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interpersonal metafunctional analysis:
Toward language instruction for overseas football coaching

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March, 2018

English Literary Society
of Doshisha University

Doshisha Literature, No. 61 (offprint)

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Abstract

This study determines how genre-based instruction, a long-studied aspect of English for specific purposes, can be applied in teaching English to Japanese soccer coaches planning to move overseas for their careers. The study draws on interpersonal metafunction as an analytical tool to discover lexico-grammatical features in terms of Mood and Modal assessment systems among five sets of English coaching text produced by a professional football coach. As a result of interpersonal metafunctional analysis and from the viewpoint of the Mood system, Minor and Major clauses were extracted and appropriate lexico-grammatical items corresponding to each situation were selected. Furthermore, from the perspective of Modal assessment, usage rates for nonmodal clauses were overwhelmingly high. The characteristics of such lexico-grammatical choice can be thought of as a linguistic feature of football coaching in English. It was possible to develop educational suggestions about explicitly conveying such features to the learner.

Keywords: ESP, Systemic Functional Linguistics, genre-based approach, coaching language in sport

1. Introduction

I was a football player in football leagues of the US and Australia for three years (2003, 2009, and 2011). At that time I began to realize that not only footballing skill but also the fact that language ability is important to succeed as a player. This experience motivated me to conduct a survey targeting Japanese football players in New South Wales, Australia. Approximately, 90% of the participants claimed that they experienced difficulties in communicating with their coaches or teammates using foreign languages, especially English (Nishijo, 2016). Additionally, more than 1,500 Japanese people learn football or coaching skills abroad every year. However, some of them are not sufficiently successful as they lack linguistic abilities (Tsuji, 2013).

Thus, an increasing demand for language support to nonacademic students like the ones mentioned above as well as to academic students is likely to arise. Consequently, I have started to explore how nonacademic students, especially those who want to go overseas to learn or practice football coaching skills, can be supported in improving their English ability, especially, their speaking ability. As a matter of fact, there have been numerous language-supporting materials created for such purposes. The materials provide glossaries, applications, or other media describing football-related terms and conversations. However, merely studying football-related English expressions by using these materials seems insufficient to meet the demands set while dealing with situations encountered by players on the field. Goh and Burns (2012) question the practicality of using these materials as they do not usually reflect the kind of language people might actually use in natural situations outside the classroom.

Furthermore, considering the fact that sport coaching values differ across cultures (Chelladurai, Molloy, Imamura, & Yamauchi, 1987; Terry &

Howe, 1984), it seems reasonable to note that different types of coaching styles will also influence the language coaches use. It can, therefore, be argued that the language materials reflecting these cultural or social values are more practical and authentic than ones merely listing football-related vocabulary or grammar and should be shown to learners as model texts (Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, & Yallop, 2000).

The ultimate goal of my research is to investigate the effectiveness of the genre-based approach (GBA) (described below) as a pedagogical framework for teaching spoken English to Japanese football coaches. For this purpose, the present study aimed to uncover lexico-grammatical patterns realized in authentic English coaching texts and use them to create English-teaching materials for Japanese football coaches hoping to work abroad in the future.

1.1 Genre and systemic functional linguistics

In this study, the idea of *genre* plays an important role. However, as the definition of genre varies (Nunan, 2008), what I refer to as genre in this study will first be explicated. The concept of genre used in this study is that established by a framework of systemic functional linguistics (SFL), which has proposed a relation between the use of language and the social environment (Halliday, 1994). Martin (1992) defines genre as a staged, goal-oriented social process, explaining that a text belonging to a type of genre has a pattern of stages necessary for achieving a social goal. Furthermore, each stage has its own pattern of lexico-grammatical resources within it. These lexico-grammatical resources characterize three aspects of socio-cultural context, described as follows: (1) *field* or content of a text that influences the formation of ideational meanings; (2) *tenor*, or attitudes, social relations, and evaluations in a text that build *interpersonal* meaning; and (3) *mode* or the flow of information and discourse that

constitutes the *textual* meaning of a text. If we have to choose the right words when considering ever-changing situations like sports coaching, it would be insufficient to remember only words and phrases. Considering that the roles of coaches and players in societies greatly affect their linguistic tasks, it may be useful to analyze texts from the perspective of *field*, *tenor*, and *mode*. That is, we should follow conventional manners or rules for linguistic tasks in a given context. Accordingly, it appears to be effective to discover how contextual information occurring during a football coaching in English-speaking countries can be realized as lexico-grammatical patterns in the text, and how we can also suggest rules for linguistic tasks.

