The Language of Football Commentaries in British English and Egyptian Arabic: A Contrastive Study

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Abstract

The language of football commentary is a field worth researching due to the extensive media coverage of most football sporting events, the significant financial investments made in that field, and the huge audience obsessed with all football events. Comparative studies of football commentary in Egyptian Arabic and British English very rarely analyze systematic areas. The subject of the current study is an example of a type of monologic discourse in which the audience is not also physically present with the commentator, and thus the commentator is unable to communicate verbally or nonverbally with the remote home viewers. The current research reveals accumulative levels of interpretation between English and Arabic football commentaries according to lexical, syntactical, and pragmatic features sequentially. The current work is distinguished by its thorough examination of pragmatic characteristics and how they relate to other aspects in their context. The study displays how the three aspects interact to fulfill certain discoursal functions. In terms of the nature and characteristics of this type of discourse, the current study comes to some important findings. The Arabic examples offer more convincing evidence in favour of the use of illocutionary speech act models. The audience is drawn in by the Arabic commentary since it is more intriguing and appealing. In comparison, the majority of English samples use the locutionary speech act force. However, English commentary frequently favors the reporting strategy over the interactive situation. The comparative analysis of the English and Arabic
corpora shows similarities between the two languages, especially in
the way that commentators in both English and Arabic use the
chosen linguistic devices to serve discoursal functions. However,
similarities can be found because commentators, regardless of the
language used in commentary, rely on specific linguistic structures
that facilitate their work.

**Keywords:** Language of football; Register; Pragmatics; Sports
Announcer Talk; Qualitative methodology.
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1. Introduction:

Language is a complex form of communication. Verbal forms of communication hold unique features that are more persuasive than written language. Lyons (1981) asserts that communication begins when a speaker selects a message he wants to communicate and transforms it into a transmittable shape through a process of linguistic encoding. This study attempts to provide a pragmatic analysis of the role of communicative language in the field of sports, especially in football matches. Football commentators transfer what happens on the pitch to the audience as they depict all incidents on the pitch in their own words, expressions, and imagery. Jakobson (1960) pointed out that types of spoken language were best described within a framework of general functions, which were given the names: referential, persuasive, expressive, and instructive. Wilson (2000) claimed that these basic categories could be illustrated regarding more specific uses of the language for which he used the term "functional styles" or registers. Although definitions of register vary, Ferguson (1994) describes it as "a communication situation that occurs regularly in society, that has developed identifying markers of language structure and language use."

Commentators, according to Beard (1998), usually use specialized technical words and phrases to describe the players’ positions or the tactics of the game. This research analyses the register or style of commentators in English and Arabic matches. One line of this study has focused on analyzing monologic discourse. Wilson (2000) states that speech is most natural and uncomplicated as a medium when
there is an addressee and an addressee who is present and can hear the speaker and respond. Wilson continues "Speech is more complex as a medium when one or more of these features are absent". However, the fact that the commentator addresses home viewers who are listening to him while watching the match on their screens makes it necessary for the commentator to make his commentary audible, clear, and informative as he is not speaking to himself but rather addressing home viewers. Beard (1998) and Wilson (2000) found that one of the main linguistic features that characterize sports commentary is the use of specialized language. This may go beyond the use of distinctive lexical items to include particular syntactic structures.

2. **Aim and scope of the present study:**

   One clue to the identification is the subject matter and the specialized vocabulary and structures of football language. According to Ferguson, the form and context of football commentary's words serve as an independent register. On the one hand, this paper will go back and classify three key aspects of football commentator vocabulary. Some concern will be directed to lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic clues, but the primary purpose is the pragmatic dimension of using this register. The primary analytic approach adopted here is that of speech act variation. The pragmatic analysis could be helpful in explaining the possible sources of various aspects of sports announcer talk.

   Such broadcasts start with background information about the game, the occasion, the teams, and so forth. The essential aim is to characterize the language of football commentaries in British English and Egyptian Arabic football matches. The primary data for this study consists of recordings of segments of internet-based live football matches. Samples were obtained from Arabic and English commentaries on football matches. A comparison is going to be displayed, according to the chosen sample, between British English
matches and Egyptian Arabic. The English and Arabic corpora that were gathered and examined in the current study were both taken from live commentary that was commented on by adult professional male commentators who are native speakers of the various languages used in commentary. The researcher chose the matches and the commentators to offer the content for the current study by following the procedures listed below. The first half-times were chosen from the English and Arabic matches, not the second. This method was chosen because the researcher noticed that the occurrence of (color commentary)CC style, where full sentences are most existed, is more relevant in the first half when the commentator tries to brief his audience on things like the squads of both teams, the history of each player, the substitutes, and the coach, as well as the history of each team in previous matches. Arabic and English samples of similar length were recorded so that particular language devices could be studied. Three matches in each language were recorded, and three first halves from those six games were chosen. The length of each half-time is about 45 minutes, plus an extra one or two minutes, totaling 135 minutes in each language. Few studies deepen that trend in the British English language. As far as I know, no Arabic studies tackle the pragmatic perspective during their analysis. A lot of linguists deal with the syntactic or lexical factors of the football language.

