

# Constituted Associated Lexical Signifiers for Discourse Cohesion in Selected Sports Presentations on Radio Stations in Ibadan, Nigeria

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## Abstract

This study probes into the associated lexical signifiers that are constituted to achieve cohesion by the sports presenters on the radio. The study examines the occurrence of each lexical signifiers in the presentations made by sport presenters on the radio stations. The lexical signifiers are categorised into reiteration and collocation. Reiteration comprises repetition, synonym/near synonym, antonym, hypernym-hyponym relation, co-hyponym, and holonym-meronym relation while collocation consists of complementary, converse, and link schema. The study employs Saussurean's model of language structure as the theoretical background for exhuming the associated lexical signifiers that are constituted in the study. Thirty sport presentations were randomly selected from five radio stations as data for analysis in this study. The presentations were recorded and afterwards transcribed to examine the exhibitions of the constituted lexical signifiers. The results from the analysis show that reiteration is more actively engaged by the sport presenters than collocation. Repetition is the most prominent form of reiteration just as complementary is the most recurrent form of collocation in the study. The study suggests that radio presenters should ensure mutual balance between the semantic and cognitive processes that they deploy in their presentations.

## Introduction

Sports discourse is famous in human language due to the influential power it has on the people. It is a contemporary aspect of discourse that entices everyone across the globe as every human, at various dimensions, is actively involved in one kind of sports or another (Nwanne, 2010). This kind of discourse deals with specific form of language use and specific form of social interaction which are interpreted as a complete communicative event in social situations (Olagunju, 2019). Sports discourse refers to the communication, discussion, and analysis surrounding sports-related topics, events, and issues. It encompasses conversations, debates, commentary, and writing about various aspects of sports, including games, athletes, strategies, rules, controversies, and the broader cultural and social implications of sports in society (Muhammad Pharook, 2014; Muhammad, 2015). Sports discourse can occur in various forms, such as in-person conversations, media broadcasts, social media discussions, and written articles, and it often involves a range of perspectives, opinions, and analysis related to the world of sports (Morakinyo & Agu, 2005; Liu & Lin, 2012). Sports discourse is institutional in nature because it is decorated with communicative processes that are enriched with dynamism, openness, and discreteness (Shekhovskaya, 2020). This kind of discourse triggers the relation of the subject to the sociocultural domain where they adapt and generalised certain perspectives and approaches (Muhammad Pharook, 2014). The sociocultural domain gives insight into the uniqueness of sports communication through spoken description of the cognitive-pragmatic processes involved in communication.

Sports in the media is a very famous phenomenon because it has very great influence on the audience. It is considered as an instrument to establish conversation because it is executed discursively and rhetorically (Gerogalou, 2009). This kind of discourse is branded by employing continuous lexis in the presentations being made on the media. The analysis of the various fields of sports relies predominantly on the notion of discourse and language. Sport discourse in the mass media exists through direct oral communication (live broadcasting), indirect oral communication (news programmes and messages), and written communication (sports reports, bulletins, editorials) (Shekhovskaya, 2020). However, it has to do with fusing sports culturally with communication. Sports is a field in which all kinds of cultural, political, and psychological issues are usually associated (Horky, Baranovskaa, Grimmer, Jakubowska & Stelzner, 2019). This is because the media is an important arena in which sports discourse about national identities are continually articulated (Gerogalou, 2009).

Discourse has a significant influence on listeners' enjoyment and absorption as it may increase or decrease the enjoyment of a broadcast sporting event (Smith, Myrick & Gantz, 2019). Sports analysis in the media has been studied to have linguistic quality, entertainment value, and has enhanced the popularity of the reporters before the recipients (Horky et al, 2019). The analysts help to influence listeners' perceptions (Smith et al, 2019) because the manner in which sports is written or broadcast reflects who we are and what other people are to us because sports provides information about our beliefs and attitudes (Gerogalou, 2009). Sports in the media is very significant to the development of the entire globe because it is an instrument of national identity, national unity and bilateral relations among nations and continents (Shekhovskaya, 2020).