1.2 GBA

The applicability of genre and SFL into English education, especially for writing and reading, has long been the major focus in English for specific purposes contexts (Yasuda, 2011). Attempts have also been made to allow genre to take on a more central role in the development of language curricula and syllabus design. The reason for this is that a focus on genre “enables curriculum designers to group together texts that are similar in terms of purposes, organization, and audience.” (Paltridge, 2001, p. 4) Accordingly, teaching methods that make use of genre draw especially on the notions of SFL that have been developed in accordance with the GBA. Burns, Joyce, and Gollin (1996) have explained in detail how the concepts of genre and SFL can be applied to teaching spoken English. According to them, a teaching curriculum called the teaching-learning cycle is introduced as a text-based instructional sequence that teachers should follow when using authentic texts as teaching materials. The teaching-learning cycle maintains a balance between pedagogical and real-world tasks, comprising four stages of teacher-student interaction, namely: 1) context exploration (with a teacher); 2) explicit instruction (with a teacher), 3)

guided practice; 4) joint construction (with a teacher); and 5) independent application (without a teacher) (Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, & Yallop, 2000, p. 264).

The present study attempts to uncover lexico-grammatical patterns realized in authentic English coaching texts and to lay the groundwork for making English-teaching materials amenable to Japanese football coaches looking to work overseas. The materials are used in accord with stages 1 and 2, i.e., the *Context and Text Exploration* stages in GBA terms. The purpose here is to familiarize learners with the target context and with contextual texts, and to draw attention to organizational and linguistic features commonly found in texts belonging to it (Khatibi, 2014)

1.3 Previous literature on using authentic texts as teaching materials

An existing body of research focuses on identifying the rhetorical structure of genre and the lexico-grammatical resources necessary to enable teachers to show their learners how socio-cultural context is associated with linguistic features in each context. Hayakawa (2008), for example, conducts an analysis on English commentary text in art books, the genre which students in art schools frequently encounter in their everyday school life and need to use as a model when they write commentary on their own works of art. In another case, Iwamoto (2015) attempts to clarify the register of newspaper English in sports articles, explaining specific and limited patterns in the choice of lexico-grammatical resources in terms of word choice, rhyme, metaphor, allusion, polysemy, and various abundant expressions.

Research using authentic spoken texts in teaching speaking as models have been on the increase, although most of the past GBA-related literature has dealt with written texts in teaching writing and reading (Yasuda, 2011). Burns et al. (1996) provided sample analyses of six texts

collected during the *Spoken Discourse Project* (note1), varying from *Mother chatting to son's new friend* to *Making an appointment*. De Silva Joyce and Slade (2000) identified the different genres that occurred over 27 hours of casual workplace conversation. She collected and analyzed these to show her learners the structure of spoken interactions, making it possible for workers to talk to one another, predict the kinds of things someone is likely to say, and to successfully take turns in speaking. In Bagher (2014), 12 genres, ranging from *Recount*, *Report*, *Discussion*, *Explanation*, *Exposition* (Analytical), *Exposition* (Hortatory), *News Items*, *Anecdote*, *Narrative*, *Procedure*, *Description* and *Review* are introduced in teaching English to the learners at the Islamic Azad University.

1.4 Objectives of the study

Aiming at examining the effect of GBA on Japanese football coaches' speaking performance in English, the present study comprised an analysis of authentic texts of English football coaching as model texts. The analysis will be conducted on the basis of the analytical framework of interpersonal metafunction in SFL, showing that the texts realize particular linguistic patterns in terms of Mood and Modal assessment system. A further concern of the study is to provide suggestions as to how these patterns of lexical-grammatical items can be applied to phases 1 and 2 in the teaching-learning cycle. A brief summary of each system and why the two analytical viewpoints were selected as the focal points of the study will be provided in the results and discussion sections of the paper.