3. Previous studies:

This review of the literature shows that most of the studies of sports commentary have often focused on political, ideological, or cultural meanings. Other studies tackle the spoken and written forms of sports commentary language. William (1977) and Real (1989) focused on handling a special analysis of sports to identify the structural features associated with different sports in different cultures. Williams (1977) analyzed American football to state the structural constituents of televised football broadcasts. Although Williams (1977) focuses more on the nonverbal aspects rather than the audio section.
Along the same line, Real (1989) conducted a comparison between “soccer”, the American English equivalent of the British term “football”, and American football, referring to the cultural and structural dispositions with which each is associated. Another level of consideration was the degree of masculinity, i.e., the number of male players, coaches, and spectators that are mostly male.

In another study discussing gender issues in sports discourse, Duncan and Messner (1998) compared the explication of men’s sports media coverage with women’s sports reporting, checking the number of considerable areas such as “formulae of exclusion”, a term introduced by Foucault (1994 as cited in Wenner 1998). Duncan and Messner employed a linguistic analysis of the televised sports commentary coverage of several men’s and women’s basketball tournaments. Duncan and Messner stated that televised sports commentary needs more considerable power in stating audiences’ expectations about how players would perform. In doing so, they organized some characteristics of the players that are socially visible by bringing those features to the audience’s regard and simultaneously made other attributes socially invisible.

Sabo and Jansen (1998) investigated some of the discoursal functions of sports that reflected ideals of masculinity. Sabo and Jansen indicated that the corpora-based research on sport-in-broadcasting, published since 1980, pointed out primarily on women athletes, specifically on the approaches that female athleticism was objectified and devalued by sports logical practices that reveal manly heroism and norms.

Comisky, Bryant, and Zillmann (1977) examined in their study how television commentary played a part in spectators’ perception and realization of the play. Comisky et al. (1977) argued that television viewers do not see the game as the viewers inside the
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stadium see it. Whereas the spectators in the stadium comprehend the ongoing events directly, the television viewers perceive the events via the medium. Comisky et al. stated that sports commentary fits to “compensate for imperfections produced by the visual style in creating live commentary”.

Wenner(1989b) indicated that such commentary that displays great hostility between opposing teams tries to show the televised sporting event more breathtaking. Hitchcock (1991) proposed that commentators are often guided to create a feeling of nonconformity between competitors so viewers react emotionally if aggressive hostility is shown.

Bryant et al., (1977), in their study of American football commentary, set the degree of commentary devoted to the description in contrast to dramatic or comical productivity in CC. The previous study was classified into three types:” dramatic, humorous, and descriptive”. Bryant stated that more than one-fourth of the televised commentary in football matches was dramatic, which would seem to be rather important. The study reveals that the aim of providing a play-by-play description of a great share of game commentary of television broadcasting coverage is to allocate dramatic ornamentations picture of the game.

None of these studies, except for Beard (1998), Ferguson (1983), and Wilson (2000), have mentioned the linguistic features of different kinds of sports discourse or tackled the way that various linguistic devices are employed in those types to serve several discoursal functions.

Wilson(2000)suggested that despite the nature of football commentary which depends on monologic features, such discourse forms assume many characteristics of interpersonal communication. The basic classification that clarifies this style of language assigns
this language as a kind of functional style or register. Wilson stated that the language of football commentary could have been structured by certain formulas that correspond to its purpose, i.e., the use of different types of ellipsis as an attempt to capture the actions instantaneously. Concerning the degree of formality, Wilson pointed out that football commentary may have certain expressions reflecting its nature; i.e., being a monologue addressed to an audience who is not co-present. The other basic factor was referred to as “the medium”, according to Montgomery et al. (1992). The main variance was stated between speech used in its natural form and more complex styles. Wilson pointed out that speech is natural and uncomplicated as a medium when there is one addresser and at least one existing addressee and response.

Beard (1998) and Wilson (2000) noted that the use of specialized language is one of the fundamental characteristics that crystallizes the language of sport in all its manifestations, including sports commentary. This may exceed the use of specific lexical items to include special syntactic structures. According to Beard (1998), commentators use specialized technical words and distinctive phrases to describe the players' position, pitch, and tactics of the game. He referred to the fact that sports commentators seek to obtain a wider linguistic repertoire because a specialized style of language gives any sport a different status and uniqueness.

Taborek (2012) illustrated in his study that football had a unique vocabulary that was used in specialized contexts, not just among young people but in many other areas of communication. For instance, regulation and science, the media, coaches and players, supporters, and it has been shown up in texts that were specific to this subject. Three frameworks existed for describing the football lexicon. The research highlighted Anglicism, metaphors, and antonomasia from the lexical richness of features. Additionally, the fields of applied linguistics known as bi- and multilingual lexicography and foreign language instruction were mentioned.
According to Addi and Kadhim's research paper (2022), their paper looked into the metaphorical images used in Chelsea and Arsenal's football commentary speeches. It was assumed that commentators frequently employ metaphor. It was noticed that the approach used was to first conduct a theory review of the use of metaphor and language in sports commentary and then analyze specific sports texts from a pragmatic perspective. The following are some of the study's key findings: The following are some of the study's key findings: Metaphorical images are quite obvious when they emerge. The use of metaphor by critics is common. One of the key elements that contributes to the commentaries' excitement is their use of metaphorical imagery.