Also, every aspect and kind of sports is peculiar as each has a particular set of register identified with them (Olagunju, 2019). Certain lexes are identified with each aspect of sports, hence analysts need to acclimatise themselves with the peculiar linguistic expressions that are branded with each kind of sports. Words are signified to specify certain semantic functions in discourse. The importance of lexical items in denoting meaning in discourse cannot be overemphasised as they are employed to perform communicative function (Udofot, 2011). Hence, this study is therefore unique, as it is devoted to exploring the associated lexical signifiers that constituted to achieve cohesion in discourse in the text of sports presenters on the radio which is an arm of the mass media in Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria.

### **De Saussurean Model of Language Structure**

This model of language structure was introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure (1974) to distinguish two kinds of signifiers (Pancerz, 2015; Chiu & Lu, 2015). Saussure's dyadic interest of sign was exclusively on the kinds of foundational connections that exist between a signifier and a signified. The signified is the content or meaning while the signifier is its expression or realisation (Clarke, 2013). That is, the connections between a sign and the greater part of alternate components of its framework; and the connections that exist between a sign and the components which encompass it in an occasion of solid meaning (Namaziandost, Shafiee & Rasooyar, 2018). Signs that co-exist in semiotic systems enter into two types of relations with other signs. These relations are paradigmatic and syntagmatic (Clarke, 2013). The value of a sign is controlled by these two relations. They are the basic structures in which signs are

arranged into codes. These two measurements are recurrently exhibited as axes. The vertical axis is paradigmatic and the horizontal axis is the syntagmatic. The former is concerned with substituting while the latter is concerned with situating in a language structure (Namaziandost et al, 2018). Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations are two vital semantic relations that are notable due to their strength in connecting terms together in knowledge organization systems (Peters & Weller, 2008). These two dimensional structures are used to examine the phonological, syntactic and semantic systems of language (Chiu & Lu, 2015). They are complementary relations adopted by structural linguistics in analysing language through segmentation of utterances into elements. These approaches center on synchronic descriptions by analysing structural units synchronically as well as describing the distributions (Olujide, 2007).

Paradigmatic relation is also identified as an associative relation (Adedimeji, 2005; Pancierz, 2015). It is widely used in thesauri and other knowledge organization systems in a number of contexts (Chiu & Lu, 2015). Paradigmatic relation is concerned with the available options or choices that might be changed without violating grammatical or lexical patterns (Adedimeji, 2005). It holds between concepts or words which belong to the same phonological, morphological, grammatical and semantic categories which exist between words that can be substituted with another word in the same categories (Onoye, 2014; Pancierz, 2015; Namaziandost et al, 2018). It is a fixed, inflexibly united concept relations employed to control vocabularies (Peters & Weller, 2008). One member of a paradigm is followed by another and combined to form a chain (Clarke, 2013). It can be identified as an ‘off-line similarity’ structure (Onoye, 2014) or as an association of similarity, in such a way that, words involved stand in complementary distribution (Adedimeji, 2005; Geeraerts, 2010). The relation can also be formalised hierarchically within a classification scheme (Peters & Weller, 2008). It exists between concepts which include synonym, antonym, hypernym, hyponym, meronym, and holonym (Onoye, 2014; Pancierz, 2015). However, Peters and Weller (2008) are of the view that knowledge representation plays prominent functions in paradigmatic relations because they are meaningfully employed in general or domain-specific representations or organisation models. These relations are categorised into relations of equivalence (repetition, synonyms and quasi-synonyms), relations of hierarchy (hypernym, hyponym, holonym, meronym) and associative relations. In paradigmatic relation, a paradigm is followed by other paradigms which combine together to form a chain. It is a group of associated signifiers or signified that are components of certain defining classification but which are different from each other (Clarke, 2013). It constitutes the choices available to fill a linguistic slot (Adedimeji, 2005). Paradigms involve selection and are based on contrasts or differences (Clarke, 2013). The paradigms of a word are thus choices that can be made in place of the word as they are structurally used to replace another word. The choice of one has to do with ignoring the other (Adedimeji, 2005). A member of a paradigm is structurally replaceable with another. This implies that choosing one excludes the others. The choice also brings up intertextually the other signifiers that are absent in the text (Clarke, 2013). Paradigmatic relations hold between words that occur in similar contexts; they are also called relations in absentia because paradigmatically related words do not co-occur (Lapesa, Evert & Schulte im Walde, 2014). Paradigms can be

phonemic, morphemic, lexical, phrasal, clausal or sentential as long as they share same linguistic or grammatical features (Adedimeji, 2005; Geeraerts, 2010).