2. Methods

The authentic English football coaching texts analyzed in this study were obtained from Mr. Naoki Imai (Mr. Imai), a Japanese professional football coach for English and Japanese players from elementary to junior

high school. I decided to analyze Mr. Imai's coaching texts as he speaks native-like English due to the fact that he spent 10 years in Australia during his childhood. Mr. Imai is the only professional coach who uses English when coaching football in Japan. In addition, his experience as a professional football player and a professional coach in English-speaking countries such as Australia and the US may enhance the validity of his football coaching, and thereby add greater authenticity as teaching materials.

Between August 2015 and March 2016, I visited Mr. Imai nine times in total and recorded him engaging in football training using a video camera. I then transcribed the obtained natural spoken data and placed them into 10 text files on the basis of the contents of training. Permission to use the video and its transcript was obtained from Mr. Imai. For the analysis in this study, five texts out of 10 were selected: *1 v. 1*, *2 v. 1*, *ball juggling*, *one two shooting*, and *standing pass*. All of these can be categorized as single-topic, basic football skills. This categorization enabled me to analyze homogenous text data in terms of field, tenor, and mode and these were chosen because they are the training topics that Japanese football coaches are likely to encounter overseas.

The collected text data were analyzed to determine whether they have particular linguistic characteristics in terms of choices of Mood and Modal assessment. To achieve this, the corpus tool *UAM CorpusTool 3* (O'Donnell, 2013) was used in the analysis. The visual information obtained from the videos was used to make sure the transcription was done correctly by checking Mr. Imai's gestures or facial expressions.

3. Results and discussion

To discover patterned lexico-grammatical choices in the texts, the present study conducted an SFL-based analysis on the patterns of two

system choices: Mood types and Modal assessment types. This section will firstly provide an overview of these two systems and then show what kind of lexico-grammatical resources were used with respect to them.

3.1. Mood and Modal assessment systems (Interpersonal metafunctional analysis)

The systems of Mood and Modal assessment choices belong to the analytical category of interpersonal metafunctional analysis. The interpersonal metafunctional analysis enables us to evaluate how language is used to foster social interaction, to create and maintain relationships, to develop and project a personal identity, to express opinions, and to engage with the views of others (Derewianka, 2011). Considering that sports coaching occurs between coaches and players and builds on relationships of trust (Martens, 2012), first priority should be placed on the analysis of how the interaction between the two can be understood in a textually-informed way.

3.1.1 Mood system

Firstly, the overall Mood system is illustrated in Figure 1. If the clause has a subject and a finite Mood block that comprises it, it is classified as a major clause. If it does not, it counts as a minor one. A major free clause can have any type of mood structure: imperative; declarative; or interrogative. Each mood structure has typical and non-typical realization of speech function, as shown in Table 1.

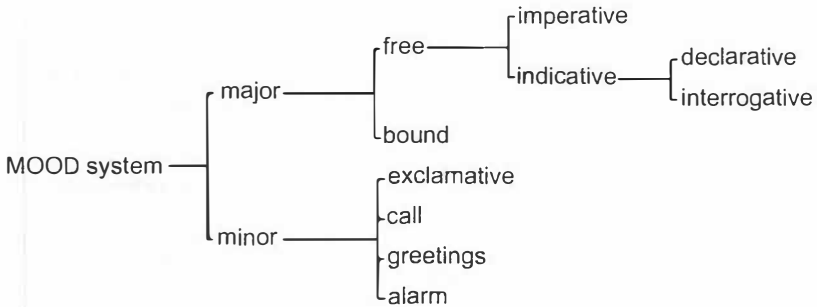


Figure 1: MOOD system

(adapted from Halliday, 1994)

Table 1: Summary of dialog

speech function	typical clause Mood	non-typical clause Mood
command	imperative	modulated interrogative declarative
offer	modulated interrogative	imperative declarative
statement	declarative	tagged declarative
question	interrogative	modulated declarative

Created by the author on the basis of Eggins (2004)

The result of the usage rate of each system shown in Figure 1 is provided in Figure 2.

