these were shared goals to be achieved by both the coach and his players.

The players were strongly influenced by Coach Hiro's physical demonstration (showing authentic modeling). This is not a task that is easily accomplished by many football coaches. Physical demonstration, in general, necessitates advanced football performance skills sufficient to serve as a model performance for players; younger athletes may possess a physical advantage over their instructors. Coaches must be more skilled than their players in order to demonstrate model performance. Therefore, this coaching technique is only feasible for a handful coaches, such as Hiro, who was a former professional player and maintains proficiency in the sport.

Another aspect of Hiro's coaching was his emphasis on enhancing the players' English proficiency, particularly their listening comprehension. According to Hiro, his proficiency in speaking clearly with his coach and teammates in English was one of the

factors that contributed to his success as a professional player in Australia. Hiro's conviction that foreign language skills may be beneficial for Japanese athletes prompted him to focus on the players' English comprehension. He would frequently assess if they understood what he was saying and would repeat the same content multiple times if they did not comprehend his direction. Due to the emphasis on the players' language development, these interactions between Hiro and the players do not accurately reflect typical football coaching situations. However, in the context of the globalization of sports, where many individuals speak various languages, similar situations are likely to occur and present interesting targets for future research.

Micky's coaching circumstances were qualitatively distinct from those of the other two coaches in that his training occurred in a naturally-occurring, intact situation in Australia. In contrast, Hiro and Oliver conducted football coaching demonstrations in a simulated coaching environment as part of a preparatory course for Japanese football players and coaches planning to go abroad in the future.

First, Micky did not provide corrective feedback (giving corrective feedback) or remind the players of the key points (reminding them of the key points) pertaining to the main theme informed in goal-setting, as Oliver and Hiro did. Instead, he took these actions in response to contingent problem events that occurred during the training. He brought out issues in their play that he had not previously pointed out or reminded them of the key points he made during the correction demonstration. His instruction for their poor performance (pointing out poor performances) had nothing to do with the issues he had previously explained to them. It seems that these contingent coaching practices are due to the fact that Micky is a full-time coach on the football team. He may have previously provided the players with such critical coaching advice on a regular basis,

meaning that he did not need to tell them on the day of data collection, albeit he did build a kind of training theme, namely “break the line,” as his coaching progressed. Micky may not have introduced a training theme at the start of the session because the training content analyzed was geared toward getting the players warmed up before moving on to the next goal-keeper-focused training, rather than assisting them in acquiring techniques or skills through the analyzed training.

The most critical component of Micky’s coaching was his elaborate and sophisticated interaction with the players via question-based instruction, beginning with questions (questioning). As shown in section 4.3.3, he employed a highly sophisticated inquiry-based coaching technique, guiding the players to a solution in a logical and thought-provoking manner, by providing questions that promote enhancing self-analysis skills of the players, while embracing their viewpoints, thus enabling him to effectively convey the final coaching tips at the end of the coaching process, rather than immediately disclosing the solutions to the issue. It can be assumed that Coach Micky must have used questions to initiate dialogue and discussion with their players about their performance to develop his players’ problem-solving, decision-making, and creativity abilities, as well as game comprehension (Forrest, 2014; McNeill et al., 2008). This may be because learners’ ability to discuss components of their performance most likely demonstrates their ability to successfully play the sport (Wright & Forrest, 2007).

In addition, Micky’s frequent use of providing questions as a coaching method deserves discussion from an intercultural perspective, which may lead to the reconceptualization of questioning used in previous studies. Using question-based interactions, Micky urged his players to assess their performance problems, determine the underlying causes, and find solutions during training. Although prior research has

pointed out these effects in sports coaching, Micky's queries had an intention other than merely increasing players' football performance. The intention behind this coaching style was the hope that they would deal with the hardships or predicaments they would encounter in their personal lives. Micky's eagerness to be involved not only in the advancement of players' football skills but also in the well-being of their personal lives may also be observed in other Japanese coaches. As Micky himself stated, there are few Australian coaches who are as attentive to off-pitch issues as he is, and this type of coaching mindset may be advantageous internationally as a distinctive characteristic of Japanese coaches, which was also indicated in the above comments made by Micky's colleagues.

As previously discussed, Micky's coaching style can be regarded as a typical embodiment of PCA-based coaching instruction. He consistently demonstrated his attitude of respecting the players' ideas and judgments regarding various issues that arose throughout training. One of the most notable situations that illustrated this point was when he participated in the training with the players. During this time, when Micky made an error, one of the players offered guidance to correct his mistake (*Micky, you could have taken touch the line.*). An athlete must possess a great deal of courage if they are going to offer directions to a coach who possesses more knowledge, expertise, and holds a higher social position than them. Furthermore, from the coach's perspective, accepting and admitting the players' suggestions could become an act that alters the social role and severely jeopardizes his status as a coach. Despite this, Coach Micky accepted the player's suggestion and even went so far as to thank him explicitly for his contribution (see (30) in page 170). This indicates that the relationship between Micky and the players was strong and solid enough for the players to assume that their ideas

and suggestions would be accepted by Micky and that this training atmosphere had been cultivated on a daily basis.

## **5.2. Theoretical implications**

The theoretical ramifications of this study are multifaceted, with the potential to both further the field of coaching science and enhance our understanding of ESP.

### **5.2.1. Contribution to coaching science**

This study contributes to the advancement of coaching science by offering new insights into the unique sports coaching contexts of asymmetrical interactions between coaches who are native speakers of English and players who are non-native speakers, and vice versa. Through this examination, a distinctive coaching behavior is identified that has not been previously acknowledged in relevant literature. The use of English as the primary language of coaching instruction, despite it not being the players' native language, resulted in the coaches being more attentive to supporting the players' comprehension during training sessions. Coaches Oliver and Hiro implemented various strategies to aid the players' understanding of the English language, such as emphasizing the development of listening comprehension skills. This type of coaching behavior has not been previously reported in the literature on sports coaching, thereby expanding the behavioral category of ASUOI. As Coach Hiro suggested in his interview, proficiency in a foreign language can be considered a critical skill for student-athletes who wish to go overseas, let alone for coaches. This implication suggests that a wider array of subcategories of behaviors related to foreign language learning may be necessary, contingent upon the age and proficiency of the players.



These may include the use of plain English for young players or more advanced, higher-order questioning for players with more advanced language skills. With the growing number of football expatriates, the examination of coaching behaviors specific to addressing players' language proficiency will become increasingly relevant in the context of globalized sport.

In addition, the qualitative analysis of coaching instruction at discourse level revealed that each coaching element discovered in this study is not an independent component of the coaching process, but rather an interdependent constituent that assists coaches in completing their coaching task at a macro level. Question-based instruction, for instance, as used primarily by Oliver and Micky, is an essential component of coaching discourses that allow the coach to direct players to reach their tactical goals in the training sessions. In his unique coaching strategy of a fractal recursive structure, Oliver highlighted the session's main theme, using the discourse structure comprising an introduction, body, and conclusion. In this coaching process, while varying the coaching behaviors, the coach used question-based instructions to draw the players' attention to the main training theme in each phase of the structure. That is, the questions served a variety of coaching functions on their own, but as Oliver notes, when embedded within a discourse strategy to persuade players raised in English-speaking countries, they were used to achieve the ultimate goal of helping the players to effectively gain a clearer understanding of what they should learn in each session. In addition, the detailed analysis of coach Micky's question-based instruction from multiple angles enabled the identification of several other peculiar elements of this approach. Micky used question-based instruction to help develop the players' critical thinking and decision-making abilities. He alternated between asking simpler and more

complex questions, depending on how closely the players' responses matched what the coach intended. In either case, the coaches embedded question-based instructions in the interactions with the players as part of the discourse strategy to accomplish certain coaching tasks in each situation. This varying usage of questions depending on the coaching situation was reflected by the discovery of three types of questions discovered in this study: those that enhance self-correction, self-reflection, and self-analysis. This subcategorization of inquiry-based instruction enables researchers and practitioners to analyze the coaching act of questioning in greater detail.

Further, the investigation into how Micky's coaching behavior of asking questions was shaped, or influenced by his coaching philosophy or mindset using an interpretive interview revealed that his frequent use of inquiries during training sessions was intended not only to improve players' football performance, but also to foster their self-management skills to deal with the hardships or predicaments they would face in their personal lives, which was not mentioned in previous studies on questioning approaches. This social support-oriented approach is in line with the findings of Chelladurai et al. (1988), which posited that Japanese athletes tend to expect social support from their sports coaches. This expectation aligns with traditional Japanese cultural values of cohesive and harmonious group dynamics (Chelladurai et al, 1988). Thus, the present study demonstrated how Japanese cultural values might manifest in the conduct of coaching and instructional language by presenting observable qualitative data from authentic coaching interactions, which has not been investigated previously. Previous research on questioning in coaching science has pointed out that coaches require players to respond immediately with desired answers in a monologist nature of coach/player interaction, resulting in players' failure to develop their critical thinking

skills or take responsibility for their learning (Cope et al., 2016; Wright & Forrest, 2007). In light of this, a question-based approach such as Micky's, which first accepts the players' opinions and then leads them to the answers he desires, even including aspects of their general personal and social development, may serve as an antithesis to the criticized conventional question-based approach.

Next, the findings of this study are important in that they add new insights into the natural use of language in sports coaching contexts, providing a new foundational analytical tool for the exploration of coaching phenomena particularly from a linguistic perspective. Coaching science research initially focused on a product-oriented viewpoint, treating coaching behaviors as categorizable entities that can be passed down through generations. Generally speaking, the goal was to find "what" coaching behaviors were observed during the training sessions. However, because the researchers' quantitative methods did not enable them to comprehend "how" the coaches conducted their training sessions, they began to focus more on the analysis of the sociological aspects of the coaching process, describing how coaches' and players' micro-level behaviors, such as eye contact, physical motions, gestures, facial expressions, or even their coaching philosophy or mindset, are connected to each other in completing their coaching tasks. Along with this ethnomethodology-oriented perspective, Wegener (2018) expanded his focus to include coaching language analysis, demonstrating a patterned usage of the speech act-sentence structure relationship. The present study delved further into the analysis of the lexico-grammatical layer, focusing on the identification of linguistic resources for implementing PCA-based coaching, one of the most contentious topics in coaching science. Thus, the list of meaning-making resources manifesting a PCA-based approach provided in Figure 11 can become a

future foundational model even for coaching science researchers to explore how PCA-based coaching occurs from a linguistics standpoint in various coaching contexts.

### 5.2.2. Contribution to ESP

The findings of this study expanded the repertoire of football-related lexico-grammatical features. As I discussed in 3.1., several studies have attempted to identify sports-domain specific vocabulary by identifying and creating single- and multi- word lists (Lavric et al., 2008; Schmidt, 2008; Wilson, 2009a, 2009b, 2011; Bergh, 2011, 2012, 2017; Goh & Burns, 2012; Humpolík, 2014; Benson & Coxhead; 2022).

However, these words merely represent partial components of the dynamics of sports-domain specific lexico-grammatical elements based on the notions of SFL. According to the functional linguists' perspective, the identification of any technical terms (e.g., match, corner, intercept or pick up), all of which can be regarded as the types of *participants* or 'a person, a place or an object' (Butt et al, 2012, pp. 66) or *process* representing "happening, acting, doing, sensing, saying, or being" (Butt et al, 2012, pp. 66), is an act of investigating *figures* within a flow of events (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). This analytical viewpoint draws on the notion of transitivity, which is one of the three core analytical frameworks in SFL (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014), indicating there are other analytical aspects of linguistic resources that can be explored other than the transitivity-angle, such as interpersonal and textual metafunctional analytical frameworks.

It follows therefore that the previous studies on language use in sports contexts above have excluded exploring interpersonal or textual linguistic elements of coaching utterances in sports contexts, despite covering a large portion of technical terms or "the

notion of thingness” (Butt et al, 2012, pp.66) and a small area of interpersonal aspects (Wegener, 2018). Specifically, as sports coaching is a complex, reciprocally-influential process based on the systems of social interaction (Cope et al., 2016; Cushion & Jones, 2014; Erickson et al., 2011; Potrac & Cassidy, 2006), and a player-centered approach is a preferred coaching method in terms of developing player’s critical-thinking and decision-making skills (Cope et al., 2016; Forrest, 2014; McNeill et al., 2008), it seems vital to explore in more depth how coaches’ attitudes of interreacting with their players and encouraging them to engage in training are realized in the form of linguistic and rhetorical features.

Thus far, the exploration of interpersonal aspects of language has been conducted focusing on written texts, referring to the analytical model of interpersonal and interactional metadiscourse developed by Hyland (1998, 2000, 2002, 2005a). As this analytical model was designed specifically for the analysis of academic contexts, it is not appropriate for us to apply it directly to the investigation of sports contexts, requiring the adoption of a new analytical framework. Thus, the identified linguistic resources realizing a PCA-based coaching approach (Figure 11) can become a foundational tool for researchers to conduct an exploration into more delicate interpersonal aspects of language use in sports contexts. With the research focus shifted from a product-oriented to a sociology-based approach, it has been argued that the coaching process is a relational, dynamic social microcosm, involving complex layers of social interaction and interdependence (Bowles & O’Dwyer, 2020; Cushion, 2007). This led to the idea that PCA, which is intended to give players the autonomy to make their own choices within and outside of the game, is an effective coaching method to enhance players’ performance. It is important for us, ESP researchers, to illustrate the

language features that sports coaches use in their PCA practice during training sessions, as well as to list merely technical words that are peculiar to sports scenes. The meaning-making resources discovered as linguistic elements that promote PCA-based instruction (Figure 11) will allow researchers to explore various sports-related discourses from an interpersonal perspective, going beyond the investigation of language patterns using corpus-based textual analysis. I believe the analytical framework for interpersonal dimension that I proposed in this study will add to our knowledge of sports-related language usages in a variety of sports contexts.

### **5.3. Pedagogical implications**

This study has conducted a comprehensive analysis of three case studies situated within naturally-occurring football coaching contexts to identify and examine the communicative behaviors and instructional language features for PCA practice utilized by the three professional football coaches during asymmetrical interactions with players. This section concludes by explicating how ESP practitioners can utilize the study's findings, which were obtained from the analysis of the three coaches' coaching behaviors, philosophies, and linguistic resources, for pedagogical implications for those who aspire to pursue career opportunities abroad in the sports domain.

Firstly, the findings regarding the patterned coaching behaviors amongst the three coaches allow for the identification of recurrent language usage in football coaching instruction. Despite the fact that the three coaches in this study employed a diverse array of coaching strategies on a micro-level, they all exhibited commonalities at the core category level, where their training processes can be succinctly summarized as follows: the coach explained the objective and procedure of the training to the players (<<goal-

setting>>), provided feedback to the players on their performance during the training session (<<concurrent instruction>>), and temporarily interrupted the training to rectify the players' errors (<<correction demonstration>> or <<halt for error correction>>).

The four phases that comprise the entire coaching process of the training session afford valuable insights into the step-by-step methodology employed by football coaches in general as they conduct their training sessions. This implies that learners can become cognizant of a certain pattern in the coaching text utilized by coaches to achieve their social objectives. The specific textual patterns employed to accomplish a particular communicative goal are conceptualized as a genre. Theoretically, genres are staged, goal-oriented patterns of interpersonal interactions that enable communication through the use of language (Eggins, 2004; Martin, 1984). In each genre, there is a *generic structure* (Butt et al., 2003; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994), a series of steps that one takes to achieve a goal. For example, in the case of shopping, there may be a basic structure of beginning, middle, and end; that is, a greeting indicating the start of trading, the main body of trading, and a greeting signaling the completion of trading, respectively. By taking these steps, customers and salesclerks can sell and buy goods smoothly. Even when we engage in more complex business transactions, these basic steps appear, where the buyer gets what they want, and the seller receives the money, indicating that the goal of the genre "shopping" is accomplished. As these examples show, the four phases of football coaching behaviors described in this study can also be defined as the *generic structure* of football coaching. Generic structure of football coaching can be explicitly taught to inexperienced novice EFL sport-athletes so that they can participate successfully in their target community.

