A Study on Morpho-Syntactic Patterns: A Cohesive Device in Some Persian Live Sport Radio and TV Talks

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Abstract

Morpho-syntactic patterns device encompasses a subcategory of the cohesive devices that assists hearers to have an adequate mental representation for understanding speech. This article investigates the morpho-syntactic patterns employed in some Persian live sport radio and TV programs adapting Dooley and Levinsohn’s theoretical and analytical framework. The research data includes around 30,000 words extracted from 20 live sport radio and TV recorded programs. The morpho-syntactic patterns functionality is presented via comparing their frequency using descriptive statistics. The t-test is run to evaluate whether the differences in the utilization of morpho-syntactic patterns used in live radio and TV talks is significant or not. The results show that such patterns in Persian can be studied in the same way as Dooley and Levinsohn’s perspective, among which consistency of inflectional categories receives the most frequency while echoic utterances do the least. The consistency of inflectional categories catches a meaningful difference between its applications in the research data. Furthermore, there are not significant differences between the application of echoic utterances and discourse-pragmatic structuring in the corpora. Finally, morpho-syntactic patterns device, generally speaking, is reported as not having any significant relation in its applications in Persian live radio and TV talks under study.

Keywords: Cohesive Devices, Morpho-Syntactic Patterns, Consistency of Inflectional Categories, Echoic Utterances, Discourse-Pragmatic Structuring, Live Talks

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1. Introduction

Cohesion has a semantic concept which refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text and that define it as text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Giving a brief definition, Dooley and Levinsohn (2001, p. 27) suggest that cohesion is regarded “as the use of linguistic means to signal coherence” (see also Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Brown & Yule, 1983)). When an entity is a reference to another in the text, cohesion takes place (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In fact, it “expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 299). Grammatical and lexical signals of cohesion reveal how some parts of the text link up conceptually with other parts of texts (Dooley & Levinsohn, 2001). In any language, such grammatical and lexical devices connect the discourse items together and create texture. This means the property of being a text. These entities form cohesive relations or devices between sentences and elements in sentences; so, they help the texts to be coherent (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Also, Morris and Hirst (1991) put forward that cohesion is the textual quality that makes the sentences of a text hang together.

After Halliday and Hasan (1976) provided a framework on cohesion, many researchers have attempted to explore different aspects of this textual relation in discourse. One of these viewpoints is Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001) model which is regarded as a modified version of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Brown and Yule’s (1983) frameworks toward cohesion ties. They have proposed six main categories for cohesion sub-types, namely, descriptive expressions, identity, lexical relations, morpho-syntactic patterns, signals of relations between propositions, and intonation patterns. The morpho-syntactic patterns device, in turn, comprises three elements including consistency of inflectional categories, echoic utterances, and discourse-pragmatic structuring.
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The reason why it is important to run this type of analysis on live speech and talks is that they have a dynamic genre and form the major share of radio and TV programs. Proper engagement of radio and TV programs with their audiences depends on a good choice of speech that leads to an appropriate response on behalf of their audience. Thus, they have been designated as the corpora for the present research. It is worthy of notice that spoken languages on radio and TV programs are different in nature. While radio programs are just audible, TV programs are audiovisual i.e., TV programs benefit from visual elements as well as verbal interactions. Visual elements consist of body movements, the speakers’ gestures, various pictures and written materials and many other elements like everything in the physical context. However, radio programs just focus on sounds, such as the speakers’ discourse and signature tones. Thus, to have appealing radio and TV programs so as to catch the attention of many audiences, the style of radio and TV program presentations should be taken into account (Tolson, 2009). As a result of interacting with their addressees, radio and TV programmers can start social interactions with them and invite the addressees to interact with them. Hence, it is useful to examine to what extent the use of various subtypes of cohesive devices can profits and support them in attracting more and more audiences. As analyzing all these devices is outside the scope of the present article, just morpho-syntactic patterns device as a subtype of cohesive devices will be dealt with and others can be studied in subsequent articles.