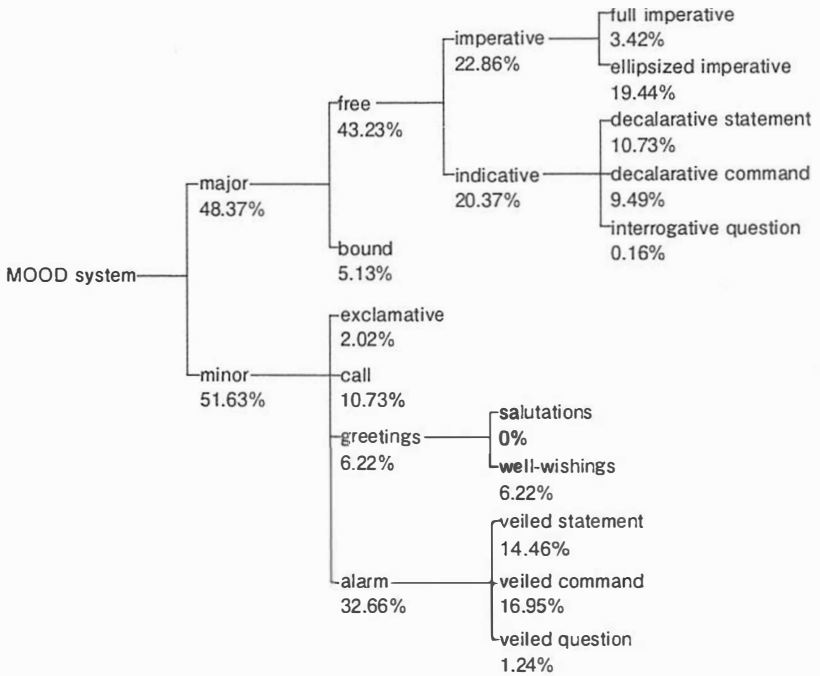


Figure 2: The usage rate of each system in the MOOD system

Figure 2 shows that, of the two clause types, minor clauses were used the most frequently (51.63%), followed by major clauses (48.37%). In addition, the usage rate of subcategories of each clause type varied.

3.1.1.1 Major clause types

Let me now discuss the major clause types (free clauses), comprising 48.37% of text data as shown in Figure 2. Table 2 shows the breakdown of subcategories of the major clause types used.

Table 2: Usage rate of major clause subcategories

Feature	N	Percentage
Total Units	278	
imperative	147	22.86%
indicative	131	20.37%
IMPERATIVE TYPE	147	
full imperative	22	3.42%
ellipsed imperative	125	19.44%
INDICATIVE TYPE	131	
declarative statement	69	10.73%
declarative command	61	9.49%
interrogative question	1	0.16%

Table 2 shows the appearance rate of each mood structure type: imperative ($n = 147/22.86\%$); declarative ($n = 130/20.22\%$); and interrogative ($n = 1/0.16\%$). Considering that the set of texts were obtained from football training scenes in which the coach made his players take physical actions or comment on them, it could have been assumed from the beginning that the usage rate of imperatives would be the highest, followed by the use of declaratives second highest. This might have been assumed on the grounds that they realize commands and statements, respectively, in speech function. However, it should be noted that even though the use rate of the imperative is the highest and that of the declarative is the second highest, there is not much difference between the two (22.86% and 20.22%, respectively). In fact, it raises the question of what makes the use of declaratives increase in contexts where the main purpose is to prompt athletes to engage in their physical activities. Regarding this issue, Eggins (2004) explains there is a congruent pattern and an incongruent pattern in the relation between speech functions and mood structure types, as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1 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 functions as a command that provides a direction to players. According to Eggins (2004), a speech function realized through a non-typical clause structure is a marked clause, influenced by contextual demands. It can be assumed that some of the declarative clauses above are functioning as typical clauses, whereas others are functioning as non-typical ones.

It is then necessary to consider the contextual differences between the unmarked command types (realized as imperative forms) and the marked ones (realized as declarative forms). That is, it seems important to determine the contextual demands that were there, giving formative differences in the same function. The answers to these may lead to the strengthening of authenticity in teaching practical English. However, since investigating this is beyond the scope of this research, it will be the next research topic.