Furthermore, given that a generic structure comprises various elements of

schematic structure, which reveal different linguistic choices (Butt et al., 2003; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994), it is possible to identify linguistic components such as vocabulary and grammar that are specific to each stage of the generic structure. Specifically, during the <<goal-setting>> phase, when the coach explains the aim and procedure of training to the players, the coach's role is to impart information and the linguistic form that typically realizes this task, or what functional linguists refer to as "function," is an assertion or declarative statement (e.g., *So, today's main theme will be dribbling*) (Nishijo, 2018; Wegener, 2018). Conversely, a coach's behavior of asking players questions constitutes the act of demanding information, and the linguistic form that realizes this function is an interrogative (e.g., *What should we do?*). If players are engaged in the <<concurrent instruction>> phase, ellipsis might be utilized to enable the coach to speak in a timely and well-paced manner as the players move (e.g., *With your body language*) (Nishijo, 2018). Therefore, comprehending the actions and behaviors of coaches during training allows for the identification of genre-specific linguistic resources, enabling ESP practitioners to identify which linguistic resources they should prioritize in their instruction of L2 student-athletes who have specific needs in this field.

In addition, exposing learners to these football coaching-related linguistic resources can lead to their understanding of how these lexico-grammatical items can be employed more or less effectively by coaches to foster players' autonomy and engagement in football coaching interactions. In practice, the identified linguistic features for PCA instruction (Figure 11) can provide a principled approach to training student-athletes about football coaching as interactive events. They can be demonstrated to learners by ESP practitioners to enhance their understanding of specific language strategies and communicative aspects for PCA practice. For instance, learners could be



prompted to consider how the professional football coaches gave instructions to allow the players to make their own decisions on what to play during training sessions or how they attempted to reduce psychological distance between coaches and players.

Based on the SFL standpoint, vocabulary and grammar that can be classified into the same category can be taught to learners as lexico-grammatical items that have the identical “function” of assisting speakers (coaches) to accomplish a specific task within their coaching role. In traditional grammar, each grammatical item is taught according to its part of speech, which facilitates understanding a complex set of abstract rules that are said to be “acquired” within an internal mental process related to cognitive capacity. However, it is difficult to observe how each linguistic item constructs meaning or “functions” within its social context (Eggins, 2004; But et al., 2012). For example, the modal verb “could” and modal adverb “basically”, which were found in Coach Oliver’s coaching utterances, can both be treated as different parts of speech from the traditional grammar perspective. However, from the functionalist perspective, they can both be categorized as interpersonal lexico-grammatical items with the function of modal assessment (Halliday, 1994) and can both be considered as realizations of the coach’s suggestive attitude. Additionally, the expression “if you want to”, which appeared later in the same text, can also be analyzed within the same framework; the concept of grammatical metaphor (Halliday, 1994) treats elements that appear as clauses consisting of subjects and verbs (e.g., “I guess”, “I think”) as metaphorical elements that possess the same modal function as modal adverbs, such as “probably” or “maybe”. In other words, all these linguistic items are connected to achieve a contextual need – to convey to the players that the decision of their actions ultimately lies with them and not the coaches. Thus, using authentic coaching data as a foundation for ESP training offers

valuable insights into the real-life interactional demands and can inform the development of strategies for supporting L2 student-athletes as they pursue career opportunities abroad. This will enhance learners' awareness of the ways in which coaching instructions are conveyed, thereby improving their knowledge of the means by which meaning-making resources can be employed to achieve a speaker's goal in real-world contexts (Butt et al, 2003; Eggins, 2004; Goh & Burns, 2012).

One potential way to utilize the findings of this study as educational resources for ESP is to integrate them into the pedagogy of task-based language teaching (TBLT). TBLT is a teaching method that assigns learners a task, an activity that always has a clear communicative goal to be accomplished, and to use the target language as a tool to complete the goal (Long, 2014; Norris, 2009). Long (2014) defines a "task" as "real-world activities" that people perform in their daily lives, and the act of "coaching football training," which is the subject of this study, is one such task. Therefore, it can be assumed that ESP practitioners who teach English to learners who intend to pursue careers as football coaches overseas may give them the task of coaching football in English as the learning outcome of TBLT in a preparatory learning program. Then, adopting the teaching method of a genre-based task, which employs the theory of "functional" linguistics (Yasuda, 2017), may allow us to sequence football coaching-related tasks in a consistent manner that enables learners to observe how the linguistic items, such as those listed in Table 20, are systematically tied together to assist football coaches in achieving their coaching tasks in authentic sports coaching contexts (a sample of a TBLT-based teaching curriculum for this study's project is provided in Appendix 3). In this way, we can avoid presenting them to learners as inorganic and dry items to be memorized by rote.

Furthermore, as Yasuda (2017) suggests, by using TBLT as a teaching framework, ESP teachers may also be able to understand how these functionally related items should be presented to the learners. TBLT draws on the pedagogical principle known as focus on form (FonF), the concept of which is that “teachers should direct the learner’s attention to linguistic forms as needed in the course of their performing meaningful activities” (Long, 2014). Since FonF aims to develop learners’ ability to communicate in a foreign language, teachers must design instructional methods that enable them to engage in meaningful communicative activities. In this process, it is essential for teachers not to direct learners’ attention explicitly to the language form, but to do so naturally, without interfering with the cognitive processes of their language use. Therefore, it is necessary to avoid interrupting the learners’ communicative tasks and implementing decontextualized drills, such as grammar exercises, under the pretext that the language features discovered in this study are idiosyncratic to the context of football training. Instead, it is important that teachers draw learners’ attention to linguistic forms as required throughout the performance of meaningful tasks.

In addition, to familiarize learners with football coaching-related English expressions, it is essential to provide them with rich information on the contextual factors surrounding the linguistic elements. As the goal of student-athletes going abroad is to use language to conduct football coaching overseas, it is imperative for us to demonstrate how experienced professional coaches act when advising players on competent behavior to win games (Garfinkel, 2002). In this sense, the varied aspects of the three model coaches’ coaching skills discovered in this study, such as Oliver’s fractal recursive structure, Hiro’s authentic modeling, and Micky’s question-based instruction, should be taught to learners as non-language-acquisition-related skills. The

coaching guidelines of the JFA have highlighted the importance of questioning players as it develops their critical thinking abilities. The JFA (2016a) has also informed coaching practitioners of the importance of questioning through its coaching license courses. It is therefore necessary to familiarize the participants of this study, some of whom had already taken JFA coaching licenses, with the experience of conducting inquiry sessions in English.

In the future, it is essential to integrate non-language-acquisition-related factors with language teaching content. For instance, providing students with the opportunity to pay attention to the coaching contexts in which each football coaching-related linguistic and functional resource appears would aid them in understanding how language is utilized to construct meaning in genuine football coaching situations. By incorporating teacher prompts, such as “What coaching techniques did Coach Oliver use to help players realize the key points that enhance their performance?”, “Imagine that you have to coach players whose native language differs from yours. What coaching skills demonstrated by Coach Hiro do you think are crucial to learn?”, or “Do you think Coach Micky always told the players what to do exactly during training or let them decide on their own? In either case, what linguistic features do you think he used to instruct them to do so?”, into the process of watching coaching videos, students’ awareness of the relationship between language use, context, and purpose in the football coaching domain can be enhanced.

#### **5.4. Conclusion**

This study aimed to depict the manner in which professional football coaches interact with their players and try to improve their performance through the use of

English. It can be inferred that the coaching processes employed by the three coaches examined in this study commonly comprised of the following stages: explaining the objective and procedure of the training to the players, providing feedback to the players whilst they were engaged in the training, interrupting the training to rectify the players' substandard performance, and terminating the training. Furthermore, the coaching method varied depending on the particular context of each coaching scenario, whether it was coaching during regular team training or within an educational institution's pedagogical program. Three distinct types of coaching instruction were also identified: those addressed to the entire team, those addressed to individuals, and those addressed to individuals but with a message directed to the entire team. Additionally, this study examined the language functions and resources utilized when the PCA-based coaching approach, which has garnered significant attention in the field of coaching research, was implemented. The findings indicate that there are four fundamental language functions: questioning, response, modulated instruction, and involvement, each of which is further divided into subcategories with distinct linguistic/functional characteristics.

Our small-scale study made social construction of football coaching in asymmetrical and international settings visible and offered opportunities for introspection on the theoretical development of coaching science. The examination of the coaching techniques, philosophies, or backgrounds of the internationally trained coaches through the use of M-GTA and interpretive interviews, provided us with a more comprehensive understanding of the act of sports coaching in global settings as an intricate and intricate phenomenon comprising various context-embedded elements such as instructional behaviors, coaching backgrounds that shape their coaching philosophy, and socio-cultural values. Additionally, I was able to acquire a deeper appreciation of

how language can facilitate and promote player autonomy and engagement.

Although coaching science researchers have long been describing what coaches do (behavior), their recent focus has been on studying various aspects of coaching and coaching processes (i.e., thoughts, talk-in-interaction, bodily conduct, and the use of material objects and ecologies) (Heath and Luff, 2013; Evans, 2017). This study explored the dimensions of sports coaches' instructional language usage, focusing on its function and discourse strategy, drawing on the notions of SFL. This enables coaching scientists to provide more than a description of "what happened," and to develop a systematic and structured explanation of coaches' language usage. In other words, they will be able to present linguistic evidence to prove "why he or she is a good coach," utilizing the theoretical framework for language analysis. As shown in this study, rather than attempting to generalize research findings, a deep and multifaceted investigation of individual coaches allowed us to identify aspects that are characteristic of coaches. Among these, the success of a coach over a prolonged period of time seems to be of particular importance.

In this paper, I have explored the understudied but increasingly important field of sports coaching, focusing on the ways football coaches seek to enhance players' autonomy and engagement in football training sessions. Focusing on effective coaches (those who have professional experience as a football coach for several years), the study underlines the view that player-centered sports coaching is only successful to the extent that we are able to create an appropriate relationship with players. This involves crafting a text, which establishes solidarity, or at least a connection, to promote players' decision-making skills while maintaining their presence as a professional coach. The present results contribute towards a growing understanding of how professional coaches

manage their relationships with their players, which was achieved by the manipulation of interpersonal resources; this has not previously been investigated in ESP. I believe my work has strengthened the use of the model for PCA linguistic resources as a discourse analytical tool and shed light on how interpersonal resources are employed in this genre.

The results of this study offer several pedagogical implications for promoting the development of *English for sports purposes* in several ways. First, as these coaching patterns were some aspects of authentic football coaching practice, it is possible for ESP practitioners to identify the generic structure of football coaching and some lexico-grammatical features that tend to be realized in natural football training settings. Furthermore, many of the linguistic resources identified in this way reflect elements of the PCA-based coaching process, which has recently been emphasized in the field of coaching science, allowing learners to learn by relating the needs of the target context to the language items in terms of their functions.

This specification of language use in football coaching enables us to consider to what extent particular examples of language in the ESP discipline are unique to the field and to what extent particular forms are generic across all areas (Woodrow, 2018). Thus, the linguistic features of football coaching found in this study can be used by a course designer as syllabus items in the belief that they are unique to the target settings.

Second, an in-depth analysis using triangulated qualitative data sources (M-GTA, scene-specific descriptions, and interpretive interviews) on how the three coaches conduct training sessions in English can allow ESP practitioners to compensate for the little knowledge of the target setting: football coaching in the case of this study. As Woodrow (2018) points out, a teacher has a very high status in the classroom of English

for General Purposes as they are the expert at language teaching, whereas in the ESP classroom, the ESP practitioner is rarely an expert in the disciplinary field. This may influence the relationship with the learners, with ESP practitioners feeling insecure because of their lack of subject knowledge (Wu & Badger, 2009). This can be mitigated by the ESP practitioner acknowledging that their expertise lies in English, not in knowledge of the subject, and adopting a willingness to learn about the subject. Subject knowledge undoubtedly enhances the teaching of ESP. One way of achieving this is by working in collaboration with subject specialists like the three model coaches in this study, who provided not only football coaching-related linguistic data but also abundant contextual information surrounding them.

In addition to the acquisition of the target language, student-athletes who aspire to pursue their professional careers abroad must also learn to adapt their athletic or coaching performances to the target context in order to comprehend the relationship between people, society, and language. While the fundamental coaching procedure appears to be generally consistent in football coaching, a detailed analysis of the behaviors of three coaches highlighted that the methods adopted by each of them were varied. The coaching context, which encompasses the country in which a coach instructs and the players they coach, has a significant impact on the coaching approach, including the coaching philosophy and principles. Crossing borders and cultures can alter how coaching is conducted, indicating that language use may be one of the factors affected. This study revealed that coaching behaviors were not mechanically related to each other in a linear manner, but rather were intimately and organically connected to a variety of contextual factors, including the coach's mindset, the country and culture in which the coaching takes place, and the players to whom they provide instruction.



Japanese student-athletes who wish to go overseas also need to cultivate a quality of mind that is essential for understanding the interplay between others, society, and language. Promoting learners' awareness of these social and cultural constructions of football coaching as a foreign language context should be one of the focal points in devising strategies for facilitating the target learners in the field.

While the findings of this study will advance researchers' understanding of coaching discourses and linguistic choices in intact training situations, the study is not without limitations. This study was limited in scope by having only three coaching data sets, which may have resulted in overlooking other key aspects of linguistic resources and discourse strategy for PCA. Future research should evaluate coaching instructions in a broader range of contexts, including asymmetrical or international settings, and include a larger number of texts pertaining to sports coaching in the PCA analysis. Thus, the model presented in this study will require modification when applied to a variety of coaching contexts. In particular, the asymmetrical relationships that arose from the different native languages between coaches and players in this study may have precluded us from accessing other varieties of linguistic resources containing interpersonal functions. It is particularly important to explore them in symmetrical interactions, where coaching instructions intended to support the players' language ability do not emerge, to obtain more lexico-grammatical items for PCA. This may enable us to improve the accuracy and sophistication of the linguistic model introduced in this study. Additionally, it is possible that tone, facial expression, posture, and gesture may enhance player autonomy and engagement, which were not evaluated in this study. Incorporating these multimodal features of sports coaching into the framework would undoubtedly bring depth and detail to the description of coaching

language.

Despite some limitations, this study, hopefully, can serve as a springboard for discussion and an impetus for the further exploration of the complex dynamics of sports coaching in the globalized sports contexts, particularly in regard to the interactions between coaches and players, as well as for a more profound comprehension of language usage in sports, which has long remained beyond the purview of coaching science. I also that this study will prove to be a valuable resource for ESP researchers and practitioners seeking to assist L2 learners with special needs in the sports setting, offering analytical insights into the interpersonal functional aspects of language use in the realm of sports.

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Appendix 1 Coaching data

Stage	No.	Speaker	Clause	Questions	Response	Modulated Instruction		Involvement	
Opening1	1	Oliver	Ok, let's start, guys.					intimacy (gen1)	
	2	Oliver	So, today, unfortunately coach Hiro has a backache,						
	3	Oliver	so I'll be doing the training.						
	4	Oliver	This training's main theme is gonna be looking, okay?						checking comprehension
	5	Oliver	So, looking and making good choices,						
	6	Oliver	good decisions with the ball, okay?						checking comprehension
	8	Oliver	So, we'll do some training first.					ori / reorienting	
	9	Oliver	Then, we'll do a game with the looking element in it, okay?					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
	10	Oliver	to make a lot of choices with the ball, okay?						checking comprehension
	12	Oliver	First, can I have,						

13	Oliver	we'll have eight players.					describing situations (we)	
14	Oliver	So, can I have two players about the same level?						
15	Oliver	So, the Ritsumeikan boys, you guys are the same level.					describing situations (you)	identifying (per)
16	Oliver	Can you guys do Jyanken?						
17	Oliver	If you guys lose,					describing situations (you)	
18	Oliver	losers, you will get blue.					identifying (per)	
19	Oliver	So, you guys pair up,						
20	Oliver	Yokoi kun pair up with Degu						
21	Oliver	and then pair here						
22	Oliver	and pair there okay.						
23	Oliver	And just go spread out on the field, please.						
24	Oliver	you go blue okay.						
25	Oliver	Go on the field, please.						