Abdulmajeed, R. K., and Abdulmajeed, A. T. (2019) present in their research the amusement in British football commentary language from a pragmatic point of view by choosing two football matches of four British commentators: Martin Tyler, Andy Gray, Alan Perry, and Gary Neville. As a result, it aims to investigate the phases of commentary according to which the football commentary is considered humorous, identify the commentary strategies used by the commentators in each phase, and specify the pragmatic devices used in each strategy of football commentary that make these commentaries humorous. In the overall pragmatic structure of amusement in football commentaries, the three strategies—descriptive, dramatic, and humorous—are used to structure the commentary. Each strategy is variously fulfilled by means of specific pragmatic devices associated with it to achieve amusement (ibid.). Every sport has its own commentators, who are skilled at using various linguistic devices in their commentary that vary depending on the different sports and have specialised knowledge of the event. Some of them don't know how to draw in and entertain an audience, or they have unattractive voices, accents, or emotional pitches. On the other hand, some football commentators speak in highly technical terms to excite the crowd. Silence, metaphor,
metonymy, sarcasm, repetition, ellipsis, specific diectic expressions, hyperbole, pejoration, and slips of the tongue are among the pragmatic strategies that are part of the eclectic model of analysis. All of these pragmatic tactics violate the Grician maxims.

Lawrence, S., & Crawford, G.(2022) stated that new communication technologies have created new possibilities and challenges for the study of football as the digital revolution gathers speed. In response, scholars working in the social sciences and beyond have started to establish a brand-new academic discipline called "digital football studies”. The purpose of this paper is to recognise themes in the present research on digital football, pinpoint potential areas for further research, and start outlining some theoretical and conceptual practises that might better prepare academic endeavors for the study of football, and by extension leisure and sport, in the (hyper)digital era. Additionally, given the world's rapid shift to digital during the pandemic, researchers(ibid.) hypothesize that the creation of a collective venture for digital football studies will be crucial for the post-Covid-19 era. In order to ensure that it adds to discussions outside of its silos, they(ibid.) contend that digital football studies must expand theoretically and conceptually beyond their conventional frameworks, in which many of us feel at ease. In order to achieve this, this paper acts as a catalyst for a change in the frameworks employed in the study of football, in addition to mapping the current state of the field. This is not to say that "old” theorists are not useful, but it is to say that evolution is required and that continued engagement with contemporary social theory would benefit football studies if it were to continue to be taken seriously as a scholarly tradition both inside and outside of the social sciences and the academy more generally.

“According to the prosodic pattern of sports commentators’ speech”, Ferguson (1983) stated that prosodic features, such as
volume, the intonational movement of the voice, and variations in speed, were widely linked to the grammatical characteristic patterns of televised sports commentary. Moreover, Ferguson added that the prosodic patterns of sports commentary are closely bound to the rapidity found in the nature of sports commentary.

To my knowledge, there is only a single study that has conducted a contrastive study of televised football matches in Egyptian Arabic and British English. Hesham (2006) tries to identify the linguistic features of televised football commentary. His study made a categorization of certain salient discoursal and syntactic devices. These discoursal tasks include keeping up with the action's rapid pace, engaging the audience, and identifying players. The study includes imperative, rhetorical questions, ellipsis, pronouns of address, and passive voice.

However, this research has different perspectives than Hesham's study. The contrastive study of televised football matches in English and Arabic focused solely on the syntactic analysis of the data, which includes imperative, rhetorical questions, ellipses, pronouns of address, and passive voice. The focus of Hesham's research was the syntactical structure of sentences. But this research is built upon three pillars: the lexical aspect, the syntactic, and the pragmatic factor. The linking of the three pillars through the overall pragmatic perspective framework is what makes this research distinctive from the previous one. The main reading of this research is the explanation of how the three perspectives interact to fulfill a particular discoursal function. Illustrating the underlying meaning, which goes beyond the indirect structures, is the main concern of this study.

4. Theory and definitions:

The definition of the term sports commentary term is so broad to the extent that Crystal and Davy pinpoint the term as “a spoken account of events which are taking place“ (1969). However, the
most fitting explanation for sportscasting is “an oral reporting of an ongoing sporting activity “(Ferguson 1983). The commentator has to follow up on the flow of unexpected events happening on the pitch using unique terms or expressions. Moreover, he is forced to create in no time new terms or phrases in his mind that seem so specific to the language of football.