On the other hand, syntagmatic relation is not committed to concept but simply in the definite co-occurrence of expressions within certain setting (Peters & Weller, 2008). It is a conceivable outcome of blend which suggests intra-literarily to different signifiers that co-exhibit inside the content (Namaziandost et al, 2018). This relation manifests within single document or between keywords assigned to a document and can be described as network (Peters & Weller, 2008). Intertextually, it refers to other co-present signifiers (Clarke, 2013). It is a relation which enjoys an agreement of positioning in the sentence or text (Chiu & Lu, 2015). It is the structural bond that links morpheme, words, phrasal, clausal and sentences together in an order. The order holds on the horizontal axis or axis of chain (Adedimeji, 2005). The syntagmatic axis bears upon the possibility for lexical elements to enter into larger whole with other elements of the language such as compounds and derivations in the morphological realm, and constituents and sentences in syntax (Geeraerts, 2010). Syntagmatic relations are quick straight relations between units in a segmental succession. The mix of two words or word-bunches; one of which is changed by the alternate structures or as a unit is alluded to as syntagmatic (Namaziandost et al, 2018). This relation constitutes 'on line' co-occurrences (Adedimeji, 2005). This relation is a syntactic string of words or linguistic units that forms a part or some larger syntactic unit. It is a linguistic unit consisting of a set of linguistic forms that are in a sequential relationship to one another (Akbarov, 2016). The linguistic forms are phonemic, word, phrasal or sentential in nature. These linguistic forms depend largely on the level of analysis. It is also an orderly set of interacting signifiers which form some meaningful whole that are governed by some explicit and implicit rules and conventions. It involves combinations that are based on ordering and the possibilities of combination (Clarke, 2013). It is syntactically indivisible. It is united. As a syntactic model of connection, it deals mainly with word formation and meaning (Akbarov, 2016). However, paradigmatic relations can also be expressed syntagmatically. This is because paradigmatic related adjectives tend to co-occur within the same sentence with nouns at the subject or predicative position (Clarke, 2013). Generally, both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations enable the language users to peruse concept classifications for appropriate search terms and also help users to demand expansion (Peters & Weller, 2008). The relations emphasise systematic analysis of language (Olujide, 2007).

### **Lexical Signifiers**

This deals with the use of lexical devices in achieving cohesion. It involves making use of the characteristics and features of words as well as the group relationships among words. There are words that are used repeatedly; some words are used as umbrella terms under which other words coexist (Osisanwo, 2003; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2017). Some lexical ties are long while some are short. These lexical ties spread over larger pieces of discourse (Mahlberg, 2006). That is the reason lexical cohesion is exhibited on the surface of the text. These lexical devices enable cohesion to signal the relations between the structures in the text (Adiantika, 2015). The cohesive force between lexical items in a text is the overall frequency in the system of the

language (Ayodabo, 2002). This implies that the higher the frequencies of a lexical item, the smaller the role it plays in lexical cohesion in the text.

The appearance of lexical cohesion in discourse implies that there are some semantic relationships between text items. These include reproducibility and co-occurrence (Li, 2013). Reproducibility is relation of the vocabulary in referring to a particular word in the original word. These relations are synonyms and approximate meaning word which can be categorised as antonyms, hyponyms, and other forms that reappear in the discourse (Mahlberg, 2006). Sentences in a discourse link each other by this relationship of reproducibility. Co-occurrence means the relationship between or among words in the discourse based on the tendency of the common occurrence (Lyon, 2015). Lexical signifiers in discourse are therefore regarded by Li (2013) as the most prominent and important form of convergence. Their manifestations are the major means of creating discourse forms and they account for more than half of quantity of discourse cohesion. These lexical signifiers are categorised mainly into reiteration and collocation.