26	Oliver	On the field, boys and girls. Okay?					identifying (we)	checking comprehension
27	Oliver	Go ahead.						
28	Oliver	Go spread out on the field, please.						
29	Oliver	The red team [play], first.						
30	Oliver	You'll play with the red team only, okay?						checking comprehension
31	Oliver	So, Fujii, you'll play with the red team.					identifying (per)	
32	Oliver	Degu, you're with the blue team okay.					identifying (per)	
33	Oliver	So, basically, what you're doing is you're passing and moving, okay.			proposal	declarative		
34	Oliver	Free touch.						
35	Oliver	Unlimited touch.						
36	Oliver	You could dribble			proposal	declarative		
37	Oliver	if you want to			proposal	declarative		
38	Oliver	or you could take one touch			proposal	declarative		
39	Oliver	if you want to, okay?			proposal	declarative		checking comprehension
40	Oliver	But after you play the ball						

41	Oliver	you're moving.			enforcement	declarative		
42	Oliver	So, for example, Yokoi kun play the ball to Fujii kun.						
43	Oliver	And after you play,						
44	Oliver	move into a new space.						
45	Oliver	Can you do that			enforcement	interrogative		
46	Oliver	so he plays it						
47	Oliver	and you move.			enforcement	declarative		
48	Oliver	Stop						
49	Oliver	stop						
50	Oliver	stop						
51	Oliver	stop, okay.						
52	Oliver	So, we want to do a pass and move, okay?					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
53	Oliver	So, after you make a pass,						
54	Oliver	you want to move into a new space.			enforcement	declarative		
55	Oliver	So, here you want to be looking for space.			enforcement	declarative		
56	Oliver	Where is the open space			enforcement	interrogative		

	57	Oliver	if I make the pass here?						
	58	Oliver	That place is open.						
	59	Oliver	Pass and move. Okay,						checking comprehension
	60	Oliver	I move into a new space, okay.						
	61	Oliver	So, after you pass,						
	62	Oliver	make sure you move.			insistence	imperative		
	63	Oliver	Don't stand around.						
	64	Oliver	Ready.						
	65	Oliver	Blue team, you guys play.					identifying (per)	
	66	Oliver	Ready set.						
	67	Oliver	Go.						
Action1	68	Oliver	Good.						
	69	Oliver	Pass and move.						
	70	Oliver	Let's get some talking going, boys and girls.					identifying (we)	
	71	Oliver	Get some talking going.						
	72	Oliver	Good pass and move.						

73	Oliver	Good.						
74	Oliver	Look around.						
75	Oliver	Look around.						
76	Oliver	Good.						
77	Oliver	A little bit of a shout going, boys.						
78	Oliver	Talk,						
79	Oliver	good.						
80	Oliver	Look for the space						
81	Oliver	look for the space Degu,						
82	Oliver	where's open?			enforcement	interrogative		
83	Oliver	good						
84	Oliver	good						
85	Oliver	all right						
86	Oliver	good.						
87	Oliver	Make sure you look...look around.			insistence	imperative		
88	Oliver	Okay						

Freezing1	89	Oliver	and stop						
	90	Oliver	good						
	91	Oliver	good						
	92	Oliver	excellent						
	93	Oliver	stop						
	94	Oliver	stop						
	95	Oliver	stop.						
	96	Oliver	Hold the ball, please						
	97	Oliver	Next, so we'll move on to the next one.						
	98	Oliver	But, guys, make sure you talk			insistence	imperative	identifying (we)	
	99	Oliver	when you want the ball.			proposal	declarative		
	100	Oliver	Ball, please.						
	101	Oliver	So, Degu, if you want the ball,			proposal	declarative	identifying (per)	
	102	Oliver	what do you do?	○					
	103	Oliver	What do you say in Japanese	○					
	104	Oliver	if you want the ball?			proposal	declarative		



105	Oliver	I don't know.		teasing				
106	Oliver	What do you know?	○					
107	Oliver	I don't know		teasing				
108	Oliver	I don't know.		teasing				
109	Oliver	So, in English if you want the ball,			proposal	declarative		
110	Oliver	very simple						
111	Oliver	“yes”						
112	Oliver	“here.”						
113	Oliver	Call someone's name.						
114	Oliver	Degu, okay?						checking comprehension
115	Oliver	So, Degu, back up			enforcement	imperative		
116	Oliver	and can you shout for the ball, okay?			enforcement	interrogative		checking comprehension
117	Oliver	I'll play you the ball, okay.						
118	Oliver	Ready.						
119	Oliver	Go back up.						
120	Oliver	Ready.						

121	Oliver	You, go back up			enforcement	imperative		
122	Oliver	and shout for the ball, “please.”						
123	Oliver	Good						
124	Oliver	good						
125	Oliver	okay, a little bit more demanding,						
126	Oliver	Degu, with your body language, okay.			enforcement	ellipsis		
127	Oliver	And you have to shout like in that game.			enforcement	declarative		
128	Oliver	“Here!” Okay?						checking comprehension
129	Oliver	One more time.						
130	Oliver	Ready go.						
131	Oliver	“Here!”						
132	Oliver	Good, Degu!					encouraging (praise)	
133	Oliver	Okay,						
134	Oliver	so with that guys					identifying (we)	
135	Oliver	“here”						

	136	Oliver	“yes”						
	137	Oliver	whatever, okay						
	138	Oliver	Make sure you shout for the ball.			insistence	imperative		
	139	Oliver	Let's do that one more time.						
	140	Oliver	Same team.						
	141	Oliver	Ready, set, go.						
Action2	142	Oliver	Nice,						
	143	Oliver	much better.						
	144	Oliver	Use the whole field.						
	145	Oliver	Good.						
	146	Oliver	Look around.						
	147	Oliver	Excellent.						
	148	Oliver	New space.						
	149	Oliver	New space.						
	150	Oliver	Good.						
	151	Oliver	Much better.						

152	Oliver	Much better.						
153	Oliver	Okay, one more minute, boys and girls.					identifying (we)	
154	Oliver	Shout for the ball.						
155	Oliver	Good						
156	Oliver	Good						
157	Oliver	nice						
158	Oliver	good						
159	Oliver	nice.						
160	Oliver	Pass and move, Tomoki.			enforcement	imperative		
161	Oliver	Good						
162	Oliver	nice						
163	Oliver	good, Yokoi.					encouraging (praise)	
164	Oliver	ah, weak pass.						
165	Oliver	Good						
166	Oliver	and stop.						
167	Oliver	Very good						

	168	Oliver	excellent.						
	169	Oliver	A little bit better, boys and girls					identifying (we)	
Freezing2	170	Oliver	So, next, we switch it up this time.						
	171	Oliver	Red, you pass it to blue.					identifying (per)	
	172	Oliver	Then, blue, you pass to red, okay?					identifying (per)	checking comprehension
	173	Oliver	Yes, same thing.						
	174	Oliver	pass and move.						
	175	Oliver	Unlimited touches, okay?						checking comprehension
	176	Oliver	Let's keep shouting.						
	177	Oliver	I know it's a little bit tired, tiring.						
	178	Oliver	So, instead of sprinting,						
	179	Oliver	you can also jog, okay.			proposal	declarative		checking comprehension
	180	Oliver	In order to jog,						
	181	Oliver	you gotta look around.			enforcement	declarative		
	182	Oliver	You can do back step, okay.			proposal	declarative		checking comprehension

	183	Oliver	okay						
	184	Oliver	So, for example, Tomoki, I saw you running the whole time.					describing situations (you)	identifying (per)
	185	Oliver	Instead of just running,						
	186	Oliver	jog, look around						
	187	Oliver	where is open, okay.						checking comprehension
	188	Oliver	Think about where the ball is coming, okay?						checking comprehension
	189	Oliver	okay. Let's play.						
	190	Oliver	Ready, go.						
	191	Oliver	Nice						
	192	Oliver	good						
Action3	193	Oliver	shout.						
	194	Oliver	Good						
	195	Oliver	good.						
	196	Oliver	Shout for the ball, boys.					identifying (we)	
	197	Oliver	Good nice, Masaki.					encouraging (praise)	

198	Oliver	Good, Yume.					encouraging (praise)	
199	Oliver	Alright.						
200	Oliver	Look around.						
201	Oliver	Look around.						
202	Oliver	Who's open?			enforcement	interrogative		
203	Oliver	So, blue,						
204	Oliver	good.		accepting			encouraging (praise)	
205	Oliver	So, blue,						
206	Oliver	good.					encouraging (praise)	
207	Oliver	Nice touch.						
208	Oliver	Good.						
209	Oliver	Ito kun, nice touch.					encouraging (praise)	
210	Oliver	Who's open?			enforcement	interrogative		
211	Oliver	Alright.		accepting				
212	Oliver	Good						
213	Oliver	and look around.						

	214	Oliver	Look around.						
	215	Oliver	Who's open?			enforcement	interrogative		
	216	Oliver	Good		accepting				
	217	Oliver	nice,						
	218	Oliver	before you get the ball.						
	219	Oliver	Look around.						
	220	Oliver	Good						
	221	Oliver	good						
	222	Oliver	okay and stop.						
	223	Oliver	Very good.						
Freezing3	224	Oliver	Okay, so, this time a little bit more challenging.						
	225	Oliver	Red team, you only have one touch, okay?				identifying (per)	checking comprehension	
	226	Oliver	To make it a little bit...						
	227	Oliver	So, red team, you'll have one touch.				identifying (per)		
	228	Oliver	Can you switch?			enforcement	interrogative		
	229	Oliver	We'll go three.						



	230	Oliver	Reds only [play], okay.						
	231	Oliver	So, red team has only one touch.						
	232	Oliver	Blue team, you must support			enforcement	declarative	identifying (per)	
	233	Oliver	and get the ball as quickly as possible,						
	234	Oliver	Okay. That makes sense?						checking comprehension
	235	Oliver	Let's go with two balls.						
	236	Oliver	Ready, play.						
Action4	237	Oliver	One touch						
	238	Oliver	So, good.						
	239	Oliver	Red team has one touch.						
	240	Oliver	Blue, you, can go to blue.					identifying (per)	
	241	Oliver	One touch						
	242	Oliver	one touch.						
	243	Oliver	Good.						
	244	Oliver	Nice.						

245	Oliver	Pass and move.						
246	Oliver	Use the whole field.						
247	Oliver	One touch.						
248	Oliver	Excellent.						
249	Oliver	Good.						
250	Oliver	Look around.						
251	Oliver	Look						
252	Oliver	before you play.						
253	Oliver	Oh, oh, oh						
254	Oliver	Nice.						
255	Oliver	Good, Yokoi.					encouraging (praise)	
256	Oliver	Good, nice.						
257	Oliver	One...						
258	Oliver	That's excellent, Tomoki.					encouraging (praise)	
259	Oliver	Red is one touch.						
260	Oliver	Blue, you're free touch.					identifying (per)	

	261	Oliver	Blue, a free touch.					identifying (per)	
	262	Oliver	Good.						
	263	Oliver	Carry the ball, Yume-chan.			enforcement	imperative		
	264	Oliver	Good,						
	265	Oliver	red is one touch.						
	266	Oliver	Good						
	267	Oliver	good,						
	268	Oliver	nice play						
	269	Oliver	excellent						
	270	Oliver	good						
	271	Oliver	good						
	272	Oliver	good						
	273	Oliver	good						
	274	Oliver	and stop.						
Freezing4	275	Oliver	Hold it there						
	276	Oliver	Stop						

277	Oliver	stop						
278	Oliver	stop						
279	Oliver	stop.						
280	Oliver	Okay, so, red is one touch.						
281	Oliver	Now, let's switch the Reds a little bit right now.						
282	Oliver	So, red, switch with the blue please.						
283	Oliver	One of you.						
284	Oliver	Good						
285	Oliver	So, blues, blues if...						
286	Oliver	I use Degu again.						
287	Oliver	Degu, one more time over here.						
288	Oliver	Okay, so, if I play into Degu on the blue team, okay, okay,						checking comprehension
289	Oliver	Degu has one touch,						
290	Oliver	so, the blue, surrounding blue players, what should you do?	○				identifying (per)	
291	Oliver	Good.		accepting				

292	Oliver	Open or						
293	Oliver	what should you do?	○					
294	Oliver	What do you think?	○					
295	Oliver	Okay, so, the key word we're looking for here is support, alright?		accepting			ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
296	Oliver	For example, let's say that Yume-chan, can you come over here					identifying (per)	
297	Oliver	and Fujii-kun, can you go a little bit far over there please, okay?			enforcement	interrogative	identifying (per)	
298	Oliver	And can you go over here.						
299	Oliver	Let's say, for example, Degu is isolated here, okay, okay.					describing situations (per)	
300	Oliver	He only has one touch.						
301	Oliver	What should you guys do?	○					
302	Oliver	What are you doing?		teasing				
303	Oliver	What are you doing?		teasing				
304	Oliver	What is that		teasing				
305	Oliver	what's that, huh?		teasing				

	306	Oliver	what is that		teasing				
	307	Oliver	what are you doing?		teasing				
	308	Oliver	Good.		accepting				
	309	Oliver	Supporting.		accepting				
	310	Oliver	Fujii-kun, what should you do?	○				identifying (per)	
	311	Oliver	He only has one touch.						
	312	Oliver	Open to this space, okay		accepting				
	313	Oliver	or Yume-chan, what you are doing is you're getting closer to him, right, right			enforcement	declarative	identifying (per)	checking comprehension
	314	Oliver	because he only has one touch.						
	315	Oliver	Let's try it.						
	316	Oliver	Ready the Degu.						
	317	Oliver	Ready, hi.						
Action5	318	Oliver	Support right away.						
	319	Oliver	Good						
	320	Oliver	okay						
	321	Oliver	okay.						

322	Oliver	And the rest of you, let's continue.						
323	Oliver	Ready.						
324	Oliver	Three balls.						
325	Oliver	Play.						
326	Oliver	Three balls						
327	Oliver	Three balls.						
328	Oliver	Go.						
329	Oliver	So, one touch.						
330	Oliver	Support						
331	Oliver	support.						
332	Oliver	Good.						
333	Oliver	Oh Degu, look, please.			enforcement	imperative		
334	Oliver	Look.						
335	Oliver	Blue, make sure you support the red team.			insistence	imperative	identifying (per)	
336	Oliver	Good.						
337	Oliver	Tomoki, Tomoki, actually Masaki. Can I have the ball, please?						

338	Oliver	Will do two balls.						
339	Oliver	Good.						
340	Oliver	Alright.						
341	Oliver	Support.						
342	Oliver	Good.						
343	Oliver	Tomoki, good					encouraging (praise)	
344	Oliver	nice						
345	Oliver	good						
346	Oliver	good.						
347	Oliver	Support.						
348	Oliver	Good						
349	Oliver	nice.						
350	Oliver	Make sure we're supporting.			insistence	imperative	ori / reorienting	
351	Oliver	that's good.						
352	Oliver	Thank you.					intimacy (you6)	
353	Oliver	Finish, please.					intimacy (you6)	



Freezing5	354	Oliver	Thank you.					intimacy (you6)	
	355	Oliver	Alright.						
	356	Oliver	Next, we'll go into a game.					ori / reorienting	
	357	Oliver	Guys, get some water.					identifying (we)	
	358	Oliver	Real quick.						
	359	Oliver	Go.						
	360	Oliver	Blue is four, okay.						checking comprehension
	361	Oliver	So, we're still working on...					ori / reorienting	
	362	Oliver	our theme is looking up and making choices.					ori / reorienting	
	363	Oliver	Okay?						checking comprehension
	364	Oliver	In the training.						
	365	Oliver	We were doing in the training.						
	366	Oliver	Yume chan, for example, when she didn't have a passing option,					identifying (per)	
	367	Oliver	she's dribbling, right?						checking comprehension

368	Oliver	So, you could dribble.			proposal	declarative		
369	Oliver	You could touch the ball many times.			proposal	declarative		
370	Oliver	It's unlimited.						
371	Oliver	So, you could dribble			proposal	declarative		
372	Oliver	and find a better option						
373	Oliver	to play. Okay?						checking comprehension
374	Oliver	So, in this game you have two choices.						
375	Oliver	You can either pass			proposal	declarative		
376	Oliver	or you could dribble, right, just like in a real game			proposal	declarative		
377	Oliver	or you can shoot, okay?			proposal	declarative		checking comprehension
378	Oliver	But we're working on looking up					ori / reorienting	
379	Oliver	and finding our target player. Okay?						checking comprehension
380	Oliver	So, blue team, I need one person.					identifying (per)	
381	Oliver	Let's have Masa go behind the goal, please.						

382	Oliver	And red team will have someone go behind the goal, please. Okay?						checking comprehension
383	Oliver	So, Degu and the red team, you guys defending that goal.					identifying (per)	
384	Oliver	Blue team, you're defending this goal okay.					identifying (per)	
385	Oliver	Ueda kun, on this side, okay.						
386	Oliver	I'll explain it right now.						
387	Oliver	So, let's, for example, blue team has the ball.						
388	Oliver	The goal is between the hurdle. Okay?						checking comprehension
389	Oliver	So, Massa can move only side to side, right, side to side.						
390	Oliver	Good to score a goal, okay.						
391	Oliver	So, for example, to score a goal,						
392	Oliver	can you, Yume-chan, can you pass the ball to Tomoki, please?					identifying (per)	
393	Oliver	So, let's say Tomoki-kun finds Masa.						