This singularity in most terms of football commentaries obligates linguists to study their language during commentating matches. Linguists find out that the language used by football commentators includes some unique features that make their speech worthy of deep study. They get down to analyzing the specific nature of the language of football commentary. Linguists’ researchers investigate the commentator’s perspective by using significant terms that they called register. Since announcers are presumed to say scripted dialogue while entering the commentary situation during a match, and since they are unlikely to use the same terms or expressions outside their chair, sports announcer talk (SAT) is systematized under different features called to register. SAT emerges or creates a great variety of sub-registers due to different channels (TV. vs radio), participants (commentators vs. viewers) or topics (soccer vs. basketball).

Research on pragmatics has begun to place more emphasis on examining the differences between various languages and societies. The field of corpus pragmatics uses corpora to explain how language is used in real-life situations. By utilizing corpora that can be accessed from anywhere in the world, corpus pragmatic research is uniquely suited to enable us to study various dialects of a language. Another obvious benefit of corpus pragmatic approaches is that they rely on ready-to-use data. By introducing novel perspectives to the subject of Irish corpus pragmatics, Ronan and Kirk's paper from 2022 enables researchers to broaden their
methodological toolboxes for dealing with pragmatics based on corpus evidence.

Register’s approach presumes the predetermined choice of linguistic features that are “commonly used in association with the communicative purpose and situational context of the texts” (Biber and Conrod 2009, p.2). Stating the categorization of the register of texts can spotlight the relationship between text and situation, and therefore provide ways to compare different text types and define each type separately.

The language of football commentators can be identified as a distinct register with unique linguistic characteristics. One must itemize these patterns and linguistic phenomena that characterize their register and thus can serve as register makers. The applied approach in this research is to try to pinpoint a presumed register of football commentators’ language by identifying situational or functional characteristics that show this certain register as a recognizable kind of language.

**4.1 Syntactic features /variables:**

**4.1.1 simplification/ellipsis**

The omission of a sentence-initial noun phrase (NP), the (NP) and the copula, and the post-nominal copula are labeled as ellipses features. Ferguson clarified it as a simple process of “erosion of less stressed elements of recurrent formulas”. Football commentators tend to use it spontaneously as a non-leisurely, informal, and exciting matter. Simplification follows firm rules. The most noticeable cases of simplification are either noun phrase (NP) or noun phrase plus copula.

For the noun phrase omission

{HE} hits again player no.3.

{He} gets bounced into the seats.

Ellipsis is mostly used in subtypes of commentary.TV commentators know that their audience follows the images on screen, so they tend to be more elliptical. On the other hand, radio
Commentators follow a more descriptive style during football commentary.

4.1.2 Inversion

Ferguson states that the unusual word order is a fairly common characteristic of sports commentary language. It works as one of the register makers. The action of delaying the subject or the originator of the action after the predicates gives the speaker the benefit of visually specifying the particular action being described to them before identifying the player. Rearranging the structure by delaying the subject at the end of the clause focuses the prominence on the most important element of the utterance.

4.1.3 Case grammar

The upcoming conceptual framework states the relation between syntax-grammatical description and semantic relationships between nouns, verbs, and other factors in the sentence. The sentence structure consists of a verb and one or more noun phrases associated with the verb in a specific case relationship. The classification of these cases defines the sentence types of a language associated with specific verbs. Fillmore (1968:3) tries to explain the use of the term (case) to describe the deep semantic relationship between constituents of sentences.

The upcoming cases focus on the underlying structure between syntactic components and semantic relationships between nouns and verbs. Fillmore (2003) uses proposition to mark a set of relations between nouns and verbs. The proposition aspect comprises a set of universal concepts among sentence constituents.

1- Agentive: An animated instigator of the action. Ex: X opens the door.
2- Genitive: the case of the attribute (my, her)
3- Dative: the case of an indirect object. The animated case is affected by the action. Ex: John killed Bill.
4- Vocative: used to name a person, animal, or object.
5- Locative: where the event happened. Ex: He moves to London.
6-Factitive: Case of being resulting from an action. Ex: I constructed the bridge.

7-Instrumental or ablative: a case of an animated force involved in the action. It expresses the instrument or method. Ex: X opened the door with the key.

8- Source: The point of origin or earlier point of any action. Ex: He went from the top of the hill to the gate.

9- Objective or accusative: a case of anything identified by a noun whose role is determined by an adverb. Usually the direct object. Ex: John opened the door.
Ex: I suspect that don't John loves Mary.
Ex: Mrs. Smith died.

4.2 Lexical features:

Giving a full account of football vocabulary or phraseology needs extensive consideration; such a long task is left to special researchers mostly dealing with this topic. General concepts and the most widespread lexical features will be briefly presented in such works that tackle different criteria by discussing the language of football commentary overall.

4.2.1 Formulae:

Based on Kuiper (1996), it was stated that sequential actions are associated with the formulae of language. This formularization is not attached to the idea of creating new vocabularies or even concerning new phraseology, but rather the way of describing recurrent events by using semi-fixed phrases to save time and keep the fluency of speech. The verbalization of certain constructed or semi-pre-constructed phrases with conventionalized functions is important to register the maker (Kuiper, 1996).