3.1.1.2 Minor clause types

A clause that has a predicate as part of its structure is classified as a major clause; however, one that does not have a predicate is classified as a minor clause (Halliday, 1994). In this study, the minor clauses that were found comprised 51.63% of text data, and had the highest usage rate among all the clause types. Among the subtypes of the minor clauses used, the most frequently used was *alarm* as shown in Figure 2; this has an interpersonal function of calling attention to or altering addressees, and appearing in the constituent of Predicator (e.g., “help”), Predicator plus Adjunct (e.g., “keep off”), or optional Predicator plus Complement (e.g., “[be] careful”) (Halliday, 1994, p, 195). Moreover, Halliday (1994) explains that alarms can be analyzed as intermediate entities between major and

minor clauses; this further indicates that alarms can be regarded as an ellipsed version of major clauses. In addition, according to Tatsuki (2004), a Communicative Unit, which is a more expanded unit than a clause, makes it possible for clauses to appear with some of these elements “veiled” to show that the veiled elements can be omitted as they were already known to the readers or the listeners. Thus, this study treated the alarms as ellipsed versions of major clauses, rather than as mere alarms. This is because, it enabled me to explore the relation between the ellipsized parts and the contextual needs surrounding them. Accordingly, the alarms found were classified (exclusively for this study) further into three subcategories based on their functions: veiled statement, veiled command, and veiled question. The names of the subcategories show that they still carried one of the basic speech functions (Table 1), and they appeared 210 times (32.66%) as a whole (see Figure 2), which in turn means that they were inevitable aspects of the analysis.

A total of 93 out of the 210 alarms functioned as statements, and were used as follows to describe the acts that the coach was performing by himself:

(1)

“Touch touch,” and
“Right left right left.”

Note that though some of these appear to be imperatives (as in *“Touch touch”*), they were not the types that requested the players to take action, which is the typical function of imperative forms. They were rather used to emphasize the acts that he was performing in his own demonstration.

A total of 109 out of 210 veiled clauses, which were the most

frequently used ones of the same type, played a role as follows in commanding players to take immediate action:

(2)

"Too slow,"

"Next one,"

"10 push ups,"

"Inside of your foot,"

"Whatever you want,"

"Right foot scissors,"

"Quicker quicker,"

"In the air,"

Body balance."

These were used to ask for urgent action and were very unique, in that they were composed only of Complements or Adjuncts. These can be recovered as major clause types as follows:

(3)

"[Your dribbling is] too slow,"

"[You have to do the] next one,"

"[You have to do]10 push ups,"

"[Use your] inside of your foot,"

"[You can use] whatever you want,"

"[Use] right foot scissors,"

"[Play] quicker quicker,"

"[Kick the ball] in the air;" and

"[Use your] body balance."

These indicate that the recovered elements represent the actions players were performing or had just performed. In this way, the information carried by these parts was already known to players, and therefore

can be categorized as clauses carrying old information, and therefore do not have high information value in them (Halliday, 1994). This seems to suggest that the elements conveying old information to the players tended to be ellipsized, and those carrying new information were likely to come to the surface (refer to note 2). In other words, in the case where a situation constantly changes as the players continue with their actions, coaches are likely to be required to use finely-tuned coaching languages in terms of their informational structure (Halliday, 1994) to maintain a brisk training tempo. It seems, however, that the reason behind omitting these parts can be more clearly explained by performing textual analysis in the SFL framework though this analysis is outside the scope of this paper. Speaking from a pedagogical perspective, if learners try to coach using only “grammatically correct” English, they might conduct unsuitable coaching in terms of language use. Thus, SFL analysis of authentic texts might help us discover “contextually correct” English usage.

Among the subtypes of the minor clauses used, the second most frequently used was *call* (10.73%) as shown in Figure 2, which is produced by speakers calling to attention another person, or other entity (Halliday, 1994).