394	Oliver	Masa, can you open up?					identifying (per)	
395	Oliver	Just a minute,						
396	Oliver	one more time. Okay.						
397	Oliver	One more time,						
398	Oliver	one more time.						
399	Oliver	To score a goal,						
400	Oliver	you must score one touch.			enforcement	declarative		
401	Oliver	Okay?						checking comprehension
402	Oliver	From Masa.						
403	Oliver	Masa has one touch.						
404	Oliver	You can only score one touch, okay?						checking comprehension
405	Oliver	So, for example, let's have Tomoki kun hold it.						
406	Oliver	Tomoki will play the ball.						
407	Oliver	Yokoi kun, where should you go?	○				identifying (per)	
408	Oliver	Yeah, play.		accepting				

409	Oliver	One goal.						
410	Oliver	Okay, that's how we're going to play.					ori / reorienting	
411	Oliver	Yes?						checking comprehension
412	Oliver	Understand?						checking comprehension
413	Oliver	Very simple.						
414	Oliver	Okay?						checking comprehension
415	Oliver	Hey. Okay?						checking comprehension
416	Oliver	So, let's go.						
417	Oliver	Ready.						
418	Oliver	Balls [are] here.						
419	Oliver	Hey. I spread.						
420	Oliver	Good, good,						
421	Oliver	nice talking, boys					identifying (we)	
422	Oliver	good.					encouraging (praise)	
423	Oliver	Nice, Yokoi.					encouraging (praise)	

	424	Oliver	Play.						
	425	Oliver	Let's go.						
	426	Oliver	can you look.			enforcement	interrogative		
	427	Oliver	Can you look			enforcement	interrogative		
	428	Oliver	look, ah boy.						
	429	Oliver	Play.						
	430	Oliver	Look						
	431	Oliver	look						
	432	Oliver	look						
	433	Oliver	good						
	434	Oliver	good.						
	435	Oliver	Come on.						
	436	Oliver	Hey, red ball						
	437	Oliver	red ball						
	438	Oliver	red ball,						
Action6	439	Oliver	play.						

440	Oliver	Nice.						
441	Oliver	Well done.						
442	Oliver	Ah good.						
443	Oliver	I look						
444	Oliver	good						
445	Oliver	look						
446	Oliver	good						
447	Oliver	look						
448	Oliver	good						
449	Oliver	look.						
450	Oliver	Blue ball						
451	Oliver	blue ball.						
452	Oliver	Spread out.						
453	Oliver	Red team						
454	Oliver	Red team.						
455	Oliver	Stop						

	456	Oliver	stop						
	457	Oliver	stop						
	458	Oliver	stop.						
Freezing6	459	Oliver	Red team,						
	460	Oliver	stop.						
	461	Oliver	What are you going to do?	<input type="radio"/>					
	462	Oliver	Are you going to mark	<input type="radio"/>					
	463	Oliver	or are you going to defend what you are going to do to do?	<input type="radio"/>					
	464	Oliver	Ready, play.						
Action7	465	Oliver	pressure.						
	466	Oliver	Go.						
	467	Oliver	Good						
	468	Oliver	good play						
	469	Oliver	good again						
	470	Oliver	good						
	471	Oliver	good						



472	Oliver	nice play.						
473	Oliver	Nice, Yokoi,					encouraging (praise)	
474	Oliver	well done.						
475	Oliver	Play.						
476	Oliver	Good						
477	Oliver	good.						
478	Oliver	No play.						
479	Oliver	One more time						
480	Oliver	one more time.						
481	Oliver	Alright, good.						
482	Oliver	Fujii, provide support!			enforcement	imperative		
483	Oliver	good						
484	Oliver	good						
485	Oliver	good						
486	Oliver	good						
487	Oliver	where is he?	○					

488	Oliver	Nice movement, Ueda.					encouraging (praise)	
489	Oliver	Good finish.						
490	Oliver	Unlucky.						
491	Oliver	Ok						
492	Oliver	good play, boy,					identifying (we)	
493	Oliver	well done.						
494	Oliver	Balls here						
495	Oliver	red ball						
496	Oliver	let's go						
497	Oliver	a red ball						
498	Oliver	red ball.						
499	Oliver	Play,						
500	Oliver	can you look up			enforcement	interrogative		
501	Oliver	can you look			enforcement	interrogative		
502	Oliver	can you look.			enforcement	interrogative		
503	Oliver	Good, Fujii.					encouraging (praise)	

	504	Oliver	Nice.						
	505	Oliver	Can you play.			enforcement	interrogative		
	506	Oliver	Good						
	507	Oliver	good,						
	508	Oliver	nice						
	509	Oliver	well done.						
	510	Oliver	Excellent play.						
	511	Oliver	Yume-chan, good voice.					encouraging (praise)	
	512	Oliver	Yume chan, nice talking.					encouraging (praise)	
	513	Oliver	Good						
	514	Oliver	there you go.						
	515	Oliver	And stop,						
	516	Oliver	hold it						
	517	Oliver	hold the ball						
	518	Oliver	hold the ball.						
Freezing7	519	Oliver	So, red team, [go] right away, guys.					identifying (we)	
	520	Oliver	I see this.						

521	Oliver	So, Ito-kun, purpose is to score goals.					ori / reorienting (per)	
522	Oliver	We want to score more goals, right?					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
523	Oliver	So, instead of looking here,						
524	Oliver	he's open.						
525	Oliver	Why won't you just play the ball over there.			enforcement	interrogative		
526	Oliver	Right away						
527	Oliver	Little bit more direct, guys.					identifying (we)	
528	Oliver	Okay, so, ah target person, a little bit more shouting.						
529	Oliver	A little bit more body language, please.						
530	Oliver	Okay, we want to go attack as quickly as possible.					ori / reorienting	
531	Oliver	All right, ready, Degu,						
532	Oliver	can we attack quickly as possible, okay?			enforcement	interrogative	ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
533	Oliver	Ueda-kun, can you go attack quickly as possible?			enforcement	interrogative	identifying (per)	
534	Oliver	Okay, we want to do that.					ori / reorienting	

	535	Oliver	Play.						
	536	Oliver	Stop						
	537	Oliver	stop						
	538	Oliver	stop						
	539	Oliver	stop						
	540	Oliver	stop						
	541	Oliver	stop.						
	542	Oliver	Stop that one more time.						
	543	Oliver	Degu, we want to attack.					ori / reorienting (per)	ori / reorienting
	544	Oliver	So, where should you put the ball?	○					
Action8	545	Oliver	Play.						
	546	Oliver	So, good						
	547	Oliver	yes						
	548	Oliver	go						
	549	Oliver	yes						
	550	Oliver	excellent play,						

551	Oliver	Yokoi, ahhh, Yokoi, nice.					encouraging (reassure)	encouraging (praise)
552	Oliver	Yume-chan, Yume-chan, you too, directly.			enforcement	ellipsis	identifying (per)	
553	Oliver	Go directly.						
554	Oliver	Hi, open up						
555	Oliver	open up						
556	Oliver	open up Degu.			enforcement	imperative		
557	Oliver	good, Ueda,					encouraging (praise)	
558	Oliver	why not.						
559	Oliver	Blue ball						
560	Oliver	blue ball, here						
561	Oliver	right quickly						
562	Oliver	quickly						
563	Oliver	quickly.						
564	Oliver	Can you go, Yume -chan?			enforcement	interrogative	identifying (per)	
565	Oliver	Good.						
566	Oliver	Ah, play						

567	Oliver	good						
568	Oliver	yes						
569	Oliver	yes						
570	Oliver	yes						
571	Oliver	yes.						
572	Oliver	No goal.						
573	Oliver	Yume, hey you must go.			enforcement	declarative	identifying (per)	
574	Oliver	Good						
575	Oliver	excellent						
576	Oliver	much better.						
577	Oliver	And stop.						
578	Oliver	Let's switch the target person, please.						
579	Oliver	Switch the target person, please.						
580	Oliver	[The score is] zero						
581	Oliver	[The score is] zero						
582	Oliver	[The score is] zero.						
583	Oliver	I think [so].						

Freezing8	584	Oliver	Okay, we want to attack quickly, right?					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
	585	Oliver	So, the first look should be where?	○					
	586	Oliver	Red team, first look is where?	○					
	587	Oliver	Good. First look is him.						
	588	Oliver	If he's not open, okay						
	589	Oliver	then we move the ball, okay						
	590	Oliver	okay.						
	591	Oliver	Ready, play.						
Action9	592	Oliver	Nice, Degu,					encouraging (praise)	
	593	Oliver	who's next?			enforcement	interrogative		
	594	Oliver	Oh, unlucky.						
	595	Oliver	Blue ball.						
	596	Oliver	Play.						
	597	Oliver	Yes,						
	598	Oliver	Just go						
	599	Oliver	go						



600	Oliver	go.						
601	Oliver	Can you hit him?			enforcement	interrogative		
602	Oliver	Yes						
603	Oliver	yes.						
604	Oliver	Oh, unlucky.						
605	Oliver	Play Degu,						
606	Oliver	can you look.			enforcement	interrogative		
607	Oliver	Excellent nice, Ueda.					encouraging (praise)	
608	Oliver	Yes						
609	Oliver	yes.						
610	Oliver	Go play.						
611	Oliver	Hey, play.						
612	Oliver	Nice, Yume-chan.					encouraging (praise)	
613	Oliver	Good choice.						
614	Oliver	Good choice.						
615	Oliver	Oh, Masaki, unlucky.					encouraging (reassure)	

616	Oliver	Red ball.						
617	Oliver	Play.						
618	Oliver	Hey, go						
619	Oliver	go						
620	Oliver	go						
621	Oliver	go						
622	Oliver	go						
623	Oliver	go						
624	Oliver	go						
625	Oliver	go.						
626	Oliver	Hey, yes						
627	Oliver	much better						
628	Oliver	good.						
629	Oliver	Yes						
630	Oliver	play,						
631	Oliver	Nice Masa.					encouraging (praise)	

632	Oliver	I like it.						
633	Oliver	Okay						
634	Oliver	can we regroup now.						
635	Oliver	Good play						
636	Oliver	good, Ito!					encouraging (praise)	
637	Oliver	oh nice,						
638	Oliver	unlucky.						
639	Oliver	Good,						
640	Oliver	few more						
641	Oliver	few more.						
642	Oliver	Hey, Masa, he wants it!			enforcement	declarative		
643	Oliver	Good,						
644	Oliver	good						
645	Oliver	good						
646	Oliver	why.						
647	Oliver	Red ball						

	648	Oliver	red ball.						
	649	Oliver	And play.						
	650	Oliver	Look up.						
	651	Oliver	Ueda,			enforcement	ellipsis		
	652	Oliver	Ueda			enforcement	ellipsis		
	653	Oliver	Ueda.			enforcement	ellipsis		
	654	Oliver	And play.						
	655	Oliver	Good						
	656	Oliver	good,						
	657	Oliver	unlucky.						
	658	Oliver	Blue ball,						
	659	Oliver	Ueda, good defending.					encouraging (praise)	
	660	Oliver	And bring it in guys,					identifying (we)	
	661	Oliver	bring it in.						
	662	Oliver	We'll finish it up.						
Closing	663	Oliver	Bring it in.						

664	Oliver	Bring it in.						
665	Oliver	Jog it in.						
666	Oliver	That's it, guys.					intimacy (gen1)	
667	Oliver	Actual practice, huh?						checking comprehension
668	Oliver	So, guys. Ah... something I like to play.					identifying (we)	
669	Oliver	Football ne,						
670	Oliver	Direct,						
671	Oliver	accurate,						
672	Oliver	fast, okay?						checking comprehension
673	Oliver	I see in Japan.						
674	Oliver	When I'm coaching young kids,						
675	Oliver	when we play against other teams,					describing situations (we)	
676	Oliver	I see a lot of kids,						
677	Oliver	they get very focused on making the pass to the side. Yeah?						checking comprehension

678	Oliver	And sometimes they lose the choice of looking up						
679	Oliver	and going to the goal.						
680	Oliver	So, for me, I like to go directly to the goal, okay.						checking comprehension
681	Oliver	Once you start doing that,					describing situations (you)	
682	Oliver	then the defense, what happened?	○					
683	Oliver	Yes, the defense will start to, oh, they're attacking us.		accepting			describing situations (we)	
684	Oliver	They start to move.						
685	Oliver	Then you can start playing side to side			proposal	declarative		
686	Oliver	and manipulate their position.						
687	Oliver	Does that make sense?						checking comprehension
688	Oliver	good job, guys.					intimacy (gen1)	
689	Oliver	ok, let's go back to the room, yeah,						
690	Oliver	good job.						

Opening1	1	Hiro	Okay, let's start, guys.					intimacy (gen1)	
	2	Hiro	okay, today we'll be doing dribbling, okay					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
	3	Hiro	our main theme will be dribbling					ori / reorienting	
	4	Hiro	and what what we're going to be focusing on is turning with the ball, okay?					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
	5	Hiro	turning with the ball, all right?						checking comprehension
	6	Hiro	Degu, you got that?						checking comprehension
	7	Hiro	The theme is the theme will be dribbling and turning with the ball						
	8	Hiro	turning with the ball, okay						checking comprehension
	9	Hiro	turning with the ball, okay						checking comprehension
	10	Hiro	because when I was playing it as a professional overseas						
	11	Hiro	I played against a massive big defenders, yes						checking comprehension
	12	Hiro	and I had to, I cannot go 50-50						
	13	Hiro	I cannot win 50-50						

14	Hiro	so, what did I do?						
15	Hiro	I use my body and turn and shield the ball						
16	Hiro	and I kept the ball, okay						
17	Hiro	so, if you guys are interested in going overseas						
18	Hiro	I think it will be really good for you guys			emphatic			
19	Hiro	to know how to keep the ball against the big guys, alright						checking comprehension
20	Hiro	so, I hope you guys understand that, yeah					describing situations (you)	checking comprehension
21	Hiro	it started to rain						
22	Hiro	so, let's start it off						
23	Hiro	okay, get in to get inside						
24	Hiro	how many...						
25	Hiro	one, two, three, four, five, six. okay						
26	Hiro	I want four of you on each cone or each triangle please, okay						



27	Hiro	One person on a triangle inside, please						
28	Hiro	inside, and we'll be taking turns, so okay					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
29	Hiro	we'll be taking turns, okay					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
30	Hiro	Okay, we'll play a warm-up game.					ori / reorienting	
31	Hiro	What we're gonna do is there will be six balls inside, okay,					ori / reorienting	
32	Hiro	And the person inside the triangle,						
33	Hiro	when I say go,						
34	Hiro	you go inside and get a ball and put it back to your triangle. Your area, okay?						checking comprehension
35	Hiro	And we'll be doing for 10 seconds or 15.					ori / reorienting	
36	Hiro	Okay?						checking comprehension
37	Hiro	Whoever has the most balls wins.						
38	Hiro	Whoever has the more balls wins.						
39	Hiro	Okay?						checking comprehension

40	Hiro	Guys, get that?					identifying (we)	checking comprehension
41	Hiro	Yeah?						checking comprehension
42	Hiro	Yes?						checking comprehension
43	Hiro	Yeah?						checking comprehension
44	Hiro	Alright, ready!						
45	Hiro	Uhhh, relax there, guys.					identifying (we)	
46	Hiro	Go!						
47	Hiro	It's 10 seconds, guys.					identifying (we)	
48	Hiro	Ten seconds.						
49	Hiro	You gotta go to other persons...						
50	Hiro	uhh, sorry, guys, it's my fault.					identifying (we)	
51	Hiro	Okay, stop, guys, stop.					identifying (we)	
52	Hiro	Sorry about that,						
53	Hiro	my explanation wasn't that great.						

54	Hiro	Can you guys put all the balls back in the middle, please.						
55	Hiro	Okay, I'll add rules. Okay?						checking comprehension
56	Hiro	When you go into the middle and try to get the ball.						
57	Hiro	You can only grab one ball.						
58	Hiro	You can only dribble back one ball only.						
59	Hiro	You cannot dribble back two balls.						
60	Hiro	Okay, and you can get the ball from your opponent's area. Okay?						checking comprehension
61	Hiro	but you cannot block.						
62	Hiro	You cannot block your balls. Okay?						checking comprehension
63	Hiro	You wanna change?			proposal	declarative		
64	Hiro	Swap over?						checking comprehension
65	Hiro	Ok, once again, you cannot block the ball.						
66	Hiro	You cannot block the ball.						