4.2.2 Synonymy:

It means sameness of meaning, in which two or more words are closely related by their meaning. Oald (2000:1319) defines synonyms as words or expressions that have the same or nearly the same meaning as another within the same language. From a
pragmatic approach to synonyms, Murphy (2003) defines a synonym as a set of word–concepts having the same contextually relevant properties but differing in form. The similarity is one of the conceptual frameworks to this theoretical notion. Similarity judgements require a dynamic process that shares some attributes in common between terms such as connotation, style, and register. The similarity is affected by the context reference as well. Two words may be called synonymous in certain contexts rather than in another context.

4.2.3 Antonymy:
Yule (2005) states that forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms. Words are called antonyms if their meanings differ in the value of one semantic feature (Parker and Riley, 2005). The most obvious divisions are gradable and non-gradable. Gradable antonyms can be used in comparative constructions to indicate graduation in levels. In non-gradable forms called complementary pairs, the notion of accepting one term means refusing the other. The third type is so-called relational or converse, which means both terms must exist simultaneously to carry a true value.

4.2.4 Metaphor: is a variety of figurative structures that bond the figurative meaning of an expression to its literal meaning? That means the use of the term (one concept) refers to another concept where the two concepts have common properties. The metaphor implies resemblance but without explicit comparison expressions ”similes”. Some linguists define metaphor as a pattern of thought instead of linguistic features. According to their definition, metaphor is an act of realization of any metaphorical expression.

4.3 pragmatic features
4.3.1 Speech act
Dell Hyme (1971) points out that human communication not only comprises knowledge of how to form certain linguistic structures
but also how to use these structures in a particular communicative context. Atkinson, Kilby, and Roca (1988:27) define pragmatics as “the distinction between what a speaker’s words (literally) mean and what the speaker might mean by his words”. Utterances supported by actions are called speech acts. The speaker produces certain kinds of communicative ways under specific labels such as apology, promise, thank, complaint, invitation, request, etc. The speaker assumes that through unique communicative conditions known as speech events, the hearer will be able to understand their communicative techniques. (Yule, 1996). Speech act theory is attached to action theory from one side and to language and language use from another (Bublitz, Norrick, 2011).

On any occasion, actions presented within the utterance framework will consist of three accumulative levels. The first is the “locutionary act, “which is the basic dimension of utterance to produce a meaningful linguistic expression. It looks after creating strings of words and meaningful utterances. According to Austin (1962), they are acts of speaking and uttering words in conformity with certain grammatical rules of a specific language. We perform any kind of utterance for a certain purpose, which is generally called an “illocutionary act”. The illocutionary act, Austin’s central innovation, is performed through the communicative force of utterance. We create a certain kind of utterance with a function to acquire a certain effect or response. This is shown in the third level “perlocutionary act”. The situation plays an important role in recognizing the effect of the utterance that the speaker intends, this is known as the perlocutionary effect. Austin sees it as a consequence or by-product of speaking that various feelings, actions, or thoughts are produced. Leech (1983) accounts for the perlocutionary act as a complex activity of achieving something through utterance. The perlocutionary effects that follow the verbs may vary between speech acts and intentions. The perlocutionary interpretation of the verb (convince) denotes a new state of opinion. While the verb (ask) requires achieving action by the hearer.
Speech act classification

There is no limitation to the list of all possible explicit performative verbs in any language. A general classification system of five major functions is used during speech act performance analysis.

1- Declarations: - Announce sentence veto. Some kinds of verbs change the world through their utterance. The speaker in this function must play an authoritarian role in a specific context.

2- Representatives: - The speaker in this kind of speech act states facts, beliefs, assentation, conclusions, and descriptions.

3- Expressives: - Express psychological states or the speaker’s feelings towards something or someone. For example, apologize, congratulate, and thank you.

4- Directives: - Some kind of performative verbs that are used to get somebody else to do something. They may be positive or negative. For example, ask, beg, demand, request, and command.

5- Commissives: - The speaker undertakes to do some future actions or intentions, such as offer, promise, swear, and vow.

4.3.1.1 Direct and indirect speech act

Modeled on the different approaches to distinguishing types of speech acts, the structural basis is a salient principle in processing speech acts analysis. This prominent basis is shown in three forms (“declarative, interrogative, and imperative”) and goes along with the three general communicative functions “request, question, and statement” (Yule, 1996). Whenever a relationship between a structure and a function is shown in any example, there is a direct speech act. But no relationship between structural and functional aspects generates indirect speech act. The indirect speech acts closely belong to politeness in English rather than direct ones. Many figures of speech belong to the non-literal sense because the speaker does not mean what is being said (Meyer, 2009). Adolphs (2008:27) endorses a quantitative point of view between non-conventional
indirect speech acts and conventional indirect speech acts. Conventional speech acts account for lexico-grammatical structures that belong to a specific function. On the other hand, non-conventionalized indirect speech acts are multi-functional that require complicated cognitive layers of interpretation.