### **(a) Reiteration**

Reiteration means saying or doing something several times (Osisanwo, 2003). It is the repetition of a lexical item or the occurrence of some words in the context of reference. This is a situation where the two occurrences have the same referent (Ayodabo, 2002). Reiteration has to do with restating a word (or a phrase) by either direct repetition or using the lexical relations for that word such as synonyms, antonyms, hypernyms, meronyms and others (Shahriar & Pathan, 2012). The repetition of the lexical relations in discourse brings about cohesion (Salkie, 1995). Making a decision regarding the usage of various lexical items is only a matter of understanding the importance of different lexical relations (Shahriar & Pathan, 2012). Both the speaker and the writer have to decide whether to repeat or use a synonym or a superordinate in order to enhance the prominence of such lexical item in discourse analysis (McCarthy, 1991). Reiteration pertains to the repetition of a lexical item, either directly or through the use of a synonym, a superordinate or a generally related word (Hameed, 2008). As lexical device for achieving cohesion, it manifests through relations which include repetition, synonym or near synonym, antonym, hypernym-hyponym, and holonym-meronym relation.

- (i) **Repetition:** Repetition is the most obvious type of lexical cohesion. It is also known as recurrence. It is the usage and reoccurrence of the same word or group of words that have the same grammatical form (Ogunsiji & Farinde, 2013). Also, repetition may and may not be of the same lexical item (Lyon, 2015). It is not restricted to the repetition of the same morphological form of the lexical item. This propels Hameed (2008) to identify partial repetition. He argues that partial repetition is a situation that a word reoccurs in a different morphological form. Such a word can be altered by inflection, derivation, or compounding. Repetition contributes to clearness and continuity in text (Lyon, 2015). It helps to avoid ambiguity just as frequent repetition of a particular lexical item may reduce the degree of informativity in the text and produce redundancy.
- (ii) **Synonym or Near Synonym:** Synonyms is the usage of words with similar meaning in the same text which leads to a cohesive relation between them (Lyon, 2015). Near

synonyms do not normally have the same meaning but are somewhat synonymous based on the way they are used in the text. Synonyms are two or more forms with very closely related meaning, which are often but not always, intersubstitutable in sentences (Yule, 1996). The idea of sameness in meaning which is used in the explanation of synonyms is not necessarily total sameness. Some words may be appropriate in a sentence but its synonyms may be odd. The formation of certain synonyms may be different in terms of formality. It is the lexical relation that involves different phonological words with similar meaning (Onoye, 2014). This relation manifests as different dialects (tap and faucet), different registers (victory and win), collocational restriction (boy and lad), and portraying positive or negative attitude of the user (activist and militant).

- (iii) **Antonym:** These are words that are the opposite of another word (Rohmawati, 2014). It is the relation between items of opposite meanings in discourse (Bahaziq, 2016). Any two forms of word with opposite meanings are referred to as antonyms (Yule, 1996). Antonyms may be gradable in nature; these are antonyms that are used in pairs. They are used in comparative constructions but the negative of one of the members of the gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. Another type of antonym is the non-gradable; antonyms that are used in complimentary pair. For non-gradable antonyms, comparative constructions are not normally used. Antonyms such as ‘male-female,’ ‘true-false’ are non-gradable. There is also the reversed antonym. These are the reverse of the given word. An instance is ‘pack-unpack,’ ‘literate-illiterate,’ etc.
- (iv) **Hypernym-hyponym relation:** Hypernymy is derived from ‘hyper’ which means ‘over, above, or beyond’ (Onoye, 2014). It is a superordinate word or phrase because it is a lexical relation of class which includes other terms (Lyon, 2015). Hypernyms serve as the umbrella term for others (Ogunsiji & Farinde, 2013). It is the relationship between general and specific term (Rohmawati, 2014) as the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another which is higher in rank (Yule, 1996). Hyponymy is a hierarchical one, and it exists between two terms in which the sense of one is included in the classification of the other. It is a term whose referents consist of a set which serves as subset term. Hypernym as a term can be regarded as a superset, an umbrella which houses or covers other terms that are less in hierarchy. It is the genus, class, a broader category of the concept defined. It is a blanket term because it is general, exhaustive, and encompassing other terms while the relation of hyponym captures the idea of the phrase ‘is comprised / consist / made of’ (Yule, 1996; Onoye, 2014). Hypernym-hyponym relation is a class-member or superordinate-subordinate relation which reflects the taxonomy of conceptual hierarchy. Champions’ League is a hypernym which include Bayern Munich, Barcelona F.C, and Liverpool F.C. as hyponyms. FIFA is also a hypernym for subordinate terms like Nigeria Football Federation, English Football Association.
- (v) **Co-hyponym:** Lexical items of the subset or subordinate category can also be referred to as co-hyponyms. Words that are co-hyponyms are constituents of the same broader term (hypernym). These constituents are called co-hyponyms (Hanks, 2018). The semantic relationships among each of the constituent words are specific. Words such as ‘daisy,’ ‘hibiscus’ and ‘rose’ (co-hyponyms) are the broader term of ‘flower’ which is the