	67	Hiro	And one ball only. Okay?						checking comprehension
	68	Hiro	yes.						
	69	Hiro	Ready, go!						
Action1	70	Hiro	Alright, Degu?						checking comprehension
	71	Hiro	You gotta go... someone... the different area.						
	72	Hiro	You cannot block,						
	73	Hiro	you cannot block, Degu.						
	74	Hiro	Five seconds.						
	75	Hiro	Five, four, three, two, one						
	76	Hiro	Okay, stop.						
Freezing1	77	Hiro	Hold the ball, please.						
	78	Hiro	Oliver got two,					describing situations (per)	
	79	Hiro	very good.						
	80	Hiro	Degu, one.					describing situations (per)	
	81	Hiro	Okay, swap over again.						

	82	Hiro	One more time.						
	83	Hiro	In the middle, please.						
	84	Hiro	Ready, gosh, relax there.						
	85	Hiro	Relax, go!						
Action2	86	Hiro	Nice,						
	87	Hiro	Keep the ball under control, guys.					identifying (we)	
	88	Hiro	Keep the ball under control.						
	89	Hiro	Try not to slip.						
	90	Hiro	Look around you,			enforcement	imperative		
	91	Hiro	look around you.			enforcement	imperative		
	92	Hiro	Five seconds.						
	93	Hiro	Four, three, two, one						
	94	Hiro	okay stop.						
Freezing2	95	Hiro	Okay. So, next we switch it up this time.					ori / reorienting	
	96	Hiro	Okay, you guys are getting it.					describing situations (you)	
	97	Hiro	Good, good.						

98	Hiro	Okay, swap over one more time.						
99	Hiro	Masa, can you pass me one ball, please?					identifying (per)	
100	Hiro	Okay, can you pass me a ball, please?						
101	Hiro	Okay, I'll add one more ball.						
102	Hiro	So, there will be seven balls.						
103	Hiro	Four, five, six, seven, balls, in total.						
104	Hiro	Are you ready?						
105	Hiro	You know what we're doing?					ori / reorienting	checking comprehension
106	Hiro	Yeah?						checking comprehension
107	Hiro	Really?						checking comprehension
108	Hiro	Are you sure?						checking comprehension
109	Hiro	Okay, theres [are] seven balls						
110	Hiro	so, whoever gets three balls into their area wins.						
111	Hiro	Okay, whoever has the three balls at first will win.						
112	Hiro	First to three balls, okay.						

	113	Hiro	Ready, go!						
Action3	114	Hiro	[In actions]						
Freezing3	115	Hiro	Okay, stop!						
	116	Hiro	Stop!						
	117	Hiro	Sorry, what was your name again?						
	118	Hiro	Tomoki wins,						
	119	Hiro	because he got three balls, okay?						checking comprehension
	120	Hiro	The objective is to get three balls into your area, okay?						checking comprehension
	121	Hiro	Whoever gets three balls into their area wins. First! Okay?						checking comprehension
	122	Hiro	You guys get that?						checking comprehension
	123	Hiro	Guys, swap over					identifying (we)	
	124	Hiro	Guys understand the rules, yeah?					identifying (we)	checking comprehension
	125	Hiro	Yes?						checking comprehension
	126	Hiro	Maybe?						checking comprehension

	127	Hiro	Yes						checking comprehension
	128	Hiro	really?						checking comprehension
	129	Hiro	Go!						
Action4	130	Hiro	guys, look around,			enforcement	imperative	identifying (we)	
	131	Hiro	look around.						
	132	Hiro	And stop!						
Freezing4	133	Hiro	What's your name?						
	134	Hiro	Ryouga?						checking comprehension
	135	Hiro	Ryouga wins!						
	136	Hiro	Okay, you guys have to look around.			enforcement	imperative		
	137	Hiro	And whoever has two balls,						
	138	Hiro	I think you gotta go get that. Alright?			enforcement	declarative		checking comprehension
	139	Hiro	Okay, swap over one more time.						
	140	Hiro	First to three guys,						
	141	Hiro	first to three.						



	142	Hiro	Ready,						
	143	Hiro	relax, guys,					identifying (we)	
	144	Hiro	relax.						
	145	Hiro	Go!						
Freezing5	146	Hiro	Okay, so, this time						
	147	Hiro	a little bit more challenging.						
Action5	148	Hiro	[In actions]						
Freezing6	149	Hiro	Okay, stop!						
	150	Hiro	Very good,						
	151	Hiro	what was your name again?						
	152	Hiro	Kouki, good job, Kouki!					encouraging (praise)	
	153	Hiro	Excellent.						
	154	Hiro	One more time, guys,					identifying (we)	
	155	Hiro	look around you, guys,					identifying (we)	
	156	Hiro	look around,						

	157	Hiro	look around.						
	158	Hiro	Ready? Go.						
Action6	159	Hiro	One touch.						
	160	Hiro	Who has two balls?			enforcement	interrogative		
	161	Hiro	Who has two balls?			enforcement	interrogative		
	162	Hiro	Good						
	163	Hiro	good						
	164	Hiro	good guys.					identifying (we)	
	165	Hiro	Okay, stop.						
Freezing7	166	Hiro	Very good,						
	167	Hiro	very good.						
	168	Hiro	Okay, put the ball in the middle again.						
	169	Hiro	Last one guys,					identifying (we)	
	170	Hiro	last one.						
	171	Hiro	Come on, guys,					identifying (we)	

	172	Hiro	last one alright.						checking comprehension
	173	Hiro	Ready, go!						
Action7	174	Hiro	Look around,						
	175	Hiro	look around,						
	176	Hiro	look around,						
	177	Hiro	look around,						
	178	Hiro	look around.						
	179	Hiro	Uhh, finish,						
	180	Hiro	finish.						
Freezing8	181	Hiro	Good job, Kouki.					encouraging (praise)	
	182	Hiro	I guess the next one is the last one, alright.						
	183	Hiro	The last one.						
	184	Hiro	Swap over one more time.						
	185	Hiro	Ready, go!						
Action8	186	Hiro	Look around,						
	187	Hiro	who got two balls,			enforcement	interrogative		

188	Hiro	who got two balls?			enforcement	interrogative		
189	Hiro	Good thinking,						
190	Hiro	good thinking.						
191	Hiro	Look around,						
192	Hiro	look around,						
193	Hiro	look around.						
194	Hiro	Good,						
195	Hiro	good.						
196	Hiro	Good,						
197	Hiro	good.						
198	Hiro	Oh, it's a long game now.						
199	Hiro	You guys are thinking,					describing situations (you)	
200	Hiro	good						
201	Hiro	good,						
202	Hiro	keep going.						
203	Hiro	Good,						
204	Hiro	unlucky,						

	205	Hiro	unlucky,						
	206	Hiro	unlucky.						
	207	Hiro	I say 10 more seconds.						
	208	Hiro	Ten, nine, eight, seven, six, five, four, three, two, one,						
	209	Hiro	okay stop, guys.					identifying (we)	
Break1	210	Hiro	Good job,						
	211	Hiro	good job, guys.					identifying (we)	
	212	Hiro	Okay, I want everyone to get a drink,						
	213	Hiro	quick drink, please.						
	214	Hiro	Go get a quick drink.						
	215	Hiro	Are you guys fine?						checking comprehension
	216	Hiro	No need?						checking comprehension
Freezing9	217	Hiro	If you don't need a drink,						
	218	Hiro	please come over here guys					identifying (we)	
	219	Hiro	or after you get a drink					describing situations (you)	

	220	Hiro	come over.						
Opening2	221	Hiro	What are we going to do,					ori / reorienting	
	222	Hiro	we'll be doing dribbling, okay.					ori / reorienting	
	223	Hiro	Kouki, Kouki, right?						checking comprehension
	224	Hiro	When Kouki pass to me,						
	225	Hiro	Kouki will be a defender.						
	226	Hiro	And I'm offense,						
	227	Hiro	my objective, my goal is to go to either side of the goal.						
	228	Hiro	This goal, or this goal, okay?						checking comprehension
	229	Hiro	Simply pass,						
	230	Hiro	come dribble.						
	231	Hiro	If he comes to the right side						
	232	Hiro	you can turn, okay?			proposal	declarative		checking comprehension
	233	Hiro	Turn and go to the other side.						
	234	Hiro	If you want.			proposal	declarative		

235	Hiro	If you're confident enough to go to this side,			proposal	declarative		
236	Hiro	you can keep going.			proposal	declarative		
237	Hiro	But come over here, block this side.						
238	Hiro	If he blocks,						
239	Hiro	I want to turn, okay?						checking comprehension
240	Hiro	And I want you to shield the ball with your arms and your body.			enforcement	declarative		
241	Hiro	Don't be like this, okay?						checking comprehension
242	Hiro	Because there is no space in between the defender and me.						
243	Hiro	Put the ball away						
244	Hiro	have your body and your arms, okay?						checking comprehension
245	Hiro	And then turn. Okay?						checking comprehension
246	Hiro	Guys understand that?					identifying (we)	checking comprehension
247	Hiro	You get that?						checking comprehension
248	Hiro	The both goals						

	249	Hiro	inside these two goals, the cones.						
	250	Hiro	So, this is not a goal.						
	251	Hiro	Okay, inside this one.						
	252	Hiro	This one or either the orange and the yellow cone.						
	253	Hiro	Got that?						checking comprehension
	254	Hiro	Okay, who wants to go first?						
	255	Hiro	No?						checking comprehension
	256	Hiro	please just take turns.						
	257	Hiro	Take turns.						
	258	Hiro	When you're ready.			proposal	declarative		
Action9	259	Hiro	Good, good.						
	260	Hiro	Use your body.						
	261	Hiro	Good, good.						
	262	Hiro	Good job, guys.					identifying (we)	
	263	Hiro	Who's next?			enforcement	interrogative		
	264	Hiro	Ok, out, out!						



265	Hiro	Good defense						
266	Hiro	good defense.						
267	Hiro	Who's next, guys?			enforcement	interrogative	identifying (we)	
268	Hiro	Off we go, guys,					identifying (we)	
269	Hiro	let's go, let's go.						
270	Hiro	Good turn,						
271	Hiro	good turn,						
272	Hiro	excellent!						
273	Hiro	Good job, Kouki.					encouraging (praise)	
274	Hiro	Ohh, unlucky guys.					identifying (we)	
275	Hiro	Next.						
276	Hiro	It's slippery,						
277	Hiro	but try not to slip guys.					identifying (we)	
278	Hiro	Unlucky, he slipped.						
279	Hiro	Good						
280	Hiro	good						

281	Hiro	good.						
282	Hiro	If you're confident, dribble like that, alright,			proposal	declarative		
283	Hiro	if you're confident.			proposal	declarative		
284	Hiro	Good,						
285	Hiro	look at the opponent.						
286	Hiro	Look at the opponent!						
287	Hiro	Good turn,						
288	Hiro	good turn.						
289	Hiro	Well done						
290	Hiro	Okay, who's up next?			enforcement	interrogative		
291	Hiro	Don't be shy, guys,					identifying (we)	
292	Hiro	let's go						
293	Hiro	let's go.						
294	Hiro	Yes,						
295	Hiro	good						
296	Hiro	good						

297	Hiro	good.						
298	Hiro	Good.						
299	Hiro	Who's up next?			enforcement	interrogative		
300	Hiro	Not too far,						
301	Hiro	stand there.						
302	Hiro	Good.						
303	Hiro	Good						
304	Hiro	good						
305	Hiro	good, D,						
306	Hiro	good, D.						
307	Hiro	ohh, it's a wrong goal, mate.					intimacy (gen1)	
308	Hiro	Who's up next?			enforcement	interrogative		
309	Hiro	Not too far,						
310	Hiro	come closer.						
311	Hiro	Okay, good.						
312	Hiro	No, foul						

313	Hiro	no, foul.						
314	Hiro	Who's up next,						
315	Hiro	who's up next, guys?					identifying (we)	
316	Hiro	Shield the ball with your arm, alright?						checking comprehension
317	Hiro	Shield the ball, shield.						
318	Hiro	Very slippery,						
319	Hiro	okay, next.						
320	Hiro	Where you going?			proposal	interrogative		
321	Hiro	Which way,			proposal	interrogative		
322	Hiro	which way?			proposal	interrogative		
323	Hiro	So, look at the opponent						
324	Hiro	look at the opponent.						
325	Hiro	Good, Yoko,					encouraging (praise)	
326	Hiro	good.						
327	Hiro	Good,						
328	Hiro	good						

329	Hiro	good						
330	Hiro	good						
331	Hiro	good.						
332	Hiro	Ohh, sorry guys.					identifying (we)	
333	Hiro	There's a lot of different varieties of turning guys,					identifying (we)	
334	Hiro	so, try used them a lot.						
335	Hiro	Yes, good,						
336	Hiro	good.						
337	Hiro	Okay, couple more minutes,						
338	Hiro	couple more minutes.						
339	Hiro	Two, three more, two three more.						
340	Hiro	Good, D,						
341	Hiro	good, D.						
342	Hiro	Last one,						
343	Hiro	last one.						
344	Hiro	Who's going last?			enforcement	interrogative		

	345	Hiro	Ok, good guys.					identifying (we)	
	346	Hiro	Well done, guys,					intimacy (gen1)	
	347	Hiro	you want to go get a drink?			proposal	declarative	identifying (we)	
Opening	1	Micky	All right, boys. Yep.					intimacy (gen1)	
	2	Micky	Coming.						
	3	Micky	Quick warming up. Ten minutes.						
	4	Micky	Less than 10 minutes						
	5	Micky	Steve, how are ya? Oh. Hahaha.						
	6	Harry	My right foot is aching.						
	7	Micky	So, can you kick the ball? Right or left?	○					
	8	Harry	Left only.						
	9	Harry	Left.						
	10	Micky	Left only, alright.						
	11	Harry	Should be a good challenge.						
	12	Micky	Yeah, good.						

	13	Micky	It's all right.						
	14	Micky	Ah...three v one, sheva.						
	15	Harry	Steve's in.						
	16	Micky	Steve's in. Hahaha.		accepting				
	17	Micky	So, also I joining.						
	18	Micky	But also if I,.if I lose the ball,						
	19	Micky	it's a...Harry's in.						
	20	Harry	Yeah.						
	21	Micky	So, try to every time, ah, try to break ... break the opposition. Yeah.						
	22	Micky	Firstly, it's a free touch. All right?						checking comprehension
	23	Micky	Harry, only left. All right?						checking comprehension
	24	Micky	Yeah. And start without the hand.						
	25	Micky	Without..without...without.						
	26	Micky	Starting Jacob.						
Action1	27	Micky	Bounce. Go.						

	28	Micky	Keep going.						
	29	Micky	Good.						
	30	Micky	Yep. Which one?	○					
	31	Micky	Starting.						
	32	Micky	Yeah. Not small.						
	33	Micky	Maybe three and four.						
	34	Micky	Three and five.						
	35	Micky	Tough pass.						
	36	Micky	Stevie, change the positioning.			enforcement	imperative		
Freezing1	37	Micky	So, what's happening now?	○					
	38	Harry	I'm attacking...so...						
	39	Micky	But also depend on the opposition.						
	40	Micky	Yeah. Jacob, give me ball.						
	41	Micky	Yeah, Harry's over there.						
	42	Micky	So, now invite the Jacob now and passing the Harry.						



43	Micky	So, which is the more best position, passes?	<input type="radio"/>					
44	Micky	Yes, Stevie?						
45	Micky	So, Stevie, now where are you going?	<input type="radio"/>				identifying (per)	
46	Steve	What you can see both...it's easy to see...because every stand...						
47	Harry	because...it was a question?						
48	Micky	So, firstly, the where the best position...better position of the Stevie?	<input type="radio"/>	accepting				
49	Micky	Also, why you kicking out?	<input type="radio"/>					
50	Micky	It's meaning why we can't pass to the Stevie?	<input type="radio"/>					
51	Steve	I thought you meant this position.						
52	Harry	Oh, because the persons...we weren't talking as...						
53	Harry	If we are, ah, as I expect him to see that,						
54	Harry	I think he should worth realize that...						