There are two subcategories of *call*. Mr. Imai used calls when specifying the actor of the action, as in “*Futa, you stand there OK?*” and when giving compliments, as in “*Superb, Chi-chan.*” In either case, the use of the call was dominant. Accordingly, it seemed to be worthwhile recognizing the value of calls, not only in terms relating to English education, but in terms of basic coaching skills. This is because the encouragement of players using positive words is one of the important coaching skills (Martens, 2012). Also, among greeting types, well-wishings dominated the category. These were used to give positive feedback to players when they performed well as in “*Well done, Futa,*” or “*Bravo, Daisuke.*”

3.1.2 The Modal assessment system

This section deals with the modal assessment system, which construes the region of uncertainty that lies between “yes” and “no,” or “the positive roles” and “the negative roles” (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 finite modal operator, e.g., “John *might* have been a good player.” Second, by a modal Adjunct, e.g., “*Probably* John is a good player.” Third, by both together, e.g., “John *might probably* have been a good player.” These intermediate positions are referred to as modalizations. The modal adjunct known as the comment adjunct can be categorized further into propositional assessment and speech functional assessment by function (see note 3).

In a proposal, there are also two kinds of intermediate possibility, in this case depending on whether the speech functions are of 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 finite modal operator, e.g., “You *should* do it. / You *are supposed* to do it.” The second is with an expansion of the Predicator, e.g., “I *will* help them.” (Finite modal operator) / “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 fostering social interaction. The analysis from this point of view is provided in Figure 5.

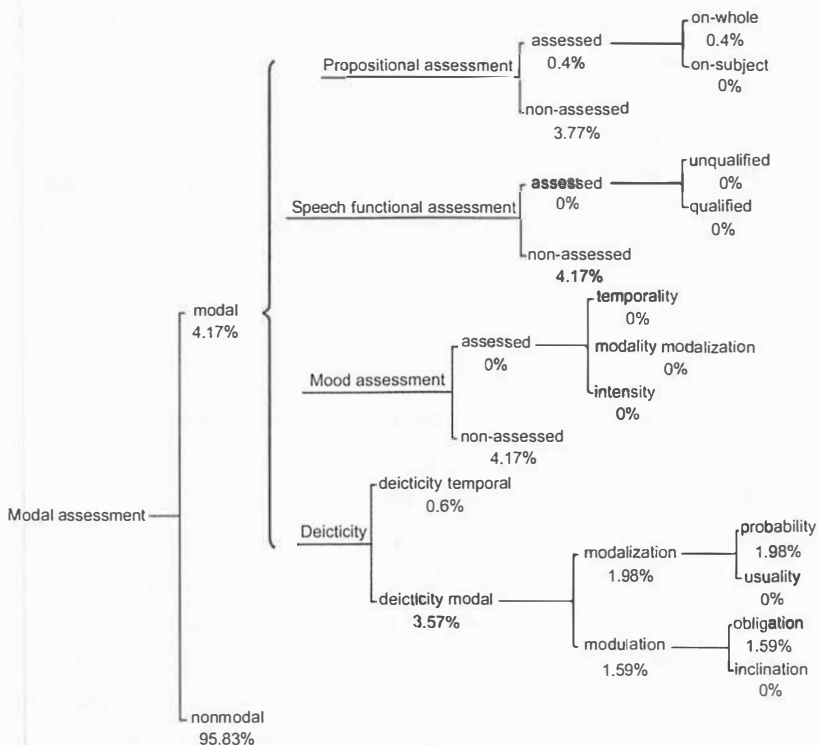


Figure 5: Usage rate of each system in the Modal assessment system

Overall usage of modal assessment is very low (4.17%). This is due to the analyzed contextual feature, namely that speakers are required to give clear and precise instructions. In this type of situation, if there is a slightly ambiguous expression, the listener is confused and the purpose of creating text is not achieved. This has led to the high usage rate of nonmodal clauses (95.83%). However, the clauses carrying modal assessment were used only to a slight degree (4.17%). The following sections describe the

subcategories of the modal assessment used and explore their functions in relevant contexts.

3.1.2.1 The modal adjunct

Usage rate of modal adjunct subcategories is shown in Table 4. Propositional assessment clauses in the form of modal adjuncts were used twice, as follows:

(4)

“So basically 1 versus 1,” and
“Maybe, Shunta, Futa, Chichan, Kanta, Daisuke, Reon this way.”