hypernym or inclusion (Onoye, 2014). Round, square, oval, oblong and rectangle are co-hyponyms of the broader term 'shape.'

- (vi) **Holonym-meronym relation:** Holonymy is the opposite of meronymy. It is the relationship between a term denoting the whole and a term denoting a part of, or a member of the whole. Holonym as a lexical item refers to the whole which has parts (meronym). It is the quality of being the whole in a holonymous relation while meronymy means the objects that are denoted by one are parts of those denoted by the other (Lyon, 2015). It is the relationship between part versus whole (Rohmawati, 2014). Meronymy is in a way similar to hyponymy, because it also reflects hierarchical relationships between lexical units. These whole-part relationships between words are based simply on close connection in everyday experience (Yule, 1996). The close connections can be based on a container-contents relation (can-juice), a whole-part relation (car-tyre, body-hand, door-handle) or a representative-symbol relationship (king-crown).

### (b) Collocation

Collocation appears to be more problematic than reiteration as lexical devices. This is because cohesion is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly occur together. It includes pair of words drawn from the same order of series (Ayodabo, 2002). Collocation occurs when pairs of words are not necessarily dependent upon the same semantic relationship but rather they tend to occur within the same lexical environment. The closer the lexical items are to each other between sentences, the stronger the cohesive effect that they have (Bahaziq, 2016). Some words appear to move very closely together in discourse. The mention of one brings to mind the other member of the group. This is because the two words collocate (Osisanwo, 2003). These items may include combinations of adjectives and nouns, verbs and nouns, and other lexical items (Paltridge, 2012; Bahaziq, 2016). Collocation is the company that words keep. This company has to do with words that occur with certain words in the same environment (Ogunsiji & Farinde, 2013). Words that co-occur lexically occur within the same linguistic or lexical environment. Writers that are versatile in the use of language know which items can collocate. And to determine the words that go with another, the field or subject of discourse must be put into consideration. Writers exhibit through their text lexical collocation, grammatical collocation and idiomatic collocation (Paltridge, 2006; Shahriar & Pathan, 2012). Collocation in linear semantic representation can also be identified as nominal collocation, verbal collocation, adjectival collocation and prepositional collocation (Mohammed & Mashael, 2007). However, this study examines the three salient types of lexical collocation in discourse identified by Osisanwo (2003) because they are different from those identified by scholars above. They are complementary, converse and link schema.

- (i) **Complementary:** Things are said to be complementary because they are different from each other but make a good combination (Hanks, 2018). Things that are complementary combine well together or look attractive together, often because they have different qualities. It is a situation in which a word goes well with another word. Words are complementary if they are matching, corresponding, compatible, reciprocal, interrelating, interdependent, and harmonizing.

- (ii) **Converse:** The converse of a statement is its opposite or reverse. It is used to introduce a statement that contrasts with a previous statement or presents a differing interpretation or possibility. It is used when the elements of a proposition are reversed. These opposing statements pertain to those that are diametrically opposite to some propositions (Houghton, 2014). Converse is a set of statements (clauses or sentences) that are nearly opposite to each other while antonyms are lexical items (words) that are nearly opposite to each other (Osisanwo, 2003).
- (iii) **Link Schema:** This is an image schema that consists of two or more entities that are physically or metaphorically connected in discourse. The connection exists that there is a bond between them (Johnson, 1992). There is an adhesive force or cord that holds such expressions together. Words such as ‘dribble, foul, goal, win’ can be linked with football match. The links in discourse can also be compared to the bond between a mother and child, the doctor and patient, teacher and student, and so on.