Therefore, after having observed the linguistic items representing the morpho-syntactic patterns’ sub-devices occurred in live sport radio and TV talks, the authors were sufficiently encouraged to examine and evaluate the rate of their utilization in order to compare their frequency of occurrence in the corpora. Given the observations raised above, the present research
addresses the following main research question: ‘Is there any significant difference between the use of morpho-syntactic patterns in live sport radio and TV talks?’ In accordance with the main research question, the minor research questions are as follows:

1. Is there any significant difference between the use of consistency of inflectional categories in live sport radio and TV talks?
2. Is there any significant difference between the use of echoic utterances in live sport radio and TV talks?
3. Is there any significant difference between the use of discourse-pragmatic structuring in live sport radio and TV talks?

Along the lines of the given research questions, the research main null hypothesis is: ‘There is no significant difference between the use of morpho-syntactic patterns in live sport radio and TV talks’. Furthermore, the research minor null hypotheses are:

1. There is no significant difference between the use of consistency of inflectional categories in live sport radio and TV talks.
2. There is no significant difference between the use of Echoic utterances in live sport radio and TV talks.
3. There is no significant difference between the use of discourse-pragmatic structuring in live sport radio and TV talks.

Through examining the research questions and null hypotheses, the probable similarities and differences between the application of morpho-syntactic patterns in the radio and TV data can be assessed as well as approved or rejected. In addition, it makes clear that to what extent the use of each sub-type contributes people – who are participating in live sport radio and TV talks – to make such oral texts more cohesive.
2. Literature Review

After the publication of Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) view on cohesion, a large number of studies about cohesion analysis aroused. Most of these studies were dedicated to the potential function of the cohesive system in text analysis. Previous researches on analyzing cohesion have mainly been done on grammatical cohesion such as conjunction, substitution, reference, and ellipsis in English written texts (e.g., works of Gutwinski (1976), Stotsky (1983), Bennett-Kastor (1986), Coulthard (1994) and Parsons (1991, 1996)). There were also researches about cohesion in other languages as well (e.g., Russian in Simmons (1981), English and Hindi in Kachroo (1984), Spanish in (Mederos Martin, 1988) and (Casado Velarde, 1997), English and Japanese in Oshima (1988), and Persian in Roberts, Barjasteh Delforooz and Jahani (2009)).

It seems that majority of the previous studies had adopted Halliday and Hasan's (1976) methodology in analyzing cohesion in different Persian texts, and the authors found a few studies carried out on cohesion based on Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001) model (e.g., Roberts, et. al. (2009), Ahangar, Taki, ad Rahimi (2012), Ahangar, Jafarzadeh Fadaki and Schhati (2016)); more specifically there was not any research exclusively conducted on the analysis of morpho-syntactic patterns. Consequently, the literature review embraces a brief review of the analysis of cohesion as a whole in different texts.

Focusing on Halliday and Hasan (1976), Fazl-Ali (1995) explored ellipsis in Persian stories written by Al-e-Ahmad and Daneshvar, and reached to the conclusion that verbal ellipsis is the least frequently used device in that data.

Mozaffar-Zadeh (1998) described and analyzed ellipsis and substitution in science books at guidance school and concluded that Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) classification about ellipsis and substitution can also be extended to Persian. In addition, he provided the frequency of occurrences of these two devices. Roberts et al. (2009) studied Persian discourse structure and described different aspects of discourse analysis such as cohesion and coherence in 16 Persian stories using Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001) analytical methodology. They also dealt with the style of working on discourse studies in Persian language. However, as they have stated, their study is just an introductory work which guides people in knowing how discourse studies in Persian can be managed based on Dooley and Levinsohn (2001). Rostami Abu-Saeedi (2010) analyzed cohesive ties in English as a foreign students’ writing. He concluded that both good and poor writing scripts were highly dense in the application of conjunctions, reference and lexical cohesion, while ellipsis and substitution were used less frequently in the writing tasks.

Sanatifar (2011) analyzed pro-form substitution as a cohesive device in English and Persian. He dealt with the probable differences and similarities between their applications in the two corpora and examined their frequency of occurrence. Yang and Sunb (2012) studied the use of cohesive devices in argumentative writings in Chinese sophomore and senior EFL learners. Their sample was Chinese sophomore and senior EFL learners. They realized that ellipsis and substitution devices were mostly used in spoken language and were rarely used in formal written style. Around 56.67% of the sophomores and 70%
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of the seniors did not apply ellipsis and substitution in their writing because they knew that it was inappropriate to use these devices in formal writing.