The above were all used to explain the contents of training to players. The word *basically* was used here to indicate that players would not only do 1 v. 1 but also other contents. In the second example, the term *maybe* was used to show that the mentioned players were not the only ones who should play the role. In both cases, the propositional assessments were used to indicate that the proposition in question was tentative and negotiable (Derewianka, 2011). No speech functional assessment clauses (another type of modal adjunct) appeared.

Table 4. Usage rate of modal adjunct subcategories

Feature	N	Percentage
Total Units	21	
PROPOSITIONAL	2	
assessed	2	0.4%
non-assessed	19	3.77%
SPEECH FUNCTIONAL	0	
assessed	0	0%
non-assessed	21	4.17%

3.1.2.2 Finite modal operators

Usage rate of finite modal operator subcategories is shown in Table 5. Among the modal assessments, the most used were finite modal operators ($n = 18/3.57\%$). The following examples were used ($n = 10/1.98\%$):

(5)

- a) *"I can go this way,"*
- b) *"We can play,"*
- c) *"You can use the other one,"*
- d) *"You can make a mistake,"* and
- e) *"This one should be an easy one."*

All of these were used to provide explanations on how to do training. The finite modal operators here enabled the coach to demonstrate the probability of something happening. In examples (5a-c) above, finite modal operators were used to tell players that the actions specified in the slots of the Predicator were not mandatory but optional. In examples (5d, e), they were used to fine-tune arguments (Eggins, 2004). Without these, players may have felt pressured by the coach. All of these finite modal operators played an important role in making "the speaker sound cautious, balanced, and academic and can be regarded as a tool to create a less authoritative, more suggestive tenor," (Eggins, 2004, p. 334). As this kind of democratic behavior by coaches tends to be preferred to more autocratic methods (Martens, 2012), the use of modality seems to be one of the important lexico-grammatical items to foster positive social interactions between coaches and players.

The modulation types appearing as obligation ($n = 8/1.59\%$) are illustrated below:

(6)

- “You must go forward,”*
- “You can start,”*
- “Hey you should play,”*
- “You gotta at least try mate,”*
- “Your feet must never leave the ground,”* and
- “You must have it in the air.”*

These are declarative-command types, as discussed in 3.1.1.2. All of these clauses served the function of command, irrespective of their disposition with regards to demanding immediate actions on players. Since the analysis of mood choices in interaction leads to the discovery of power balance (Eggins, 2004), it appears that, in the studied register, finite modal operators can be regarded as one type of lexico-grammatical element that can be used by coaches to show their superior status over players.

Table 5. Usage rate of finite modal operator subcategories

Feature	N	Percentage
Total Units	18	
MODAL TYPE	18	
modalization	10	1.98%
modulation	8	1.59%
MODALIZATION TYPE	10	
probability	10	1.98%
usuality	0	0%
MODULATION TYPE	8	
obligation	8	1.59%
inclination	0	0%

4. Summary of the analysis and pedagogical implications

In this section, a summary of interpersonal metafunctional analysis and its pedagogical implications is provided as in Table 6.

Table 6: Summary and pedagogical implications of the interpersonal metafunctional analysis

	Significant frequency of analyzed systems	Pedagogical implications for explicit teaching
Mood system	<u>Major clause types (48.37%)</u> imperative (22.86%) declarative (20.22%) declarative statement (10.73%) declarative command (9.49%) interrogative (0.16%)	- Teach how to make imperative and declarative forms. - Teach when to use the two types of commands; declarative command and imperative. - Teach how to give information (e.g., playing tips) by forming declarative forms.
	<u>Minor clause types (51.63%)</u> exclamative (2.02%) call (10.73%) well-wishing (6.22%) alarms (32.66%)	- Encourage learners to try to call players by their first names - Teach how to encourage players by using positive words such as <i>well done</i> , <i>nice</i> , <i>excellent</i> , and <i>what a pass</i> .
	<u>Veiled clause types (Subcategories of alarms) (32.66%)</u> veiled statement (14.46%) veiled command (16.95%) veiled question (1.24)	- Tell learners to take into consideration whether he or she should construct a full mood block or not. (e.g., Tell them to avoid constructing mood block to omit old information when giving brisk instruction to the players.)