4.3.2 Cohesion and discourse markers
Halliday and Hasan (1976) did not mention directly in their work the term discourse markers, but their analysis of cohesion included words (e.g., because, so, and, I mean, but) that have been called discourse markers. They propose that the interpretation of any structure can be located through a set of cohesion devices (reference, conjunction, repetition, substitution, and ellipsis). Cohesion is one side of the study of texture, in which meaning is transmitted into the digestible current of discourse (Halliday 1994: 311). The study of cohesion surpasses the borders of grammatical analysis to include semantic relations titled under the term textual metafunction (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). The framework of cohesive resources was structured as the following points.
Reference / Ellipsis / Substitution // Conjunction / lexical Cohesion
linguistic elements refer to participants or circumstantial elements. It includes demonstratives, pronouns, definite articles, and phoric adverbs.
Ellipsis:
One of the linguistic items is omitted. The nominal "would you want another cup?" is supposed to change.
Yes, another [cup] Please"
Verbal "Jan goes to the club and Tomas{goes} too .
Causal “Jan and his friends drank beer, Jan had his usual order, Tomas had a summer ale, and Mark [ had a summer ale] too”.
Substitution:
Set of linguistic rejoinders in English conversations that often take place through omissions; e.g., so and not for clauses, do for verbs, and one for nouns.

Reference, ellipsis, and substitution are considered forms of grammatical cohesion that include small classes of items (Gutwinski 1976). The relationship between a cohesive item and the suggested meaning in a text is referred to as a cohesive tie.

Conjunction: -
According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), this resource includes connectors between sentences, or clauses, excluding coordinating and subordinating linkers. While Gutwinski comprises all connectors.

Lexical cohesion:
The last grammatical cohesive resource is an open system item. It covers synonymy, repetition of lexical items, and collocation.

5. Analysis of data:

Arabic samples:-
Beard (1998) states that oral sports commentary on live matches is complex because of its simultaneous processing of what has been seen. Under the above point, the main challenge for live sports commentary, especially football, is to build a sense of “being there” inside the viewers’ minds, despite their distance (Gruneau, 1989, P.134). Once the British English and Egyptian Arabic corpora were collected, a linguistic analysis of football commentary was organized accumulatively according to three basic levels. The syntactic device includes several tools to be introduced side by side with the lexical course. Finally, the major discoursal track that is investigated is the pragmatic approach to setting up coherence between units of speech and finding out the discoursal function of each commentary unit. Arabic excerpts were
investigated via three levels of interpretation to account for the functional style of language.

Neither Abou Treka does participate from the beginning nor Omar Gamal.

As the camera shows Abou Treka is not included in the tactical Formation of the team nor Omar Gamal. Ellipsis takes place in the second Part (nor Omar Gamal) to be recovered ولا عمر جمال (nor Omar Gamal participates).

The perception of the elliptical form can be discerned from the visual focus on the screen. Recovering the missing factor depending on the visual content is called a situational ellipsis (Wilson 2000:62). The commentator tends to use an abbreviated speech style to avoid redundancy. The deletion of predicate or action verbs shifts the focus from the action to the agent. Keeping in mind the fact that the elliptical form plays an illocutionary force that acquires certain interpretations to state the indirect speech act model. The pragmatic analysis that always surpasses the borders of grammatical analysis is one of the major elements of cohesive devices. Ellipsis is one of the cohesion resources that creates an atmosphere of harmony.

Kumasi and a really good atmosphere.

Starting the sentence with the locative term Kumasi [kumasi] to set up a relationship between grammatical and semantic approaches. Agent-predicate deletion is shown at the beginning of the sentence by deleting the subject and the verb, leaving the prepositional phrase. However; the possible expansion المبارة تقوم في مدينة كوماسي (the match is held in Kumasi city) is understood out of the linguistic context. The commentator uses an ellipsis to be more concise. The implicit illustration of the recovered expansion denotes the illocutionary force of the speech act aspect. The indirect way between structure and function confirms the in-directiveness mode of speech act analytical Part.
As a kind of semantic relation, the commentator here uses two linguistic forms that are characterized by synonymy. Synonyms count on different degrees of describing definite qualities. استعداد واسباق [preparation and reception] are two synonymous words but by context, namely, they will not be classified as synonyms alone without context because they are not interchangeable except in certain situations. So context gives the two words the trait of synonymy, consequently, [preparedness and reception] are contextual synonyms to give the same meaning of hospitality.

This phrase reflects direct meaning, clarifying the Locutionary force of meaning. The representative function describes an underlying syntactic feature. The deletion of agent / predicate elements counts for the use of ellipsis here. The two missing elements are the subject المعلق [commentator] and verb إطلاق [released] that are situationally recovered or understood automatically, retaining the noun phrase صافرة بداية اللقاء [the whistle for the start of the meeting]. The commentator uses this syntactic feature to avoid repeating logical words.