Ahangar, Taki and Rahimi (2012) investigated conjunctions in Iranian live sport radio and TV talks based on Dooley & Levinsohn (2001). They observed that associatives were most frequently used while adversatives were the least. Additives, adversatives, and developmental markers (but not associatives) held a meaningful difference between their applications in the research data. Besides, they concluded that conjunctions had a significant relation in their application in the two sets of data.

Ahangar, Jafarzadeh Fadaki and Sehhati (2016) studied lexical relations device in speech of elderly Alzheimer patients and non-patients and found that, except for collocation, there was a significant difference in the other two subsets i.e., part-whole and hyponymy. Finally, they concluded that there was a significant difference between the utilization of lexical relations in the speech of non-patients and elderly Alzheimer patients.

As mentioned earlier, most of the studies on cohesion of languages are primarily based on Halliday and Hasan (1976). Moreover, Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001, p. 30) view is almost an introductory work. Thus, the authors aim at illustrating the concepts of Dooley and Levinsohn (2001) on morpho-syntactic patterns in Persian via examining further texts than those they have provided, to see whether their point of view can be extended to Persian live sport radio and TV talks or not.

3. Research Framework

According to Dooley and Levinsohn (2001), morpho-syntactic patterns offer many opportunities for cohesion. There are three types of these patterns, namely, consistency of inflectional categories, echoic utterances, and discourse-
pragmatic structuring. In what follows, a brief explanation for each sub-type is given.

First, a sequence of clauses and sentences can show consistency of inflectional categories, i.e., consistency of time in verb inflections; for example, tense marking in example (1) illustrates this feature:

(1) bæ?d ?æz moddæt=i ke ?un værzcš-kar ?æz
    after from time=IND CLM that sport-work from
qæhreman-i dur mi-š-e væ
champion-NMSUF far IMP-become.PRES-3SG and
mí-r-e kenar baznešæst mí-š-e dige
IMP-go.PRES-3SG side retire IMP-be.PRES.3SG other
kæm-tær hal= ēš=o mí-pors-im
few-COMP status=PC.3SG=OM IMP-ask.PRES-1PL

‘After a while, when that sportsman gets away from championship, and retires, we rarely inquire about him.’

(Sport & People, November 11, 2011)

Here, the prefix mi- which comes before all the verbs in example (1), shows imperfective mood that suggests all the verbs in this example have simple present tense. This suggests that all of these verbs are events within the main narrative sequence. Alborzi (2007) maintains that it is necessary to use consistency of inflectional categories in daily speeches. This device does not have an active potential for connecting parts of speech, but if we want to consider a sequence of sentences as a text, consistency of time should be presumed. The importance of this subject is revealed especially in narratives. In this kind of texts time refers back to the sequence of the events being explained in the story.
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Second, according to Dooley and Levinsohn (2001), there is a kind of morpho-syntactic repetition in echoic utterances, i.e., a speaker intends to copy all or part of an earlier utterance. In other words, by using an echoic utterance, the speaker calls attention back to the already stated utterance in order to express a comment about it. This feature is shown in example (2):

(2)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{night}=\text{EZ} & \quad \text{to} \quad \text{memory} & \quad \text{stay-NMSUF}=\text{INDEF} & \quad \text{bud} & \quad \text{be.PAST.COP.3SG} \\
\text{væq}?:\text{en} & \quad \text{ke} & \quad \hat{s}e\text{b}=\text{e} & \quad \text{be} & \quad \text{jad} \\
\text{really} & \quad \text{CLM} & \quad \text{night}=\text{EZ} & \quad \text{to} \quad \text{memory} & \\
\text{mand}[:en]=\text{i} & \quad & \text{bud} \\
\text{stay-NMSUF}=\text{INDEF} & \quad & \text{be.PAST.COP.3SG} \\
\end{align*}
\]

‘It was a memorable night! – Really! It was a memorable night!’