Modal assess- ment system	<u>modal adjunct (0.4%)</u>	<div>- Introduce modal adjuncts as a tool to indicate the proposition is tentative and negotiable.</div> <div>- Teach modal verbs as a tool to make the coaching sounds cautious, balanced, less authoritative and more suggestive.</div>
	<u>Finite modal operators (3.57%)</u>	
	modalization (probability) (1.98%)	
	modulation (obligation) (1.59%)	

As stated above, it is possible to explain lexico-grammatical resources regarding interpersonal metafunctions used during coaching by native speakers of English, and explicitly teaching them to Japanese coaches.

This paper considered the preparatory stages of language instruction for Japanese learners who wants to go overseas for football coaching. It examined how contextual factors in football coaching are reflected in the professional football coach’s actual coaching texts, from the viewpoint of SFL’s interpersonal metafunction. In addition, it discussed what kind of vocabulary-related and grammatical resources were extracted, to provide pedagogical implications on how they could be used for the purposes of explicit instruction.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, as a preparatory stage of language instruction for Japanese coaches who wish to teach football overseas, the authentic coaching language texts of one professional football coach were analyzed from a perspective of SFL’s interpersonal metafunction. I examined what kind of lexico-grammatical resources tend to appear. On the basis of these, I presented an educational language suggestion.

In this way, it can be said 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. On the contrary, traditional Japanese English education can be said to be a bottom-up approach, in that it firstly covers individual grammar items in a complete manner.

To select appropriate lexico-grammatical resources according to “purpose,” it is necessary to understand the characteristics of each one. In bottom-up language education in Japan, we already emphasize this point, so we can make use of this prior knowledge, and, by adopting the top-down method, a mutual complementary effect can be expected.

As mentioned at the beginning of this paper, besides academic study abroad to overseas higher education institutions, there have been many people who have sought to build their careers in nonacademic fields. Thus, the importance of establishing language-supporting systems will be increasingly recognized in the future. Using the SFL-based analysis framework as deployed in this study, it is possible to present language learning materials reflecting social and cultural contexts to learners who wish to study in areas with special characteristics. It can be also assumed that so doing will provide a more practical and authentic learning environment. However, it should be noted that using authentic materials that reflect social and cultural aspects of “football coaching” as extracted in this research may help learners in conducting effective football coaching abroad; this is possible on the premise that they will attain a certain level of English language proficiency.

In this paper, five authentic coaching texts were analyzed, but this is insufficient in a quantitative sense. Accordingly, the pattern of lexico-grammatical resource usage in interpersonal metafunction revealed here cannot be generalized as a feature used by coaches whose native language

is English during basic football training. In other words, it is possible that it depends on an individual's coaching style. In the future, I would like to analyze additional texts and explore universal linguistic features in football coaching. Furthermore, in this paper, I analyzed the texts in the framework of interpersonal metafunction. SFL also has two more major analytical frameworks of ideational and textual metafunctions. Especially, by adding a transitivity analysis using the notion of the ideational metafunction, the idiosyncratic features of the coaching content may be clarified. Consequently, in future research, I would like to consider including a transitivity analysis in the exploration of coaching texts.

Notes

- 1) The *Spoken Discourse Project* (SDP) has been conducted by the Adult Migrant English Program, which was administered by the Australian government and focused on the analysis of spoken texts, in addition to pedagogical issues and approaches in teaching literacy as a part of adult ESL programs. A major purpose of the project, both for teachers and researchers, was to increase knowledge and understanding of how authentic spoken language data can be used in teaching English as a second language to adult immigrant learners. SDP resulted in the collection of samples of natural spoken data, analyses of the data using theoretical principles current in discourse analysis, and case studies of practical approaches to the use of this data in adult language classrooms.
- 2) This viewpoint can be applied to the analysis of differences in usage between declarative commands and imperatives (see the section 3.1.1.2).
- 3) Those who comment on the contents of the proposition are engaging in propositional assessments. These indicate that the perspectives of speakers and listeners are propositional assessments that are speech functional (Halliday, 1994).

Funding source

This study was conducted using funding provided by the Ministry of Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number JP16H05942).

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Professor Tatsuki, who is my PhD supervisor at Doshisha University, for his guidance during this study. I also thank Mr. Imaya, the director of TOC, for providing the authentic coaching text used in the study.

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