	55	Harry	I should've communicated with him, too.						
	56	Micky	so, when we communicate?	○	accepting				
	57	Harry	When? Oh, before play.						
	58	Micky	Before played, right yeah?		accepting				checking comprehension
	59	Micky	Oh swap, Harry.						
	60	Micky	And I'm in there, right						
	61	Micky	Bounce, yep,						
	62	Micky	it's alright.						
	63	Micky	Ah hold						
	64	Micky	hold.						
	65	Micky	just hold.						
	66	Micky	Yep. Bounce, Jacob.						
	67	Micky	Ready, play.						
Action2	68		[In actions]						
	69	Micky	Hey, what's happening?	○					
Freezing2	70	Steve	There's one kicker?		teasing				
	71	Micky	No...yeah... two kicker.		disagreement				

	72	Micky	But what's happening?	○					
	73	Micky	Why you lose the ball and begin of game?	○					
	74	Steve	I'm not too quick...						
	75	Micky	Too quick, yeah.		accepting				
	76	Micky	Steve over there. Yeah.						
	77	Micky	No, no. Over there, yeah.						
	78	Micky	Yeah, try again.						
	79	Micky	No, no, Jacob, Jacob. Jacob.						
	80	Micky	Try again. Jacob.						
	81	Micky	Yeah, ready play.						
	82	Micky	Yep, you are in						
	83	Micky	because I lose the ball.						
	84	Harry	True that.						
	85	Micky	Hahaha.						
	86	Micky	Bounce back, yeah.						
Action3	87		[In actions]						
Freezing3	88	Micky	And stop.						

89	Micky	It's the same problem.						
90	Micky	So why lose the ball?	○					
91	Micky	This is firstly we [??] the ball from me,						
92	Jacob	Coz staying in the same spot?		disagreement				
93	Jacob	So, I could have...						
94	Micky	but why lose the ball again?	○	disagreement				
95	Micky	So why you need still a change in the positioning?	○					
96	Jacob	So...like a...easier...keep the ball and easier...coz you got a option?						
97	Jacob	So, stand here...he can cut off...bounce...so						
98	Micky	So, what's our, what's our objective?	○	accepting			ori / reorienting	
99	Micky	What's the purpose?	○					
100	Harry	Break the line.						
101	Micky	Break the line.		accepting				
102	Micky	So, why you need change the positioning?	○					
103	Micky	This is effect for me.						

104	Micky	Also, what's changing?	○					
105	Micky	where... if you change the position,					describing situations (you)	
106	Jacob	Because Harry will be like ...oh you're saying just staying on the same spot.						
107	Micky	Yes. If you over there,		accepting			describing situations (you)	
108	Micky	so, Harry, the what's happening for Harry?	○					
109	Micky	If I back the ball, you ...						
110	Micky	where the, where the moving Harry?	○					
111	Micky	Moving Harry over there.						
112	Micky	So, what, yeah, this way?	○					
113	Micky	Yeah, you know. Ball.						
114	Micky	If changing are close to me,						
115	Micky	Where the Harry now?	○					
116	Micky	Maybe close the this way. It's... maybe			hedge			

	117	Micky	Maybe increasing the percent of the lose the ball, right?			hedge			checking comprehension
	118	Micky	So, every time changing the, changing the position in changing a ball.						checking comprehension
	119	Micky	It's meaning creates opportunity or creates the option. Alright?						checking comprehension
	120	Micky	We don't need... it's giving me option. Alright?						checking comprehension
	121	Micky	Create option. Yes.						
	122	Micky	Bouncing back.						
	123	Micky	It's all right.						
	124	Micky	Bouncing back.						
	125	Micky	Ready, play.						
	126	Micky	Yeah, swap.						
	127	Micky	Don't be rush.						
	128	Micky	Ready, play.						
Action4	129	Micky	Keep the ball.						
	130	Micky	Keep...yeah.						

131	Micky	Good.						
132	Micky	Keep.						
133	Micky	Quick						
134	Micky	quick						
135	Micky	quick. Yeah.						
136	Micky	Pass me break every time.						
137	Micky	Hey, easy, Jacob.			enforcement	ellipsis		
138	Micky	Yeah, one more time.						
139	Micky	Pick a ball.						
140	Micky	So, Harry and Stevie, if you can,			proposal	declarative	identifying (per)	
141	Micky	every time break the line,						
142	Micky	stood away.						
143	Micky	Yeah, but also your job						
144	Micky	not to break the line.						
145	Micky	Play.						
146	Micky	Oh, sorry.						

147	Micky	Sorry.						
148	Micky	Harry's in. Haha.						
149	Micky	Yeah. Jacob side.						
150	Micky	Ah, it's all right.						
151	Micky	Jacob, yeah.						
152	Micky	Over there. ???						
153	Micky	Ready, play						
154	Micky	Yeah, win the ball.						
155	Micky	Win the ball.						
156	Micky	Win the ball.						
157	Micky	Win the ball.						
158	Micky	Ready, bounce.						
159	Micky	Good.						
160	Micky	Oh, it's alright.						
161	Micky	Keep doing.						
162	Micky	Sorry, my weak.						



	163	Micky	Yeah, first one.						
	164	Micky	Go.						
	165	Micky	Sorry, Harry.						
	166	Micky	Again. Yeah.						
	167	Micky	No, don't be rush.						
	168	Micky	Don't be rush.						
	169	Micky	And one minutes break.						
	170	Micky	Stretching.						
	171	Micky	If you want to have a drink.			proposal	declarative		
	172	Micky	But maybe it's we have the last couple the minutes.					ori / reorienting	
Freezing4	173	Micky	And after that,						
	174	Micky	joining the training.						
	175	Micky	If you want to bring a bottle over there. Yeah.			proposal	declarative		
	176	Micky	Yes, little bigger.						
	177	Micky	It's alright, yeah.						
	178	Micky	Ah, this way.						

179	Micky	Sorry, Jacob.						
180	Micky	Ah, one more step.						
181	Micky	Follow the marker, please.						
182	Micky	And Stevie, please move the marker, please.						
183	Micky	Yeah. That's alright.						
184	Micky	I'm there.						
185	Micky	I'm there.						
186	Micky	I'm there.						
187	Micky	Who's in?			enforcement	interrogative		
188	Micky	Ah, yeah, Stevie starting in.						
189	Micky	Ah...still inside player.						
190	Micky	Who's in?			enforcement	interrogative		
191	Micky	Yeah, Harry.						
192	Micky	Starting Jacob. yeah,						
193	Micky	so. with the hand.						
194	Micky	Harry, with the hand.						

	195	Micky	With hand.						
	196	Micky	Ready play.						
Action5	197	Micky	Yes, swap. swap.						
Freezing5	198	Micky	So. today's...today's...not going goal.						
	199	Micky	The after...after win the ball,						
	200	Micky	just all.						
	201	Micky	That's all.						
	202	Micky	Ready, play. Go.						
Action6	203	Micky	Jacob, how's your [??] positioning?			proposal	interrogative	identifying (per)	
	204	Harry	You can go.						
	205	Micky	Yeah, good, good instruction,						
	206	Micky	Harry. Good.					encouraging (praise)	
	207	Micky	Don't be rush.						
	208	Micky	Good.						
	209	Micky	Easy, Stevie...			enforcement	ellipsis		
	210	Micky	good, good touch.						

211	Micky	One more time.						
212	Micky	One more time.						
213	Micky	Jacob again.						
214	Micky	Jacob again.						
215	Micky	Ready, play.						
216	Micky	Still in.						
217	Micky	Still in.						
218	Micky	Keep going yeah,						
219	Micky	good						
220	Micky	Good, Stevie.					encouraging (praise)	
221	Micky	Play.						
222	Micky	Play.						
223	Micky	Still in.						
224	Micky	And kicked out.						
225	Micky	Harry in.						
226	Micky	Ready, play.						
227	Micky	Still in.						

228	Micky	Keep going.						
229	Steve	Micky, Micky, Micky						
230	Micky	Oh...Sorry.						
231	Micky	No, kicked out.						
232	Micky	Which foot much better?	○					
233	Steve	Left.						
234	Micky	Left...Good.		accepting				
235	Harry	Micky, Micky, Micky						
236	Micky	If you can, yeah, still [???			proposal	declarative		
237	Micky	Oh...sorry.						
238	Micky	Harry in.						
239	Micky	Sorry, mate.					intimacy (gen1)	
240	Micky	Stevie, which one?	○					
241	Micky	Your side?	○					
242	Harry	Starting Jacob?						
243	Micky	Yeah. Starting, Jacob, yeah.						
244	Micky	Ready, play.						

Freezing6	245	Micky	And hold.						
	246	Micky	One more thing.						
	247	Micky	How many touches we can? ○						
	248	Steve	One						
	249	Micky	One?		disagreement				
	250	Harry	Is it three?						
	251	Harry	No, I didn't say it's a limitation.						
	252	Harry	Any.						
	253	Micky	Yeah, give me ball, Harry.						
	254	Steve	I thought three is the max.						
	255	Micky	But three, max,						
	256	Micky	but now first,						
	257	Micky	the Harry's come in this side.						
	258	Micky	So how...how do you?○ make...how do you create Other option by yourself						
	259	Steve	Move the ball						

260	Micky	Move the ball.		accepting				
261	Micky	How...now...now...it's...a Jacob has a ball.					describing situations (per)	
262	Harry	[???						
263	Steve	First good touch						
264	Micky	First good touch,		accepting				
265	Micky	but now it's a control the ball in a close your close foot.						
266	Harry	What... [Raises his hand] You can order a first touch by positioning to be in a good first place...						
267	Micky	Umm		disagreement				
268	Harry	...If he bounces, he can convey drop-off to get an easy positioning						
269	Micky	but now just focus on this situation.						
270	Micky	Now bouncing back the ball, and Jacob control...						
271	Micky	control the your foot...close the foot....						
272	Micky	and lose the ball.						

273	Micky	Maybe you can't pass to the Stevie.			proposal	declarative		
274	Micky	So how to...and Ste...now, the Harry's leaving this positioning, or little [??]						
275	Micky	the middle, so how do you and I'm standing there,yeah,						
276	Micky	how do you make the posi...how do you make the and a create option?	○					
277	Jacob	Well, we got two...						
278	Micky	Now you can touch the two...two more touch.			proposal	declarative		
279	Jacob	You could go this...or he's on this side...						
280	Micky	Yes, just first time,		accepting				
281	Micky	but if we can't [??] away,					describing situations (you)	
282	Micky	what do you do?	○					
283	Harry	Keep bouncing						
284	Micky	Bouncing a ball.		accepting				
285	Micky	This is one and...?						



286	Micky	Yeah, you're free.		accepting			describing situations (you)	
287	Steve	Take a touch and go right or left						
288	Micky	Yeah, take a touch.		accepting				
289	Micky	Right and left.						
290	Micky	It's creates...create an option.						
291	Micky	So, move the ball.						
292	Micky	It's meaning not only passing.						
293	Micky	Looks like dribbling.						
294	Micky	So, leave every time						
295	Micky	after you're inside outside whatever...					describing situations (you)	
296	Micky	But just touching the ball and creates the...create the angle and passing to me.						
297	Micky	Or if take...take a touch this way...						
298	Micky	Harry's...where...where the moving, Harry?	○					

	299	Micky	Maybe this way,			hedge			
	300	Micky	very easy to pass.						
	301	Micky	The Harry's coming this way.						
	302	Micky	Yeah, it's meaning a [??] move than every time.						
	303	Micky	If Harry's a stop, alright?						checking comprehension
	304	Micky	Again, Jacob.						
	305	Micky	Ready, play.						
	306	Micky	Don't be rush.						
Action7	307	Micky	You are free.						
	308	Micky	Good.						
	309	Micky	Good.						
	310	Micky	Yes. Good effort.						
	311	Micky	Good effort.						
	312	Micky	Now the good effort.						
	313	Micky	So, it's meaning a leaving more make the angle. All right?						checking comprehension
	314	Micky	Last two.						

315	Micky	Good.						
316	Micky	Easy.						
317	Micky	Hmm...pick it up [???]. Yeah.						
318	Harry	Micky, you could've taken touch the line.						
319	Micky	Yes, thanks.		accepting				
320	Micky	Good instruction.						
321	Micky	Yeah. I agree with you.		accepting				
322	Micky	Thanks, Jacob.					intimacy (per7)	
323	Micky	It's all right.						
324	Micky	Yeah. Come in.						
325	Micky	Last one.						
326	Micky	Last one.						
327	Micky	Bouncing, Jacob,						
328	Micky	yeah. Ready, play.						
329	Micky	Bounce.						
330	Micky	Bounce						
331	Micky	Bounce.						

332	Harry	[Signaling Jacob should take some distance]						
333	Micky	No, no.						
334	Micky	It's a middle.						
335	Micky	It's fine.						
336	Micky	[??] And...time.						
337	Micky	No, that's all.		teasing				

## Appendix 2 Interview data

### Interview with Micky

I: Interviewer (Researcher)

M: Micky

*I:* Thank you very much for joining me today. If I show you my analysis first and then ask you to assess it, I think it will be too biased, so I would like to ask you about your coaching style, whether it was then or now, and what you think about the coaching job as a whole. I think you have had a long coaching career, even before you started coaching in Sydney, so I guess this is a very tough question. I think there are various situations in coaching, such as during games, bench work, and of course, training. Since we were able to collect data throughout training this time, I was wondering if you could give us a general sense of what you look for to enhance your players' performance during training, or what your philosophy is?

*M:* In that sense, it has not changed ever. I always try to give the players chances to learn to develop their abilities on their own. During the training, I would tell them what to do to improve their performance, but whether they follow my instruction or not is totally up to them. This is important. In this regard, I make the most of their thoughts and views and respect them to the greatest degree possible. I ask them questions to encourage them to speak their opinions, and I try not to steer them too much toward my answer as far as possible.

*I:* What you just mentioned is exactly what I have found in the analysis. The analysis showed that you explained the coaching procedure to the players before they started training and gave feedback to them while they were playing. When the players faced challenging scenes, you always started correcting their errors by asking them questions. I thought it was done in an elaborated way, especially in the scenes where the questions were directed to individual players. As you mentioned just now, even if you had a message that you wanted to convey to the players, you would give them questions first

and try to get them to think on their own. Then gradually, you guided them toward a possible solution or answer you wanted them to come up with. For example, I am not sure if it was Steve or Jacob who lost the ball; you wanted to tell him that he failed to make a pass because he stuck around the same position. But you didn't tell them about this.

*M:* Jacob, right?

*I:* I guess so. In this scene, you started a discussion by saying, "What's happening?", which I think is a very general question. In response to this question, the players began to provide their own opinions, and you accepted them all, never denied them. Like this, you directed them step-by-step toward the important issue.

*M:* Yes, I was guiding them gradually.

*I:* Right. I think this is a very characteristic part of your skillful way of convincing them while accepting their ideas without denying them. I wonder if it is because you came to Australia, which is a culturally different country. Does it have something to do with which country you were coaching?

*M:* What I value most as my coaching philosophy is the relationship with the players. In that sense, it is my coaching principle. So, it doesn't matter who I am coaching. Whenever I coach someone, I always try to be with them, and it's the core aspect of my coaching philosophy.

*I:* You asked your players a lot of questions throughout the training. Is it a key component of your coaching?

*M:* I believe that just teaching football is insufficient as a coach, especially for young players. Most players in the youth program do not become professional players. Even if they do so, their lives will continue afterward, so I think they need to evaluate many problems they face in life, contribute their own views and opinions, and express them to

others so that they can help them overcome the obstacles. I cannot find anyone in Australia who cares about the player's growth except with respect to developing their football skills.

*I:* So, what about other coaches in Australia? Do they have a different approach to coaching?

*M:* Of course, Australian coaches ask questions, and that is true for me as well, but coaches quite often have some answers and then actually start the conversation, so it is very common for them to say the answers right away because they cannot stand the muddle or the things that they cannot draw out.

*I:* As you saw in the video, you asked the players a lot of questions. Was it intentional?

*M:* Yes, of course. Telling them what to do is important in some cases, but I believe it is more important to let the players make their own decisions; for example, whether to use an inside or outside kick, or how to position themselves. In such situations where judgment is essential, the coach should ask the players questions to get them thinking, but even then, it is not good to provide the players with the coach's own solutions right away. There are many coaches in Australia who cannot bear the slowness or inability among the players to work things out, so they just tell them what to do before the players answer. I think this approach is inappropriate for nurturing their thinking ability. It is also common for coaches to ask questions, and the younger the players are, the more they ask questions, but when they don't get the answers they want, or the answers they think will take them to the next step, they end up asking questions again, and in the end, both sides lose sight of where they are headed. This is a very common situation in Australia. At the time, it took me quite a while to get to a conclusion too, but now I can get there in a relatively short time.

*I:* So, you already had a final conclusion in your mind at that time, and you always have an image of leading the way.

*M:* Yes, that is true. I would never stop the training without it.

*I:* There was a situation where you were giving the players an answer, and one of them argued with you. I was curious what you would do in such a case. What do you do when there is a response that you want, but the players have a different viewpoint from you?