Here is the ball that is Forward Pass
Mahmond Fathalla

Naming the player in the second phrase using the vocative proposition. As the camera shows, Mahmoud Fathalla plays a forward pass. The commentator uses in the second phrase the player's name only, leaving the verb and the object, depending on the visual context. The use of an agent /object ellipsis keeps up the fast pace of action. Being a feature of conventional play-by-play description (shortened in PPD), the commentator uses the
But intercept again the Cameroon team

Spurred by the image shown on the screen, the commentator explains the image as Moawad gets hold of the ball and passes it midfield to be cut up by the Cameroon team. This representative function denotes an illocutionary force of implicit meaning to this speech act style. The analysis of the implicit meaning relies on the analysis of the reversed structure. He delays the subject منتخب الكاميرون (the Cameroon team) after the verb يقطع [intercept] and that is due to the importance of the action itself inside the pitch rather than the name of the squad. He makes good use of inversion to focus on the action, not the player.

محاولة لتسديدة مبكرة
ولكن في يد عصام الحضرى

An attempt for an early shot
But in the hands of Assam El-Hadari

The image on the screen shows that the Cameroon squad tries to score an early shot, but the goalkeeper scotches this attempt. The Possible expansion of the second phrase is ولكن الكرة تكون في يد عصام الحضرى [but the ball is in the hands of Assam El-Hadan]. This Sample indicates agent/predicate ellipsis retaining the prepositional phrase في يد عصام الحضرى [in the hands of Assam El-Hadari]. The implicit meaning of this illocutionary force employs a strategy in the course of sports commentary, which states the rapid and brief style to cope with the hectic pace of action during the match. On account of the pragmatic approach, the use of two opposites conjunctions و لكن [and, but] illustrate the cohesion between the two structures. Despite the inconsistency in grammatical meaning
between the two discourse markers, they serve ideational functions together to link the two ideas smoothly.

Always our Egyptian team and always our Arab stars who attended

In unit 3.1, the commentator uses a distinctive aspect of lexical device. Structural metaphor is very obvious in the expression نجومنا العرب [our Arab stars]. The commentator wants to build a cohesive bond between two figures. He describes our Egyptian players as shining stars in the sky to associate the two concepts. The lexical paradigm of analysis paves the way for a pragmatic model that permits the illocutionary Force to display the representative function of this expression. The representative functional speech act phrase leads to the indirect speech act Pattern.

The commentator starts with a locutionary pattern to state a descriptive way of narrating [The ball will be with the Cameroon team], while the second part designs an illocutionary type by using ellipsis, agentless figure, and involving the audience inside his speech. To be concise and avoid redundancy, the commentator deletes the repeated subject المنتخب الكاميرونى [the Cameroon team] because it is easily understood from the context. To keep the cohesion of the context, the commentator uses the reference device حضراتكم (gentlemen) to address the audience formally. The use of an honorific form of the 2nd person pronoun حضراتكم (gentlemen) makes the viewer feel a sense of involvement. Brown and Levinson (1987:176) state that “honorifics may have the sense and reference of the non-honorific alternates”.

**English samples:**

The first English match that will be looked into is between Chelsea and Liverpool. Scheduled to begin with the speech
situation, consider the analytical aspects that refer to the situation’s general social environment. This match took place during the final FA Cup Champions League matches of the 2011-2012 season, which happened on May 5, 2012, in London’s Wembley Stadium.

Wembley Stadium serves as the location for this speech event, which is a monologic discourse by the speaker, a commentator, to viewers at home, the off-again participant. The first commentary unit has an informal and introductory tone. The addresser uses an informal and illustrative genre, while the channel of communication between the commentator and home viewers is oral. This introductory layout complies with social norms.

#1.1 Liverpool on Tuesday day night
The sports commentary style creates stylistic demands due to the quick recurrence of images displayed on the screen in response to the action’s quick tempo. Depending on the visual context, the verb(is playing) can be comprehended from the context easily. The recoverable sentence is(Liverpool is playing on Tuesday night). Using verb-less ellipsis is employed to prevent the unnecessary repetition of already understood words. On the level of lexical reading, metonymy is a rhetorical technique for explaining something by making references to objects around. the commentator substitutes the players of Liverpool For the name of the club itself. It is a professional technique used to swing between expressions and impact listeners. The stylistic and lexical devices serve a special discoursal function that donates the representative function of an illocutionary act style. The implicated meaning of the illocutionary model is illuminated by the previous commentaries’ points.

# 1.2 high up the pitch and Chelsea to build up their attack slowly
Inspired by the image on the screen, the commentator tends to praise Chelsea's performance on the pitch. color commentary is characterized by complete synthetic structures to some extent. The commentator exploits a break between sets of moves to fully describe or comment on the events. Integral and clearly stated
sentences make-up color commentary. Figuratively, metaphors are frequently employed to highlight or add color to the message you are trying to convey. The commentator has depicted what the players are going to do as a gradual accumulation of certain structures and strengthening them. Using metaphoric examples empowers any text to stand out and transfers addressees into a different realm. The analysis of any rhetorical devices eliminates the opacity of any underlying meaning. The metaphoric example plays an illocutionary force that displays a representative role to enthusiastically describe the performance.