(Ninety, November 13, 2011)

By taking Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001) view into account, it can be understood that here the intention of the speaker can be grasped in two ways: whether he has repeated his partner’s words ironically, because contrarily he believed that it was an awful night because of having an accident in heavy snow; or he has just repeated his partner’s utterance in order to comply with him. No matter what can be understood from an echoic utterance, it makes reference to a preceding saying and leads to a cohesive tie.

Third, cohesion in morpho-syntactic patterns includes ‘discourse-pragmatic structuring’. Here, what matters for us is ‘POINT OF DEPARTURE PLUS PREDICATION’ (2001, p.31). Levinsohn (2012, p. 39) prefers the term ‘CONTEXTUALIZING CONSTITUENT’ for point of departure and Dooley and Levinsohn (2001, p. 68) use the term ‘STARTING POINT’ for this kind of element. Levinsohn (2012, p. 40) believes that these constituents which appear at the beginning of sentences have a twofold function: they are the starting
point of a communication and provide a basis for relating a sentence to its context or mental representation. It means that it relates the forthcoming utterances cohesively to what is already in the context or is expected to be accessible in the hearer's mental representation. Dooley and Levinsohn (2001: 68) explain these points of departures by the following examples:

(3) So after waiting another two hours, it was finally announced, “Train … will be leaving…” (2001: 19)

(4) About half way there, there was some nice couple. (2001)

Dooley and Levinsohn (2001, p. 68) quote that ‘points of departure set a spatial or temporal domain within which the main predication holds’. This suggests that points of departure provide the temporal or spatial setting for the subsequent clauses. Therefore, these elements can be adverbs of time or adverbs of place. In telling a story, points of departure can anchor events to their specific context based on time and place (Levinsohn, 2012). Thus, example (3) contains temporal point of departure and example (4) contains spatial point of departure. Example (5) is taken from our research corpora with its points of departure being underlined:

(5) **?un sal fek mi-kon-æm je mæ mu?e**
    
    that year think IMP-do.PRES-1SG one collection
    
    **besjar xub=i ro ma dašt-im**
    
    very good=INDEF OM we have.PAST-1PL
    
    ‘I think that year we had a very good collection (of football players).’

    (Towards Glory, November 6, 2011)

Furthermore, in example (1) presented earlier in this article, the first clause (‘when that sportsman gets away from championship…’) is regarded as a ‘pre-nuclear subordinate clause’, i.e., it has also a point of departure, which sets a temporal domain within which the main predication holds, because Roberts et
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al. (2009) treat bæ?d ‘after’ as a “developing connective’. Such clauses are back-grounded in relation to ‘discourse-pragmatic structuring (Dooley & Levinsohn (2001, p.83), further discussed in Levinsohn (2012)). So, example (1) both shows consistency of inflectional categories and at the same time, proves that the text includes discourse pragmatic structuring, because it provides a temporal setting for its subsequent clause.

In addition, the use of adverbs of time and place has considerably been important in the corpora under investigation, because they provide a basis for relating sentences to their contexts. For instance, take the following example into account:

(6) nder næhajet do baizi=e mohem hæm hæfte-j=e
    in end two game-HI=EZ important also week-HI=EZ
    gozæfte ba tim=e melli-j=e ?rbestan=e ?udi daft-im
    past with team ational-HI=EZ Arabia =EZ Saudi have.PAST-1PL

‘Finally, we had two important games with Saudi Arabia national team last week.’

(Towards Glory, November 7, 2011)

Here, the point of departure which has been underlined links the following predication to something which hearers are assumed to have already in their mental representation. So, nder næhajet ‘finally’ refers to a time frame that is grounded in the present time.