*M:* I want to respect their viewpoints, regardless of who they are. I accept them because opinions originate from within, and if I don't accept their opinions, it means that I don't accept the player or person. If you continue to do this, the players may go mute or cease to generate their own ideas. I don't want it to happen, so even if they have a different or incorrect perspective than mine, I will accept it at first. It's possible that they'll have a better concept than I will, or that the player will have a better idea than I will. Even if I have a message I want to deliver, I always make sure to ask the players first. I express my interest in their comments, regardless of their differing points of view, and accept them. Next, I provide them with an alternative viewpoint and an opportunity to analyze issues from a different angle. Let's say if a player mentions an area that I want to lead them to, I will use it and guide them in that direction. In some cases, they still don't come up with a solution, so I try to guide them by giving them hints, such as key words or describing the situation in depth. In this way, I always try to avoid making them feel as though their first thoughts were ignored.

*I:* When this question-based interaction is undertaken with Japanese football players of the same age group, I get the feeling that many junior high school kids are unable to provide this level of response to questions posed by coaches to players. I also teach university students, and I believe that, although this is not a football topic, Japanese students are still inadequate in expressing their thoughts. This is entirely subjective, but I'd like to ask you again if you'd like to use this exchange to teach junior high school students when you return to Japan.

*M:* The answer is yes. However, it is dependent on who you are coaching. For example, if I am a one-day special guest as a coach working with middle school children and have a daily quota, I may not be able to complete the assignment on time if I am doing



question-based interactions. However, if given the opportunity to spend one session with them or instruct them over several months or a year, I would choose this question-based approach for their development. Australian coaches have a strong feeling of leading the discussion during training; thus, they don't want to interrupt it to talk with the players. Some coaches never even want their players to talk throughout the training, which I think is terrible. It's interesting to see that from the outside, training stops even if the coach is asking questions like mine. Even if the coach is constantly talking and providing directions, the training is still halted on the surface. So, although the training is the same in the sense that it is frozen, the content of what the players are learning is very different. By laying the groundwork for the players to think about during practice, they will be capable of making choices on their own. However, Australian players, even those as young as 12 and new to our club, are first perplexed, and it takes time for them to learn from me. They don't respond to my questions. They do not all answer because they are Australian.

*I:* That is a little unexpected.

*M:* In fact, I also judge whether players can join this club team based on their ability to adapt to this coaching approach.

*I:* Do you mean they will be assessed based on whether they can deal with your coaching method or not?

*M:* Yes. I regard not only their physical performance but also their ability to convey their own views in answer to my queries to be a component of their competence as players. Those three men and I have been practicing together for almost six months, so we can have that type of fast interaction regularly. This is unusual in Australia.

*I:* I see. I thought a question-based approach is common in Australia.

*M:* Not common, not at all.

*I:* I see. Then, do you think it is more common to see one-way instruction, where a coach keeps talking to them rather than asking questions?

*M:* A lot. Sometimes I see coaches asking questions, but they miss the point, or the questions are too long, and the players often can't answer them. Then, seeing the players unable to answer, the coaches get frustrated and forcefully force their ideas on them. I have seen many such scenes.

*I:* In the video, is there anything that I didn't point out, or is there anything that you yourself were careful to do in this situation? It has been a long time since 2017, so please tell us if anything has changed in terms of coaching methods.

*M:* I have improved my English well. I probably struggled a lot when I was giving my own instructions, but I also had a lot of trouble with listening. Even now, my listening is still very weak, so even now I don't understand everything the players are saying.

*I:* It seems there is no problem in interacting with the players in English in the video.

*M:* I pretended to be doing fine. Even now when I listen to them, I probably could understand 90 % of their English. At that time, my understanding was merely about 60 or 70 %.

*I:* Do you think you still have difficulty understanding them in English?

*M:* Of course. I still have a hard time communicating with them in English. But one of the reasons why I can get along with them is that I have been able to establish trust with them through daily training, where I put 100 % enthusiasm into my coaching. Showing my passion for their development is more important than speaking decent English. During training, as I mentioned, I try to make them relieved by showing my attitude of listening to their opinions instead of imposing my viewpoints on them. It is said here and there in Japan that it is very important to create a safe and secure psychological relationship and environment, as well as an atmosphere. If these are in place, even if

there is some communication problem, the players will pardon me, saying “OK. But I don’t understand what you mean. Could you explain one more time?” Even though I am not a native speaker of English, which is one of my weaknesses and unchangeable forever. But it’s important to think about the ways to make up [for it] or use it. Thus, when having some difficulty in giving verbal instructions, I try to convey my intentions by showing physical demonstrations or doing many other things. When you ask an open inquiry, you take a big risk. I believe that is the same in Japanese, but when I use open questions, I have no idea what will be stated, so some viewpoints may vary significantly from the answer I am attempting to provide. In such cases, I get puzzled. But I’m not going to bring it up in front of the players. I can’t continue coaching until I comprehend what I’m saying, and at such moments, I honestly pretend to understand what the guys are saying. But, as a coach, I must ultimately persuade the players, so I prepare my own solutions and ask questions that will take them there. This allows me to guide them to the ultimate message I want to impart, and the interaction is complete. As a result, I use a variety of techniques to compensate for my poor listening abilities. Of course, it is important to learn English and improve your weaknesses. But even if I don’t understand what the players are saying, I can’t look it up in a dictionary word for word, and that’s not my job as a coach. Our role is to assist them in improving their performance, and we must find out how to do so.

*I:* I believe there was a time when you didn’t understand what the players were saying and another time when the players didn’t understand what you were saying. In that case, the players seemed to be making an attempt to interpret your intentions in their own way, without blaming you for your poor English. This attitude was particularly noticeable in Harry. I had the impression that a relationship of trust had been established between you and the players.

*M:* That is correct. The senior players often interpret what I want to say and tell it to the young players. It has been quite difficult for me, particularly in recent years. I was really mindful of how I might develop a culture as a group of goalkeepers, especially after the lockdown. The tradition of club activities in Japan is simple to understand: third-year or second-year students educate first-year students. When there are 100

members in a club, the teacher does not have time to explain each activity one by one. I believe there is a good vertical relationship in which senior members train freshmen. This vertical connection is less common in Australia. I attempt to train with various age groups as frequently as possible. Even if I don't teach them, they see the performance of players who have trained with me for one or two years, and they pay attention to their words, actions, and, of course, their performance, as well as their attitude and behavior. Of course, I want the players to understand the Sydney FC community as well. If they understand this, they will naturally demonstrate and explain it to new players. I believe I must build it, and when I do, it benefits both myself and the players. Above all, it will benefit our academy and club. I will undoubtedly leave the club at some time. So, I'm preparing for that moment.

*I*: OK. So, are you telling them that you are leaving the club soon?

*M*: Yes, I have been telling them that they have to do coaching on their own just in case I have to leave the club someday. I can't take care of them 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, or 365 days a year. I can only be a part time coach, and I might get fired after a year or two, or they might get fired someday. If they stay with the team and move up to a higher category team, I can't coach them there either. The coach will change every time they go to a pro club or another club. I am absolutely out of touch with them. So, I always tell them that it is you that can take care of yourself, not me. In that sense, what I have to do in my given time period is to develop them into players who can do self-coaching or self-management. I think that my coaching philosophy was expressed during the coaching in the video. And I think the reason why my players are more imaginative and creative is because my ability to communicate is low.

*I*: That's interesting. As you can't communicate well in English, the players have no choice but to imagine your intentions, resulting in fostering their imagination and creativity.

*M*: That's right. Even if I can't speak English properly, they make an effort to understand me by guessing my intentions.

*I*: This may make the Japanese students who are about to go there feel more comfortable. They think that they need to communicate their intentions in English with good grammar. Everyone thinks that you can communicate in English only if you have good grammar and pronunciation, but now I understand that it is not necessary to speak perfect English. It might be a relief for Japanese students who want to coach abroad.

*M*: But learning a foreign language is important.

*I*: Why do you still think so?

*M*: First of all, I am a coach. So, when I coach them during a game, I have to give instructions from the bench. I cannot stop the game and take out an iPad to talk to them. In that case, I have no choice but to use language to convey my instructions. Language is important, but it is also important to use various means to convey your intentions. For example, when a play is well played, I just say “Harry!” and give a thumbs up. This is good enough for them to understand my intention. So, I use language and gestures effectively. In short, I use different means of communication depending on the situation. Secondly, in off-the-pitch, it is necessary to communicate with the players on a regular basis. For example, when asking questions, such as “How is school going?” or “What are your friends doing outside of school and football these days?”, you don’t use gestures or an iPad, do you? So, it is better to be able to speak the local language and have a conversation with the players and the staff. Especially, without staff or parents’ help, I can’t do anything. So, it’s important to be able to speak a foreign language.

*I*: I would like to ask you one last question. What have you brought to the club? Did any new changes happen to the club with a coach with different cultural values? How do you think you have been contributing to the team since you joined Sydney FC?

*M*: You should ask this question to my boss. Hahaha! But I think I am much better than the Australian coaches in terms of understanding and improving each player’s individual skills. What I can do is that I can find out the cause or factors of players’

errors instantly, guiding them to understand why they didn't well. In this way, they are able to coach themselves to improve. I'm much better at these than other coaches. There have been many players who can do this actually. In terms of tactical understanding, I was lucky enough to have been a field coach and an assistant coach, and an analyst for the top teams. So, I was able to see and analyze the whole game before I came to Australia. So, I can see more than other Australian field coaches, and of course I can see much more than other Australian goalkeeper coaches. So, I have a better tactical understanding of how the goalkeeper should behave or perform from the overall game perspective. I have a much better tactical understanding of how goalkeepers should behave or perform in relation to the game as a whole.

*I:* Those are the reasons why they hired you as a full-time coach, right?

*B:* Maybe so. I don't know. But because I have been teaching them not only the GK issues but also some stuff related to other positions, the players I have been teaching are often praised for answering questions other coaches provide regarding the defenders. I think that is a clear indication that the goalkeepers I have taught have a better understanding of the game situation than the other players on the field.

*I:* Yeah, right.

*M:* So, in that way, I think I have been contributing to the club. When my keepers are asked questions by other coaches, for example, at a training session or meeting in my absence that relate to keeper skills or tactics, they are able to answer those questions in their own words or explain them to the coaches using the tactics board. In this situation, they are being evaluated, which means so am I at the same time. Thus, one of my objectives in my coaching is to get them to understand the tactics and come up with their own solutions to the various problems they encounter during play. I think that's what I brought to the club. As I said before, I have always wanted to contribute not only to the improvement of the players' football performance but also to the quality of their lives. One way I do this is by frequently giving them feedback, asking them questions, asking for self-reflection, goal setting. I always tell them that whether they become

professionals or go to college, TAFE, or play abroad, they need to keep studying hard or get good grades at school. No one knows what will happen in their lives. Whatever the situation, what they need to do is to do their own self-reflection and goal setting.

Whether they eventually become a coach, a teacher, or a businessman, they absolutely need to do their own time management, plan what they are going to do today, and reflect on those things. Also, you need to do emotional control. I often take a psychological approach, but I am probably the only one who does that, partly because we are a small group. I use the WhatsApp group for this approach, and all the other coaches are on it, so I share all my interactions with the players with all the coaches.

*I*: Is that an app where you can share your daily information with your friends?

*M*: It's really close to LINE in Japan. In that WhatsApp group, I post a variety of information not only on the feedback about the players' performance, self-reflections, or goal setting, but also on many other things, such as questions regarding some TV interviews, articles, and video clips that I found on internet. Other than that, I sometimes post my private things, including photos of my private holiday, the food I cooked, or the books I read. I even sometimes email these to the parents of the players. I am really the only one who is in constant communication with various people, so other coaches tell me that the goalkeepers' group is interesting. I think such actions naturally influence the academy, and I also do various other things, such as finding talent and analyzing video footage. In short, I do more than what is required by the team. The director of the academy often says to me, "You are a professional, and you are raising our standards."

*A*: I have an impression that overseas, work and private life are very distinct, but listening to what you just said, it seems that Sydney FC is a part of your own life, and you are very much taking care of that.

*M*: Yes, I'm nosy.

*A*: But I think that's one of the great things about Coach Micky.

*M*: Other coaches often tell me, “Micky, if you quit, there won’t be anyone to fill that spot for you,” which makes me very happy. But if you look at that statement from another perspective, that’s not good for the club. I think I am the unique one, not the special one. If the team changes completely after the unique one leaves, then they lose the opportunity to develop the players in some way. So, I need to think about how to leave the club with what I have built up over the years.

#### Interview with Oliver

*I*: Interviewer (Researcher)

*O*: Oliver

*I*: I would like to hear your own thoughts on coaching in general, not just coaching in 2017. I know that you have coached players of various ages, but now that you are teaching elementary school children, what are your coaching philosophies that you value when coaching kids of those ages?

*O*: I am currently teaching two groups of children: a group that trains once a week and a competition-oriented group that aims to win matches. For the once-a-week group, I try to create an atmosphere of fun since there is not much time to teach them soccer skills or English. We are not trying to make them learn anything. I also teach a little bit of English. As with anything, if you don’t do it two or three times a week, you won’t learn anything. On the other hand, with regard to teams that want to win, we can practice two or three times a week, so we focus on developing the essentials of soccer and teach them in English. I feel that we are getting good results.

*I*: Thank you very much. You are working as an agent as well now. So, I think you still have to deal not only with the kids, but also with the college students, and I think you would be doing a lot of things to help them develop into successful players when they go abroad. In 2017, you came to our English and football learning program for students who want to play or coach abroad in the future, and you coached them in soccer. Do



you remember that?

*O:* Yes.

*I:* Let me show you a video where you were coaching them in English so that you can be reminded.

(Oliver is watching the video)

*I:* Do you remember this scene?

*O:* Yes, I remember it.

*I:* What was the concept you had in mind when you were coaching these students?

*O:* There weren't many students pursuing professional careers at the time. I paid attention to how well they understood English. I am always trying to figure out how learners who do not speak English may grasp it and express themselves.

*I:* What do you mean by that?

*O:* I wanted to teach them not only to make sure they understood the English I was speaking, but also to help them produce English. They were only expected to be able to say, "Get close" in response to my question, "What should you do?" I wanted them to be able to say just one phrase so that they did not have to respond with a sentence, but that was not easy to do.

*I:* I see. I think you freeze training a lot. Do you have any intention of that?

*O:* Well, I coach Japanese children in English, so I make sure they understand what I am saying and that they are saying what they want to say.

*I:* Do you think it's important for them to express their opinion?

*O:* No, it's not just opinions. They probably can't express their opinions in English. They will have to express their opinions in Japanese. What I wanted them to do was that I wanted them to answer me in very simple English by giving them an easy question in English. For example, in the video I was watching, the only thing they could mention in response to my question "What should I do?" is that the players should come closer to the player who has the ball or get into his field of vision. To get close, in English, you can just say "close" or "near." It's very simple and everybody can say it. I always ask the kids, "How many goals did you score?", and they say "one" or "two." It's very simple, but still an interaction. I want the players to do this.

*I:* Okay, I understand. I just have two more questions. First, the way you delivered your message while coaching was very similar to the structure of writing an essay. It's hard to find this elsewhere. Did you do this intentionally during the training?

*O:* No, not at all.

*I:* For example, you conveyed the main theme of training at the pre-instruction phase, specific methods to achieve the main theme at the concurrent instruction phase and of freezing for error correction, and then the main theme again at the concluding instruction phase. This is a flow of Introduction→Body→Conclusion, isn't it? Were you aware of this? I guess you were educated in the U.S., so I think you naturally used this way of talking in his coaching. What are your thoughts on this point?

*O:* I was not aware of it, but it's simply the most reasonable method to use. First, you instruct them on what to do. Then, because they may not have understood it during the training, I make them repeat it. After several repetitions, the players will intuitively comprehend. I believe you will need to consciously correct them at first. If you don't do this, you will not be able to train the players adequately. Whenever I deal with youngsters at my academy, I always use this instructional method. Goal-setting, correction, and conclusion are necessary. You will not get anything into your head if

you don't do this.

*I:* For example, when a student wants to teach abroad using English, do you think this logical pattern is necessary for the U.S.? Basically, do you think this kind of communication pattern is required in the U.S.?

*O:* Well, I don't know. But a good coach would do this.

*I:* Does it depend on the age group?

*O:* Yes, I think so. I would do this to the age group of two. I would do it in a more informal way, though. In the U.S., I believe that children aged between 8 and 10 years should be taught this method of thinking because this is how we think when we reach adulthood.