### **Methodology**

This study employs qualitative research method of the survey type as it provides analytical and comprehensive data for the research. Data from sports presentations from the selected radio stations were used to find out whether there were manifestations of lexical signifiers that were utilised to achieve cohesion in the utterances of sports presenters on radio stations in Ibadan metropolis. Sports discourse from five radio stations were purposively selected for this study. Such discourse include presentations made by one-man or by panel of analysts on the radio. These radio stations were selected based on their strategic locations as a radio station was selected from each Local Government Area in Ibadan in order to allow wide coverage of the study in Ibadan. Thirty presentations on various issues in sports were considered in the study. This implies that six presentations were considered from each of the selected radio stations. The presentations cut across various kinds of sports that were analyzed by presenters on the radio. These presentations were purposively selected for analysis. The selected radio stations comprise:

1. 100.5 - Inspiration FM, No 7 Osuntokun Avenue, Ibadan (Ibadan North)
2. 92.5 - Impact Business Radio, Akobo, Ibadan (Ibadan Northeast)
3. 107.1 – Noble FM, Bopa Hill, Ologuneru, Ibadan (Ibadan Northwest)
4. 105.5 - Splash FM, Felele, Ibadan (Ibadan Southeast)
5. 92.9 - Royal Root FM, Jericho Area, Ibadan (Ibadan Southwest)

Since the study was intended to come up with unprompted assessment of the inherent lexical signifiers employed in the utterances of the presenters, the researcher did not notify the radio stations in order to get accurate, natural and unprompted data that were analysed in the study. However, the researcher recorded the presentations of sports analysts on the selected radio stations in Ibadan metropolis into tape. These recorded presentations were afterward transcribed into written texts so that the lexical signifiers in their utterances could be exposed.

Ferdinand Saussure’s model of language structure is employed in analyzing this study. It is the theoretical tool that was used to analyze the presentations of the sports analysts in order



to investigate the lexical devices that were inherent in their discourse. From each of the presentations, lexical items were examined to ascertain the extent at which each of the lexical signifiers is inherent in the presentation of sports presenters on radio in Ibadan metropolis. These devices were analysed using their occurrence in each datum and simple percentage was used to analyse the manifestation of each device based on the thirty presentations considered in the study.