#1.3 Ashley Cole
As seen by the camera, Ashley Cole is about to pass the ball between players. When the flow of commentary is suspended due to a foreseeable goal kick, the commentator recounts the activity without the action verb that is provided visually. Since this form of wording seems more professional, the deletion of supplied verbs appears to be a defining property of the PPD style. The commentator’s participation is generally kept to a minimum and is made as swiftly as possible by employing the player’s name as a separate commentary unit without the rest of the sentence items. The implied meaning that disappears behind just the proper name accounts for the illocutionary force pattern. This commentary unit achieves a representative function of the illocutionary type as a kind of description or illustration.

# 1.4 •When Ashley Cole goes forward and then Liverpool breaks quickly
   • Mata for Ramirez gets away from Jose Enrique, first chance Chelsea’s
   • the first goal is Chelsea’s and Ramirez

The commentator's technique of reporting during the match makes the viewers curious about the performance and creates the question of whether Chelsea’s players can score the goal. Finally,
Ramirez was lucky to score the first calming goal. Considering that the figurative image in (Liverpool break quickly) is paving the way to the first impressive and spectacular action. The commentator innovates a new metaphorical expression by comparing Liverpool to broken glass. In tandem with the metaphoric one, the metonymic expression helps to create a new figurative conceptual picture. He means the Liverpool team, not its entity literally. The illocutionary act model is made clearer by the indicative mood. The case of the implicit meaning clarifies the expression’s representative functions as a type of attributive item.

Sports commentary requires stylistic demand on account of the quick succession of images that are displayed as a direct result of the action’s quick tempo. When actions are presented visually, commentators frequently refer to the agentive case without the action by employing a verbless structure. The following is an expansion of the elliptical form ( Mata passes the ball to Ramirez). Verb and object are contextually recovered. The descriptive style is included under the representative function of the illocutionary act force in this unit.

The commentator adopts a high pitch because of how excited and enthusiastic everyone was after the first goal. Due to the enthusiasm and joy of what Ramirez had created inside the pitch, the commentator again utilizes an elliptical form to develop the accumulative conceptual structure that, in turn, deletes the action and object. The recoverable expansion could be ( Ramirez who scored the first goal). Modeled on the pragmatic approach, the illustration of the elliptical form ( and Ramirez) is based on the representative function of the illocutionary act style.

#1.5 well that is what he is been doing so well, Ramirez talked about it before.

   go into the far corner and he hits it hard.

As long as the play is in progress, commentators frequently refrain from referring to the ball as it should be on the field. It is a...
6. Conclusion:
The significance of sports in society, as well as the widespread love of sports and the extensive media coverage of them, are the driving forces behind the current study. Orality and monologicity are two of the primary characteristics of televised sports commentary. The present study's three basic pillars are lexical, syntactical, and mainly pragmatical functions. The English and Arabic corpora were gathered from online commentary videos by professional adult male commentators who are native speakers of the various languages utilized in the commentary.

By deleting the contextually supplied elements through the use of linguistic devices like ellipsis or agentless passive, commentators often avoid referring to what is clear in the immediate context, i.e., what is easily delivered from the visual context or what is comprehended from the linguistic context. Commentators frequently adopt abbreviated or varied approaches to adapt to fast-paced action and minimize repetition. The interaction between spontaneous and non-spontaneous speech patterns can be seen in sports commentary. The majority of the chosen linguistic elements, including ellipsis, passive voice, inversion, synonymy, metaphor, collocations, and repetitions, are discovered to be more salient in PPD than other styles. In contrast to the PPD commentary style, which primarily
focuses on the underlying structures of illocutionary act models, the color commentary (shorten in CC ) style is characterized by complete syntactical structures with a clear notion that expresses most locutionary act force.

The current work comes to the conclusion that the language of football commentary is a register with unique characteristics that set it apart from other types of utterance. The semantic approaches of football commentary language give it a special register trait. Arabic samples provide stronger evidence of the use of illocutionary speech act models. They are distinguished by short and brief sentences with numerous lexical and syntactical elements that figuratively express the message.

Through the analysis of Arabic corpora, the study discovers a variety of innovative words and new expressions to paint an image by using rhetorical devices. Arabic commentaries are more interesting and enjoyable because they use new vocabularies, structures, and rhetorical patterns that draw the listeners in and keep them engaged. All Arab commentators have their own distinct vocabularies, expressions, unique structures, and linguistic ingenuity when describing the scene.

Comparatively speaking, the majority of English samples show full sentence structures and little use of figurative language. Most often, the locutionary act force is stated by the examined units. A direct relationship between form and function is expressed in most English samples. The English commentary, however, leans more towards the reporting style than the interactive case. The use of full sentences without adding innovative structures or formulas gives the script a more narrative feel. The English commentators do not offer any unique methods or strategies because they just provide a conventional explanation of the image.
References

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The Language of Football Commentaries in British English and Egyptian Arabic: A Contrastive Study