*I:* Yes, I have been educated in the U.S. as well, and this is typical communication there. Japanese people don't often do this, they would rather avoid making sudden conclusions.

*O:* Well, this is similar to computer science. I think the Japanese are not good at computer science. This kind of communication is similar to coding, isn't it?

*I:* You mean programming?

*O:* Oh, that's right. When programming, you will need to do it using logical thinking. It is a logical understanding that A causes B, and B causes C. Football players must make logical decisions on whether to pass or dribble during a game. It is a little different in Japan, but I believe this logical progression is vital for English speakers because the players want to be convinced. When you play 2 v 1, you will pass the ball or dribble if a defender is approaching you. There are only two options. So, as a coach, you want to encourage the players to make a better decision between the two using their logical thinking as quickly and accurately as possible. It's easier for me to do this in English.

It's not going to be the same in Japanese.

*I:* How is it different in Japanese?

*O:* It's a lot easier for me to give this type of instruction in English because English is a logical language. I can't do this using Japanese. I don't think Japanese is not that logical [a] language. I think it is a totally different language from English. English puts more emphasis on logic.

*I:* It is often said that in English, you are required to indicate the conclusion first and then provide supporting evidence. In Japanese, on the other hand, various elements are included before you arrive at the conclusion, as in "Kisho-tenketsu" (起承転結).

*O:* Yes, I have heard of that. The people in each culture have different brain functions.

*I:* OK. Let me ask you a few more questions. I counted the number of times the coaches called the players by their individual names, and Degu was called by far the most.

*O:* Hahaha.

*I:* What do you think of this?

*O:* Well, I think it's easier for me to talk to him because of his funny character. Hahaha.

*I:* In my personal opinion, the reason why both coaches often called Degu's name was that they were trying to create an atmosphere by having a charming player like Degu answer to them.

*O:* Well, I used to call Degu's name because he was the one who could respond to my questions. He was 26 or 27 at the time and more mature than others to answer my questions. The other players were students.

*I:* Have you noticed anything so far in the Discussion?

*O:* Well, when I was coaching at the program, I had to explain it very carefully because they were students and didn't understand English. So, as we have seen, I think I had to talk in a very logistic manner, like writing an essay. If I had done it on a daily basis, I wouldn't have been so careful.

*I:* What were you specifically careful about? Grammar or sentence structure?

*O:* I think I would have talked to them differently if I had been coaching them before. That means if I had been in contact with them before, my coaching would have had another dimension. For example, if it's the players I coach on a daily basis, I know their behavioral patterns. For example, if they are not concentrating or not thinking, I can easily tell, and I will then take another coaching approach, whether it is to get angry or to praise them. By interacting with the players on a regular basis, I mean that I understand their personalities, and I coach them more precisely according to their psychological state of mind that day. If I only do one day of coaching, if I get mad at them, I disrupt the relationship between them and myself. But if I've been doing it for a year or two, and we have a relationship of trust, and the players are not concentrating, or if they are joking around, I have to give them a bit of a push. In that case, I think it's better to use Japanese because emotions are involved.

*I:* What you are talking about is the case of Degu. When you asked him a question, and he could respond to you, you were teasing him in a way that made the atmosphere more friendly. I think you could do this because you and Degu had built trust with each other.

*O:* Well, that can be right. Besides that, I thought it's OK to do that for his character. It depends on who you are talking to.

Interview with Hiro

*I:* Interviewer (Researcher)

*H:* Hiro

*I:* What do you think Japanese athletes or coaches should bear in mind while going abroad? What skills do you think they need to have?

*H:* I believe that I was able to become a professional player in Australia largely because of my ability to communicate in English, although I believe that there are many other technical and mental qualities as well. There were many other players who came from Japan to the tryouts. They were strong at football, but I think I got picked because I could speak better English than them. These experiences have led me to my current activities in Japan, that is, teaching football to kids in English. What I want them to do is to have fun while playing football in English. I don't want them to dislike English. So, I thought it's a good idea to teach football and English at the same time.

*I:* Let me ask you about the video posted on Gekisaka, where you were interviewed with them. In that video, you mentioned that you need to express yourself properly. Otherwise, they don't understand you. What do you mean by this? Could you explain to me a little bit more in detail?

*H:* It was critical for us players to fully comprehend what the head coach had told us during the meeting and to precisely follow his instructions throughout the games. Players will not be able to successfully perform unless they understand the coaches' instructions accurately. Simultaneously, we Japanese players should thoroughly explain ourselves to our teammates and coaches and tell them exactly what we want them to do.

*I:* OK. You already had English skills before you went to Australia. So, it should be no problem. But most of the Japanese players don't. From your point of view, as an agent, in what situations do you think they need to speak English instead of asking you to translate?

*H:* Well, when it comes to talking about signing a contract, it's going to be really complicated. You need to understand technical terms or use them occasionally. In that case, we as agents need to help them with language. But I always tell them to be as

expressive as possible if they go to training and see other players or coaches. It's really important for them to be very open-minded and talk to them on their own. It's really important. So, I always tell them to do so before they go on trials.

*I:* I see. Thanks. Now I want to ask you about your coaching in 2017 at the English Football Session. It was quite long ago. So, we will see the video so you can remember it.

*H:* OK.

(Watching video)

*I:* I'm not sure how much you remembered this situation. But I want to ask you about your coaching concept at this time. Facing student-athletes who were about to go overseas from now on, what were you trying to teach to them? What did you want them to learn from your coaching?

*H:* One of my goals was to generate a sense of place. As there were just Japanese people there, I was aware of how I could create a local vibe. I felt that it was vital to prepare them ahead of time so that they would not experience a disconnect between Japan and the places they would visit. For example, I tried not to speak too slowly.

*I:* Thanks. Other than providing the local vibe in terms of an English-spoken environment, did you organize the training in terms of improving football skills?

*H:* The most important skill I learned overseas as a player was how to deal with the local players because they have huge bodies and are so powerful. I had to learn how to hide and keep the ball and how to use my body against them. So, I wanted them to learn these skills from me, even though it was such a short period of time.

*I:* OK. Let me show you the findings from analyzing your coaching method. Based on the analysis, one of the most important characteristics of your coaching was that you put

a lot of emphasis on the development of their language abilities, which is also different from Oliver's coaching. This is what I wanted to confirm from your comments. As I expected, you mentioned that you were focusing on developing their language skills. Let me show you the video one more time depicting these scenes, and I would like you to tell me your thoughts on this one more time.

(Watching the video)

*I:* This is one of the scenes where I found you were pretty much doing many things to improve their English skills. What were the things you were especially doing to do so? Have you noticed something done to improve their English skills?

*H:* Well, as far as I noticed, I can see that I was checking if they were following my English instruction several times. I think I did this because they were students whose native language is Japanese.

*I:* Exactly. That's what I thought as well. OK. Next, I want to ask you about the technical aspects of football. Besides your trying to improve their English skills, some of your coaching behaviors during the training advanced their football performance as well significantly several times. What do you think you did for that?

*H:* Did I do any demonstration?

*I:* Perfect.

*H:* That's really important for them to understand visually.

*I:* Right. Your demonstration played an important role in improving their performance significantly. Let me show you the video once again representing this scene.

*H:* Hadn't I already started Football Heroes, had I?



*I:* Yes, it was in 2017. So, I think so.

*H:* It must have been 1 year or so since I had started it. So, that's what I would always do to the kids as well, and I think that showed up in this training, too.

(Watching the video)

*I:* Did you see? There were several players who tried to do the same actions you had just shown to them as a demonstration. Did you realize that your demonstration significantly influenced the players during the training?

*H:* I wasn't sure if I had any influence on the players. But I always perform my demos in the hope that the players will see me as a role model. At my academy, the children may learn something from watching the adults and imitating them, or they may incorporate one or two of their own elements into it and establish their own approaches. Not everything I do is correct, but I always educate the children to think for themselves and use what they learn to develop their own new skills.

*I:* I see. I think this showing demo is one of the most distinct characteristics of your coaching and is not something every coach can do because it requires you to have actual football skills. The other two coaches were using only verbal information for players' development. You were the only one who showed a demonstration in front of the players. Again, this is your coaching specialty. Am I right?

*H:* Oh, yes. So true. I didn't realize what's going on during the training like you explained to me right now. But while I am coaching at my academy, I always try to show demos to kids because I can provide more information visually. At my academy, I usually attempt to look at the kids' faces to see if they are following my English lessons. If they don't, I say it once or twice. I explain it by doing it in front of them because visual information is far more understandable than audio information. I did this while coaching here [at the time of this study]. So, I ask other coaches at my academy to show their demonstration as well, especially if they have experienced playing football on their

own.

*I:* Yes. Anything you want to add?

*H:* Well, it's good to know about my coaching method like this. I think your analysis is right because what I always have in my mind was pointed out here as well.

## Appendix 3 Consent form

### Consent Form (in Japanese)

#### 同意書

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今回参加していただく研究プロジェクトは、西条正樹により実施される研究の一部です。本研究の主な目的は、「海外を目指す日本人アスリートやコーチの外国語コミュニケーション能力育成プログラム」を開発することです。そのために、本調査では、外国語（主に英語）によるサッカーのコーチング言語やコーチング技能を分析し、それらがどのようなコーチング概念に基づいて行われていたのかを質的に調査することを目的としています。

本調査で、研究参加者にしていただくのは、（１）英語によるコーチングを行っていただく、（２）各々のトレーニングについてご自身のご見解を語っていただくこと、です。（１）に関しては、2017年に実施していただいたものになります。

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本研究に関して質問がありましたら、研究者である西条正樹（masakinishijo@gmail.com）にご連絡ください。

上記内容を読了、理解し、研究への参加に同意してくださる方は以下に署名をお願いします。

論文へのお名前記載の可否 ☒ 可 ・ 不可

名前 伊藤 瑞希

署名 伊藤 瑞希

日付 3/108/2021

Scanned with CamScanner

Consent Form (in Japanese)

同意書

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日付 10 / 4 / 2021

Consent Form (in Japanese)  
同意書

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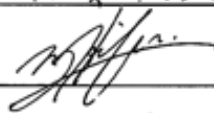
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#### Appendix 4 Sample of teaching curriculum for genre-based tasks

Based on Long (2014), I created a sample of a teaching curriculum for genre-based tasks for Japanese student-athletes seeking to go overseas in the future. For Step 1, learners' profiles should be created after conducting a needs analysis (Long, 2014).

<b>Learners' Profiles and Needs</b>	
<b>Information on the learners</b>	Want to go overseas as a football player or coach Speaks pre-intermediate level English.
<b>Objectives</b>	Want to become able to conduct football training in English. Want to be able to use English to communicate with their coaches and teammates in international teams.

For Step 2, considering their objectives of studying English and linguistic/functional features that appeared in this study (Table 21), I established the goals.

<b>Learners' Goals</b>	
<b>Topic</b>	Football coaching to junior high and high school students
<b>Purpose</b>	The learners will be able to perform basic football coaching in English.
<b>Goals</b>	Learn strategies to provide information on key points effectively. Learn how to check players' comprehension. Learn how to elicit players' opinions. Learn words necessary to increase player motivation. Learn how to modulate their instruction.

In Step 3, the teaching schedule is outlined in Table 25 following the basic four steps in TBLT implementation: (1) task input to observe the model in which the target task is performed, (2) pedagogic tasks to raise learners' awareness of domain-specific grammar and vocabulary, (3) performance of the target task using the vocabulary and grammar the learner has acquired, and (4) task follow-up so that the learner can receive feedback from the teacher about common error patterns and analyze their own and their classmates' performance (Norris, 2009).

**Table 25**  
*Teaching Schedule Focused on PCA-informed Instruction*

Week	Place	Content/Theme (Conductors)	Focus of learning	Task type
1	C	Introduction (By ESP teachers)	Understand the objectives of the course	N/A

2	F		Experience coaching demonstration by model coaches	TI
3		Coaching discourse and modulated instruction ①	Learn how to effectively convey key points (Fractal recursive structure)	
4	C	Passing (By experts and ESP teachers)	Learn how to modulate instruction (Enforcing/Insisting)	PT
5	F		Experience coaching demonstration by model coaches	TI
6		Coaching techniques and modulated instruction ②	Learn how to convey key points effectively (Showing authentic modeling)	
7	C	Dribbling (By experts and ESP teachers)	Learn how to modulate instruction (Proposal)	PT
8	F	Task performance 1 (By students)	Demonstrate their coaching practice on the field	TT
9	F		Experience coaching demonstration by model coaches	TF/TI
10		Question-based instruction / 3 v1 (By experts and ESP teachers)	Learn how to elicit players' opinions	
11	C		Learn how to modulate instruction (Hedge/Emphatics)	PT
12	F		Experience coaching demonstration by model coaches	TI
13		Involvement / Combination (By experts and ESP teachers)	Learn how to engage players in training (Involvement)	
14	C		Learn words necessary to increase player motivation.	PT
15	C	Task performance 2 (By students)	Demonstrate their coaching practice on the field	TT

C: Classroom, F: Field, TI: Task input, PT: Pedagogic tasks, TT: Target tasks, TF: Task follow-up

The desired outcomes of the 15-week genre-based tasks (GBT) are to understand football training in English and be able to provide coaching instructions in English during the football training sessions.

In GBT, learners are explicitly taught words and grammar via pedagogic tasks that are considered necessary to perform the target tasks. To undertake the target tasks

in weeks 8 and 15, they are to learn coaching skills and language using the model coaches used under different training themes, such as passing, dribbling, 3 v 1, and combination. For each theme, a study unit is created that includes task inputs, where students engage in model coach demonstrations, and pedagogic tasks, where they examine football coaching-related skills and the linguistic aspects of the model coaches' instruction and practice and applying those to their own practice.

To compare and analyze the participants' performance, the first target tasks should be conducted early in the course; however, it can be assumed the participants' football coaching is in English before the first target tasks are set for the eighth week of the course.

In weeks 3 and 4, the participants are to watch the video showing a coaching demonstration by the model coach produced in the previous task input (week 2) to gain an awareness of the two main analytical viewpoints: (i) distinctive coaching behaviors that are related to improving players' football performance (those we identified in the study of phase 1 in this study) and (ii) a language use pattern as shown in Table 16.





From week 4 onward, after the students experience outdoor task input, they analyze the coaching behaviors shown by the model coaches from the perspectives of (i) and (ii). With the coaching skills used here, the students are asked to demonstrate their own coaching practice in weeks 8 and 15. For this goal, they will practice using them during the weeks of pedagogic tasks with their teachers' help (some examples of pedagogic tasks are provided in Appendix 5). The teachers observe them in action and provide feedback the following week (task follow-up).

#### Appendix 5 Sample of pedagogic tasks ①

##### Sample task ① (production tasks)

Activity	A picture frame representing a set of training sequences is shown to the learners, and they explain the sequence as if they were the coaches.
Objective	The learners can learn how to make demands and adjustments of the meaning by actually explaining the rules of the exercise as if they were the coaches.
Target language features of PCA	Modulated instruction (Enforcement)



Sample pictures	<div style="display: flex; flex-wrap: wrap; justify-content: space-around;"> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>②</p>  </div> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>①</p>  </div> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>④</p>  </div> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>③</p>  </div> </div>
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Sample tasks ② (Comprehension tasks)

Activity	A set of English audios containing the elements of modulated instruction is played, and the learners are asked to identify whether each utterance is a type of instruction by asking players to decide on the final decision or a type of message forcing them to play exactly what the coaches asked them to do.
Objective	The learners can learn how to make adjustments to the message they convey to the players, that is, how to make their instruction coercive or suggestive.
Target language	Modulated instruction (Proposal, Enforcement)
Sample instructions	<p>Q: Listen to the coach's instructions during football practice and check "Strong" if the coach is forcing the players to do so or "Weak" if the coach is leaving the decision to the players.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) You <i>must</i> make two touches before passing.</li> <li>2) You <i>can</i> dribble or pass.</li> <li>3) When stopping the ball, you <i>can</i> use the outside or the inside.</li> <li>4) If you have the ball in the middle of the field, you <i>could</i> choose to pass it or dribble it, depending on the defenders'</li> </ol>

	positions. 5) We have an important game tomorrow. You <i>have to</i> sleep well tonight.
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Notes:

TBLT practitioners should be noted that although the target language features to be learned are predetermined, they should not be presented from the beginning as “the brief switch in attention from meaning to form is usually triggered by a communication problem” (Long, 2015, p. 317). Thus, it is insufficient to simply present the linguistic features obtained in this study to the learners without any elaboration: It is important to present them to learners within pedagogic tasks when the learners encounter difficulties in completing the task without using them.