4. Method and Material

The present study determines the frequency of application of morpho-syntactic patterns – in terms of consistency of inflectional categories, echoic utterances and discourse-pragmatic structuring – in live sport radio and TV talks. Live
talks have been selected because they are mainly similar to daily conversations, in which they are less formal and less pre-planned. The haphazardly recorded research data contained around 30,000 words extracted from 20 live sport radio and TV talks produced in November 2011. The radio programs included The “World of Football Sport”, “Towards Glory”, “Science and Sport”, “Fall in Step with Sport”, “Fall in Step with the League”, “Morning and Sport”, “The Cradle of Health”, and “The World of Wrestling Sport”. These are the titles of some radio sport programs in Iran. Also, the TV programs were: “Sport from the Second Channel Viewpoint”, “Niney”, “Everyday Sport”, “The Golden Circle of Wrestling”, “Friday with Sport”, “Today Sport”, “People and Sport”, and “Citizenship Sport”. These are the titles of some radio and TV sport programs in Iran Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001) perspective on cohesion system was adopted as the theoretical framework so as to analyze these sub-devices in the research corpora.

In order to determine the frequency of morpho-syntactic devices in each corpus, descriptive statistics is employed. Like other cohesive devices, the morpho-syntactic sub-types have explicit linguist signals in texts that can be counted up. Looking up accurately through the research corpora, the authors searched for any of the three sub-categories mentioned above, and carefully classified the examples in each of the sub-types. Therefore, to give a more accurate account of the aforesaid devices represented in the radio and TV samples, the number of occurrences of these three sub-types which were appropriately used in the corpora was counted. By finding the extent to which each sub-type of morpho-syntactic devices was applied in live sport radio and TV talks, the percentage of occurrence of each sub-type in the two sets of data could be evaluated. Accordingly, the most and the least frequently used sub-types were determined in the corpora under investigation.
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The Independent Samples t-test was used to clearly compare the data at hand and to illustrate whether the differences between the mean percent morpho-syntactic patterns were meaningful or not by looking at the amount of \( p \) in the tables. The p-value in statistical significance testing, as Goodman (1999a, 1999b) states, is defined as the probability of obtaining a test statistic result at least as extreme as the one that is observed, by assuming that the research null hypothesis is true. If the p-value is less than a predetermined significance level, often 0.05, the research null hypothesis will not be approved. This result indicates that the observed result would be highly unlikely under the null hypothesis. Many statistical tests e.g., Student’s t-test, make test statistics that can be interpreted by using the amount of p-values. Thus, if \( p \) is less than 0.05, it will be concluded that the differences between the applications of morpho-syntactic patterns in the two corpora are statistically significant, i.e., live sport radio and TV programs are different in the application of the given device. But if it is not the case, we realize that the radio and TV data are similar in the application of that device. In other words, the extent of utilization of each device in each corpus shows how speakers in live sport radio and TV talks apply each sub-type of morpho-syntactic patterns to best transfer their intention to their audiences and help them find an adequate mental representation to entirely understand what they really say.

5. Results and Discussion

In this section, the results of morpho-syntactic analysis are presented:

5.1. Analysis of Consistency of Inflectional Categories

It should be noted that sentences in both radio and TV programs were selected to be equal in order to have accurate comparison and analysis. Table (1)
contains descriptive statistics for consistency of inflectional categories, i.e. consistency of time in verb inflections:

**Table 1. The Frequency of Occurrence of Consistency of Inflectional Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consistency of inflectional categories</th>
<th>TV</th>
<th>Radio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on table (1), there were 282 cases of consistency of inflectional categories in the radio data, and 249 cases in the TV corpus. To address the first minor research question, i.e., ‘Is there any significant difference between the use of consistency of inflectional categories in live sport radio and TV talks?’ the employed t-test is presented in table (2) as follows:

**Table 2. Independent Samples Test for Consistency of Inflectional Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consistency of inflectional categories</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.788</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>3.30000</td>
<td>1.84541</td>
<td>-.57707</td>
<td>7.17707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>1.788</td>
<td>17.509</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>3.30000</td>
<td>1.84541</td>
<td>-.58487</td>
<td>7.18487</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of table (2) show that for consistency of inflectional categories the amount of t is 1.788 and df is 18. So, p is equal to 0.091, so it is higher than 0.05 (p = 0.091 > 0.05). Thus, statistics reports that there are not any significant
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differences in the application of this device in the research corpora. Accordingly, the first minor research null hypothesis which indicates that there is no significant difference in the use of consistency of inflectional categories in the research corpora will be approved. Also, a look at table (1) reveals that as there are considerable amount of consistency of inflectional categories utilization in the research corpora, it can be concluded that participants in live sport radio and TV talks tend to have a more understandable communication by using tense marking.