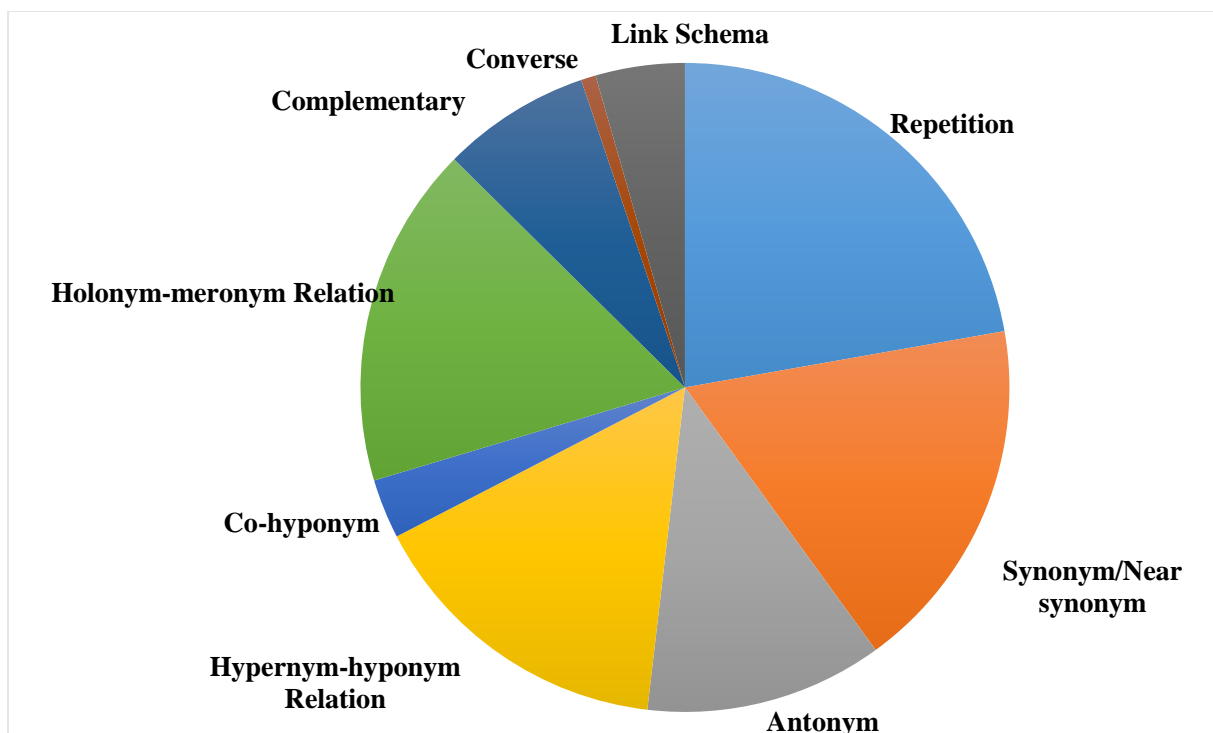
### Result and Discussion of Findings

The presentation and analysis of data in the study reveal that all the lexical signifiers examined as variables work together to account for the manifestation of cohesion in the selected sports presentations during the pandemic lockdown. The analysis reveals that the lexical signifiers of a particular datum can only be acknowledged through a careful study of the variables or elements of reiteration and collocation. However, the manifestations of the lexical signifiers in all the thirty data were considered in order to find out the number of datum that manifest each of the variables of the signifiers using the table below:

**Figure 1: Table on Analysis of Manifestations of Lexical Signifiers Based on the Datum**

Lexical Signifiers		Manifestation based on number of presentations	Percentage
a. Reiteration	Repetition	30	100%
	Synonym/Near synonym	24	80%
	Antonym	16	53.3%
	Hypernym-hyponym relation	21	70%
	Co-hyponym	04	13.3%
	Holonym-meronym relation	23	76.6%
b. Collocation	Complementary	10	33.3%
	Converse	01	3.3%
	Link Schema	06	20%

The table above is represented using the chart below:



The table above reveals that reiteration in the discourse has elements which comprises repetition, synonym/near synonym, antonym, hypernym-hyponym relation, co-hyponym, and holonym-meronym relation. Repetition manifests in all the data examined. Synonym/near synonym is reflected in twenty-four (24) out of the thirty (30) presentations with a percentage of eighty (80%). Antonym occurs in sixteen (16) presentations and has a percentage of fifty-three point three (53.3%). There is manifestation of hypernym-hyponym relation in twenty-one (21) presentations, that is, at seventy percent (70%). Co-hyponym takes place in four (04) presentations which is at thirteen point three percent (13.3%). Also, holonym-meronym relation occurs in twenty-three (23) presentations and at seventy-six point six (76.6%) level of occurrence.

On the other hand, collocation is examined, as a component of lexical signifiers in the study, using complementary, converse, and link schema. Complementary occurs in ten (10) presentations and it has thirty-three point three percent (33.3%) level of manifestation. Converse is exhibited in one (01) presentation and it has three point three percent (3.3%) level of occurrence. The link schema has its appearance in six (06) presentations with twenty percent (20%) level of manifestation.

### Conclusion

It is obvious that there are definite configurations in the text which depend on the structure of a particular sentence. The interpretation of one item in the utterance of the presenter is dependent on the other. This is necessary for the listeners to grasp the purpose that the presenter has in mind when producing a text because it enables the text to be properly projected in a

social situation. This is because the devices give the listeners insight into how the presenters structure what they want to say, and at the same time, serve as crucial factor in our judgment on whether something is well stated or not. Therefore, the study of lexical signifiers is a useful apparatus for the analysis of discourse in social situations. This is possible because discourse is a constituent of sentence connections. It is not an ordinary arrangement of items but a language style in which each part of the text originally combines into a united whole. These connections guide the listeners towards comprehension which is at par with the possible intentions of the presenters. These connections exist vertically and horizontally. Therefore, sports presenters should see language as an important weapon that is used to express content and meaning by practically influencing their listeners. They should ensure balance between the semantic and cognitive processes employed in their presentations.

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