5.2. Analysis of Echoic Utterances

Table (3) illustrates the frequency of occurrence of echoic utterances:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Echoic utterances</th>
<th>TV</th>
<th>Radio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (3) shows that there were totally 9 cases of echoic utterances in the radio corpus, and 11 cases in the TV data. To address the second minor research question, that is, ‘Is there any significant difference between the use of echoic utterances in live sport radio and TV talks?’ the relevant t-test is shown in table (4):
Table 4. Independent Samples Test for Echoic Utterances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T-test for equality of means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t  df</td>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>-0.406 18 .689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-0.406 17.414 .689</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table (4), here $t$ is equal to -0.406 and $df$ is 18. So, $p$ is 0.689 and higher than 0.05 ($p = 0.689 > 0.05$). It shows that echoic utterances do not have any significant relation in their application in the corpora, i.e., there are similarities in the utilization of this device between the corpora. Thus, the second minor research null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the use of echoic utterances in the research corpora will be approved. Additionally, table (3) suggests that the speakers in live sport radio and TV talks do not resort to this sub-type of morpho-syntactic patterns in order to have a cohesive speech. Therefore, since echoic utterances have a low frequency in live sport radio and TV talks, they do not deserve further investigation in such programs.
5.3. Analysis of Discourse-pragmatic Structuring

Table (5) illustrates descriptive statistics for the score of each variable:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. The Frequency of Discourse-Pragmatic Structuring</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discourse-pragmatic structuring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of table (5) show that, there were 136 cases of discourse-pragmatic structuring in the radio group, and 168 cases in the TV group. To address the third minor research question, i.e. ‘Is there any significant difference between the use of discourse-pragmatic structuring in live sport radio and TV talks?’ the employed t-test is presented in the table (6):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6. Independent Samples Test for Discourse-Pragmatic Structuring</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-test for equality of Means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table (6), df is equal to 14.339 and t is equal to -2.639. In addition, p is 0.019 and lower than 0.05 (p = 0.019 < 0.05). It shows that this is a statistically significant relation. Thus, there are differences in the application of discourse-pragmatic structuring in the corpora. Therefore, the third minor
research null hypothesis which suggests that there is no significant difference in the use of discourse-pragmatic structuring in the research corpora will be rejected. Moreover, as the temporal or spatial settings have an important role in sport talks, the use of adverbs of time and place would have a high frequency, because they provide a basis for relating sentences to their contexts.

In addition, as far as the use of discourse-pragmatic structuring is concerned, the TV data reports higher extent of discourse-pragmatic structuring application. Thus, participants in TV talks –rather than participants in live sport radio talks – tend to have a more understandable communication by the use of this sub-type of morpho-syntactic patterns. Of course, these claims require to be proved through further researches.

5.4. Total Analysis of Morpho-syntactic Patterns

Table (7) illustrates the frequency and total percentages of morpho-syntactic patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>morpho-syntactic patterns</th>
<th>TV</th>
<th>Radio</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency of inflectional categories</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>58.17</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>66.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Echoic utterances</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse-pragmatic structuring</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>39.25</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>31.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of table (7) indicate that there were 427 cases of discourse-pragmatic structuring device in the radio corpus among which 66.04% of occurrence belong to consistency of inflectional categories, 2.10% belong to
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echoic utterances and 31.85% belong to discourse-pragmatic structuring. As to
the TV corpus, there are 428 among which discourse-pragmatic structuring has
58.17% of occurrence, echoic utterance device frequency of occurrence is
2.57%, and discourse-pragmatic structuring is 39.25% of occurrence. To
address the major research question, i.e. ‘Is there any significant difference
between the use of morpho-syntactic patterns in live sport radio and TV talks?’,
the final t-test is presented in table (8):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T-test for equality of means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>-.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-.490</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table (8), here t is equal to -0.490 and df is equal to 18.
Therefore, p is 0.630 and higher than 0.05 (p= 0.630>0.05). It shows that there
is not any significant difference in the use of morpho-syntactic patterns device
in the research corpora. Thus, the research main null hypothesis which states
‘There is no significant difference between the use of morpho-syntactic
patterns in live sport radio and TV talks will be approved. Moreover, the data
analysis reveals that all these sub-types of morpho-syntactic patterns device

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were used in live sport radio and TV talks to have a cohesive speech. Signals of cohesion in such talks help speakers to have a cohesive speech and to provide an adequate mental representation for their audiences. Here, the statistics which were present in talks were described as exactly as observed in some sport talks carried out in live radio and TV programs studied in the present research. So, the conclusions on this type of prescriptions which are based on these statistics do not seem sound compared with the reporters’ talks since it is what the reporters do and it is not clear whether it is successful or not. Correspondingly, that can be a topic for further researches. As a result, it is necessary for the participants in such programs to get familiar with factors which make their speech cohesive, and learn how to use these devices in live sport radio and TV talks. Besides, both in the radio and TV corpora, the order of occurrences of morpho-syntactic patterns sub-types is as the following:

- Consistency of inflectional categories>
- discourse-pragmatic structuring>
- echoic-utterances

Therefore, consistency of inflectional categories is the most frequent sub-type of morpho-syntactic devices and echoic-utterances are the least.

6. Conclusion

The present study dealt with comparing the frequency of the morpho-syntactic device in live sport radio and TV talks. Some implications can be drawn from this research, the most important of which is that morpho-syntactic patterns in Persian can be studied in the same way as Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001) view. In live sport radio and TV talks, people employ a considerable amount of morpho-syntactic devices among which the consistency of inflectional categories is the most frequent while echoic utterances are the least. So, it can be concluded that tense marking has an important role in making such talks
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cohesive. The second mostly used sub-type is discourse-pragmatic structuring. Because the temporal and spatial settings have an important role in sport talks, the use of adverbs of time and place has a high frequency in live sport radio and TV talks as well. The least frequently used sub-type is the class of echoic utterances. This implies that echoic utterances do not have an important role in making such texts cohesive. Hence, in consistency of inflectional categories and echoic utterances there is not any significant difference in their application in the research corpora, i.e. radio and TV talks. Consequently, the occurrences of the two sub-types are almost the same in research data. Conversely, the application of discourse-pragmatic structuring denotes a significant difference in the radio and TV corpora. Finally, the analysis of morpho-syntactic patterns as a whole signifies that there are similarities in the application of this cohesive device in Persian live sport radio and TV talks. In the present article, the statistics extracted from the live sport talks and the relevant conclusions, in comparison with what the reporters do, would not appear to be sound because what the reporters perform is not obvious whether to be successful or not. Consequently, it deserves further studies. The authors also suggest other researchers to compare the results of the present study with the results of similar topics done in other languages to see whether Dooley and Levinsohn’s (2001) opinion is applicable and generalizable in other languages or not. They also suggest researchers to study these sub-sets of morpho-syntactic patterns device as one of the cohesion devices in other on-live radio and TV programs which have social, cultural or economical genres or programs.
References


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**List of Abbreviations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Affix boundary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Clitic boundary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>First person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Third person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLM</td>
<td>Clause linkage marker</td>
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<tr>
<td>COMP</td>
<td>Comparative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COP</td>
<td>Copula</td>
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<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>Degrees of freedom</td>
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<td>Ezafe</td>
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<td>HI</td>
<td>Hiatus</td>
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<td>IMP</td>
<td>Imperfective mood</td>
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<td>Indefinite</td>
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<td>NMSUF</td>
<td>Noun making suffix</td>
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<td>Object marker</td>
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<td>probability</td>
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<td>Past tense</td>
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<td>Pronominal clitic</td>
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<td>Plural</td>
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<td>Present</td>
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<td>REST</td>
<td>Restrictive</td>
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<td>sig.</td>
<td>Significance</td>
</tr>
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<td>SG</td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>std.</td>
<td>Student’s t distribution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>